

# **CS107, Lecture 7**

## **Stack and Heap**

Reading: K&R 5.6-5.9 or Essential C section 6 on  
the heap

# Lecture Plan

- **Misc. topics: const, structs and the ternary operator**
- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice:** Pig Latin + Valgrind
- realloc

```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

# Const

- **const** is a keyword that indicates that a particular variable in a particular scope should not be modified.
- In 107, you won't have to declare many **const** variables, but you will be provided parameters or use functions that have it.

# Const

You can use **const** to declare global constants in your program. This indicates the variable cannot change after being created. This makes an actual variable, whereas **#define** does not; **#define** is like “find-and-replace”.

```
const double PI = 3.1415;
const int DAYS_IN_WEEK = 7;

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    ...
    if (x == DAYS_IN_WEEK) {
        ...
    }
    ...
}
```

# Const

Use **const** with pointers to indicate that the data that is pointed to cannot be changed using that pointer. *It's not protection for that memory in general – it's just preventing modification using the const pointer.*

```
char str[6];
strcpy(str, "Hello");
const char *s = str;
```

```
// Cannot use s to change characters it points to
s[0] = 'h';
```

```
// But we can still use str to change them
str[0] = 'h';
```

# Const

Sometimes we use **const** with pointer parameters to indicate that the function will not / should not change what it points to. The actual pointer can be changed, however.

```
// This function promises to not change str's characters
int countUppercase(const char *str) {
    int count = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < strlen(str); i++) {
        if (isupper(str[i])) {
            count++;
        }
    }
    return count;
}
```

# Const

By definition, C gets upset when you set a **non-const** pointer equal to a **const** pointer. You need to be consistent with **const** to reflect what you cannot modify.

```
// This function promises to not change str's characters
int countUppercase(const char *str) {
    // compiler warning and error
    char *strToModify = str;
    strToModify[0] = ...
}
```

# Const

By definition, C gets upset when you set a **non-const** pointer equal to a **const** pointer. You need to be consistent with **const** to reflect what you cannot modify.  
**Think of const as part of the variable type.**

```
// This function promises to not change str's characters
int countUppercase(const char *str) {
    const char *strToModify = str;
    strToModify[0] = ...
}
```

# Const

`const` can be confusing to interpret in some variable types.

```
// cannot modify this char  
const char c = 'h';
```

```
// cannot modify chars pointed to by str  
const char *str = ...
```

```
// cannot modify chars pointed to by *strPtr  
const char **strPtr = ...
```

# Structs

A *struct* is a way to define a new variable type that is a group of other variables.

```
struct date {          // declaring a struct type
    int month;
    int day;           // members of each date structure
};

...
struct date today;          // construct structure instances
today.month = 1;
today.day = 28;

struct date new_years_eve = {12, 31}; // shorter initializer syntax
```

# Structs

Wrap the struct definition in a **typedef** to avoid having to include the word **struct** every time you make a new variable of that type.

```
typedef struct date {  
    int month;  
    int day;  
} date;  
  
...  
  
date today;  
today.month = 1;  
today.day = 28;  
  
date new_years_eve = {12, 31};
```

# Structs

If you pass a struct as a parameter, like for other parameters, C passes a **copy** of the entire struct.

```
void advance_day(date d) {
    d.day++;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    date my_date = {1, 28};
    advance_day(my_date);
    printf("%d", my_date.day); // 28
    return 0;
}
```

# Structs

If you pass a struct as a parameter, like for other parameters, C passes a **copy** of the entire struct. **Use a pointer to modify a specific instance.**

```
void advance_day(date *d) {  
    (*d).day++;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    date my_date = {1, 28};  
    advance_day(&my_date);  
    printf("%d", my_date.day); // 29  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Structs

The **arrow** operator lets you access the field of a struct pointed to by a pointer.

```
void advance_day(date *d) {  
    d->day++; // equivalent to (*d).day++;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    date my_date = {1, 28};  
    advance_day(&my_date);  
    printf("%d", my_date.day); // 29  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Structs

C allows you to return structs from functions as well. It returns whatever is contained within the struct.

```
date create_new_years_date() {
    date d = {1, 1};
    return d;          // or return (date){1, 1};
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    date my_date = create_new_years_date();
    printf("%d", my_date.day); // 1
    return 0;
}
```

# Structs

`sizeof` gives you the entire size of a struct, which is the sum of the sizes of all its contents.

```
typedef struct date {  
    int month;  
    int day;  
} date;  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    int size = sizeof(date);    // 8  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Arrays of Structs

You can create arrays of structs just like any other variable type.

```
typedef struct my_struct {  
    int x;  
    char c;  
} my_struct;  
  
...  
  
my_struct array_of_structs[5];
```

# Arrays of Structs

To initialize an entry of the array, you must use this special syntax to confirm the type to C.

```
typedef struct my_struct {  
    int x;  
    char c;  
} my_struct;
```

...

```
my_struct array_of_structs[5];  
array_of_structs[0] = (my_struct){0, 'A'};
```

# Arrays of Structs

You can also set each field individually.

```
typedef struct my_struct {  
    int x;  
    char c;  
} my_struct;  
  
...  
my_struct array_of_structs[5];  
array_of_structs[0].x = 2;  
array_of_structs[0].c = 'A';
```

# Ternary Operator

The ternary operator is a shorthand for using if/else to evaluate to a value.

**condition ? expressionIfTrue : expressionIfFalse**

```
int x;
if (argc > 1) {
    x = 50;
} else {
    x = 0;
}
```

// equivalent to

```
int x = argc > 1 ? 50 : 0;
```

# **CS107 Topic 3:** How can we effectively manage all types of memory in our programs?

# CS107 Topic 3

## How can we effectively manage all types of memory in our programs?

Why is answering this question important?

- Shows us how we can pass around data efficiently with pointers (last time)
- Introduces us to the heap and allocating memory that we manually manage (this time)

**assign3:** implement a function using resizable arrays to read lines of any length from a file and write 2 programs using that function to print the last N lines of a file and print just the unique lines of a file. These programs emulate the **tail** and **uniq** Unix commands!

# Learning Goals

- Learn about the differences between the stack and the heap and when to use each one
- Become familiar with the **malloc**, **calloc**, **realloc** and **free** functions for managing memory on the heap

# Lecture Plan

- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice:** Pig Latin + Valgrind
- realloc

```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

# Lecture Plan

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```

# Pointers Summary

- If you are performing an operation with some input and do not care about any changes to the input, **pass the data type itself**.
- If you are modifying a specific instance of some value, **pass the location** of what you would like to modify.
- If a function takes an address (pointer) as a parameter, it can *go to* that address if it needs the actual value.
- Strings are one application of pointers, and they can help us understand pointers more generally.

# Pointer Arithmetic

When you do pointer arithmetic, you are adjusting the pointer by a certain *number of places* (e.g. characters).

```
char *str = "apple"; // e.g. 0xff0
```

```
char *str1 = str + 1; // e.g. 0xff1
```

```
char *str3 = str + 3; // e.g. 0xff3
```

```
printf("%s", str); // apple
```

```
printf("%s", str1); // pple
```

```
printf("%s", str3); // le
```

DATA SEGMENT	
Address	Value
...	...
0xff5	'\0'
0xff4	'e'
0xff3	'l'
0xff2	'p'
0xff1	'p'
0xff0	'a'
...	...

# Pointer Arithmetic

Pointer arithmetic does *not* work in bytes. Instead, it works in the *size of the type it points to*.

```
// nums points to an int array
int *nums = ... // e.g. 0xff0
int *nums1 = nums + 1; // e.g. 0xff4
int *nums3 = nums + 3; // e.g. 0ffc

printf("%d", *nums); // 52
printf("%d", *nums1); // 23
printf("%d", *nums3); // 34
```

STACK	
Address	Value
...	...
0x1004	1
0x1000	16
0xfffc	34
0xff8	12
0xff4	23
0xff0	52
...	...

# Pointer Arithmetic

Pointer arithmetic does *not* work in bytes. Instead, it works in the *size of the type it points to*.

```
// nums points to an int array
int *nums = ... // e.g. 0xff0
int *nums3 = nums + 3; // e.g. 0ffc
int *nums2 = nums3 - 1; // e.g. 0ff8

printf("%d", *nums); // 52
printf("%d", *nums2); // 12
printf("%d", *nums3); // 34
```

STACK	
Address	Value
...	...
0x1004	1
0x1000	16
0ffc	34
0ff8	12
0ff4	23
0ff0	52
...	...

# Pointer Arithmetic

Pointer arithmetic with two pointers does *not* give the byte difference. Instead, it gives the number of *places* they differ by.

```
// nums points to an int array  
int *nums = ... // e.g. 0xff0  
int *nums3 = nums + 3; // e.g. 0ffc  
int diff = nums3 - nums; // 3
```

STACK	
Address	Value
...	...
0x1004	1
0x1000	16
0xfffc	34
0xff8	12
0xff4	23
0xff0	52
...	...

# Double Pointers

Sometimes, we would like to modify a string's pointer itself, rather than just the characters it points to. E.g. we want to write a function **skipSpaces** that modifies a string pointer to skip past any initial spaces. What should go in each of the blanks?

```
void skipSpaces(char **strPtr) {  
    int numSpaces = strspn(*strPtr, " ");  
    *strPtr += numSpaces;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = "    hello";  
    skipSpaces(&str);  
    printf("%s", str);                // should print "hello"  
}
```

We are modifying a specific instance of the string pointer, so we pass the *location* of the string pointer we would like to modify.

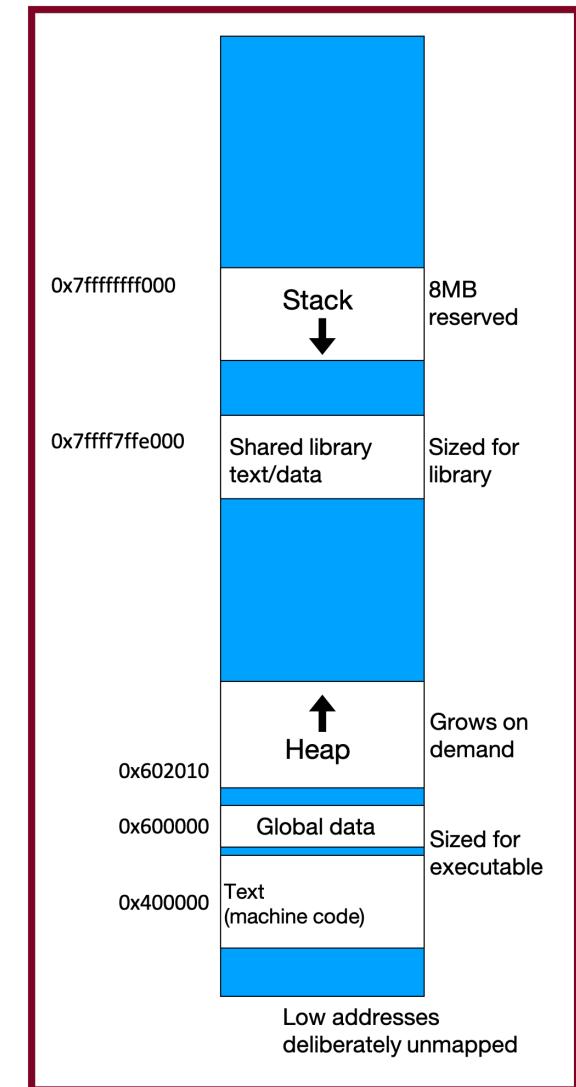
# Lecture Plan

- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- **The Stack**
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice:** Pig Latin + Valgrind
- realloc

```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

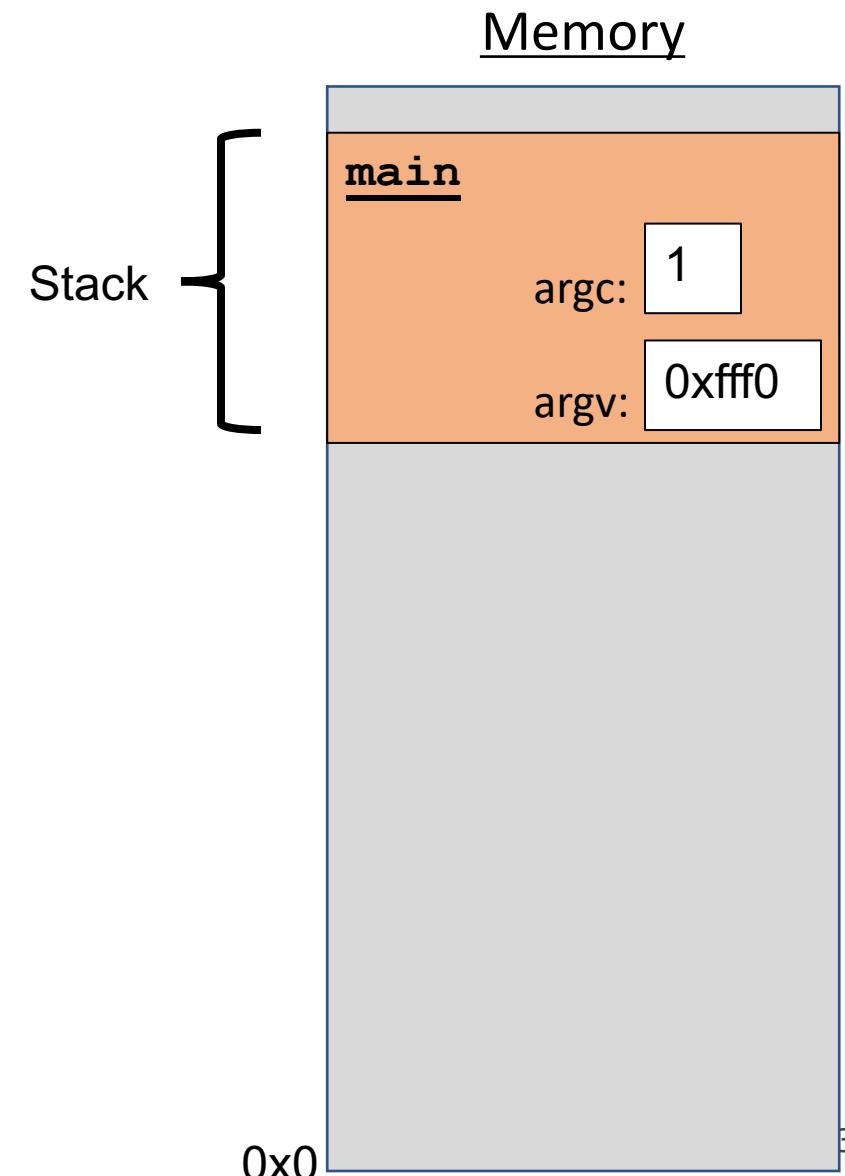
# Memory Layout

- We are going to dive deeper into different areas of memory used by our programs.
- The **stack** is the place where all local variables and parameters live for each function. A function's stack “frame” goes away when the function returns.
- The stack grows **downwards** when a new function is called and shrinks **upwards** when the function is finished.



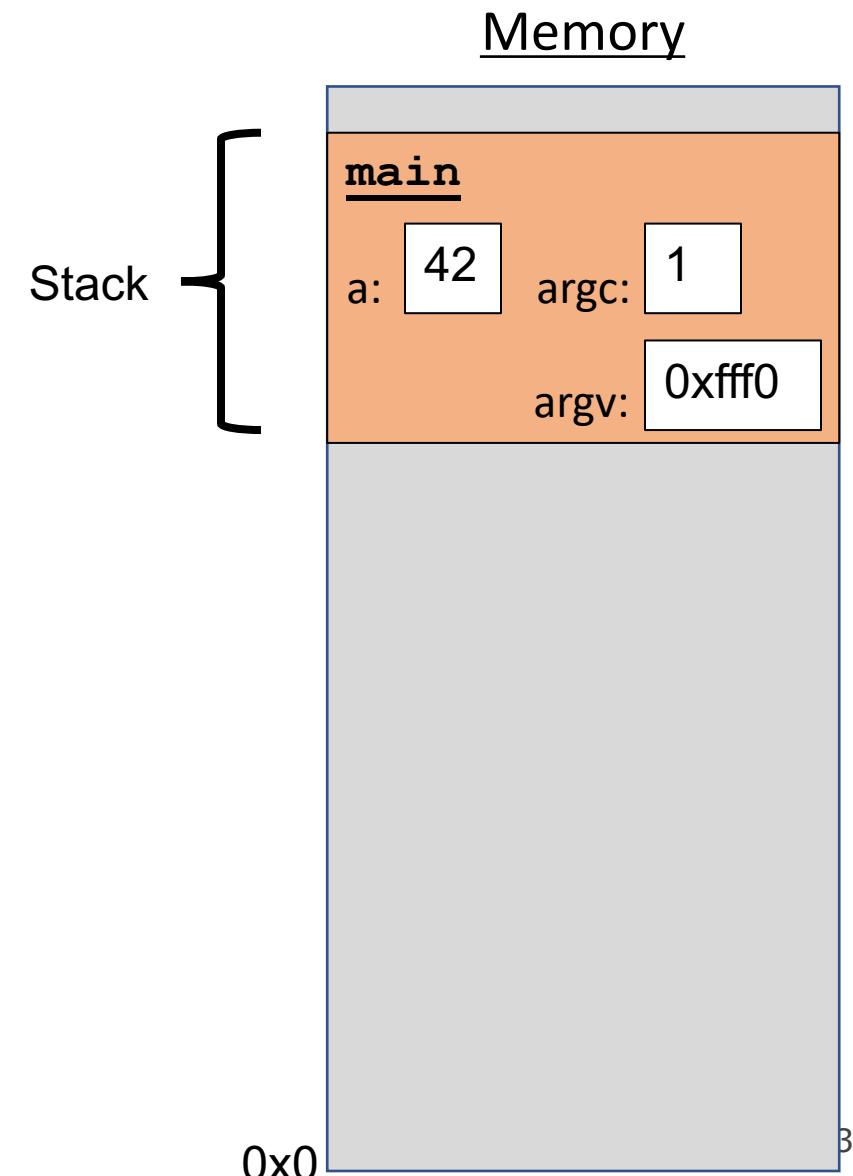
# The Stack

```
void func2() {  
    int d = 0;  
}  
  
void func1() {  
    int c = 99;  
    func2();  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    int a = 42;  
    int b = 17;  
    func1();  
    printf("Done.");  
    return 0;  
}
```



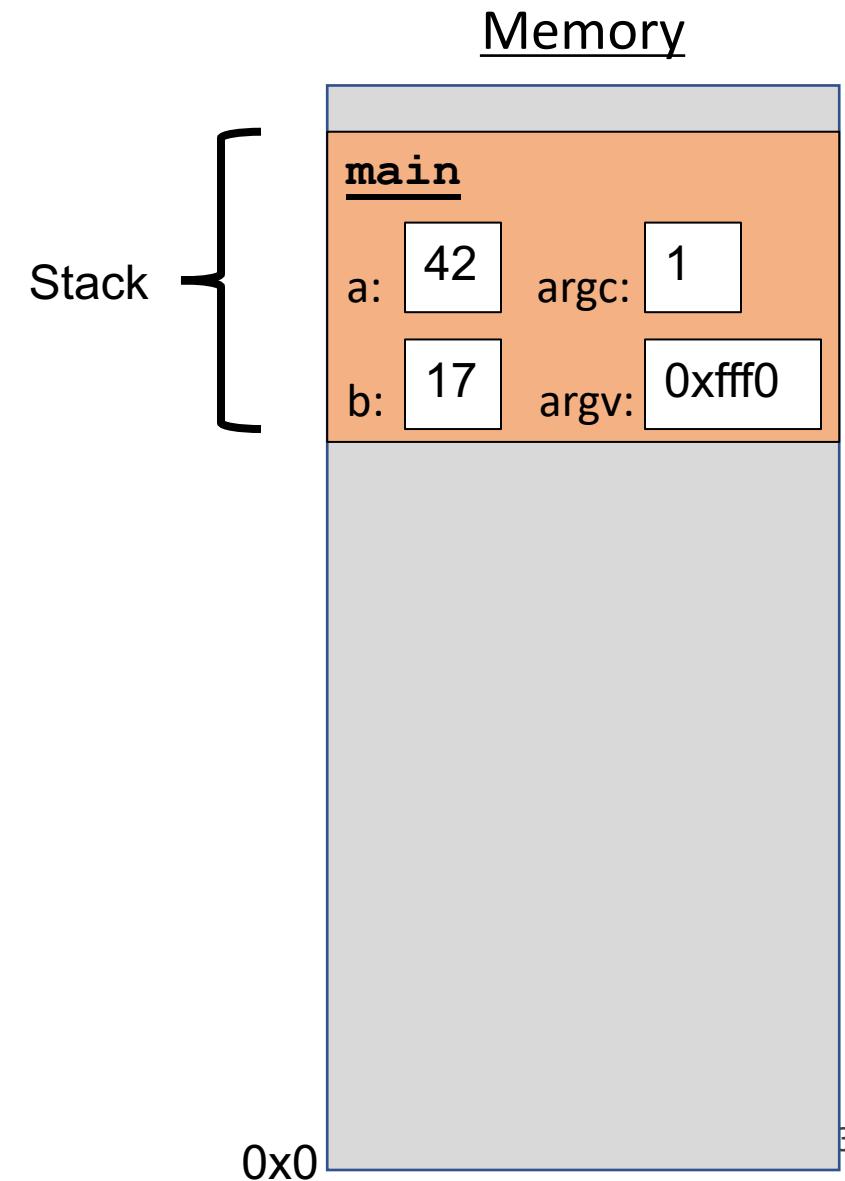
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}  
  
