

# The Heap and Structs

## CSE 333 Summer 2020

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# About how long did Exercise 2 take?

- A. 0-1 Hours
- B. 1-2 Hours
- C. 2-3 Hours
- D. 3-4 Hours
- E. 4+ Hours
- F. I didn't submit / I prefer not to say

# Administrivia

- ❖ ex0 grades released, ex3 released today
  - Regrade requests: open 24 hr after, close 72 hr after release
- ❖ We recommend doing the extra exercises
  - Also, can Google for “C pointer exercises”
  - You MUST master pointers quickly, or you’ll have trouble with the rest of the course (including hw1)
- ❖ hw0 due tonight *before* 11:59 pm (and 0 seconds)
  - Git: add/commit/push, then tag with `hw0-final`, then push tag
    - Then clone your repo somewhere totally different and do `git checkout hw0-final` and verify that all is well

# Yet More Administrivia (sorry)

- ❖ Exercise grading – Gradescope abuse
  - Grading score is an overall evaluation: 3/2/1/0
  - Then additional  $\pm 0$  rubric items as needed
    - These are a quick way of communicating “why” – reasons for deductions or comments about your solution
    - Allows us to be more consistent in feedback
    - The -0 “score” is just because that’s how we have to use Gradescope to handle feedback notes – it does not contribute to “the points”

# Administrivia

- ❖ hw1 due Thursday, 7/09 11:59 pm
  - You **may not** modify interfaces ( `.h` files)
  - But **do** read the interfaces while you're implementing them(!)
  - **New this quarter**: short answer questions in README.md
  - Suggestions:
    - Make sure you understand the diagrams in the specification and draw box and arrow diagrams!
    - If you are stuck, take a break. When you come back, **scrutinize** your code.
    - Have more fun, less anxiety: pace yourself and make steady progress; don't leave it until the last minute!
    - Look at `example_program_{ll|ht}.c` for typical usage of lists and hash tables

# Administrivia

## ❖ Gitlab repo usage

- Commit things regularly
  - Newly completed units of work / milestones / project parts
  - End-of-day when wrapping up on one computer so you can later pull changes to a different machine
  - And: for this remote quarter, before “visiting” office hours to make it easier for you and TA to browse code
  - etc.
- Provides backup: protection against lost files and ability to go back in time to retrieve old versions before they got messed up 😊
- There shouldn't be one massive commit the day hw is due
- But: use it properly
  - Don't push .o and executable files or other build products
    - Clutter, makes it harder to do clean rebuilds, not portable, etc.
  - Don't use git as a file transfer program (don't edit on one machine, commit/push/pull to another, compile, and repeat every few minutes)

# Discussion Board Tips

- ❖ When you post a new message or question, try to drop it into the correct category and use a descriptive title
  - Help others discover or find previous posts related to their questions!
- ❖ Consider whether your question/post really should be private.
  - If others students can benefit from it, you may want to make the post public (but can still be anonymous)
  - Logistical problems specific to you are probably better for private posts.

# Lecture Outline

## ❖ Heap-allocated Memory

- `malloc()` 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 0;
}
```

- counter is **statically**-allocated
  - Allocated when program is loaded
  - Deallocated when program exits

```
int foo(int a) {
    int x = a + 1;    // local var
    return x;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int y = foo(10);  // local var
    printf("y = %d\n", y);
    return 0;
}
```

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

# 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

# Why Dynamic Allocation?

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

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

# 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
  - It's better to cause a segfault than to allow the corruption of memory!

segfault.c

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int* p = NULL;  
    *p = 1;    // causes a segmentation fault  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```



# malloc()

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

❖ **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! **// Check this!**
- 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) {
    return errcode;
}
...    // do stuff with arr
```

# 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 (but don't use it to mask bugs – fix those)
- Slightly slower; but useful for non-performance-critical code or if you really are planning to zero out the new block of memory
- **malloc** and **calloc** are found in `stdlib.h`

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



# 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
- `free(NULL);` does nothing.
- The bits in the pointer are *not changed* by calling free
- Defensive programming: can set pointer to NULL after freeing it

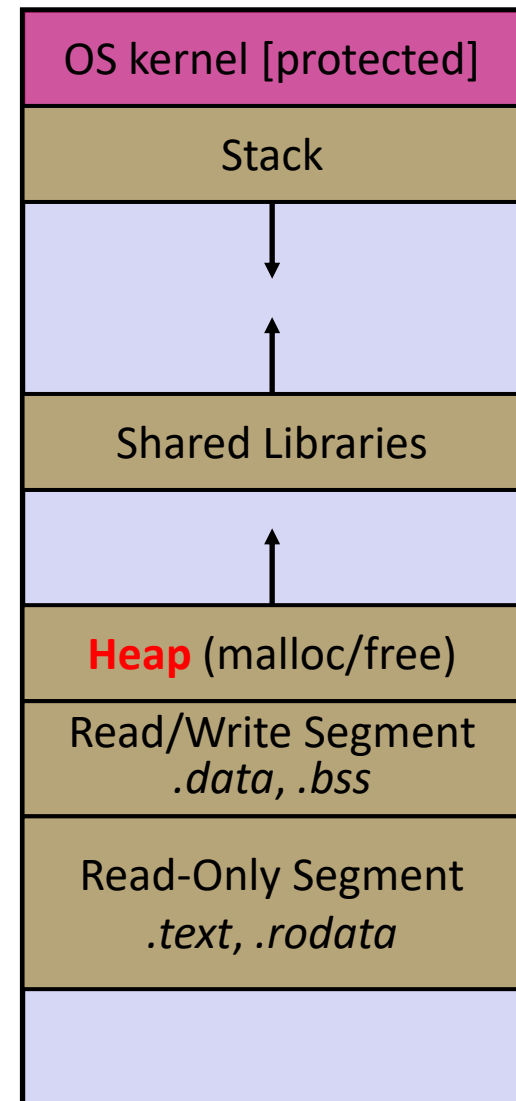
```
float* arr = (float*) malloc(10*sizeof(float));  
if (arr == NULL)  
    return errcode;  
...           // do stuff with arr  
free(arr);  
arr = NULL;   // OPTIONAL
```

# 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
    - Lab 5 from 351!

0xFF...FF

0x00...00





# Heap and Stack Example

Note: Arrow points  
to *next* instruction.

