

# Allocating Memory at Runtime

## Dynamic Memory Allocation

Up until now, all memory allocation has been *static* or *automatic*

- The programmer (you) didn't have to worry about finding available memory; the compiler did it for you.
- You also didn't have to worry about releasing the memory when you were finished with it; it happened automatically.
- Static memory allocation is easy and effortless, but it has limitations.
- Dynamic memory allocation is under complete control of the programmer.
- This means that you will be responsible for allocating and de-allocating memory.
- Failing to understand how to manage the memory yourself will lead to programs that behave badly (crash).

The two primary functions required for dynamic memory management are *malloc* and *free*.

```
void *malloc( size_t size ); /* Allocate a block of memory */
void free( void *pointer ); /* Deallocate a block of memory */
```

To use `malloc` and `free`:

```
#include <stdlib.h> /* malloc, free */
```

The argument to *malloc* is the number of bytes to allocate:

```
char *pc = malloc(10); /* allocate memory for 10 chars */
int *pi = malloc(40); /* allocate memory for 10 ints */
```

**10 chars (10 bytes)    10 ints (40 bytes)**

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Notice that there is no type information associated with `malloc`, so the return from `malloc` may need to be cast to the correct type:

```
/* Casting the return from malloc to the proper type */
char *pc = (char *) malloc(10); /* allocate memory for 10 chars */
int *pi = (int *) malloc(40); /* allocate memory for 10 ints */
```

You should never hard-code the size of the data types, since they may change. Do this instead:

```
/* Proper memory allocation for 10 chars */
char *pc = (char *) malloc(10 * sizeof(char));

/* Proper memory allocation for 10 ints */
int *pi = (int *) malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
```

If the allocation fails, `NULL` is returned so you should check the pointer after calling *malloc*.

```
/* Allocate some memory for a string */
char *pc = (char *) malloc(10 * sizeof(char));

/* If the memory allocation was successful */
if (pc != NULL)
{
    strcpy(pc, "Digipen"); /* Copy some text into the memory */
    printf("%s\n", pc); /* Print out the text */
    free(pc); /* Release the memory */
}
else
    printf("Memory allocation failed!\n");
```

**After allocation    After strcpy**

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Notes:

- The memory allocated by `malloc` is uninitialized (random values).
- You need to initialize the memory yourself.
- If you want all of the memory to be set to zeros, you can use the `calloc` function instead:

```
void *calloc( size_t num, size_t size ); /* Allocates memory and sets all bytes to 0 */
```

- Notice that `calloc` has two parameters: 1) the number of elements and 2) the size of each element.

```
/* Allocate and initialize 10 chars to 0 */
char *pc = (char *) calloc(10, sizeof(char));
```

After calling `calloc`:

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- `malloc` and `calloc` are essentially the same, but, for obvious reasons, `malloc` is faster.
- If you are going to set the values of the memory yourself **DO NOT** use `calloc`. (It's an unnecessary waste of time.)

Examples:

#### Common usage

```
int main(void)
{
    int SIZE = 10;
    int *pi;

    /* allocate memory */
    pi = (int *)malloc(SIZE * sizeof(int));

    /* check for valid pointer */
    if (!pi)
    {
        printf("Failed to allocate memory.\n");
        return -1;
    }

    /* do stuff */

    /* free memory */
    free(pi);

    return 0;
}
```

#### Set and check in one statement

```
int main(void)
{
    int SIZE = 1000 * 1000 * 1000; /* 1 billion */
    int *pi;

    /* allocate and check memory */
    if ((pi = (int *)malloc(SIZE * sizeof(int))) == NULL)
    {
        printf("Failed to allocate memory.\n");
        return -1;
    }

    /* do stuff */

    /* free memory */
    free(pi);

    return 0;
}
```

Accessing the allocated block:

```
void test_malloc(void)
{
    int SIZE = 10;
    int i, *pi;

    /* allocate memory */
    if ((pi = (int *)malloc(SIZE * sizeof(int))) == NULL)
    {
        printf("Failed to allocate memory.\n");
        return;
    }

    /* using pointer notation */
    for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)
        *(pi + i) = i;

    /* using subscripting */
    for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)
        pi[i] = i;

    for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)
        printf("%i \n", *(pi + i));

    /* free memory */
    free(pi);
}
```

By now it should be clear why we learned that pointers can be used to access array elements. With dynamic memory allocation, there are no *named* arrays, just pointers to contiguous (array-like) memory and pointers *must* be used.