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    func1();  
    printf("Done.");  
    return 0;  
}
```



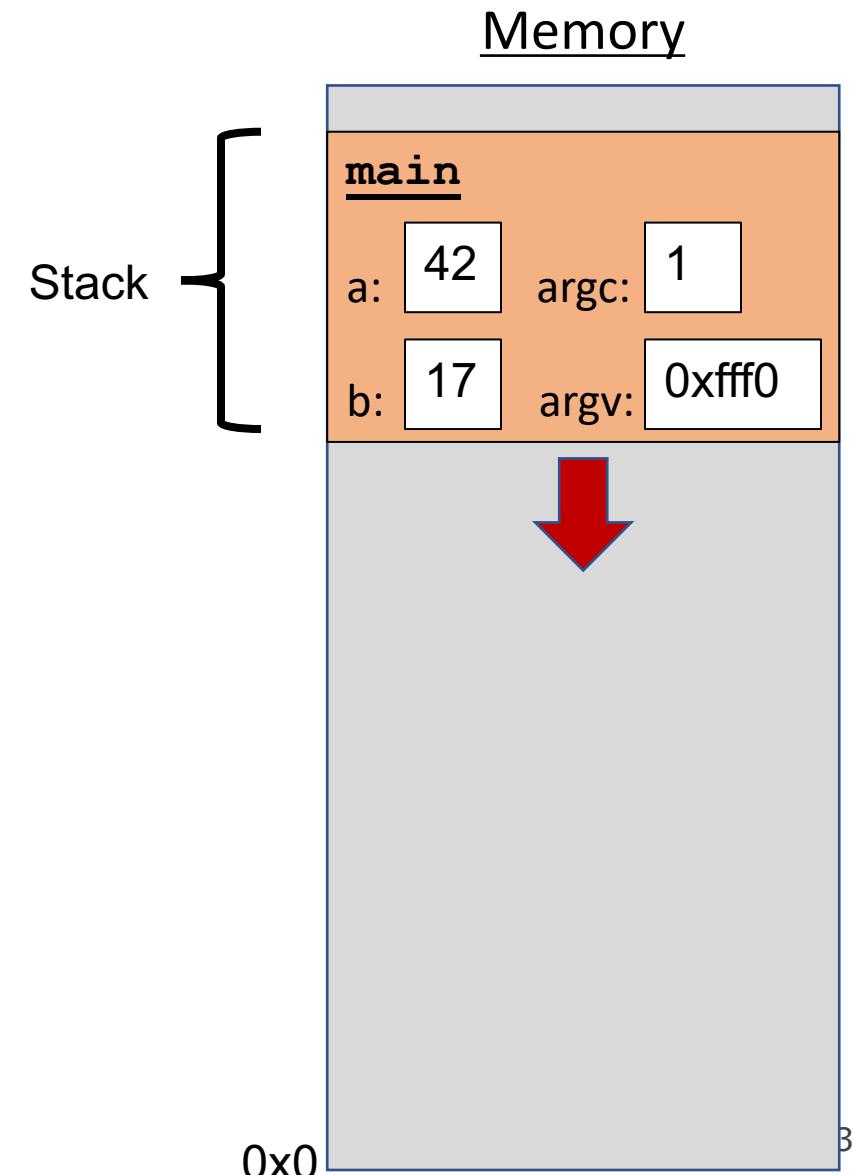
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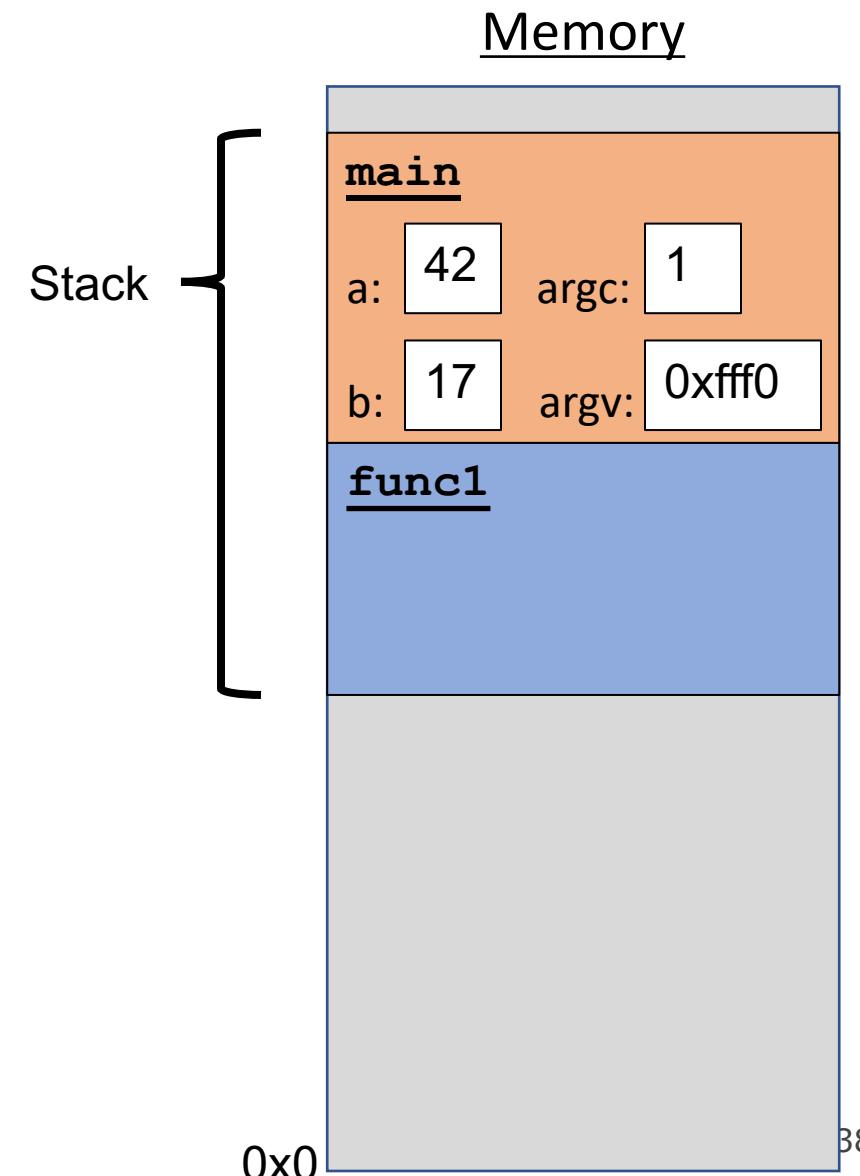
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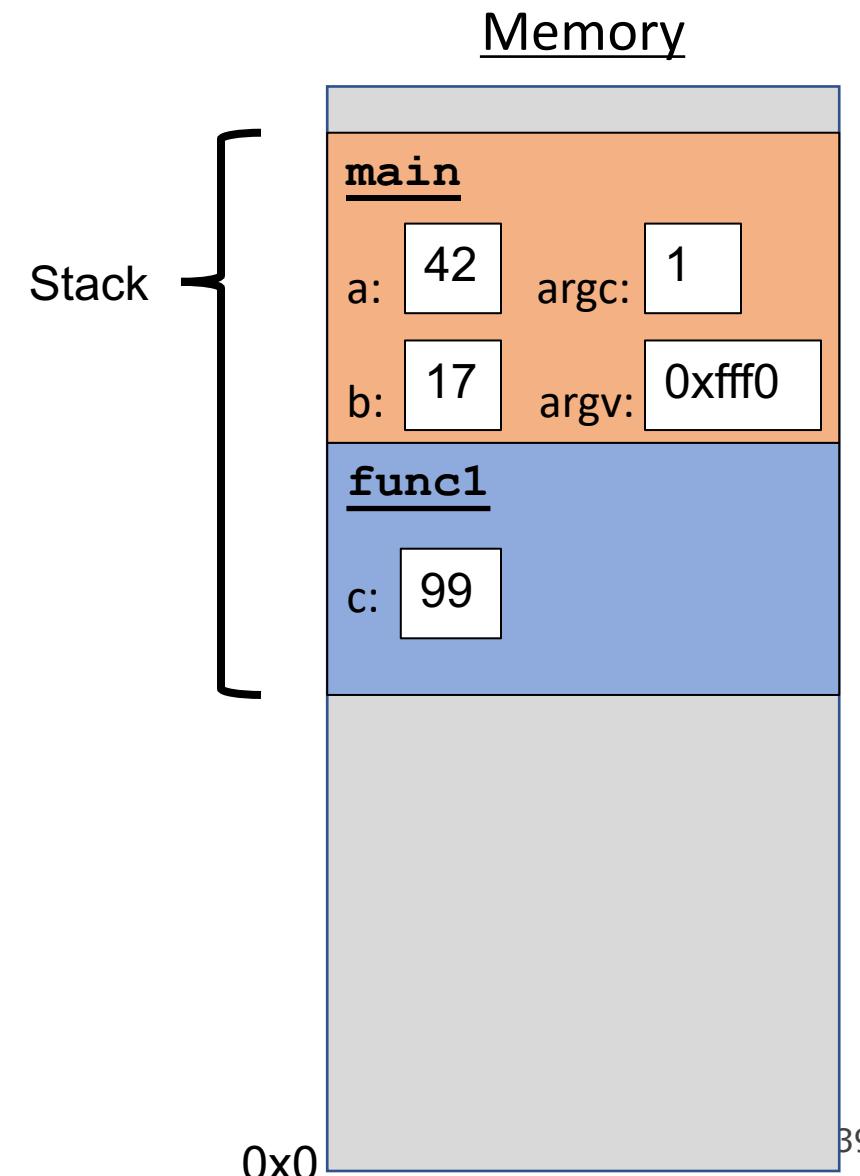
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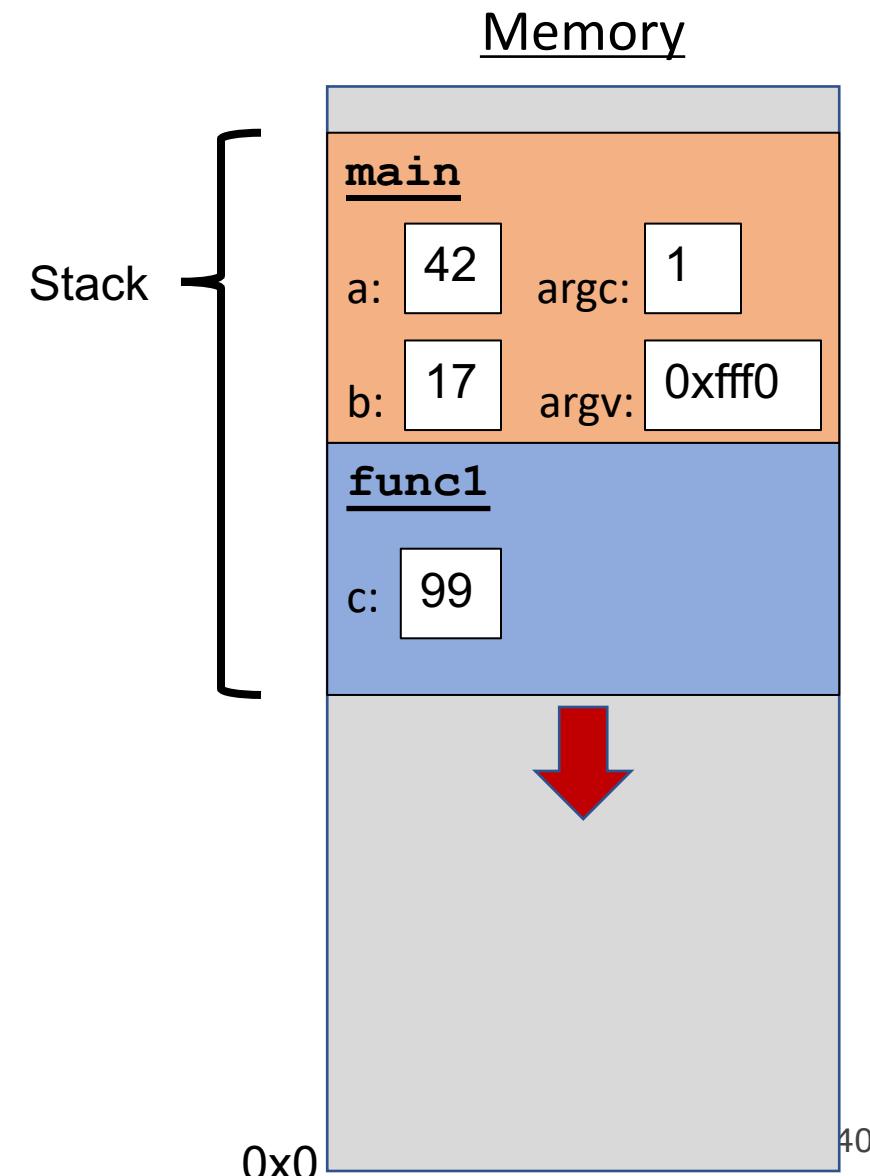
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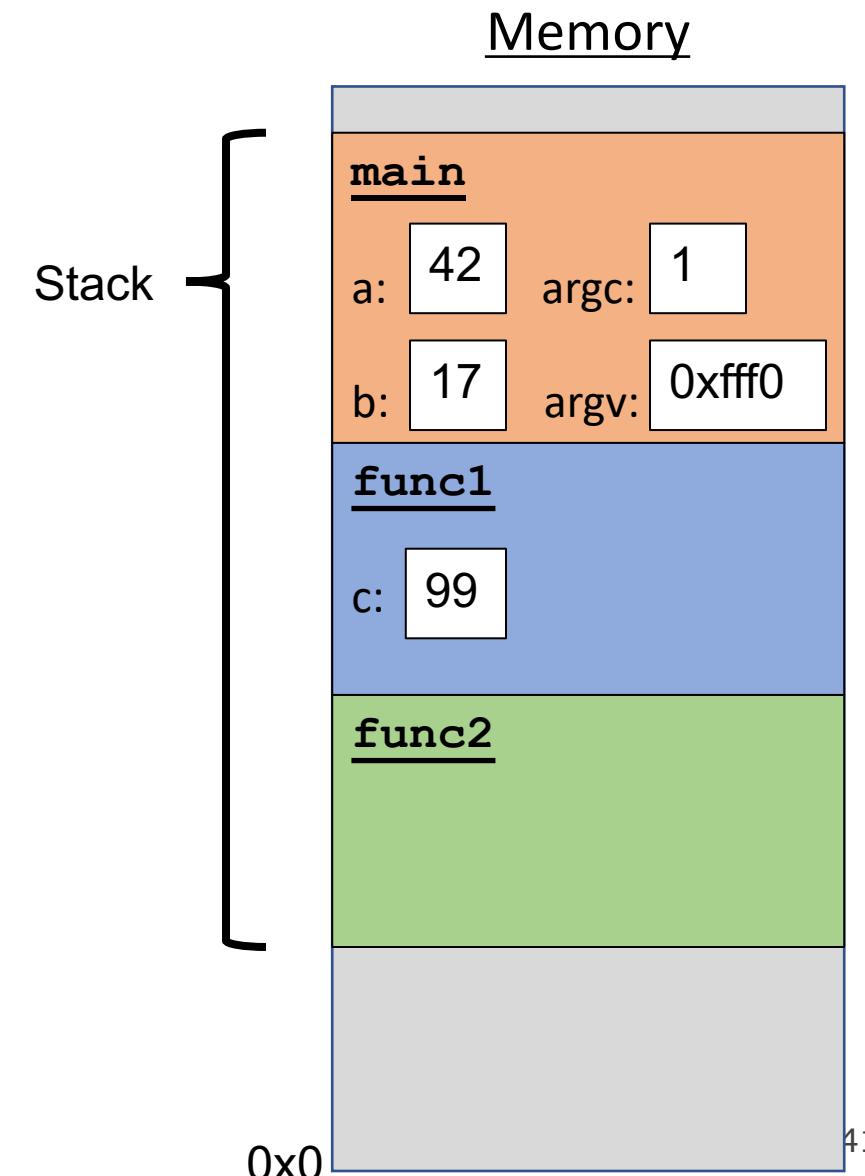
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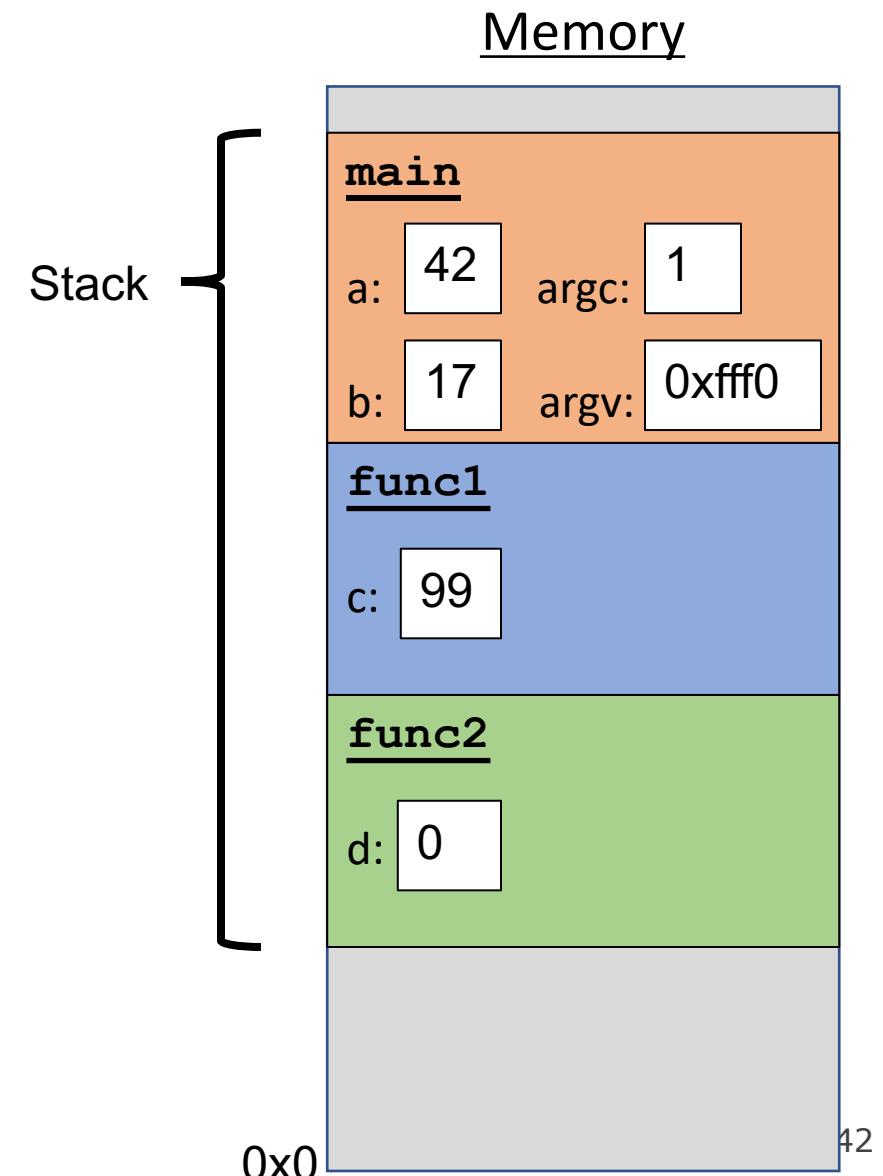
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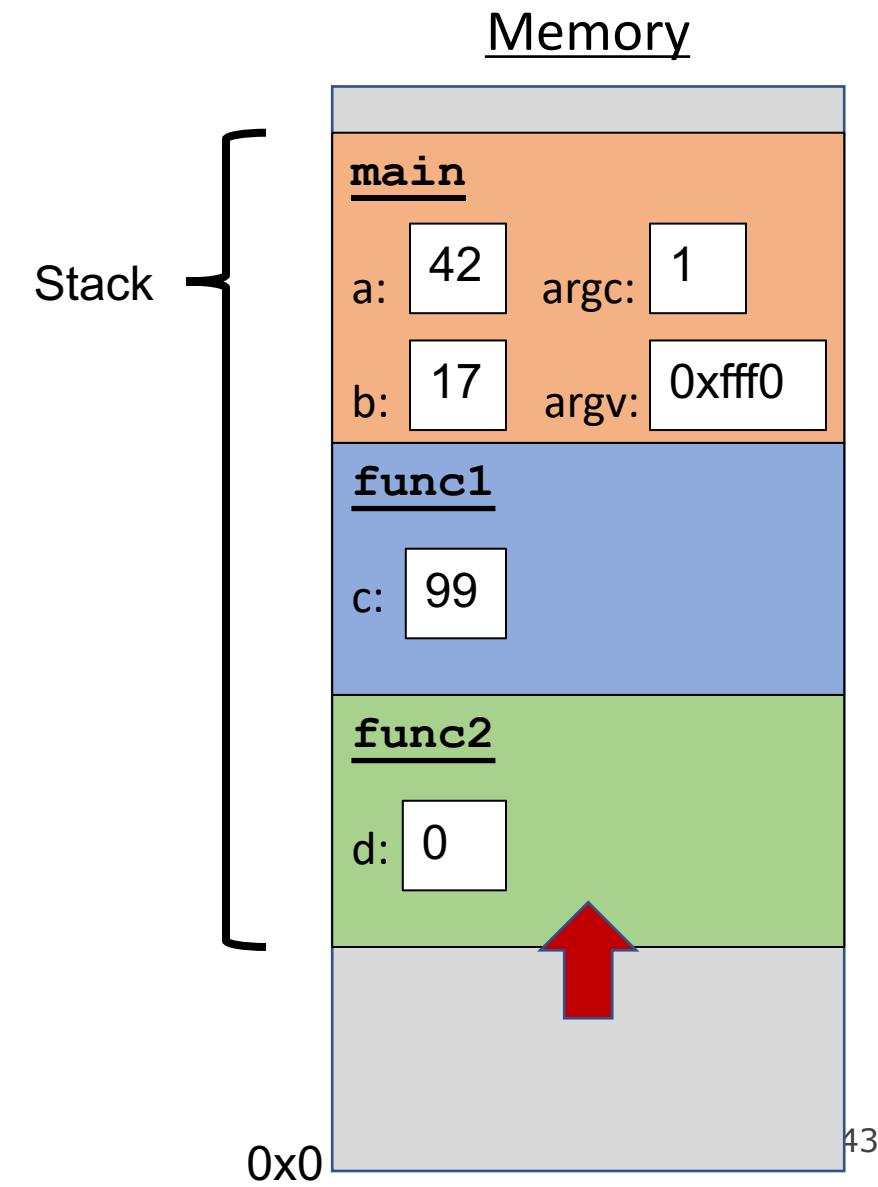
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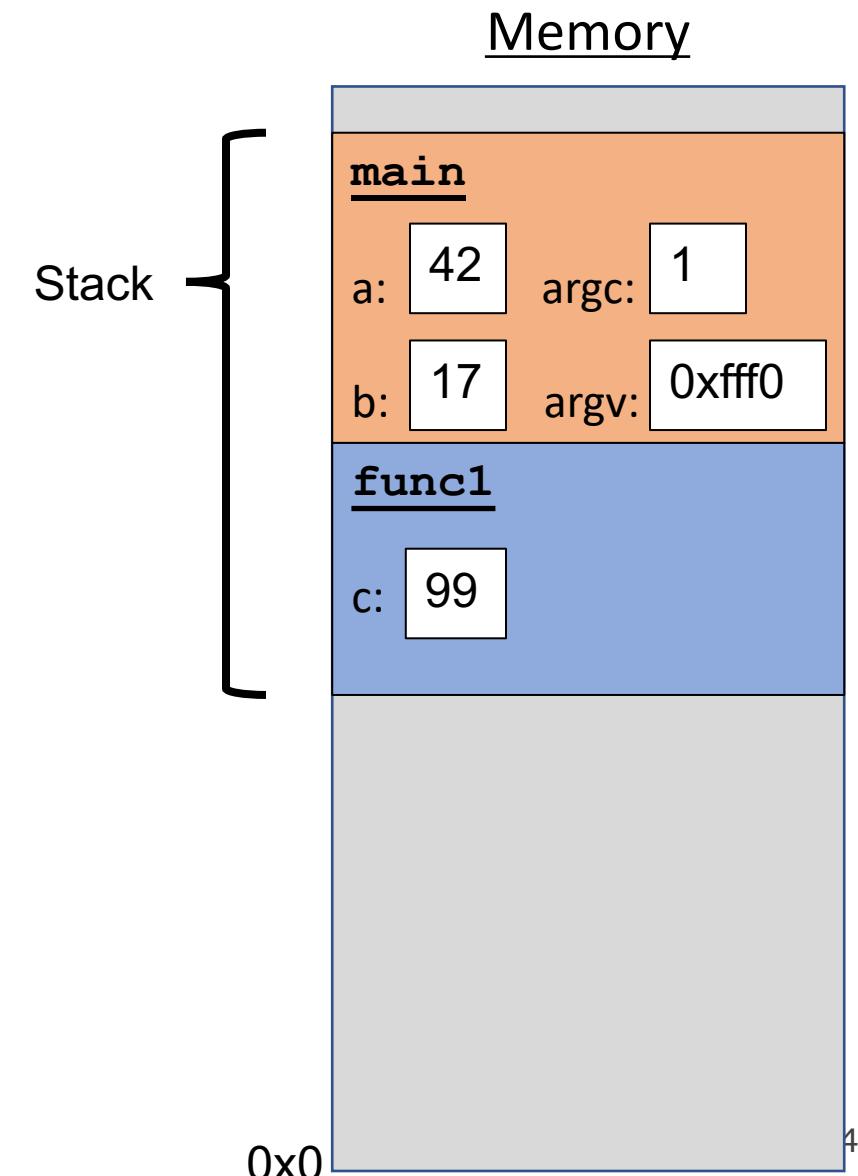