## arraycopy.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>

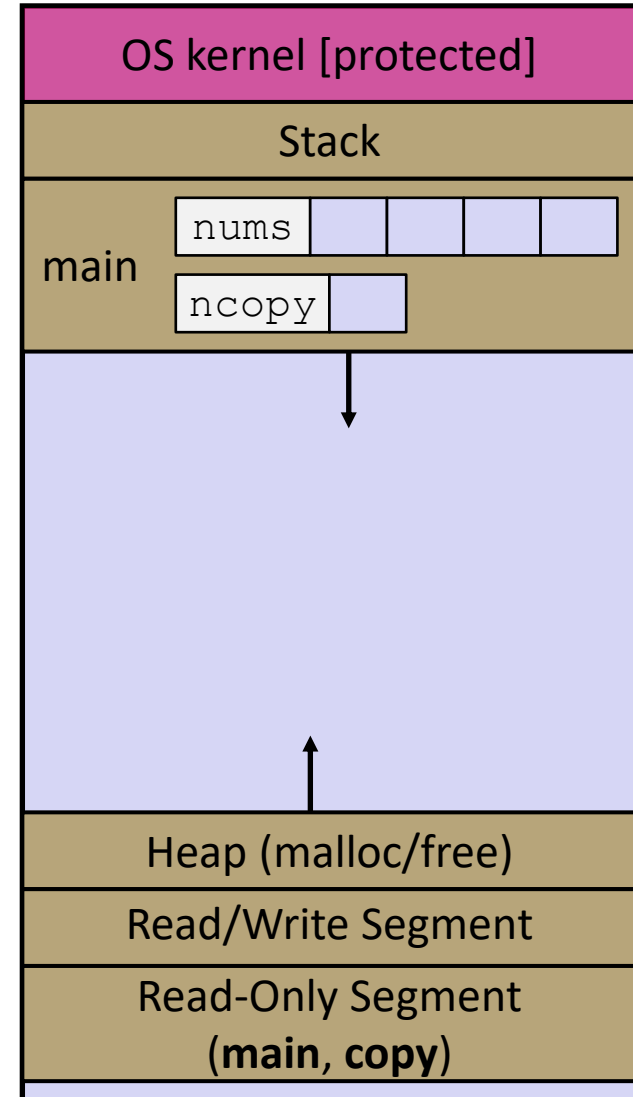
int* copy(int a[], int size) {
    int i, *a2;