Dynamically Allocated Structures

Revisiting our `FILEINFO` example:

```
#define MAX_PATH 12

struct DATE
{
    int month;
    int day;
    int year;
};

struct TIME
{
    int hours;
    int minutes;
    int seconds;
};

struct DATETIME
{
    struct DATE date;
    struct TIME time;
};

struct FILEINFO
{
    int length;
    char name[MAX_PATH];
    struct DATETIME dt;
};
```

Function to print a single `FILEINFO` structure:

```
void PrintFileInfo(const struct FILEINFO *fi)
{
    printf("Name: %s\n", fi->name);
    printf("Size: %i\n", fi->length);
    printf("Time: %2i:%02i:%02i\n", fi->dt.time.hours, fi->dt.time.minutes, fi->dt.time.seconds);
    printf("Date: %i/%i/%i\n", fi->dt.date.month, fi->dt.date.day, fi->dt.date.year);
}
```

Dynamically allocate a `FILEINFO` structure and print it:

```

void fl4(void)
{
    /* Pointer to a FILEINFO struct (The 1 is redundant but instructive) */
    struct FILEINFO *pfi = (struct FILEINFO *)malloc(1 * sizeof(struct FILEINFO));

    /* Check that the allocation succeeded */
    /* Set the fields of the struct .... */

    PrintFileInfo(pfi); /* Print the fields */
    free(pfi);          /* Free the memory */
}

```

View of memory after allocation:

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Function to print an array of FILEINFO structures:

```

void PrintFileInfos(const struct FILEINFO *records, int count)
{
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < count; i++)
        PrintFileInfo(records++);
}

```

Remember, for function parameters, we could have written the function like this:

```

/* Use array notation instead of pointer notation */
void PrintFileInfos(const struct FILEINFO records[], int count)
{
    . . .
}

```

```
#include <assert.h> /* assert */
```

```
#define SIZE 10
#define MAX_PATH 12
```

```
void TestHeapStruct(void)
```

```

{
    int i;
    struct FILEINFO *pfi;
    struct FILEINFO *saved;

    /* Allocate and initialize all fields of all structs to 0 */
    pfi = (struct FILEINFO *)calloc(SIZE, sizeof(struct FILEINFO));

    assert(pfi != NULL); /* Check that it was successful */
    saved = pfi;          /* Save pointer for later... */

    /* Set the date and name of each structure */
    for (i = 0; i < SIZE; i++)
    {
        char name[MAX_PATH];

        /* Format dates from 12/1/2019 through 12/10/2019 */
        pfi->dt.date.month = 12;
        pfi->dt.date.day = i + 1;
        pfi->dt.date.year = 2019;

        /* Format and store the filenames (foo-1.txt through foo-10.txt) */
        sprintf(name, "foo-%i.txt", i + 1);
        strcpy(pfi->name, name);

        /* Point to next FILEINFO struct in the array */
        pfi++;
    }

    /* Reset pointer to beginning */
    pfi = saved;

    /* Print info */
    PrintFileInfos(pfi, SIZE);

    /* Release the memory */
    free(pfi);
}

```

**Output:**

```

Name: foo-1.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/1/2019
Name: foo-2.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/2/2019
Name: foo-3.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/3/2019
Name: foo-4.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/4/2019
Name: foo-5.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/5/2019
Name: foo-6.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/6/2019
Name: foo-7.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/7/2019
Name: foo-8.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/8/2019
Name: foo-9.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/9/2019
Name: foo-10.txt
Size: 0
Time: 0:00:00
Date: 12/10/2019

```

Note: do review pointer arithmetic.

Note:

- In the code above, we didn't have to reset the pointer. We could have just used the *saved* pointer:

```

/* Print info */
PrintFileInfos(saved, SIZE);

/* Release the memory */
free(saved);

```

This is simply because *saved* has the same value that *pfi* had originally.

- Also, failure to save the original value of *pfi* could pose a serious problem. You may have no way to get back to the original address so that you can free the memory.

## Summary

### Summary for `malloc`

- The most common uses for dynamic memory allocation are arrays and structures. You will rarely allocate a single `int`, `char`, `double` dynamically, but you can, of course.
- Using memory allocated by `malloc` is no different than using memory allocated (statically) by the compiler.
- Like static allocation of arrays, there are no range checks on the subscripts, so the programmer has to be careful.
- If you try to access memory outside the block that you allocated, the behavior of your program is undefined.

### Summary for `free`

- Forgetting to call `free` will result in a *memory leak*, which can lead to your program running out of memory. Memory leaks are **very, very bad**.
  - Calling `free` twice on a pointer renders your entire program undefined. It may cause the program to crash or it may not. But the results of the running program will now be undefined (random).
  - Calling `free` on a pointer not pointing to the beginning of memory allocated by `malloc` will also render your entire program undefined. In other words, the address you pass to `free` **MUST** be an address that you was returned by `malloc` (or `calloc`).
  - If you allocate memory dynamically, you must call `free` on it at some point.
  - Don't access memory after it has been freed as strange problems may occur.
  - There are many other problems associated with dynamically allocated memory that you will discover in the coming semesters.
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