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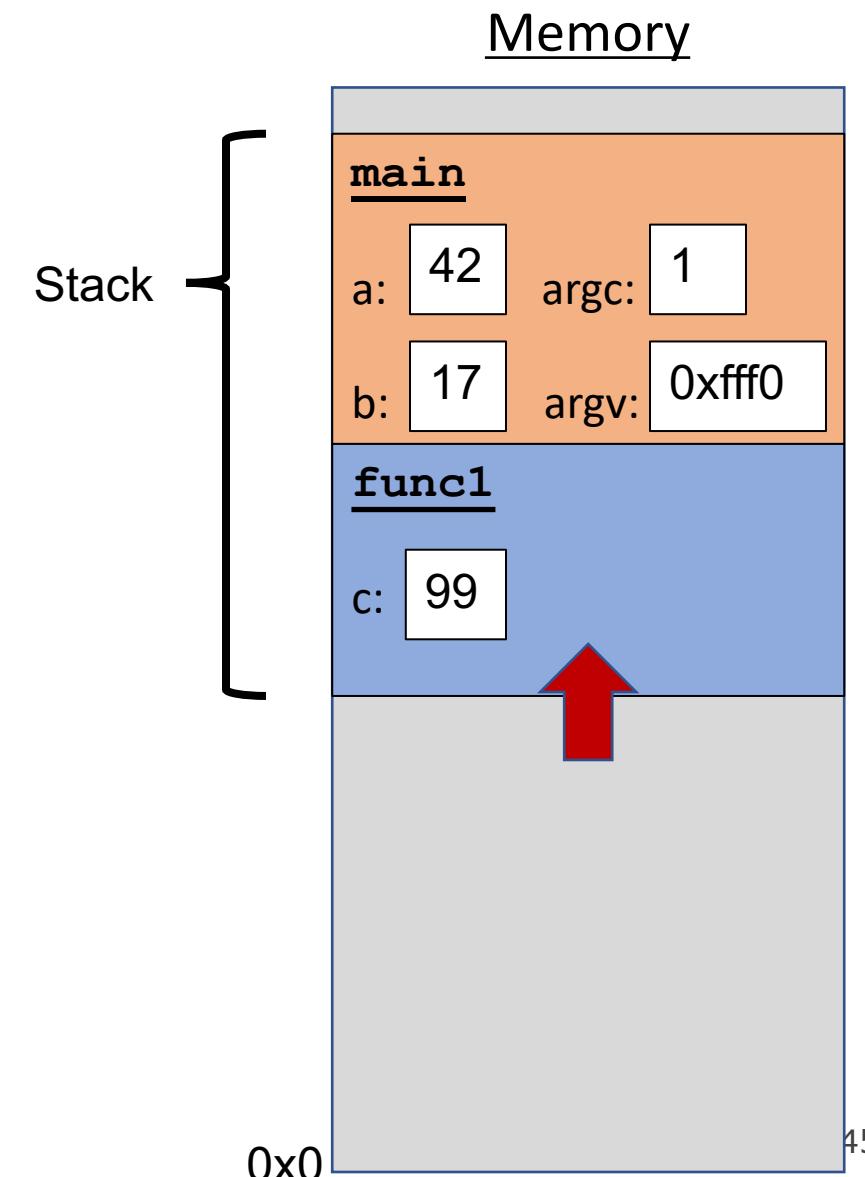
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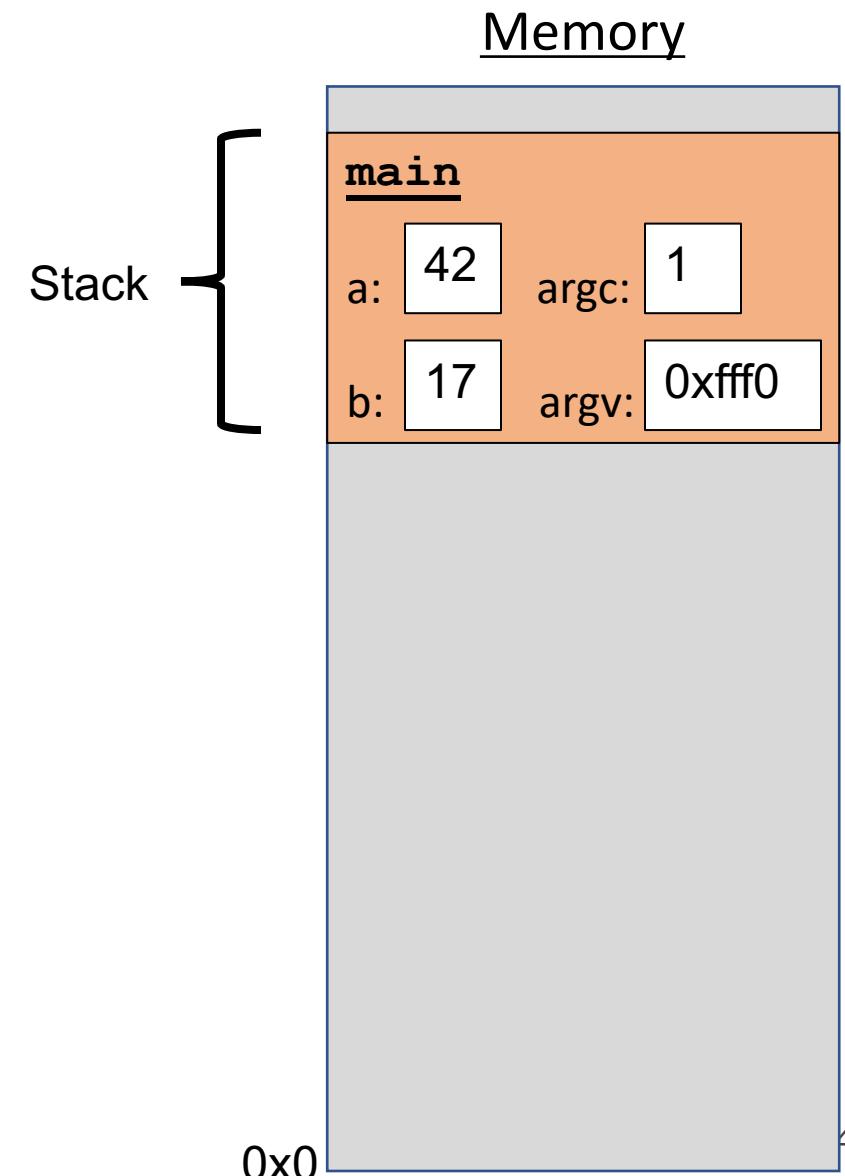
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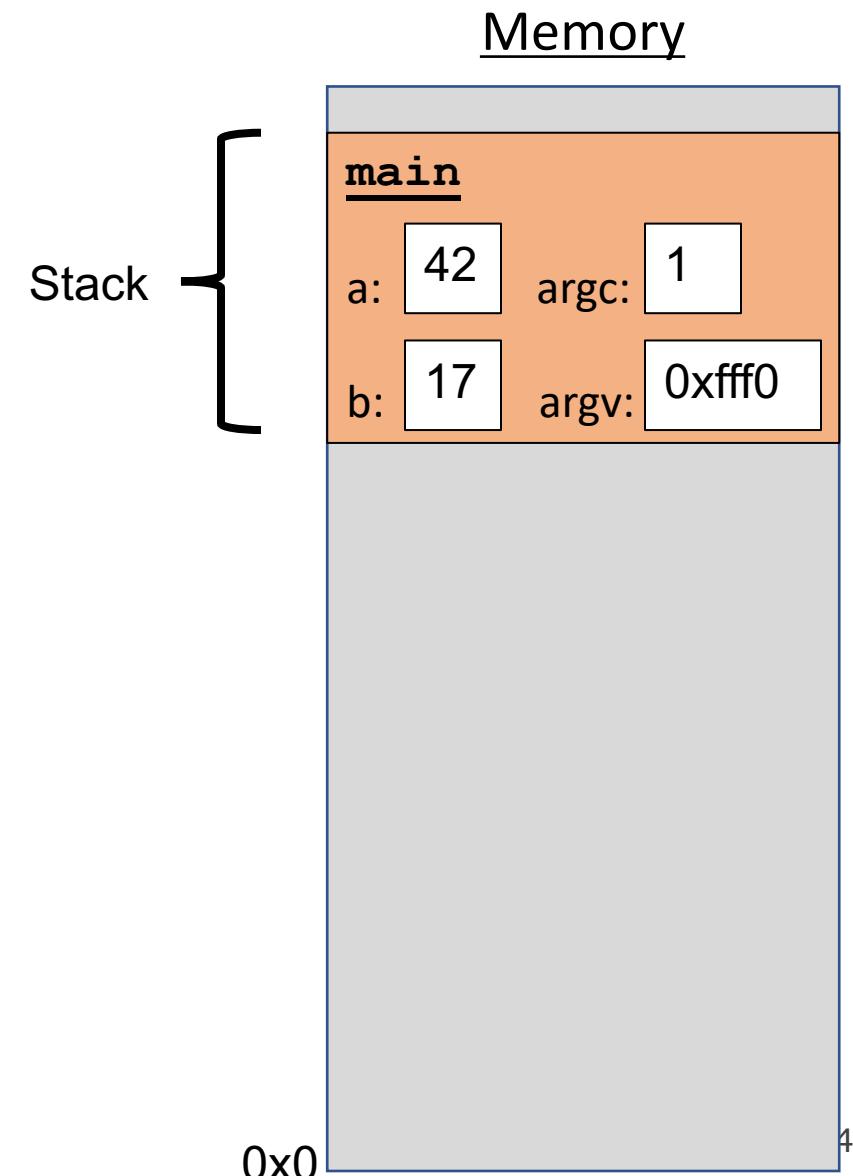
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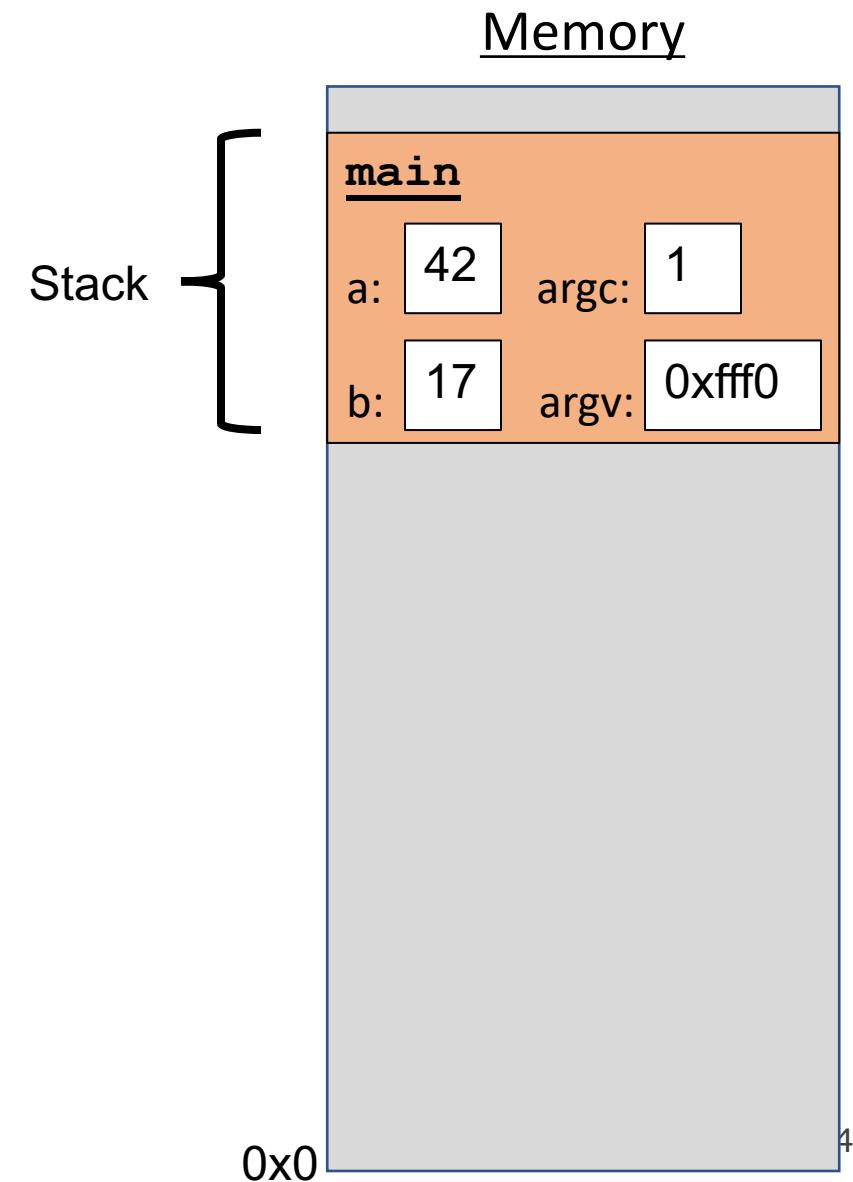
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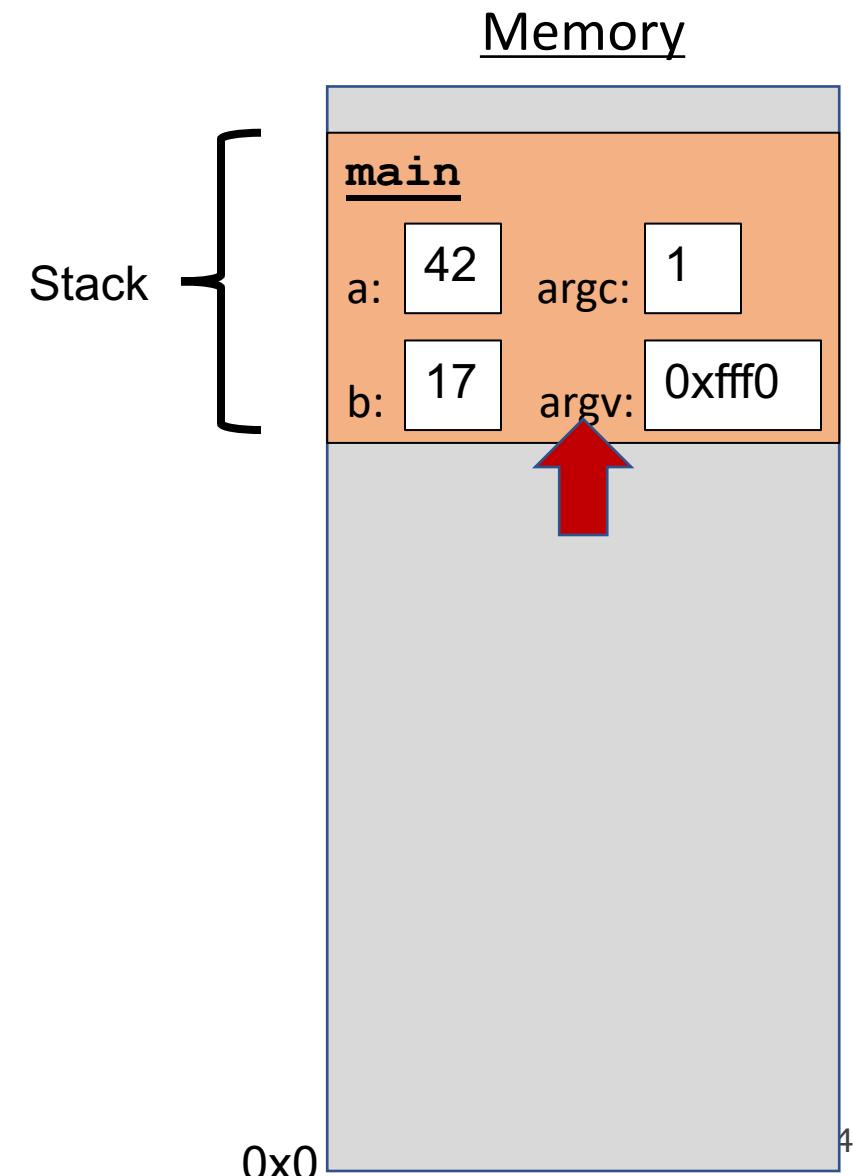
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# The Stack

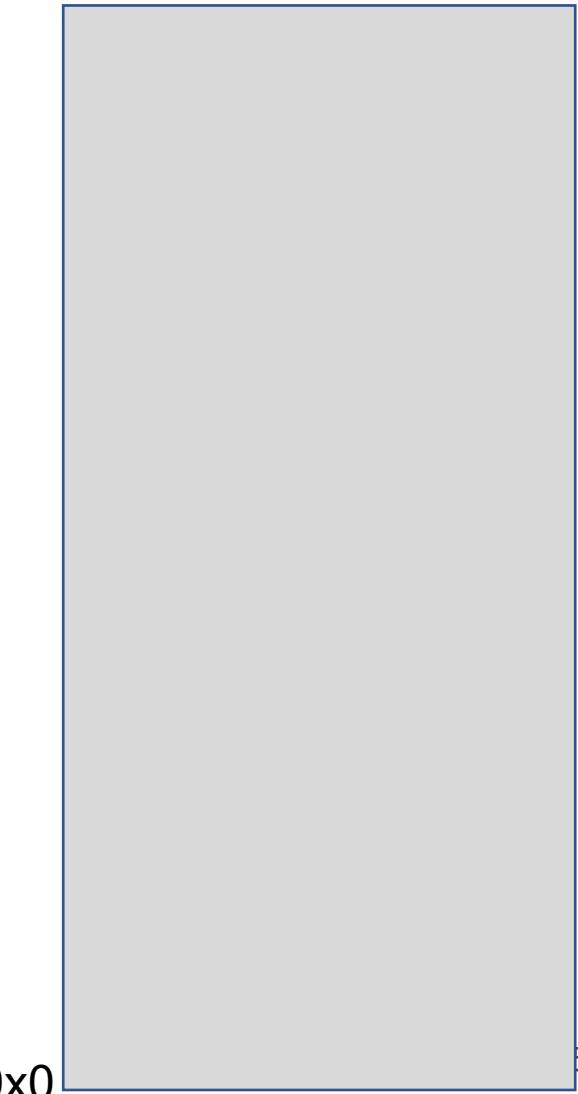
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Memory

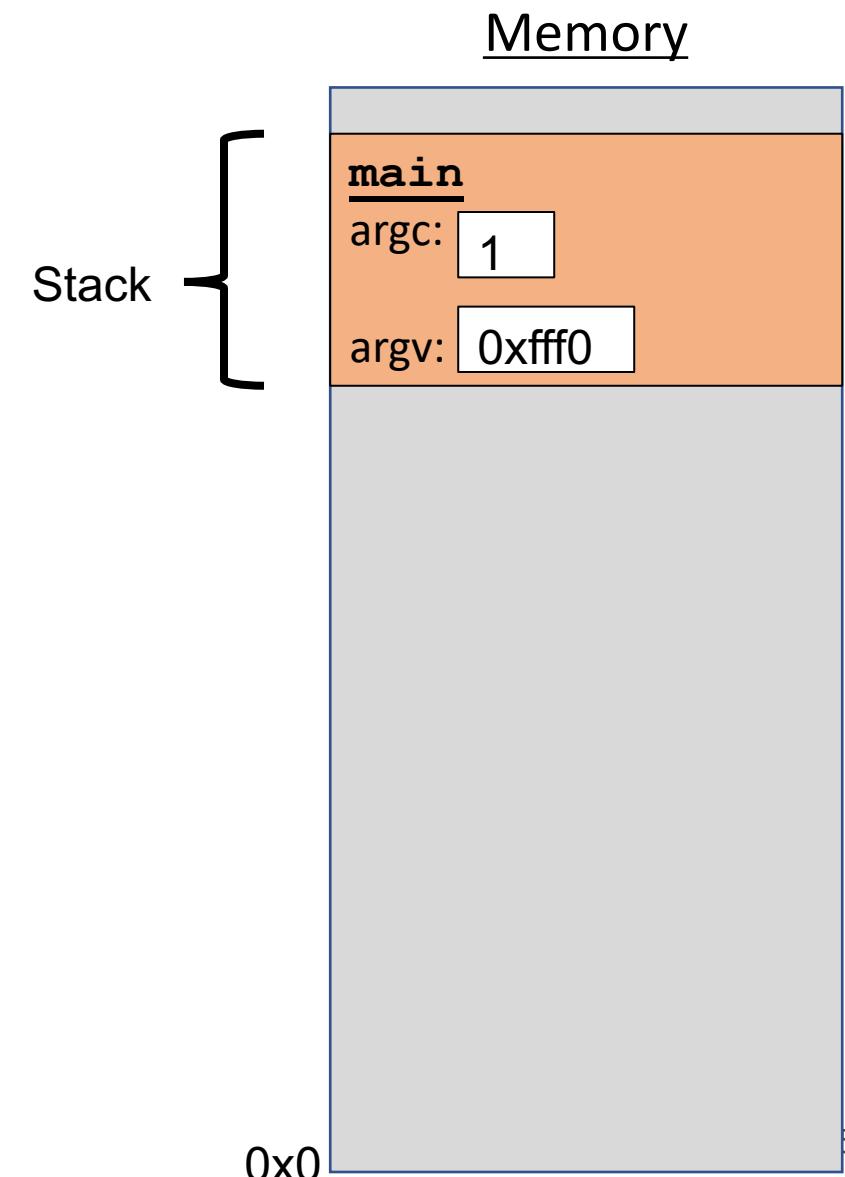


# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