    a2 = 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;
}
```



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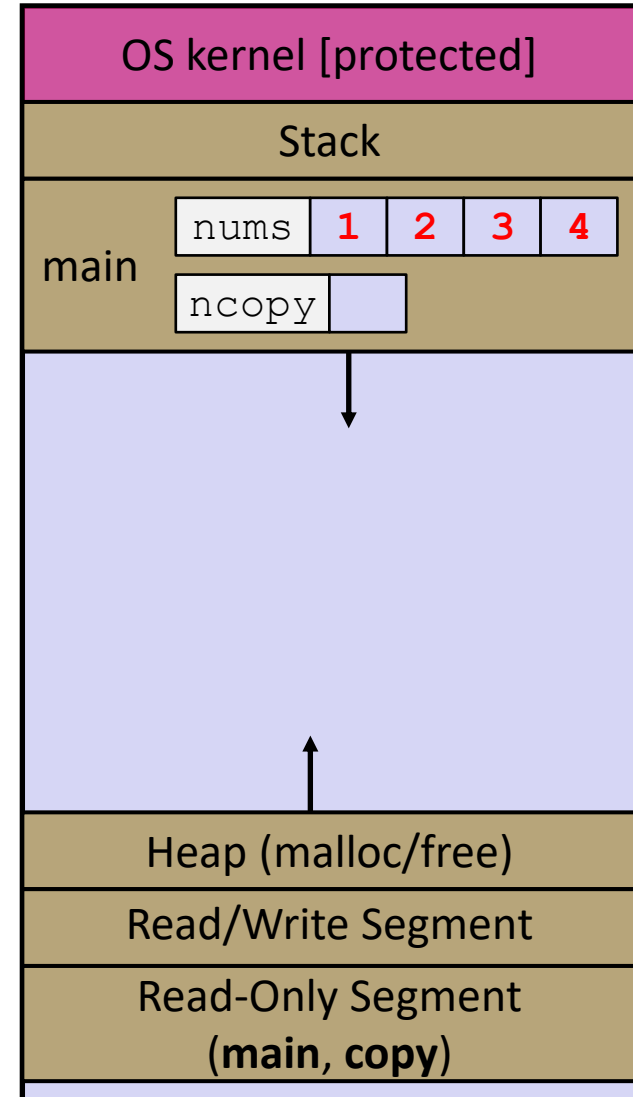
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        a2[i] = a[i];

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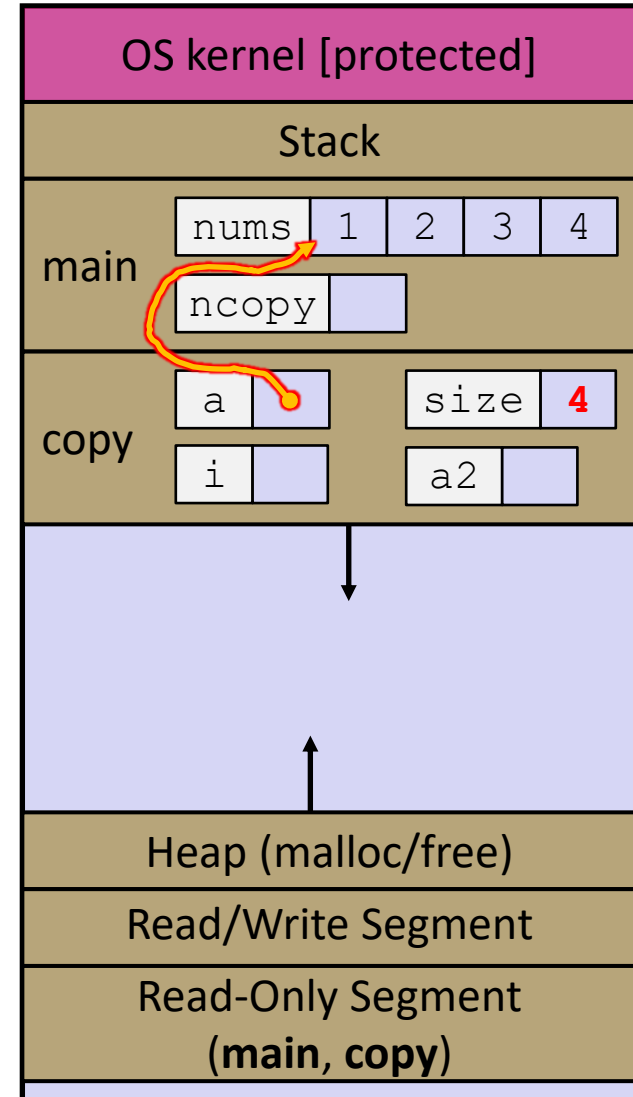
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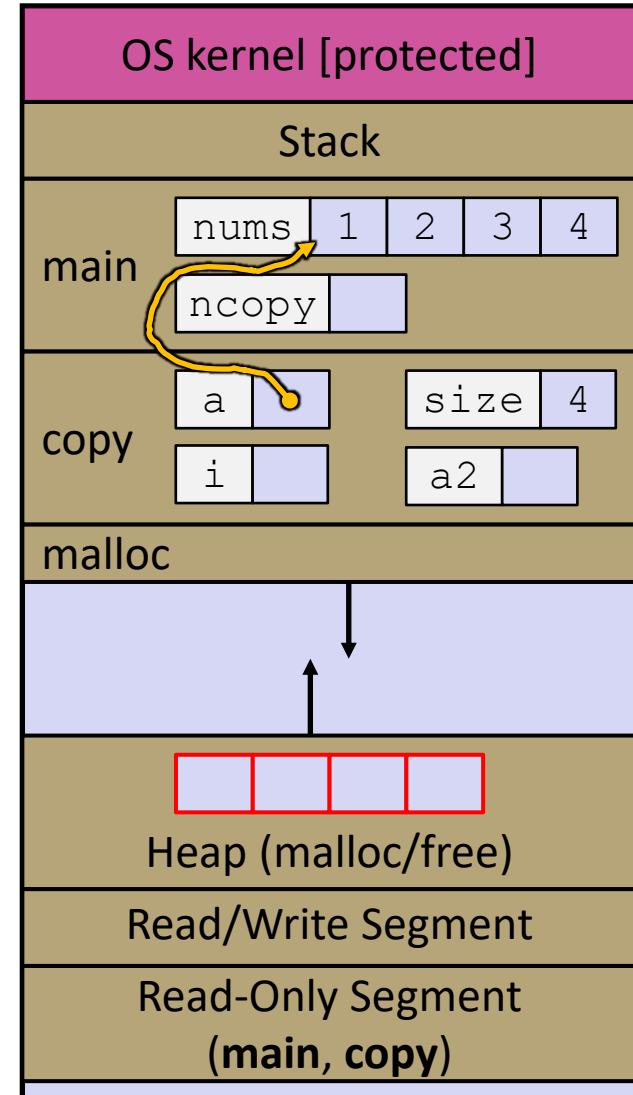
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    int i, *a2;

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    return a2;
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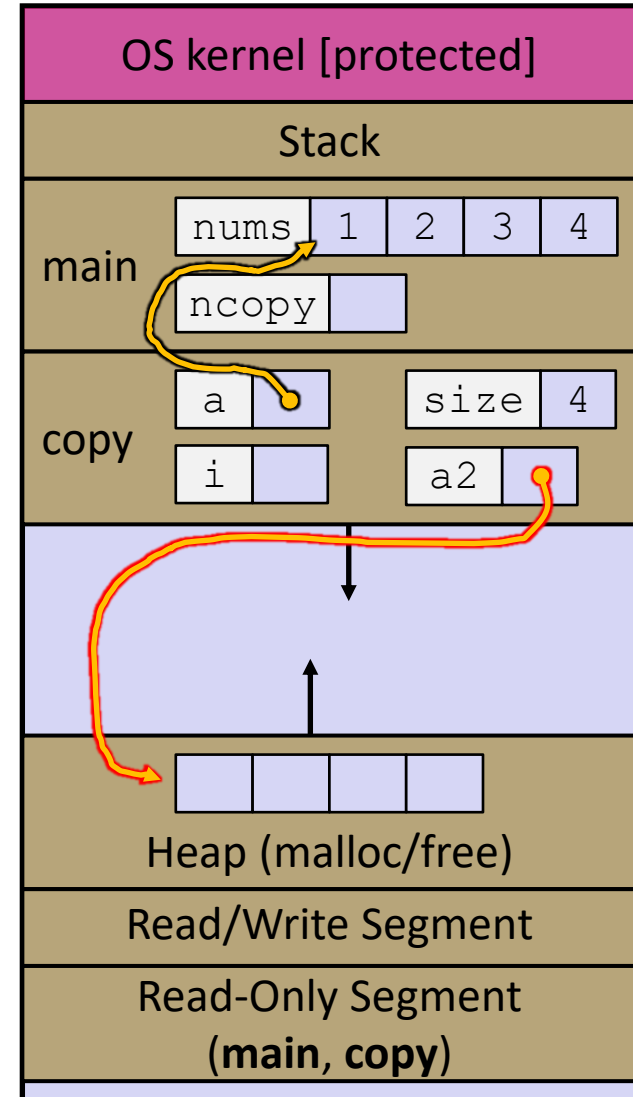
