

Dynamic Memory

### Prof. Michele Loreti

**Laboratorio di Sistemi Operativi** Corso di Laurea in Informatica (L31) Scuola di Scienze e Tecnologie

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#### Constant data area:

- stores strings and constants and data whose values are known at compile time;
- is read only, the result of trying to modify it are undefined.



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- can be modified.



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Constant and static-extent data area are managed by the compiler, are allocated when program begins and destroyed when it terminates.

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- is used to store local variables (the ones with automatic extent);
- is allocated at the point a variable is defined and released when it goes out-of-scope;
- follows a LIFO policy:
  - when variables are defined they are pushed onto the stack;
  - at the end of a block, all the variables that go out-of-scope are popped off the stack.

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# WARNING!

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Function free allows to release memory that has been allocated with malloc.



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int *p = malloc( 10 * sizeof( int ) );
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To release the memory allocated above, function free is used: free( p );



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- size is the size of each copy.



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While malloc allocates an area of memory and fills it with unspecified values, calloc guarantees that all the items in the allocated area are set to 0:

- n is the number of copies to allocate;
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```
int *p = calloc(10, sizeof(int));
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Function  $_{\mbox{realloc}}$  is used change the size of an existing block of dynamically allocated memory:

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If  $\mbox{ realloc}$  () is passed a size request of 0, then the memory pointed to by  $\mbox{p}$  is released, and  $\mbox{ realloc}$  () returns NULL.

## Memory Allocation Functions: Example



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#### Solution:

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    return strcpy(p, s);
}
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#### This solution is not correct! The result of malloc may be null!

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## Memory Allocation Functions: Example

#### Solution 2:

```
char *string duplicate(char *s)
{
    char *p = malloc(strlen(s) + 1);
    if (p != NULL) {
        strcpy(p,s);
    }
    return p;
}
```

Memory Allocation Functions: Example



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**Warning:** To avoid memory-leak, the calling function has the responsibility to free the allocated memory!

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    }
    return p;
}
```

**Warning:** To avoid memory-leak, the calling function has the responsibility to free the allocated memory!

```
char *s;
s = string_duplicate("this is a string");
...
free(s);
```





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Dereferencing a NULL pointer:

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



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free(p);
... //No new allocation of p!
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Failing to free dynamically allocated memory.

Attempting to access memory beyond the bounds of the allocated block.

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# Good practices



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### Good practices



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If the above rule are used, many of the common errors are avoided with a NULL-check!



#### To be continued...

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## Structures and Unions

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A structure is declared using the keyword struct, and the internal organisation of the structure is defined by a set of variables enclosed in braces:

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struct Point {
    int x;
    int y;
};
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By convention, structures should always be named with an uppercase first letter.

The variables x and y are called members of the structure named Point.

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Variables of type Point may be defined as a list of identifiers at the end of the struct definition:

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struct Point {
    int x;
    int y;
} p1, p2, p3;
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or as subsequent definitions using the tag struct Point: struct Point p1, p2, p3;

When a structure is defined, its members may be initialised using brace notation:

```
struct Point topleft = \{320, 0\};
```

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Individual members of a struct may be accessed via the member operator .:

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struct Point topleft;
topleft.x = 320;
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Structures can be nested:

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struct Rectangle {
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Structures can be nested:

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struct Rectangle {
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};
```

To access the lowest-level members of a variable of type Rectangle, therefore, requires two instances of the member operator

```
struct Rectangle rect;
rect.topleft.x = 50;
```

## **Operations on Structures**



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The operations permitted on structures are a subset of the operations permitted on basic types.



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Structures may be copied or assigned, but it is not possible to directly compare two structures.

p2 = p1; /\* Valid. structs may be assigned. \*/
if (p1 == p2) /\* Invalid. structs may not be compared. \*/
 printf("Points are equal\n");
if (p1.x == p2.x && p1.y == p2.y)
 /\* Valid. May compare basic types. \*/
 printf("Points are equal\n");

## Operations on Structures



A structure may be passed to a function and may be returned by a function:

```
struct Point point_difference(struct Point p1, struct Point
    p2)
/* Return the delta (dx, dy) of p2 with respect to p1. */
{
        p2.x -= p1.x;
        p2.y -= p1.y;
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As with any other variable, structures are passed by value!

```
struct Point a = \{5,10\}, b = \{20,30\}, c;

c = point_difference(a, b);

/* c = \{15,20\}, b is unchanged. */
```

#### Structures and Poiters



Passing structures by value can be inefficient if the structure is large, and it is generally more efficient to pass a pointer to a struct rather than making a copy.

struct Point pt = { 50, 50 }; struct Point \*pp; pp = &pt; (\*pp).x = 100; /\* pt.x is now 100. \*/

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The -> operator permits the expression (\*pp).x to be rewritten more simply as pp->x.

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struct List {
    int item;
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However, it may refer to a pointer of its own type:

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struct List {
    int item;
    struct *List next;
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```



Write C library that implements basic list operations:

- list .h with type and functions declarations;
- list .c with all the definitions.

## Typedefs



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The ability to define type synonyms permits a significant improvement in structure declaration syntax:

```
typedef struct Point {
    int x;
    int y;
} Point;
```

Point pt1, pt2;



This simplification enabled by typedef is more marked for self-referencing structures:

```
typedef struct list_t List;
struct list_t {
    int item;
    List *next;
};
```

# Union Types



The declaration of a union type is similar to the declaration of a struct type:

```
union Utype {
    int ival;
    float fval;
    char *sval;
};
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union Utype x, y, z;

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union Utype x, y, z;
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Accessing members of a union type is also the same as for structures, with the . member operator for union objects and the -> operator for pointers to union objects.



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- a union provides storage for a single variable, which may be one of several types.



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In the  $U_{type}$  example, the compiler will allocate sufficient memory to store the largest of the types int, float, and char \*.

A Utype variable holds a value for one of the three possible types!

It is the programmers responsibility to keep track of which type that might be!

# Union Types: Example



```
typedef union { /* Heterogeneous type. */
int ival;
 float fval;
} Utype;
enum { INT, FLOAT }; /* Define type tags. */
typedef struct {
 int type; /* Tag for the current stored type. */
   Utype val; /* Storage for variant type. */
} VariantType;
```

```
VariantType array[50]; /* Heterogeneous array. */
array[0].val.ival = 56; /* Assign value. */
array[0].type = INT; /* Mark type. */
```

. . .



#### To be continued...

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Structures and Unions

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