```
int factorial(int n) {
    if (n == 1) {
        return 1;
    } else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1);
    }
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```

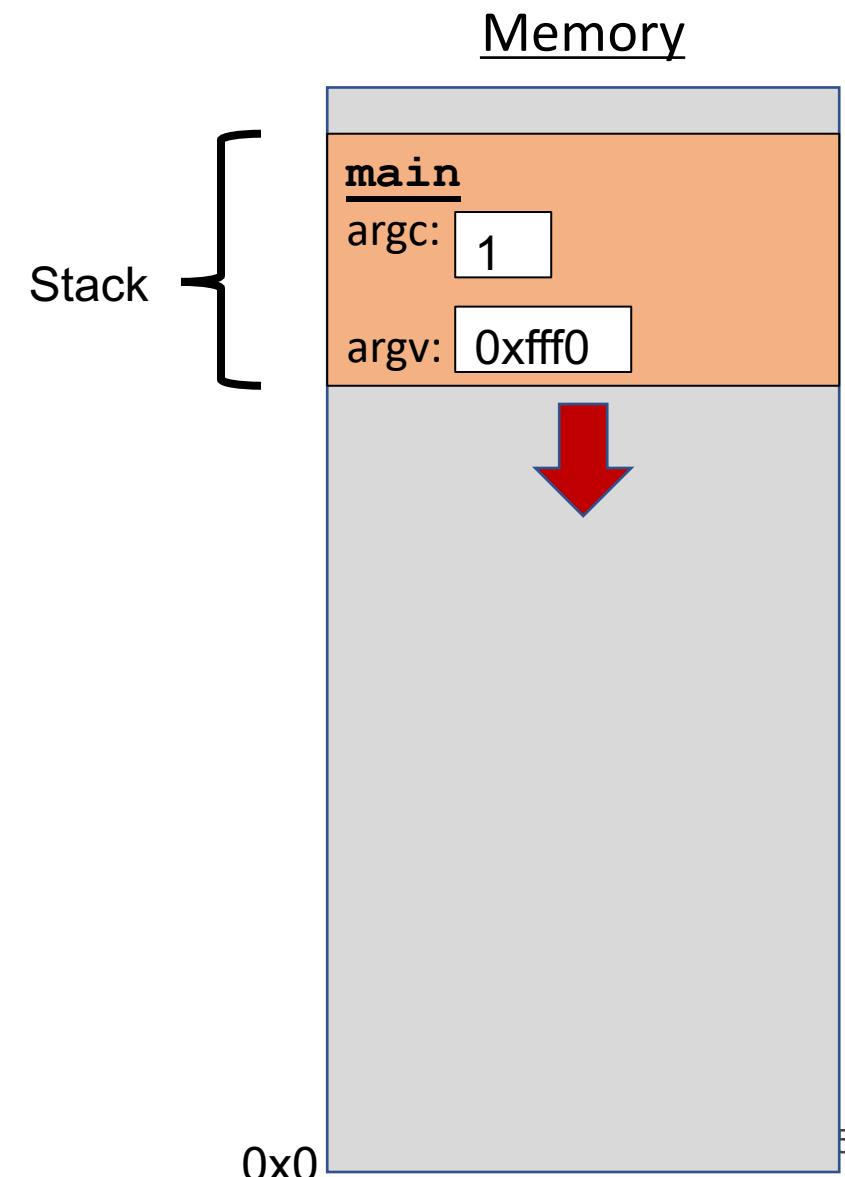


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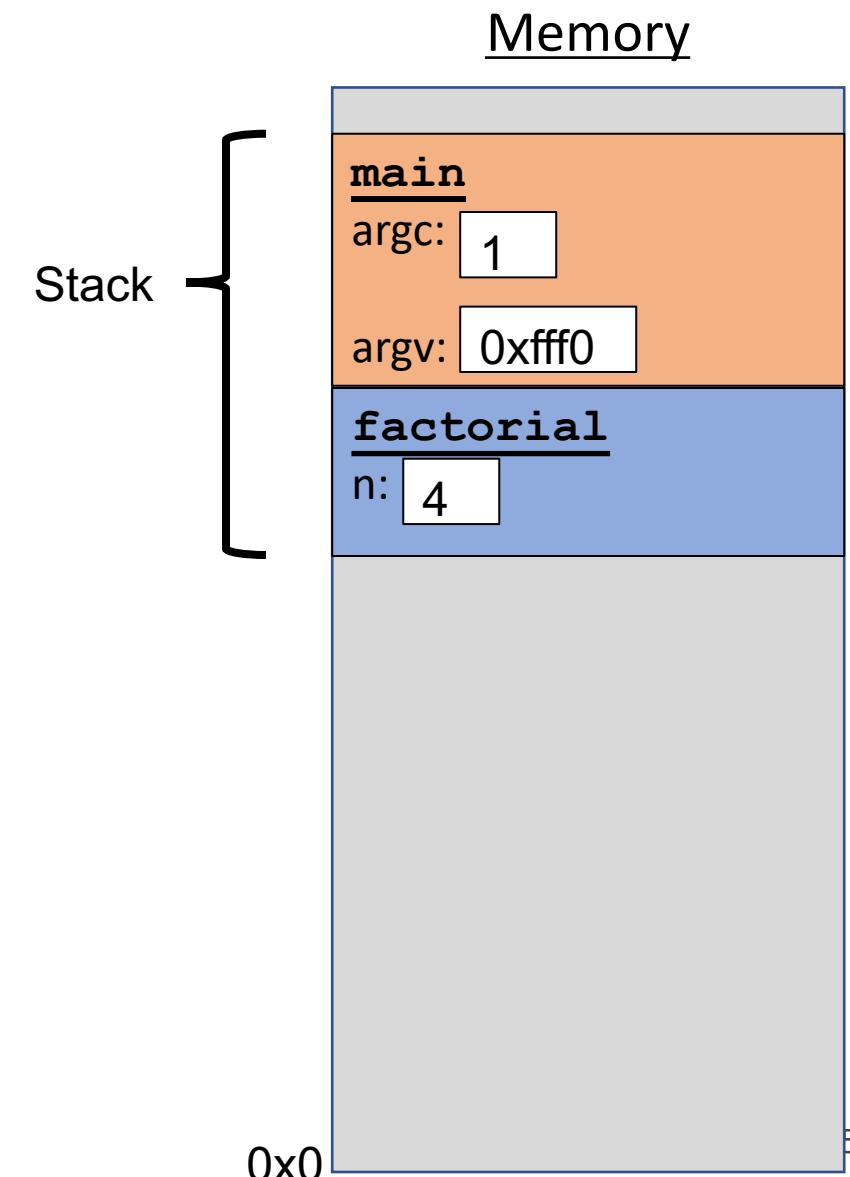


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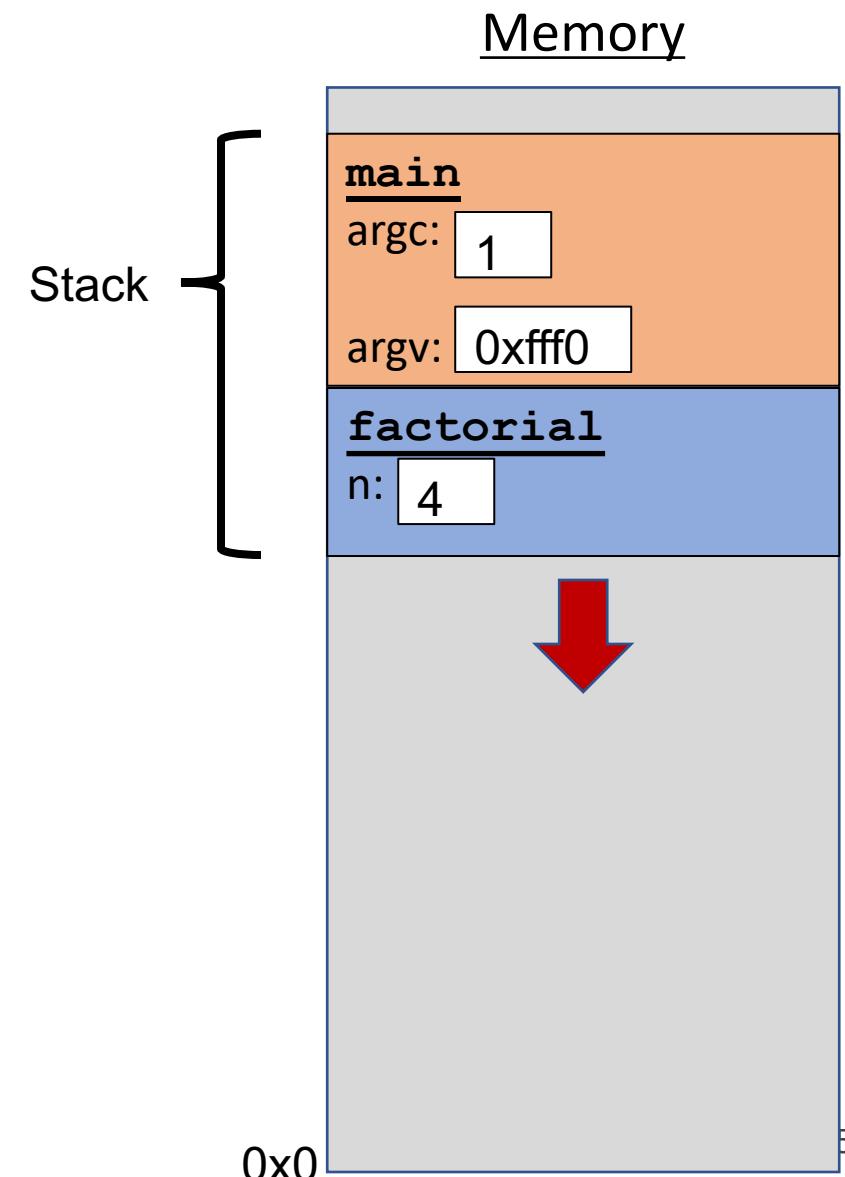


# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

```
int factorial(int n) {
    if (n == 1) {
        return 1;
    } else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1);
    }
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```

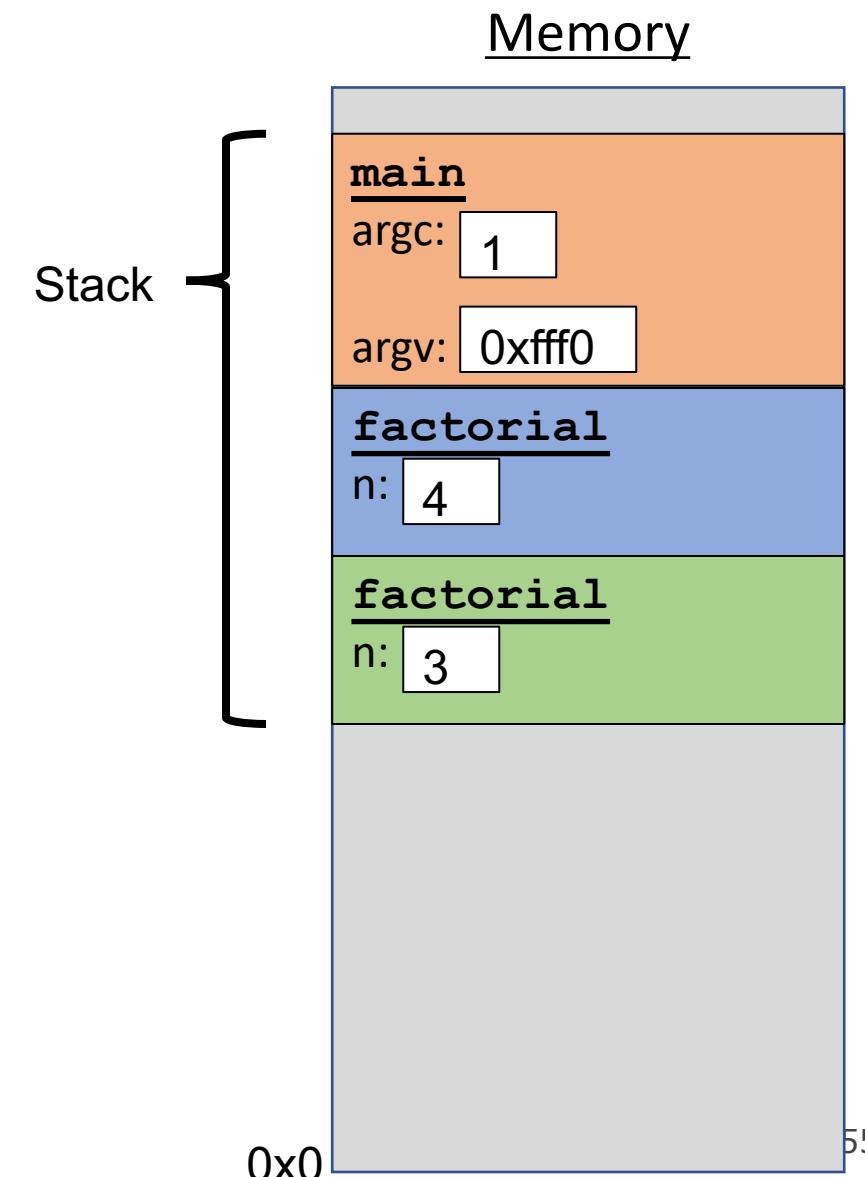


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}

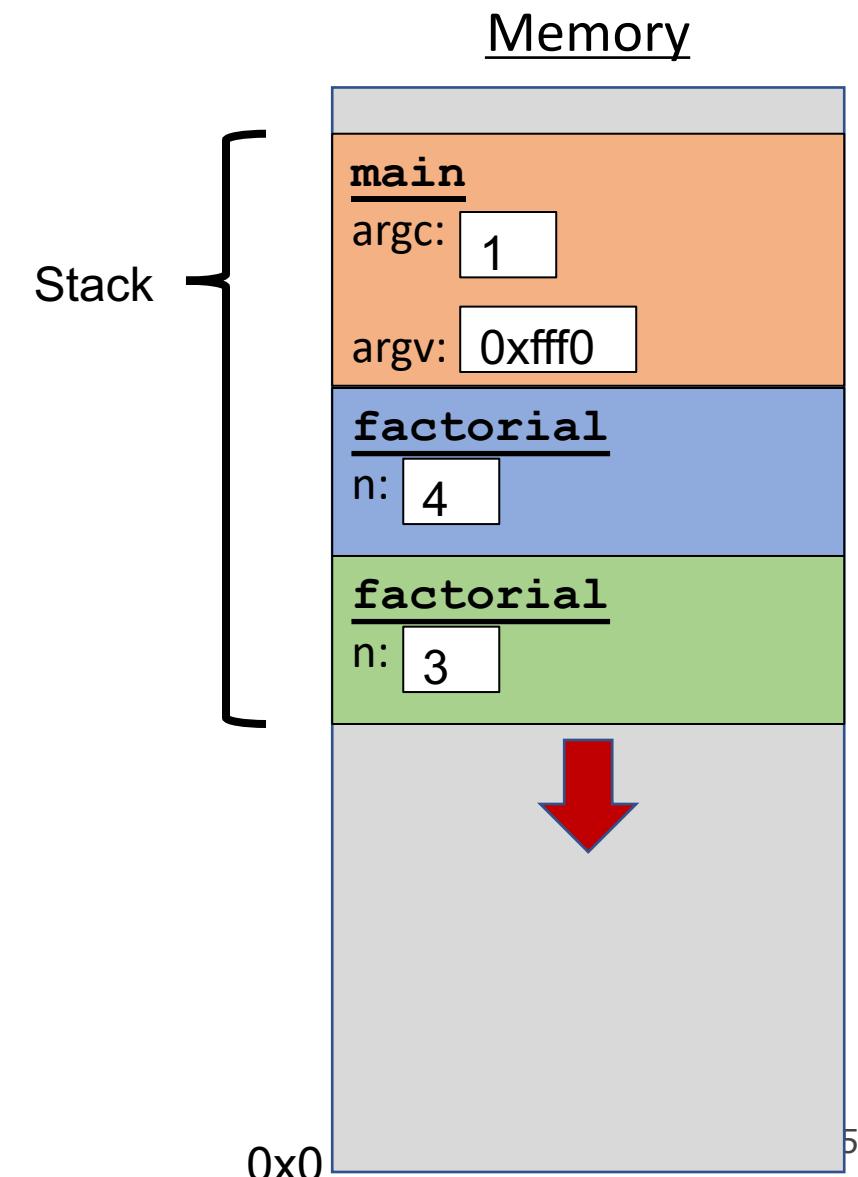
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```



# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

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    return 0;  
}
```