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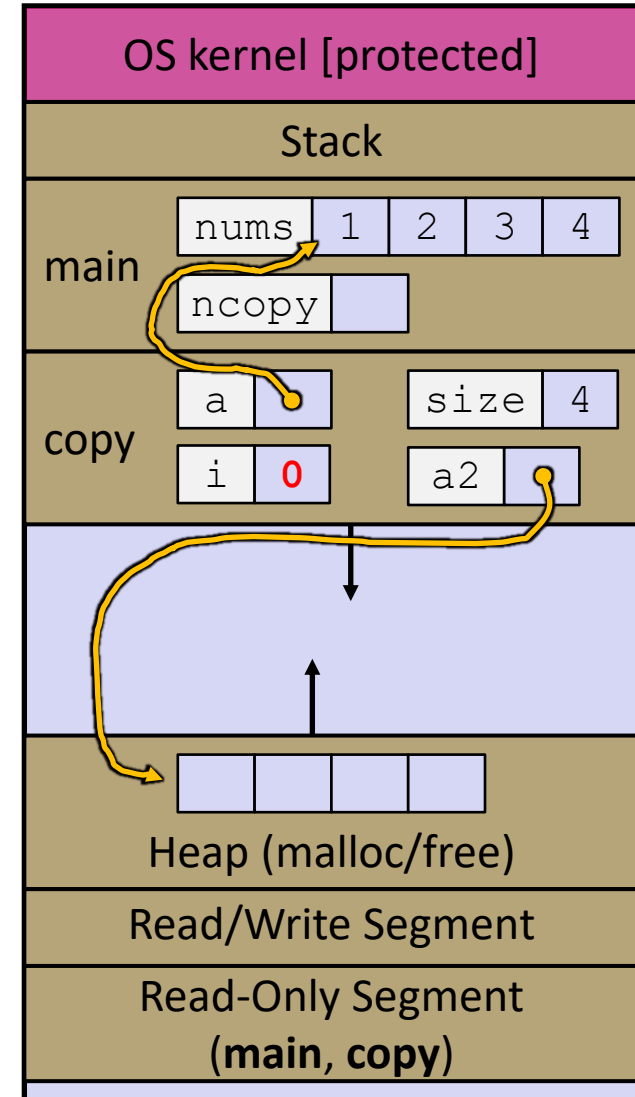
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    int i, *a2;

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

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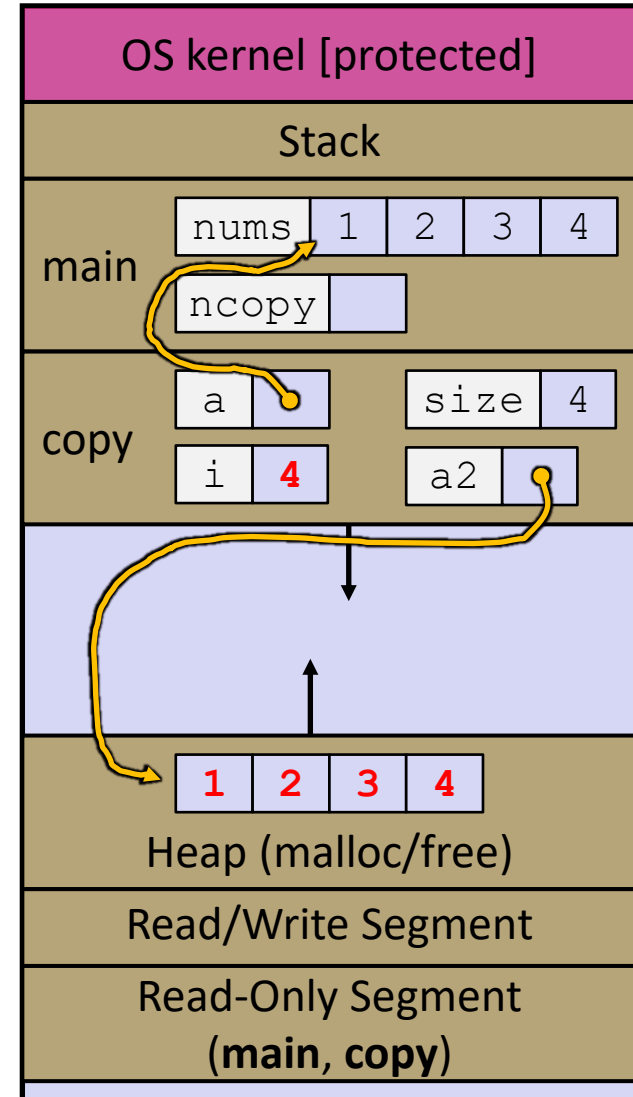
int* copy(int a[], int size) {
    int i, *a2;

    a2 = malloc(size*sizeof(int));
    if (a2 == NULL)
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    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        a2[i] = a[i];

    return a2;
}

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    int nums[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
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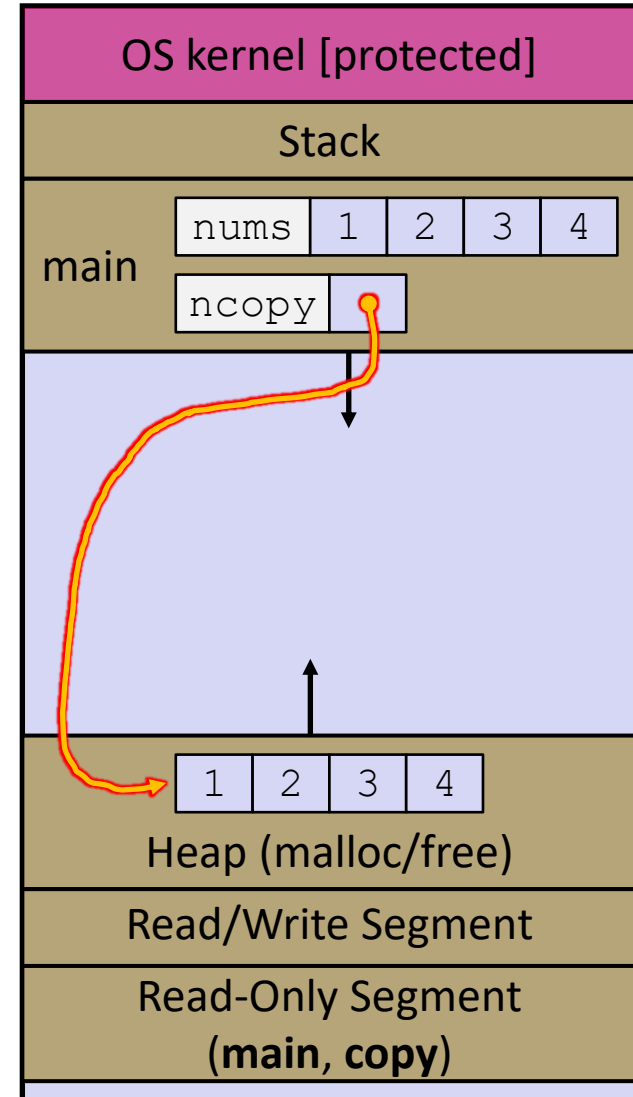