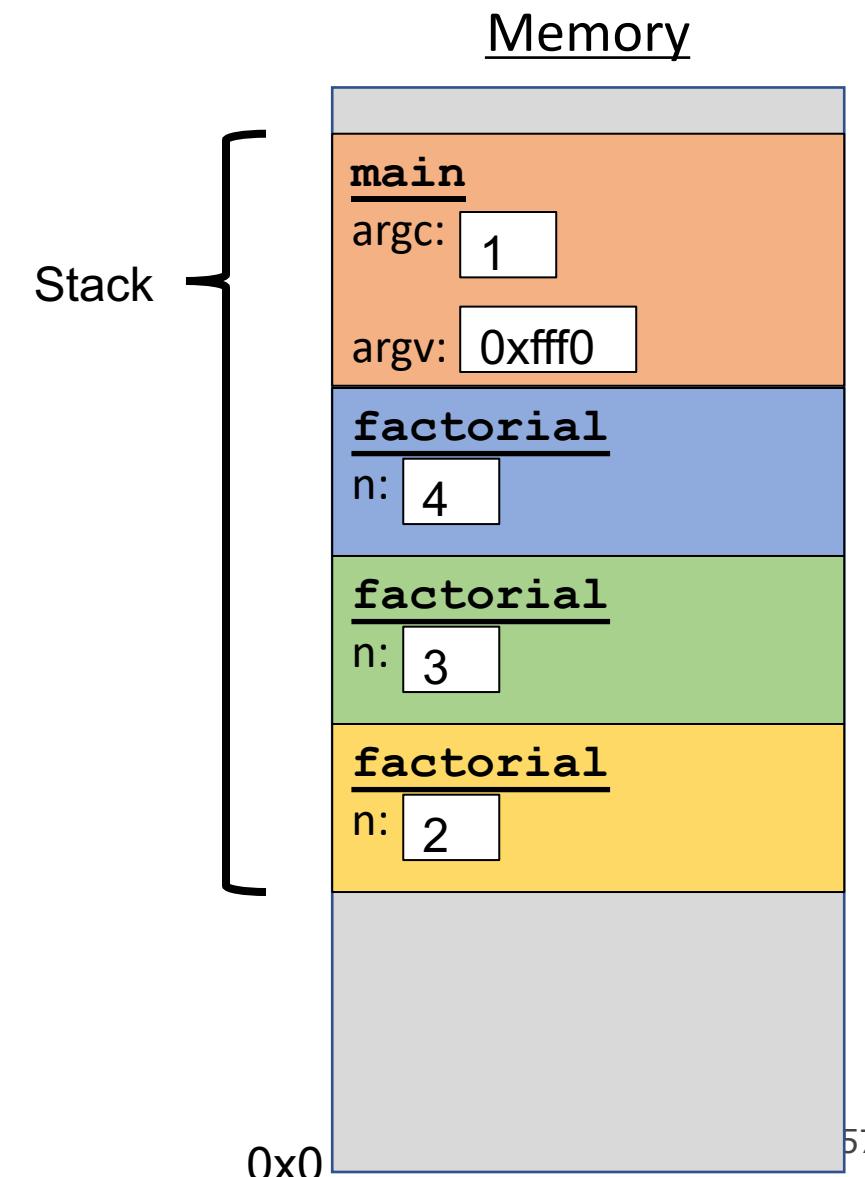


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```

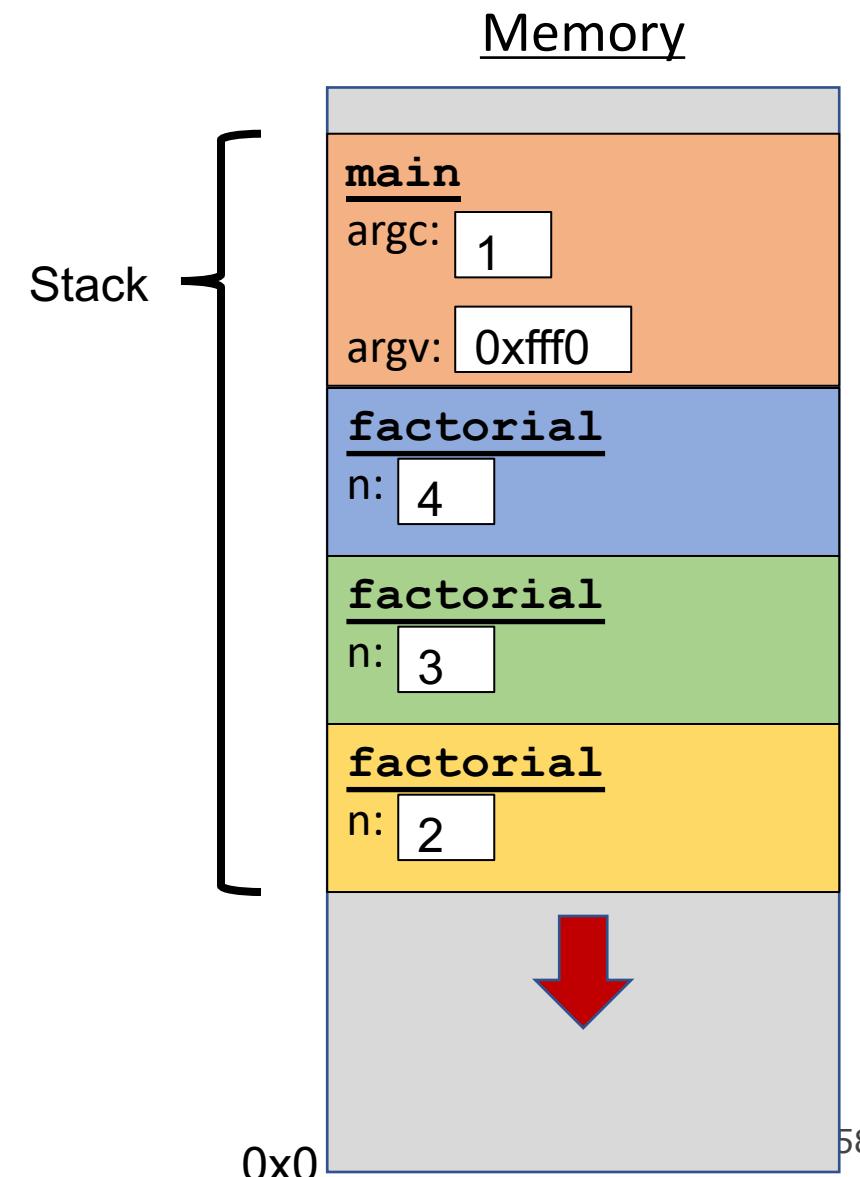


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}

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    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```

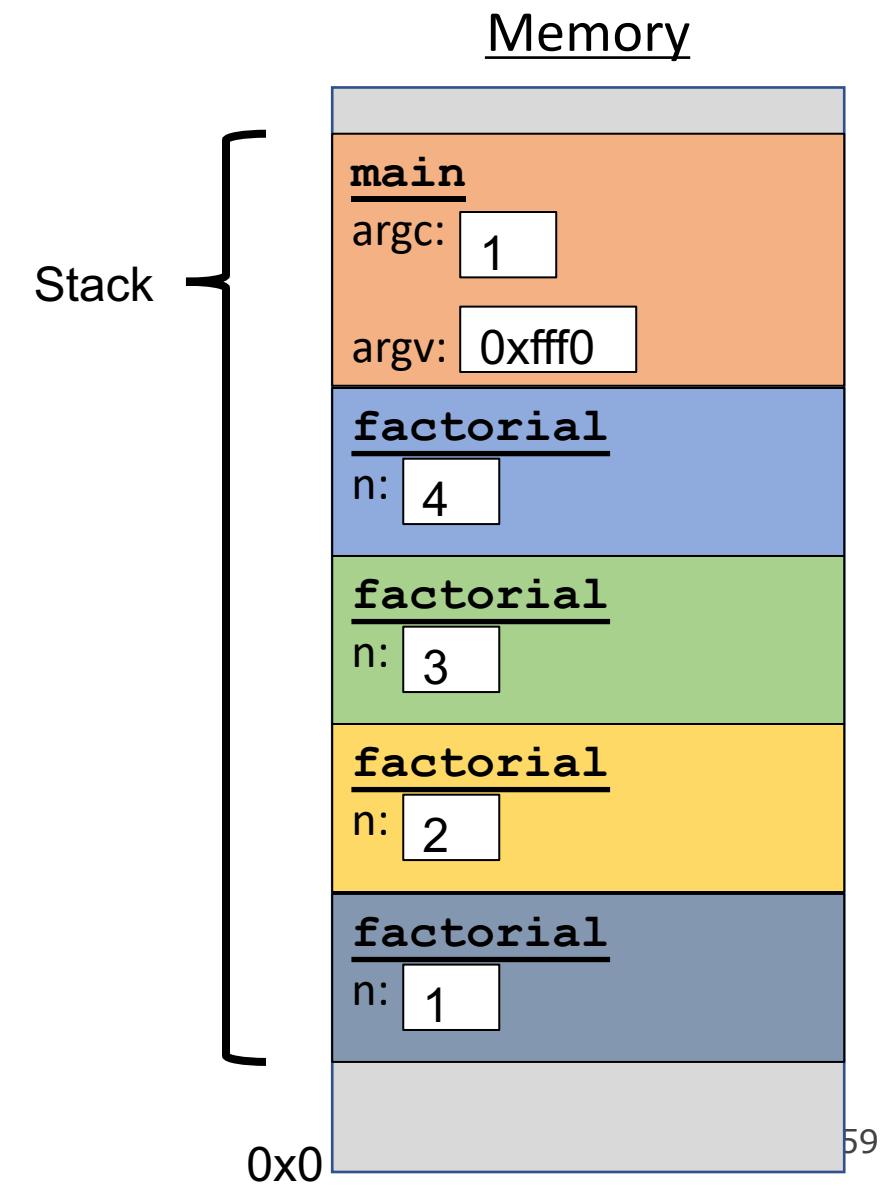


# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

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int factorial(int n) {
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    }
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```

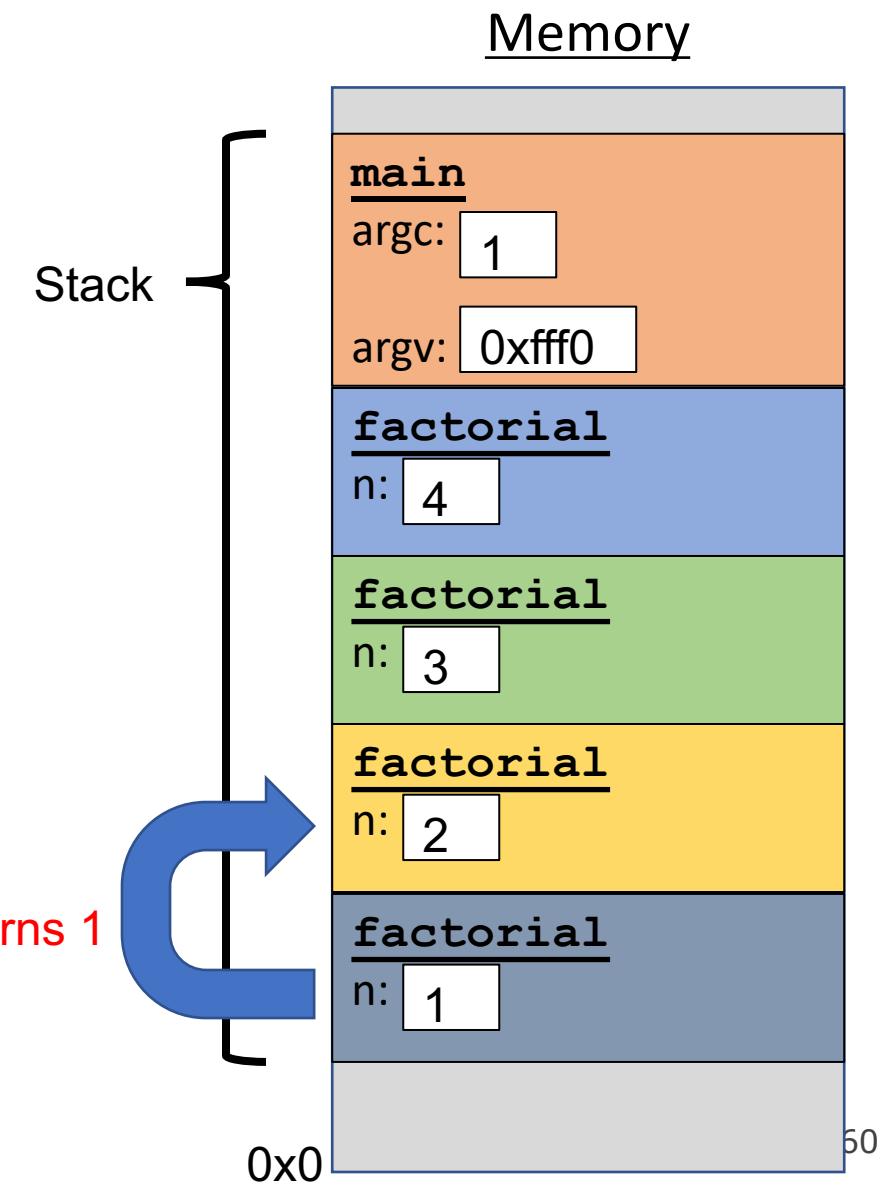


# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

```
int factorial(int n) {
    if (n == 1) {
        return 1;
    } else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1);
    }
}

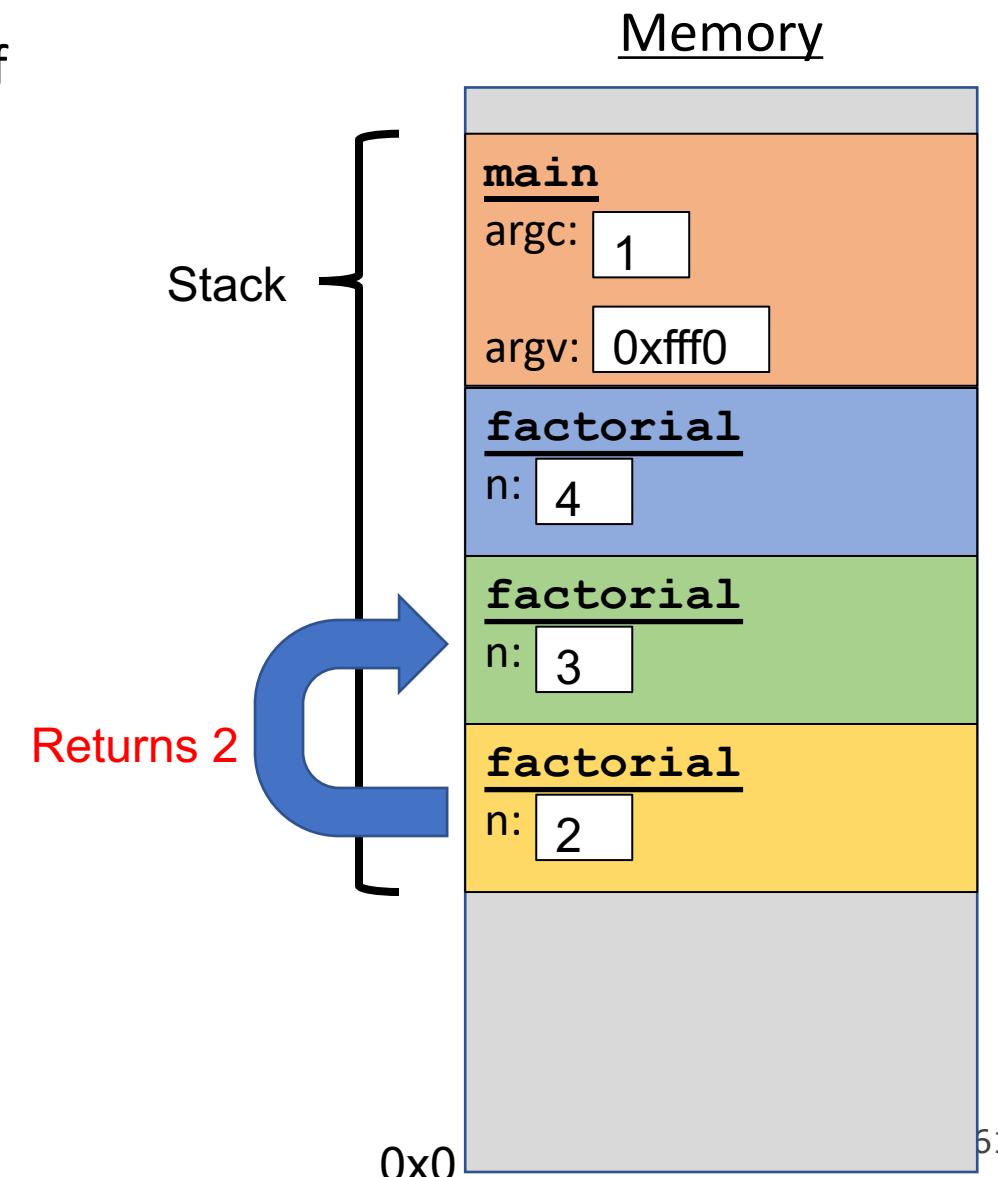
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```



# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

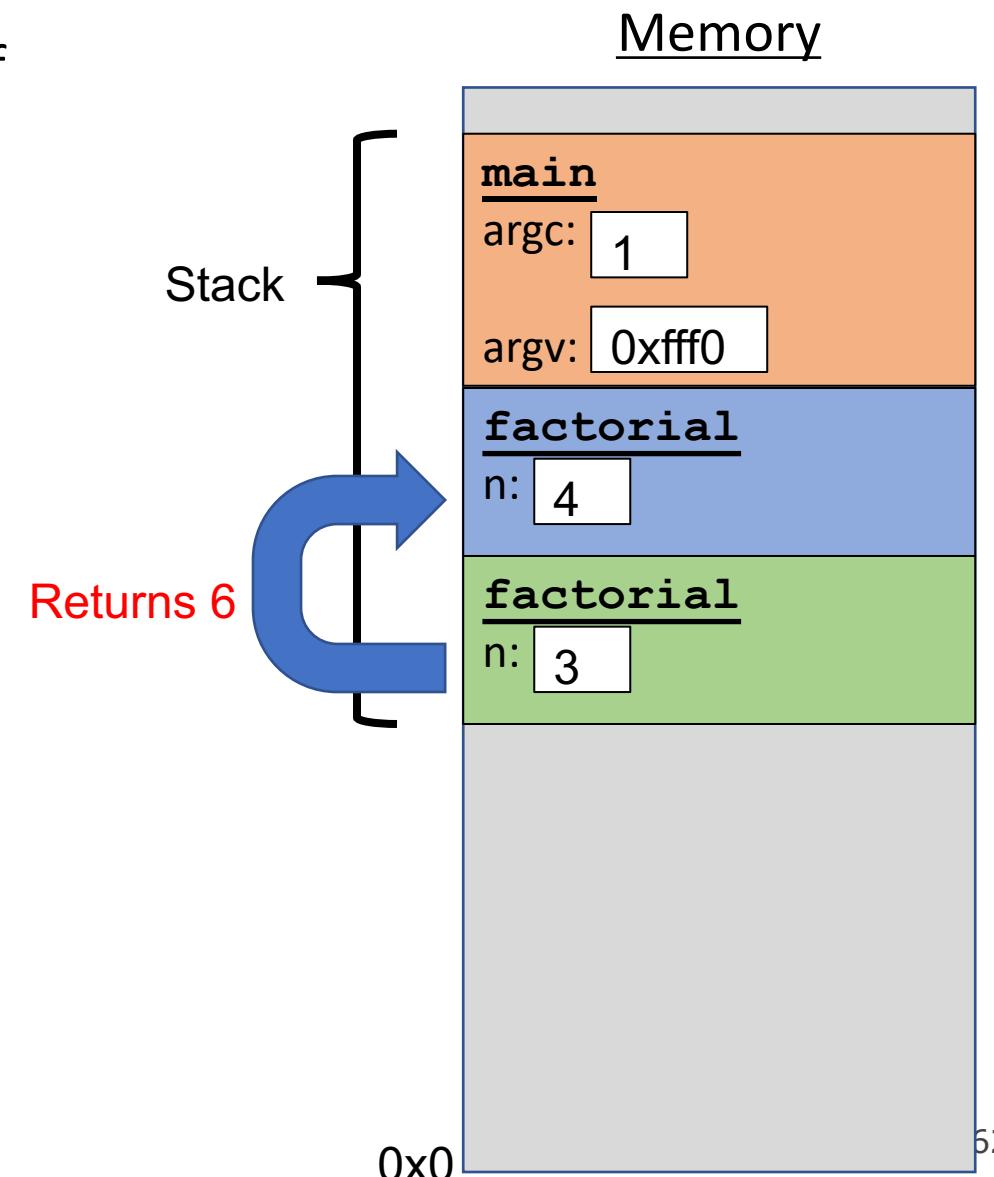
```
int factorial(int n) {  
    if (n == 1) {  
        return 1;  
    } else {  
        return n * factorial(n - 1);  
    }  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("%d", factorial(4));  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

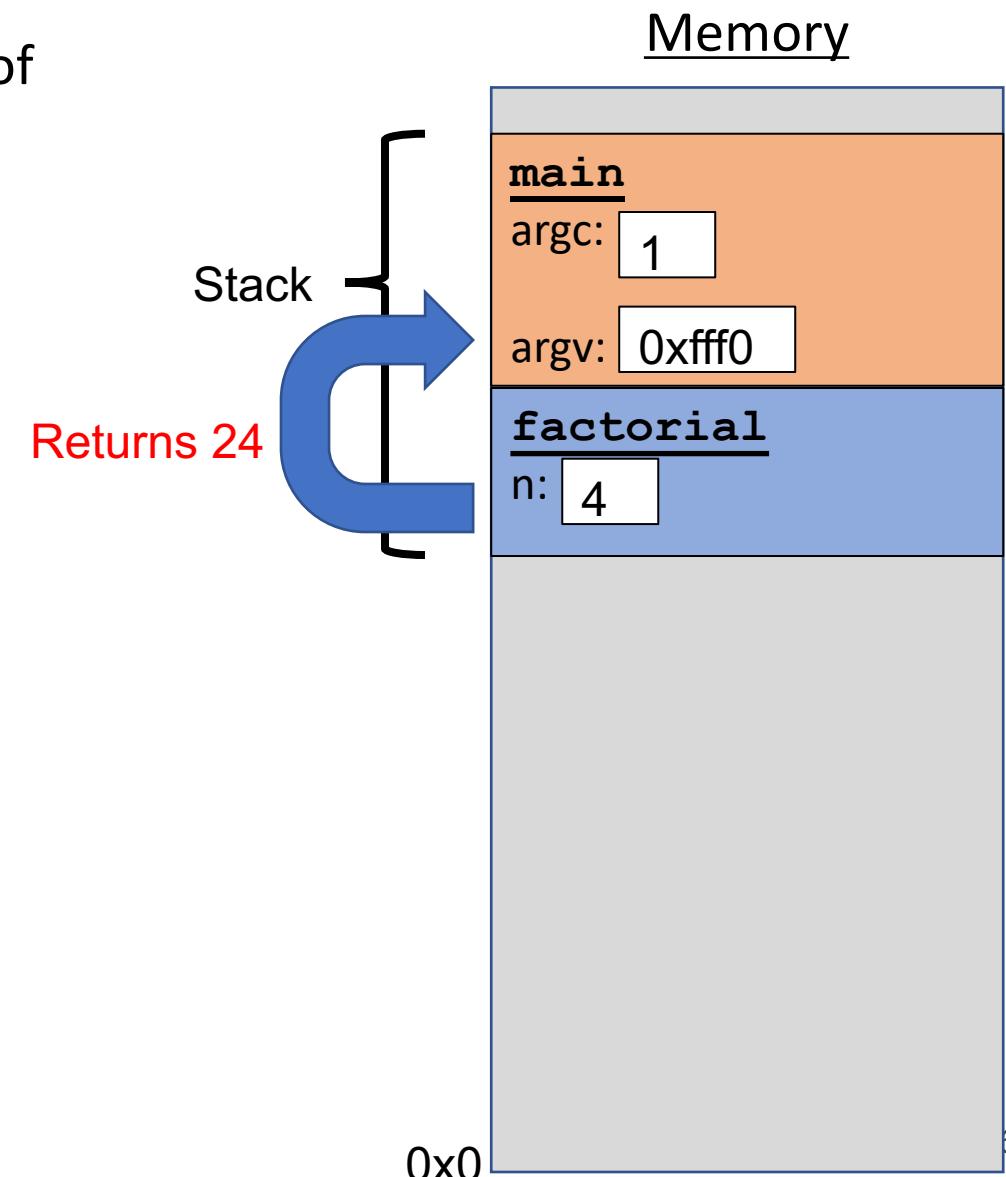
```
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    if (n == 1) {  
        return 1;  
    } else {  
        return n * factorial(n - 1);  
    }  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("%d", factorial(4));  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

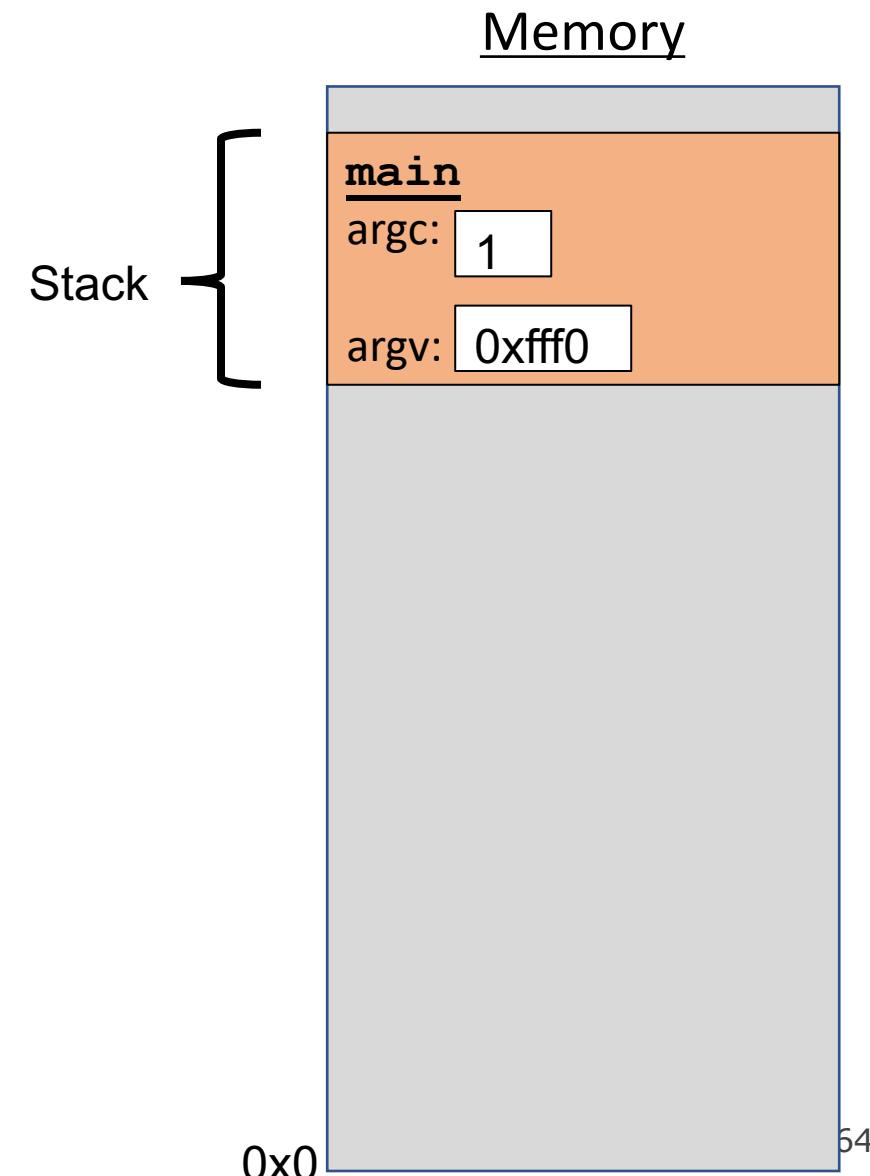
```
int factorial(int n) {  
    if (n == 1) {  
        return 1;  
    } else {  
        return n * factorial(n - 1);  
    }  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("%d", factorial(4));  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

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        return n * factorial(n - 1);  
    }  
  
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("%d", factorial(4));  
    return 0;  
}
```

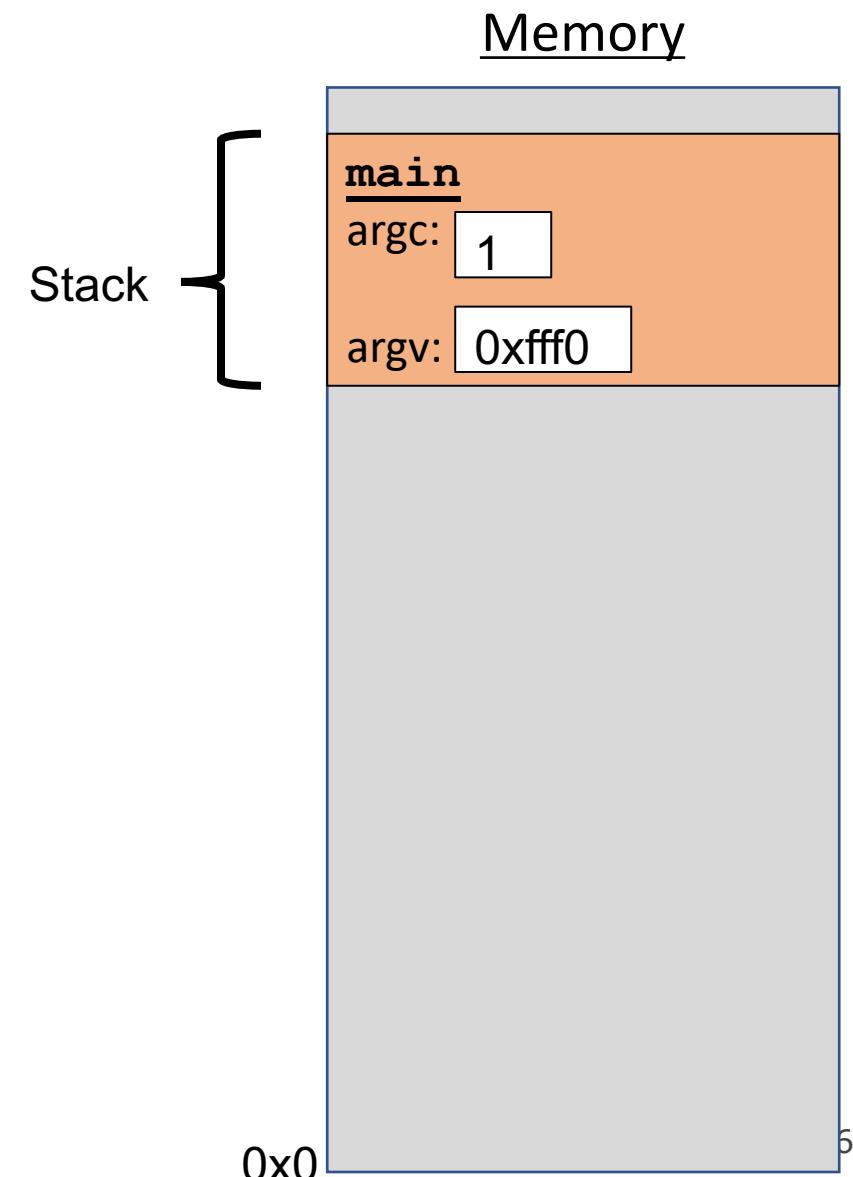


# The Stack

Each function **call** has its own *stack frame* for its own copy of variables.

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int factorial(int n) {
    if (n == 1) {
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    } else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1);
    }
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("%d", factorial(4));
    return 0;
}
```



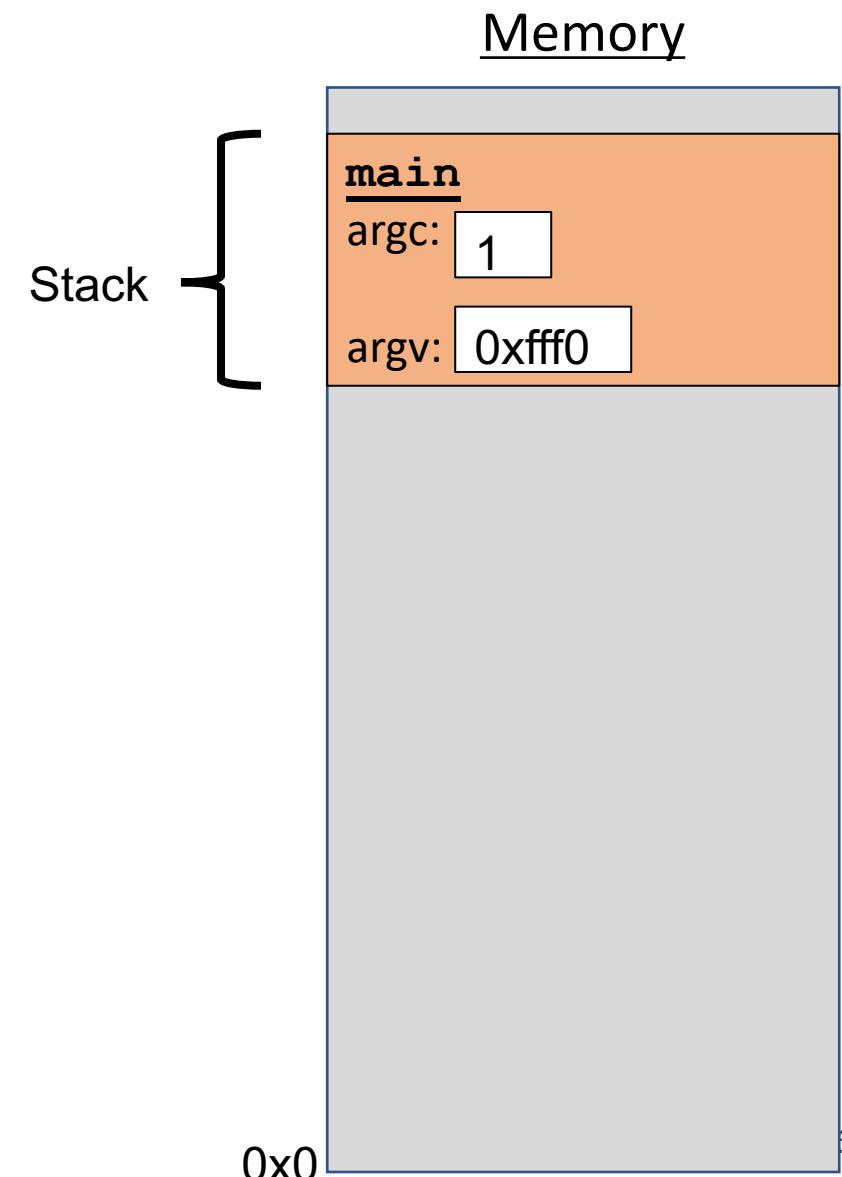
# The Stack

- The stack behaves like a...well...stack! A new function call **pushes** on a new frame. A completed function call **pops** off the most recent frame.
- *Interesting fact:* C does not clear out memory when a function's frame is removed. Instead, it just marks that memory as usable for the next function call. This is more efficient!
- A *stack overflow* is when you use up all stack memory. E.g. a recursive call with too many function calls.
- What are the limitations of the stack?

# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

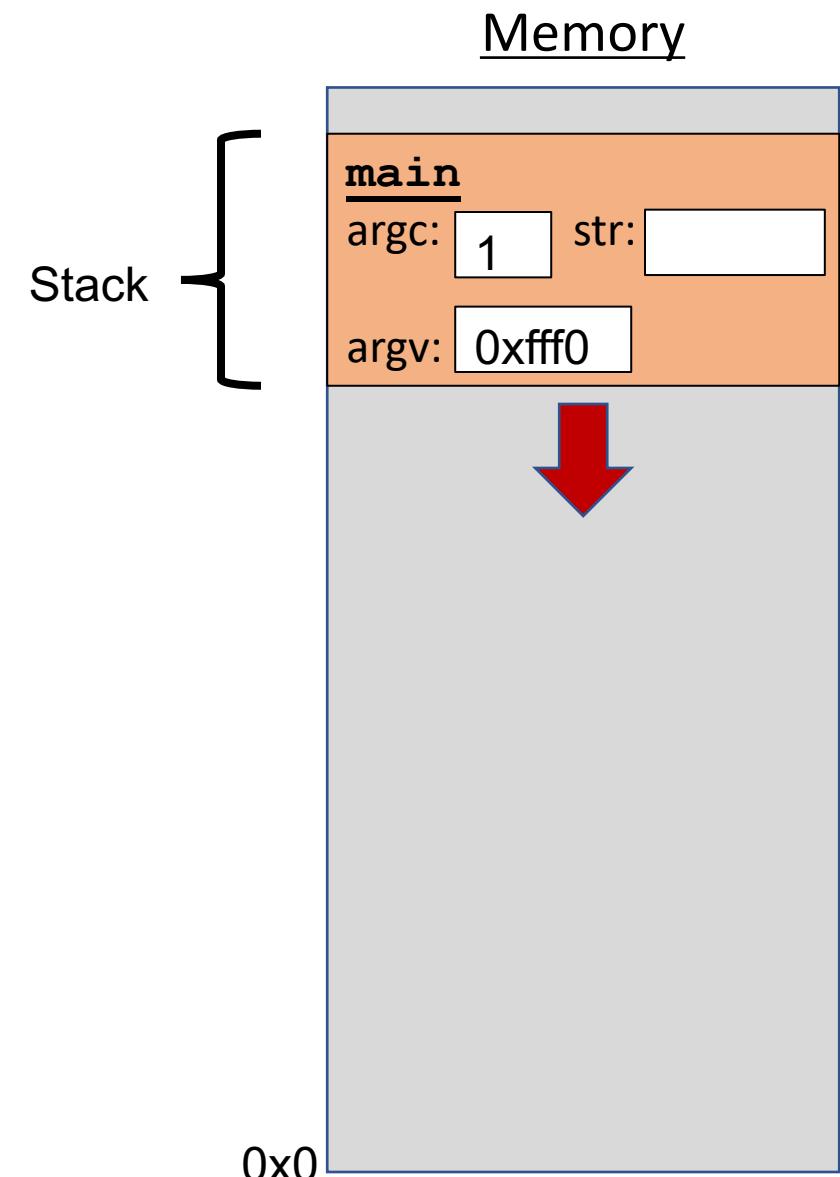
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

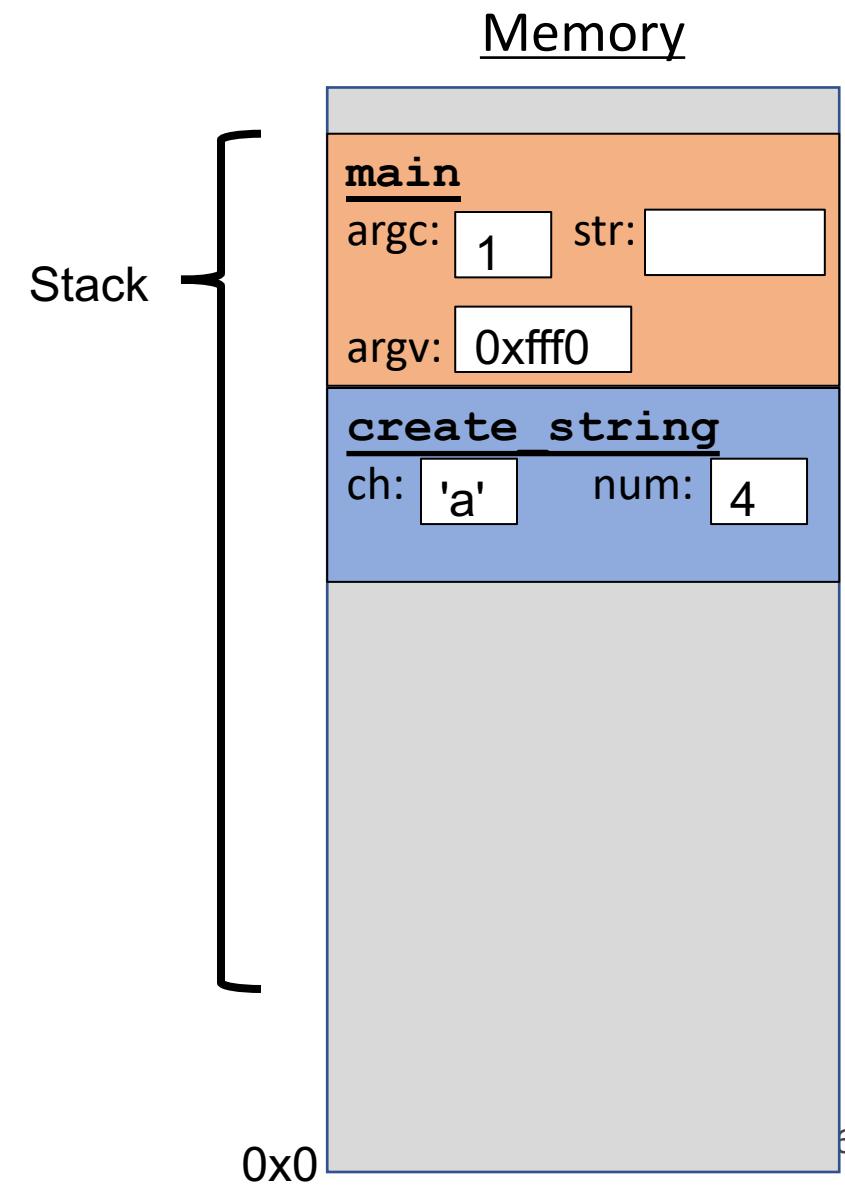
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

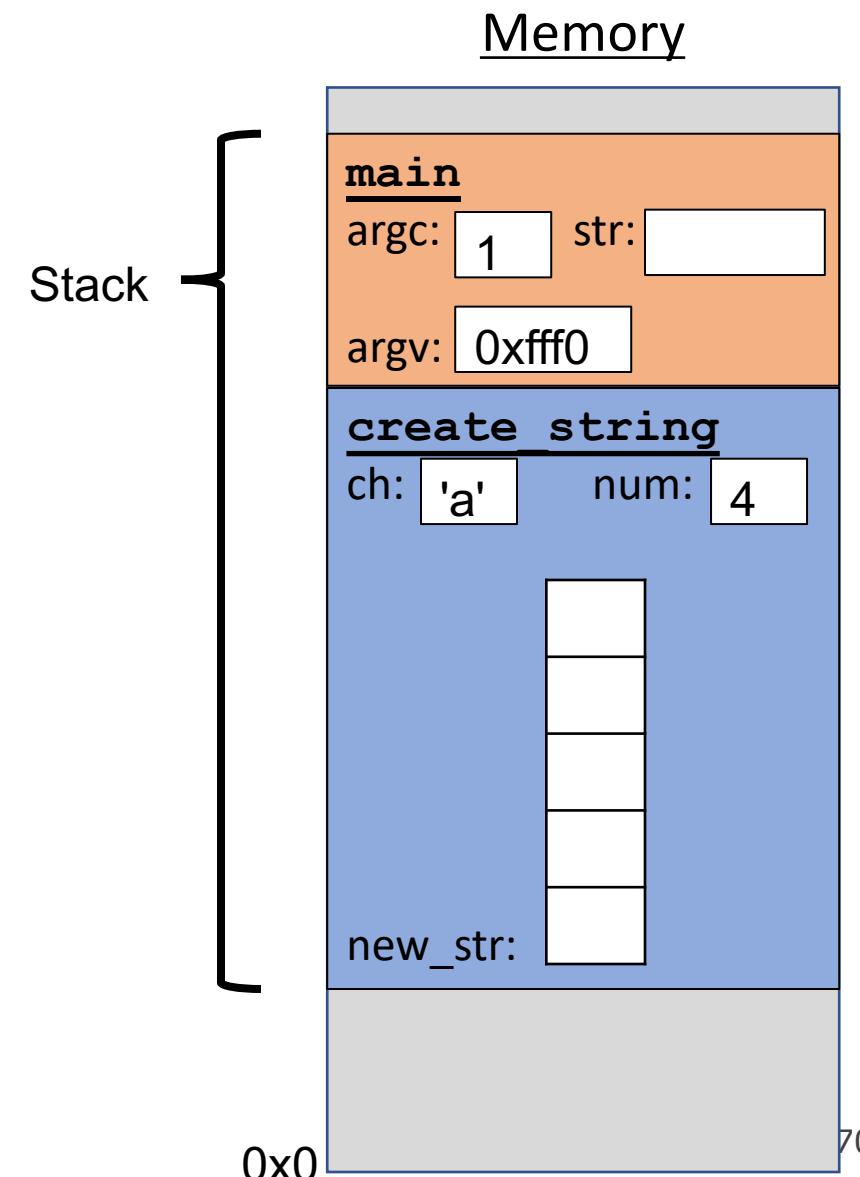
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

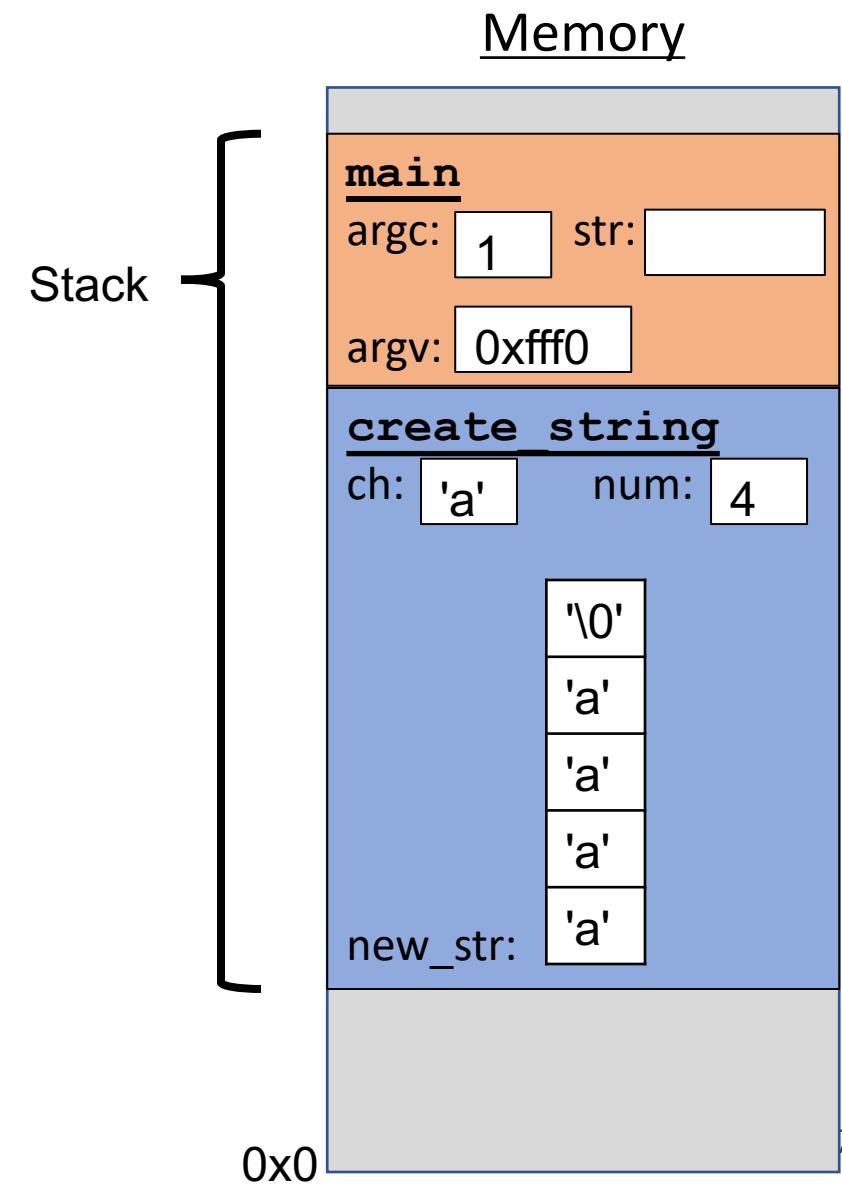
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
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    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

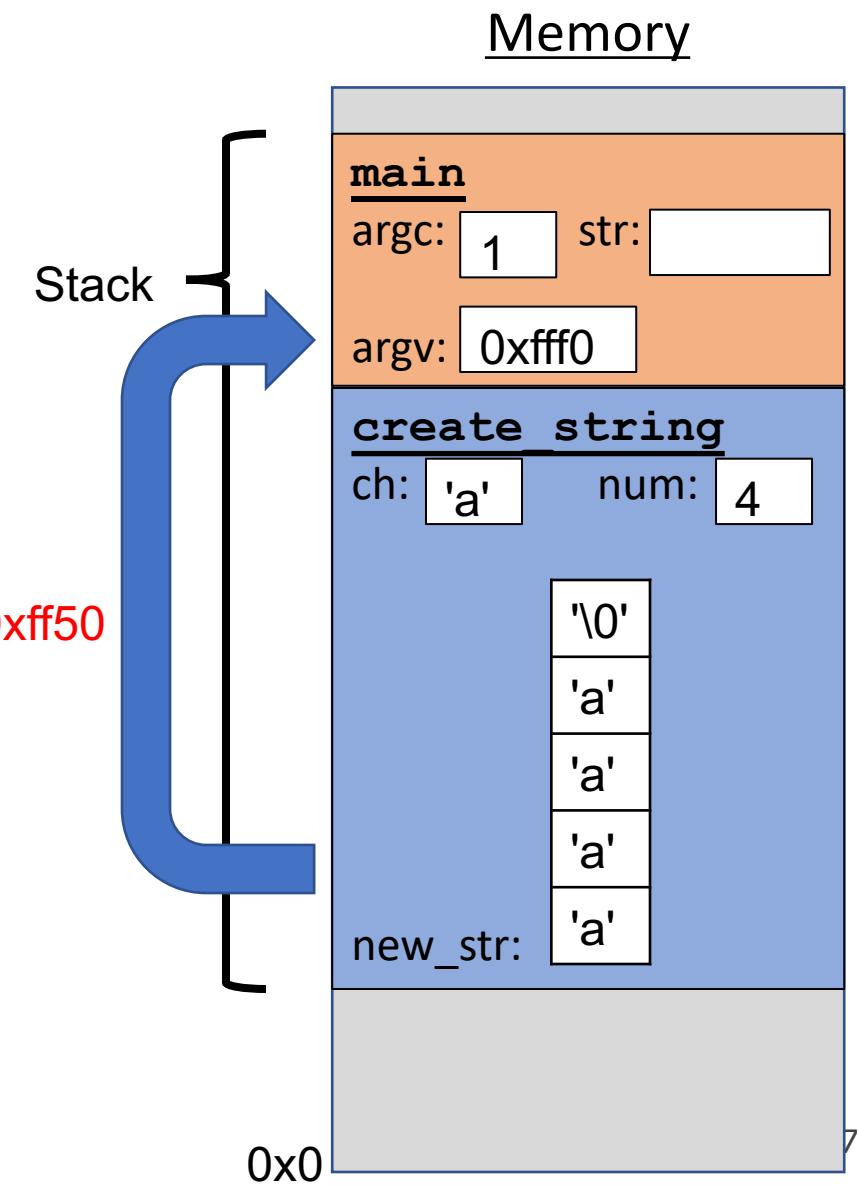


# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

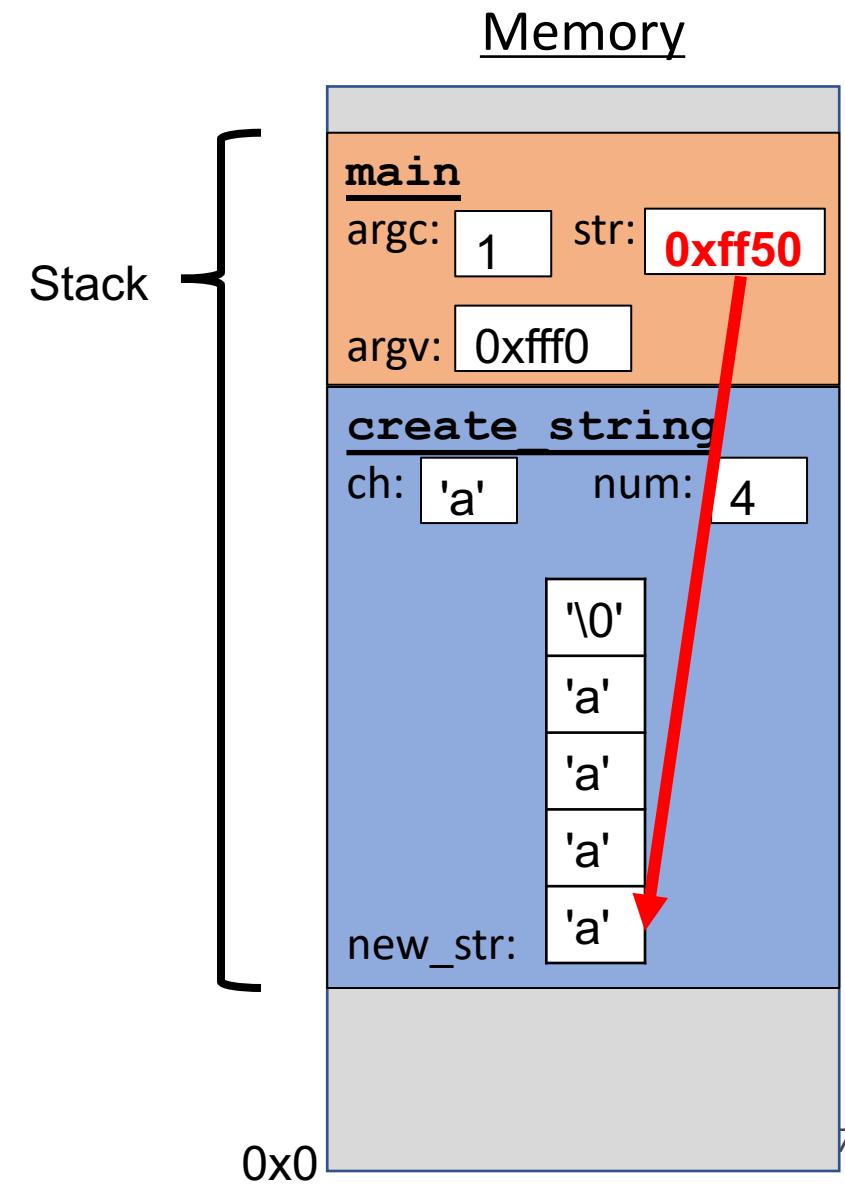
Returns e.g. 0xff50



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

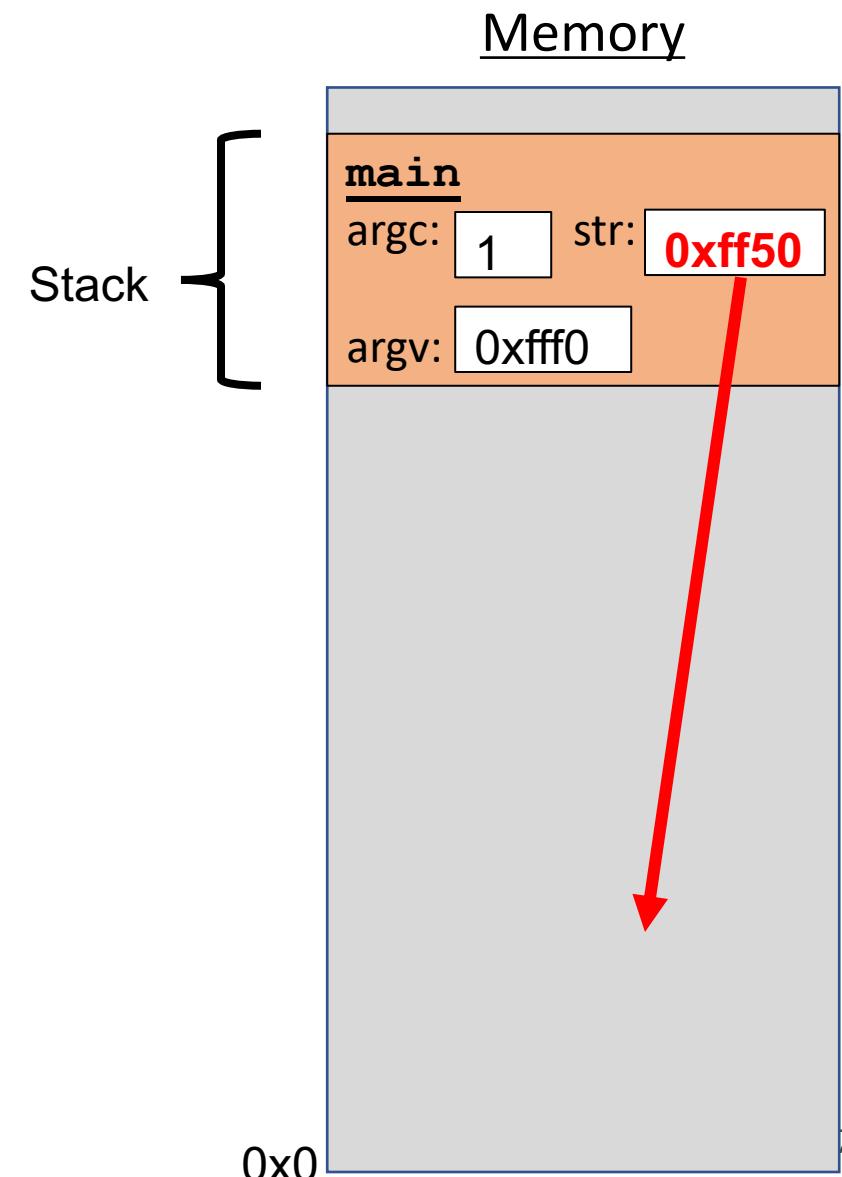
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
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    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