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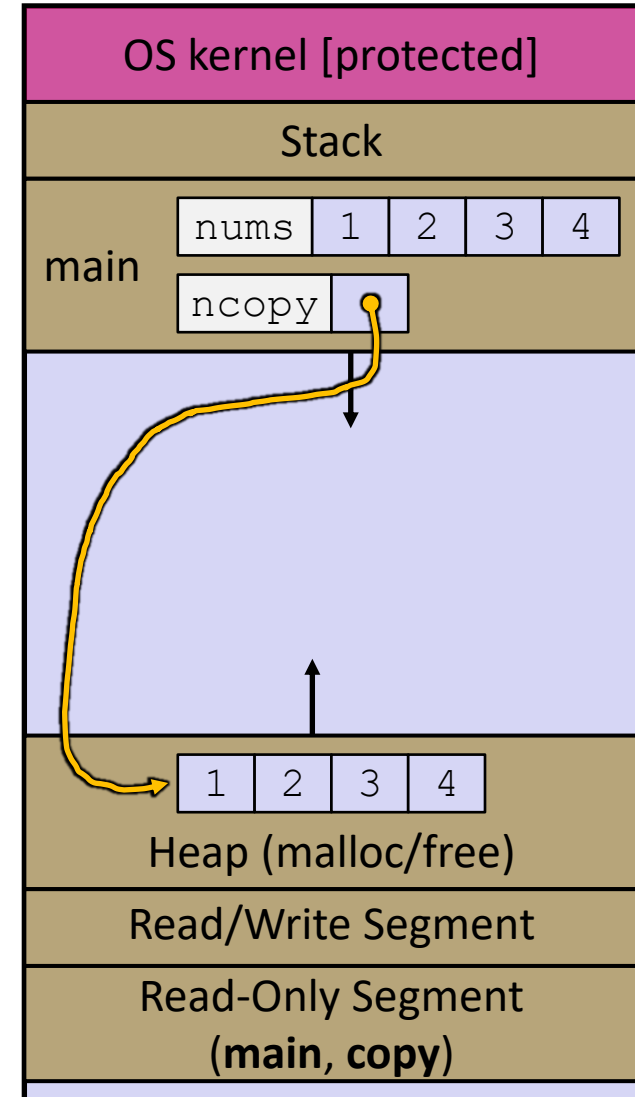
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    int i, *a2;

    a2 = malloc(size*sizeof(int));
    if (a2 == NULL)
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    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        a2[i] = a[i];

    return a2;
}

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    int nums[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
    int* ncopy = copy(nums, 4);
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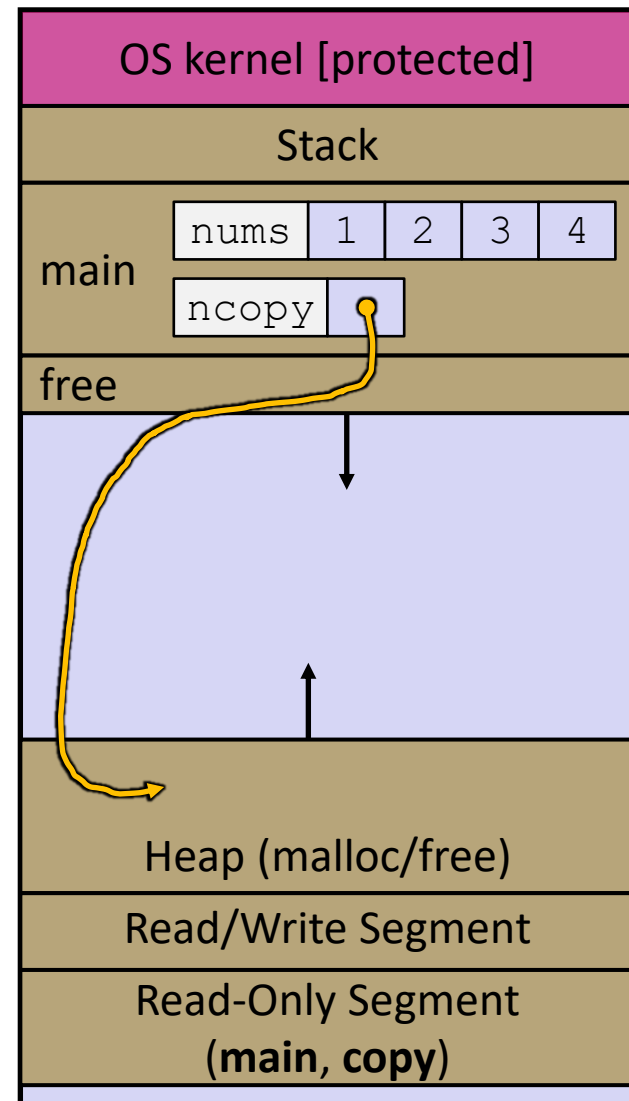
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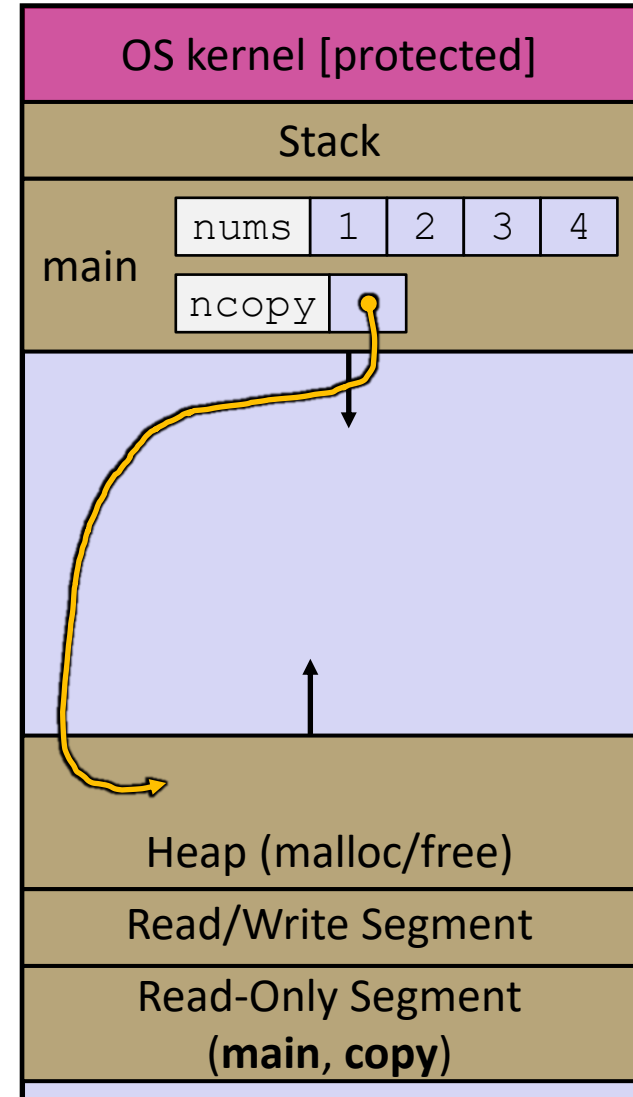
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int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int nums[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
    int* ncopy = copy(nums, 4);
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```



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❖ Which line below is first *guaranteed* to cause an error?

- A. Line 1
- B. Line 4
- C. Line 6
- D. Line 7
- E. We're lost...

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

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

1   a[2] = 5;
2   b[0] += 2;
3   c = b+3;
4   free(&(a[0]));
5   free(b);
6   free(b);
7   b[0] = 5;

    return 0;
}
```

# Memory Corruption

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

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

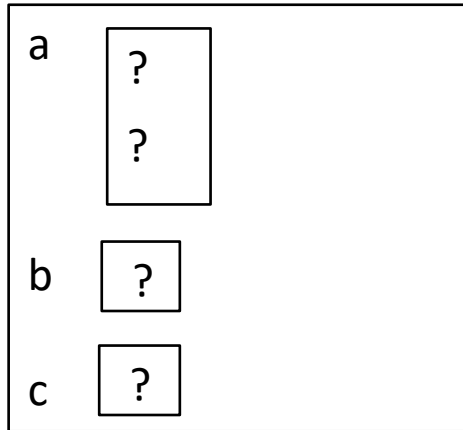
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int a[2];
    int* b = malloc(2*sizeof(int));
    int* c;

    a[2] = 5;    // assigns past the end of an array
    b[0] += 2;   // assumes malloc zeros out memory
    c = b+3;     // Ok, but if we use c, problem
    free(&(a[0])); // free something not malloc'ed
    free(b);
    free(b);    // double-free the same block
    b[0] = 5;   // use a freed (dangling) pointer

    // any many more!
    return 0;
}
```

# Memory Corruption - What Happens?

stack:    main



heap:

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

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int a[2];
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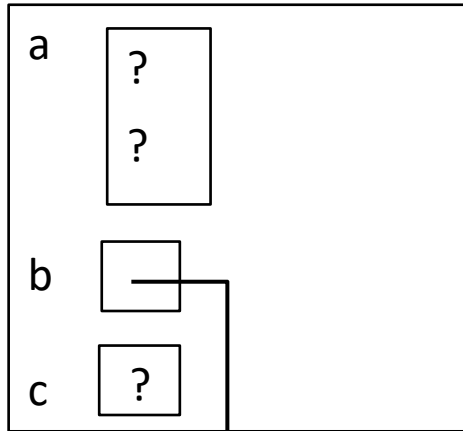
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    return 0;
}
```

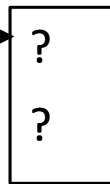
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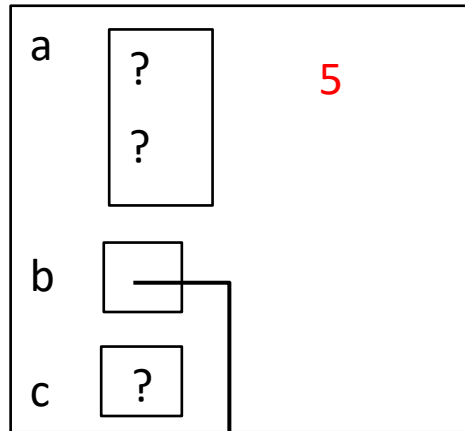
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    // any many more!
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}
```

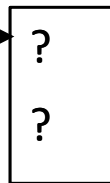
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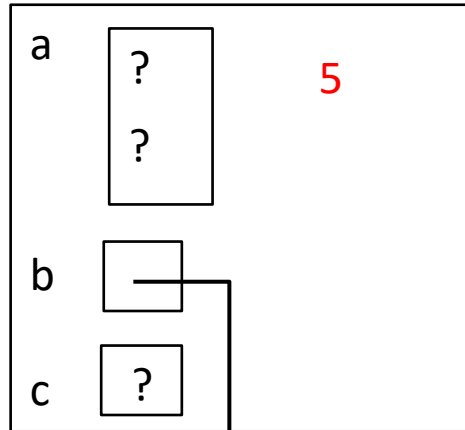
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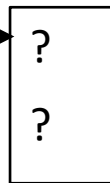


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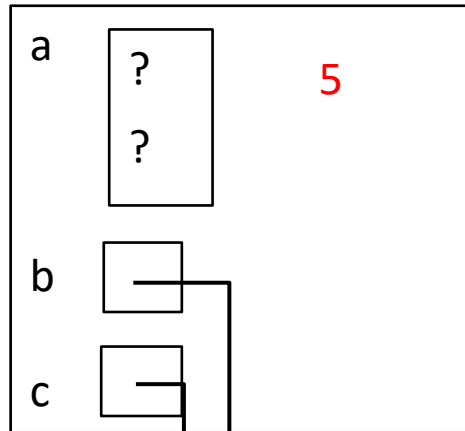
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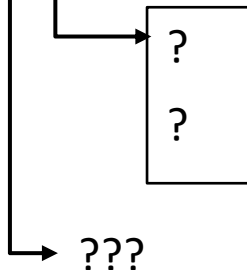
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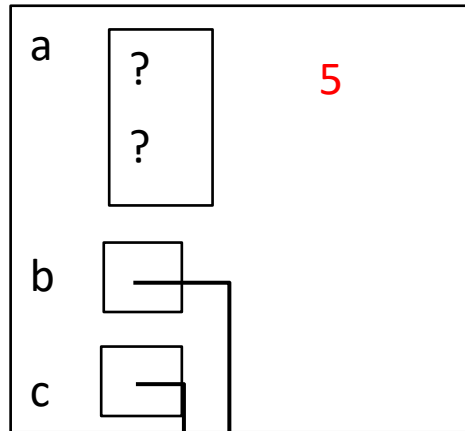
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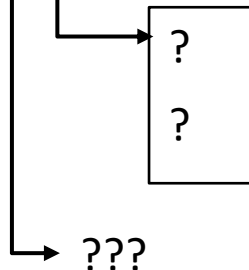
# Memory Corruption - What Happens?

stack:    main



Crash!

heap:



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

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

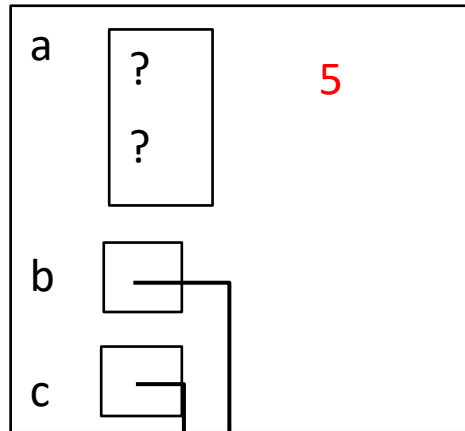
    a[2] = 5;    // assigns past the end of an array
    b[0] += 2;   // assumes malloc zeros out memory
    c = b+3;     // Ok, but if we use c, problem
    free(&(a[0])); // free something not malloc'ed
    free(b);     // double-free the same block
    b[0] = 5;    // use a freed (dangling) pointer

    // any many more!
    return 0;
}
```

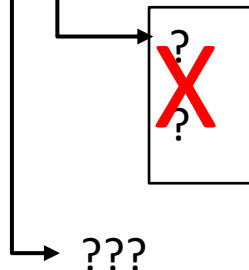
Note: Arrow points  
to *next* instruction.

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heap:



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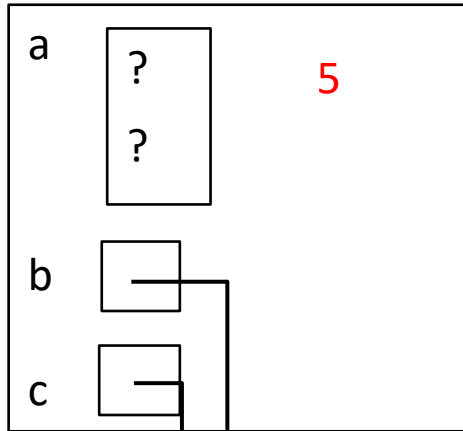
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```

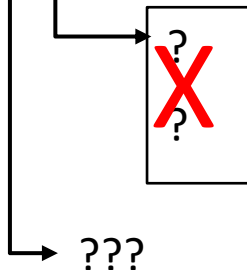
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# Memory Corruption - What Happens?

stack:    main



heap:



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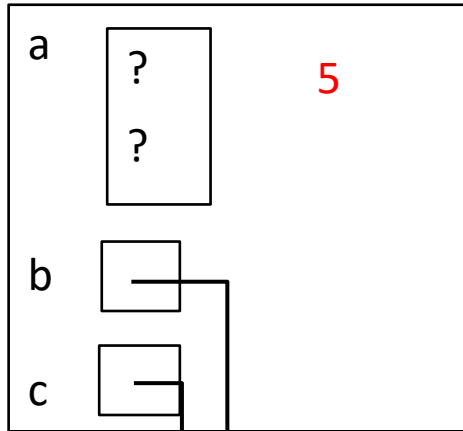
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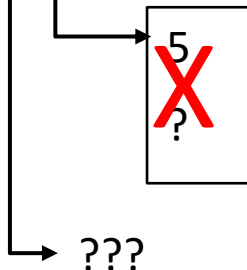
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# Memory Corruption - What Happens?

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    // any many more!
    return 0;
}
```

Note: Arrow points  
to *next* instruction.

# 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

# Lecture Outline

- ❖ Heap-allocated Memory
  - `malloc()` and `free()`
  - Memory leaks
- ❖ **structs 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
  - Act similarly to primitive variables
  - A struct *tagname* is a *tag*; not a full first-class type name

- ❖ 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};
```

# Using structs

- ❖ 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;  
}
```

simplestruct.c

# Copy by Assignment

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

```
#include <stdio.h>

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;
}
```

structassign.c

# 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};
```

# Dynamically-allocated Structs

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

```
// a complex number is a + bi
typedef struct complex_st {
    double real;    // real component
    double imag;    // imaginary component
} Complex, *ComplexPtr;

// note that ComplexPtr is equivalent to Complex*
ComplexPtr AllocComplex(double real, double imag) {
    Complex* retval = (Complex*) malloc(sizeof(Complex));
    if (retval != NULL) {
        retval->real = real;
        retval->imag = imag;
    }
    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: ( 1, 1 )
    return 0;
}
```

# Returning Structs

- ❖ Exact method of return depends on calling conventions
  - Often in `%rax` and `%rdx` for small structs
  - Often returned in memory for larger structs

```
// a complex number is a + bi
typedef struct complex_st {
    double real;    // real component
    double imag;    // imaginary component
} Complex, *ComplexPtr;

Complex MultiplyComplex(Complex x, Complex y) {
    Complex retval;

    retval.real = (x.real * y.real) - (x.imag * y.imag);
    retval.imag = (x.imag * y.real) - (x.real * y.imag);
    return retval; // returns a copy of retval
}
```

complexstruct.c

# 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 (like `struct complex_st`), passing a copy of the struct can be faster and often preferred if function only reads data; for large structs use pointers



# Extra Exercise #1

- ❖ 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`

## Extra Exercise #2

- ❖ Implement `AllocSet()` and `FreeSet()`
  - `AllocSet()` needs to use `malloc` twice: once to allocate a new `ComplexSet` and once to allocate the “points” field inside it
  - `FreeSet()` needs to use `free` twice

```
typedef struct complex_st {  
    double real;      // real component  
    double imag;      // imaginary component  
} Complex;  
  
typedef struct complex_set_st {  
    double    num_points_in_set;  
    Complex* points;    // an array of Complex  
} ComplexSet;  
  
ComplexSet* AllocSet(Complex c_arr[], int size);  
void FreeSet(ComplexSet* set);
```