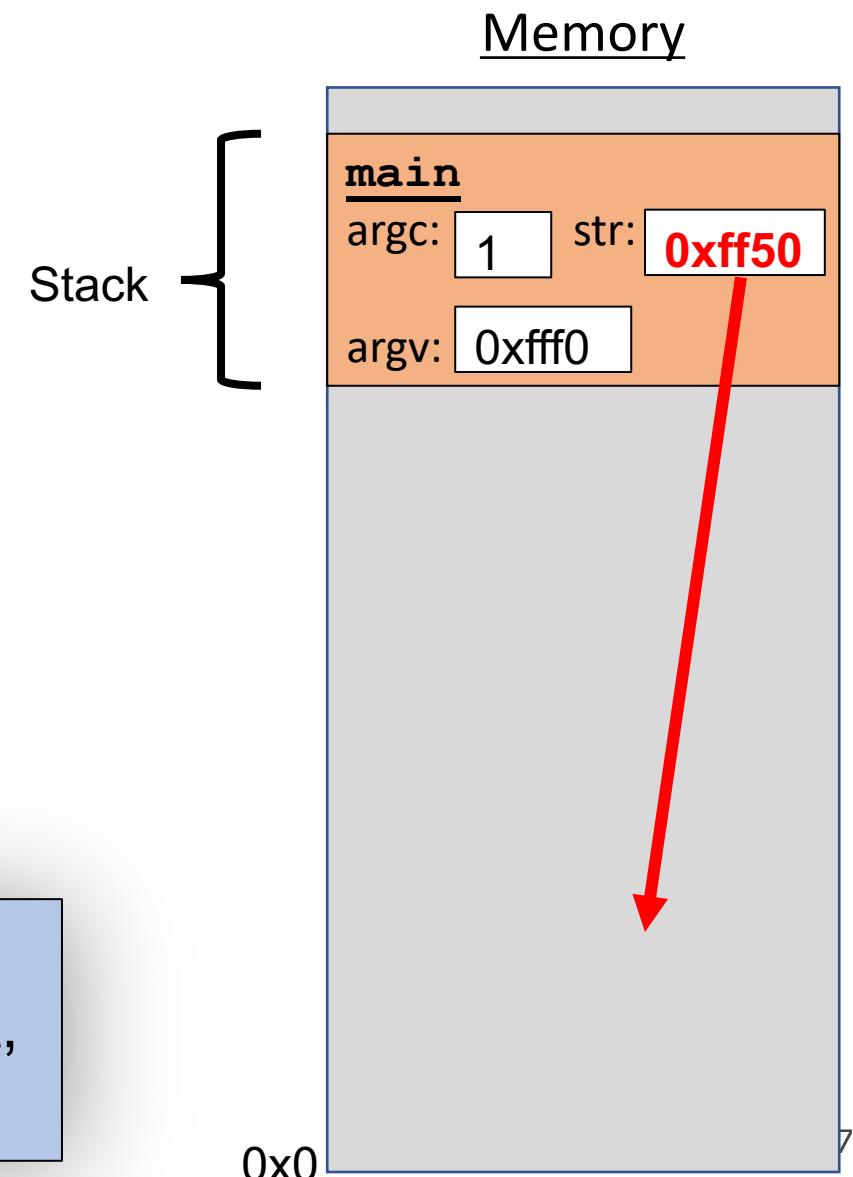


# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

Problem: local variables go away when a function finishes. These characters will thus no longer exist, and the address will be for unknown memory!

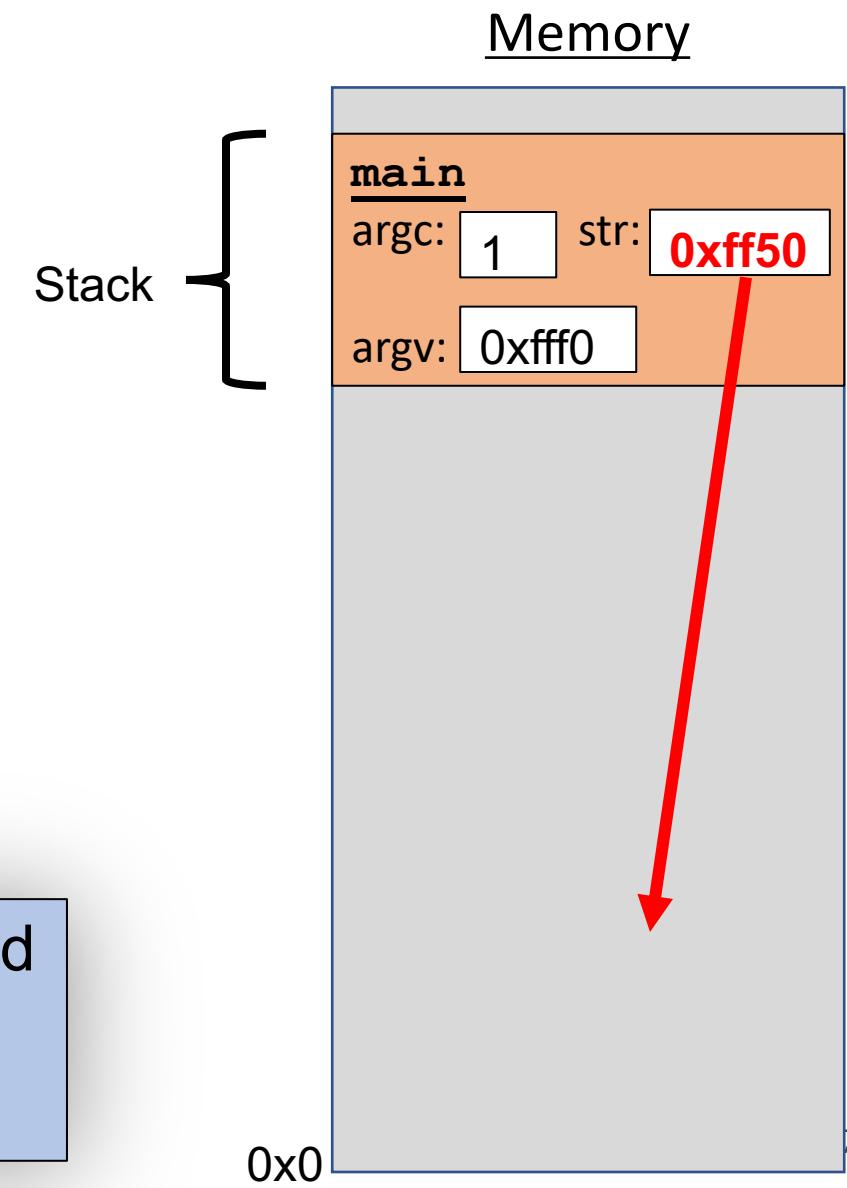


# The Stack

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

Sometimes, we can make the array in the caller and pass it as a parameter. But this isn't always possible if the size isn't known in advance.



# Stacked Against Us

This is a problem! We need a way to have memory that doesn't get cleaned up when a function exits.

# Lecture Plan

- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- **The Heap and Dynamic Memory**
- **Practice:** Pig Latin + Valgrind
- realloc

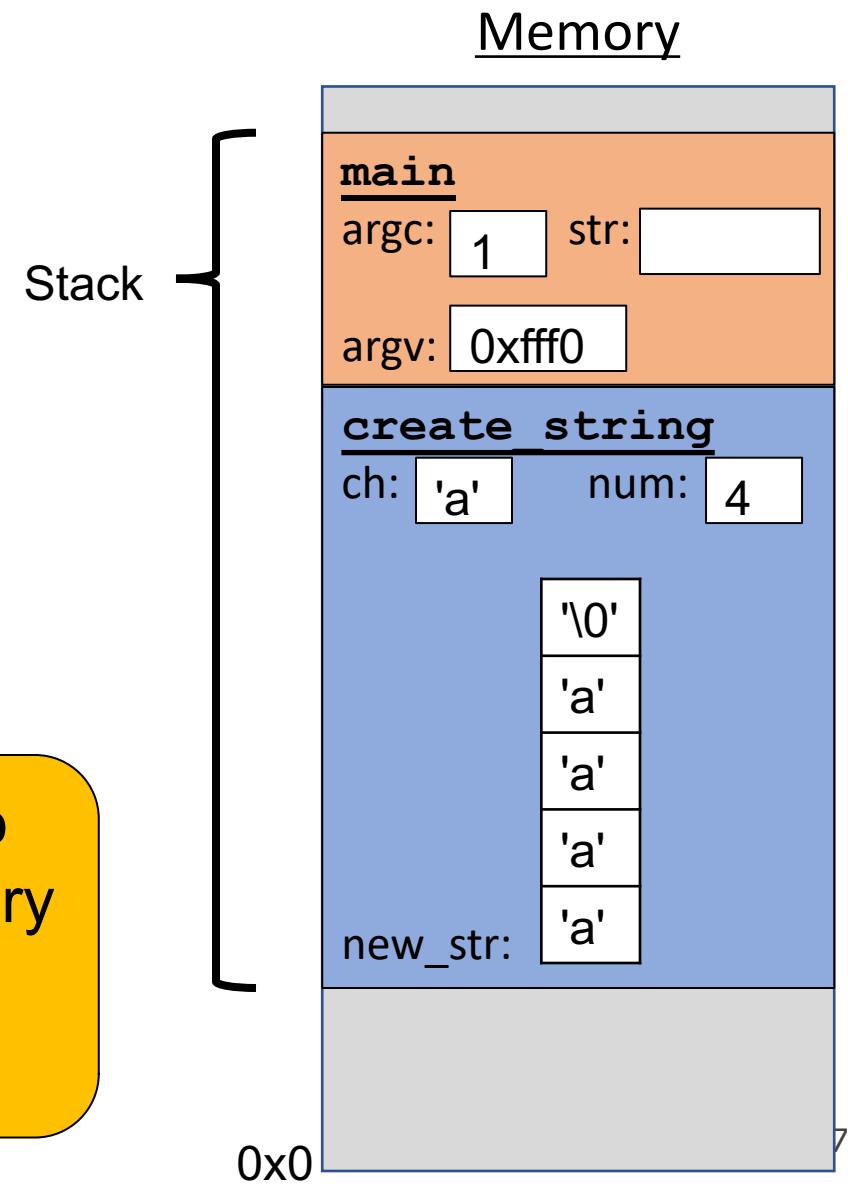
```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

# The Heap

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char new_str[num + 1];  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // won't work  
    return 0;  
}
```

**Us:** hey C, is there a way to make this variable in memory that isn't automatically cleaned up?

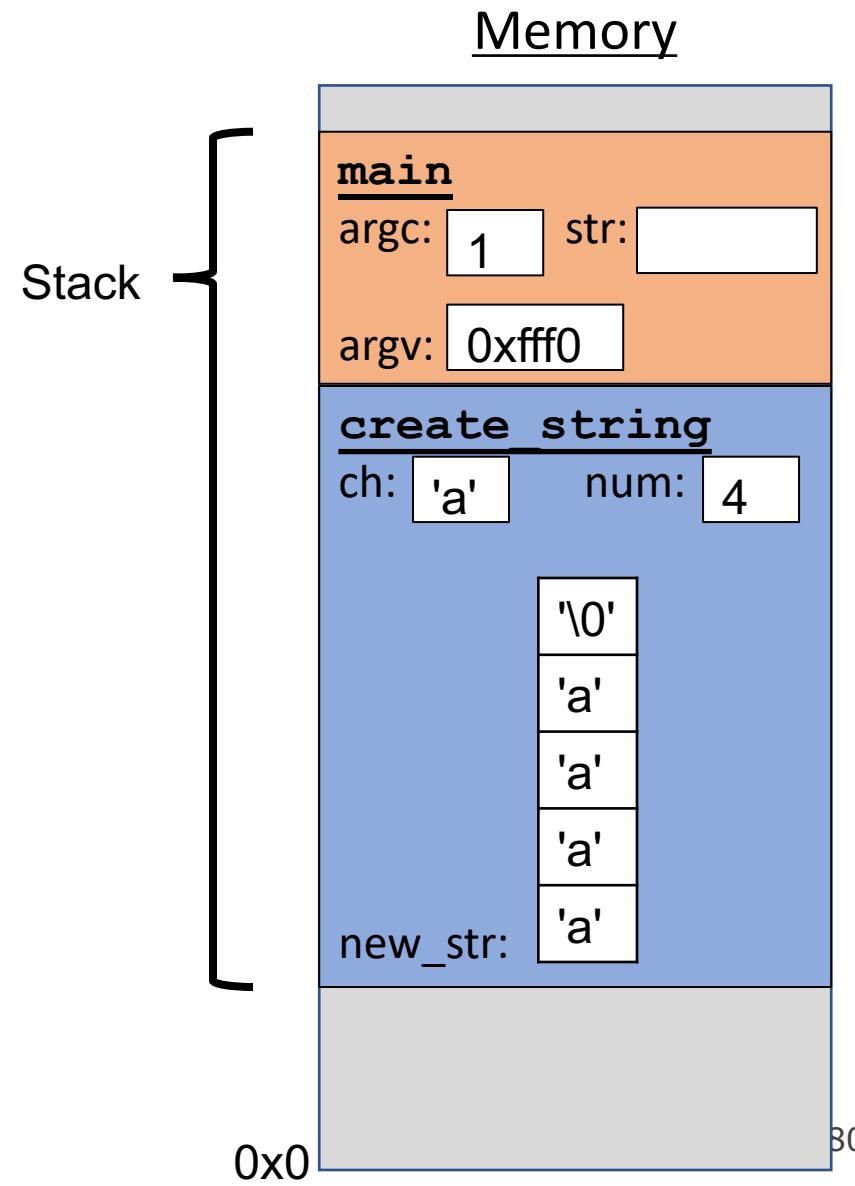


# The Heap

```
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    char new_str[num + 1];  
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    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```

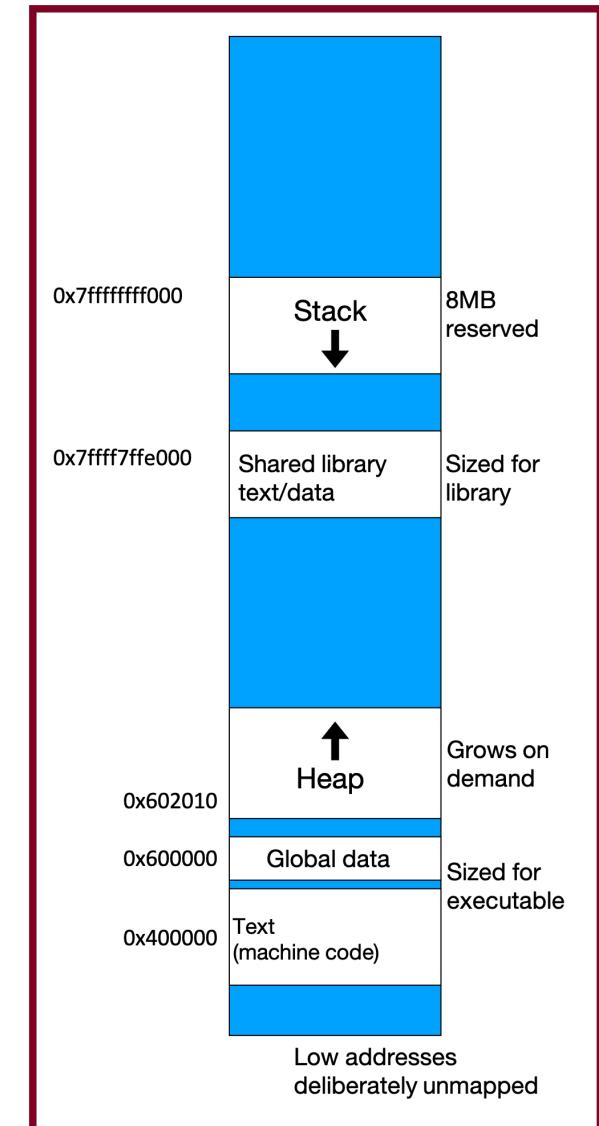
C: sure, but since I don't know  
when to clean it up anymore,  
it's your responsibility...



# The Heap

- The **heap** is a part of memory that you can manage yourself.
- The **heap** is a part of memory below the stack that you can manage yourself. Unlike the stack, the memory only goes away when you delete it yourself.
- Unlike the stack, the heap grows **upwards** as more memory is allocated.

The heap is **dynamic memory** – memory that can be allocated, resized, and freed during **program runtime**.



# Working with the heap

Working with the heap consists of 3 core steps:

1. Allocate memory with malloc/realloc/strdup/calloc
2. Assert heap pointer is not NULL
3. Free when done

The heap is **dynamic memory**, so you may encounter many **runtime errors**, even if your code compiles!

# malloc

```
void *malloc(size_t size);
```

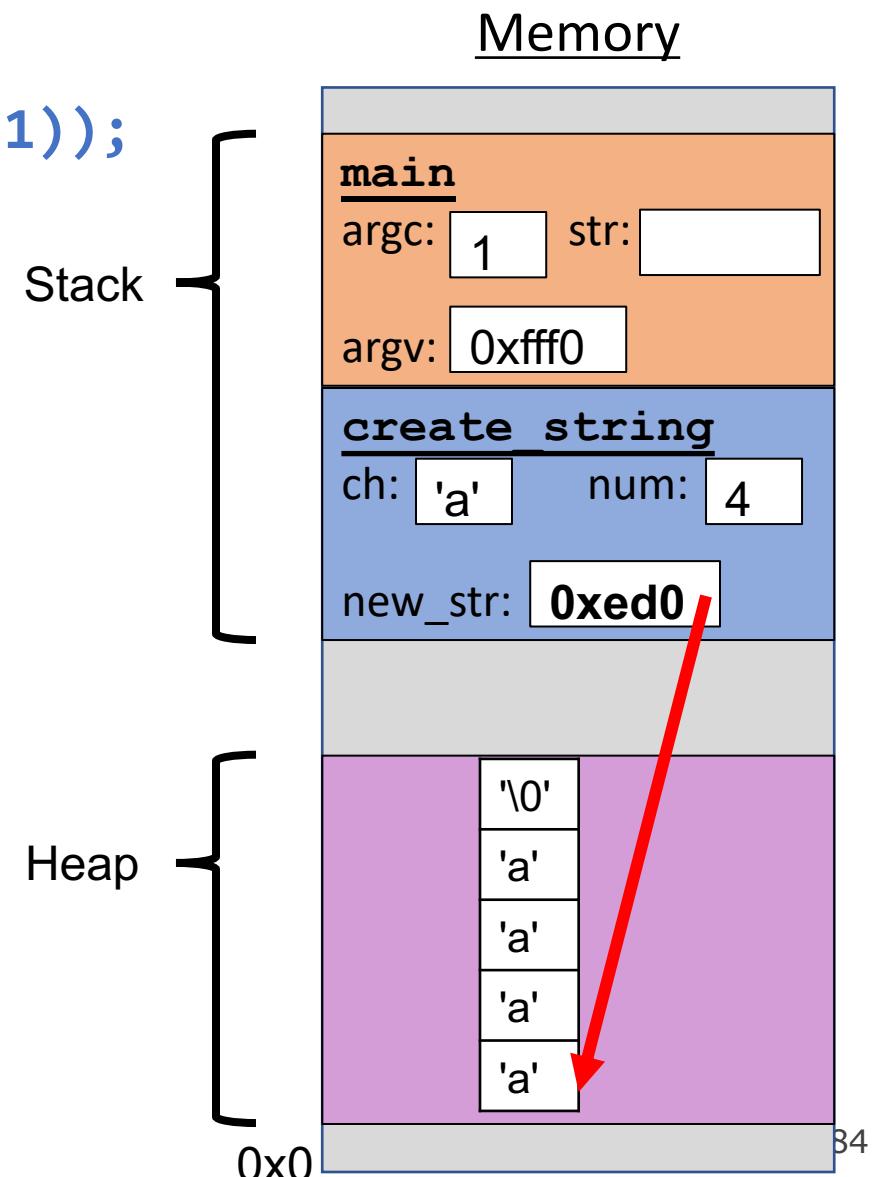
To allocate memory on the heap, use the **malloc** function (“memory allocate”) and specify the number of bytes you’d like.

- This function returns a pointer to *the starting address of the new memory*. It doesn’t know or care whether it will be used as an array, a single block of memory, etc.
- **void \***means a pointer to generic memory. You can set another pointer equal to it without any casting.
- The memory is *not* cleared out before being allocated to you!
- If malloc returns NULL, then there wasn’t enough memory for this request.

# The Heap

```
char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
    char *new_str = malloc(sizeof(char) * (num + 1));  
    for (int i = 0; i < num; i++) {  
        new_str[i] = ch;  
    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
    return new_str;  
}
```

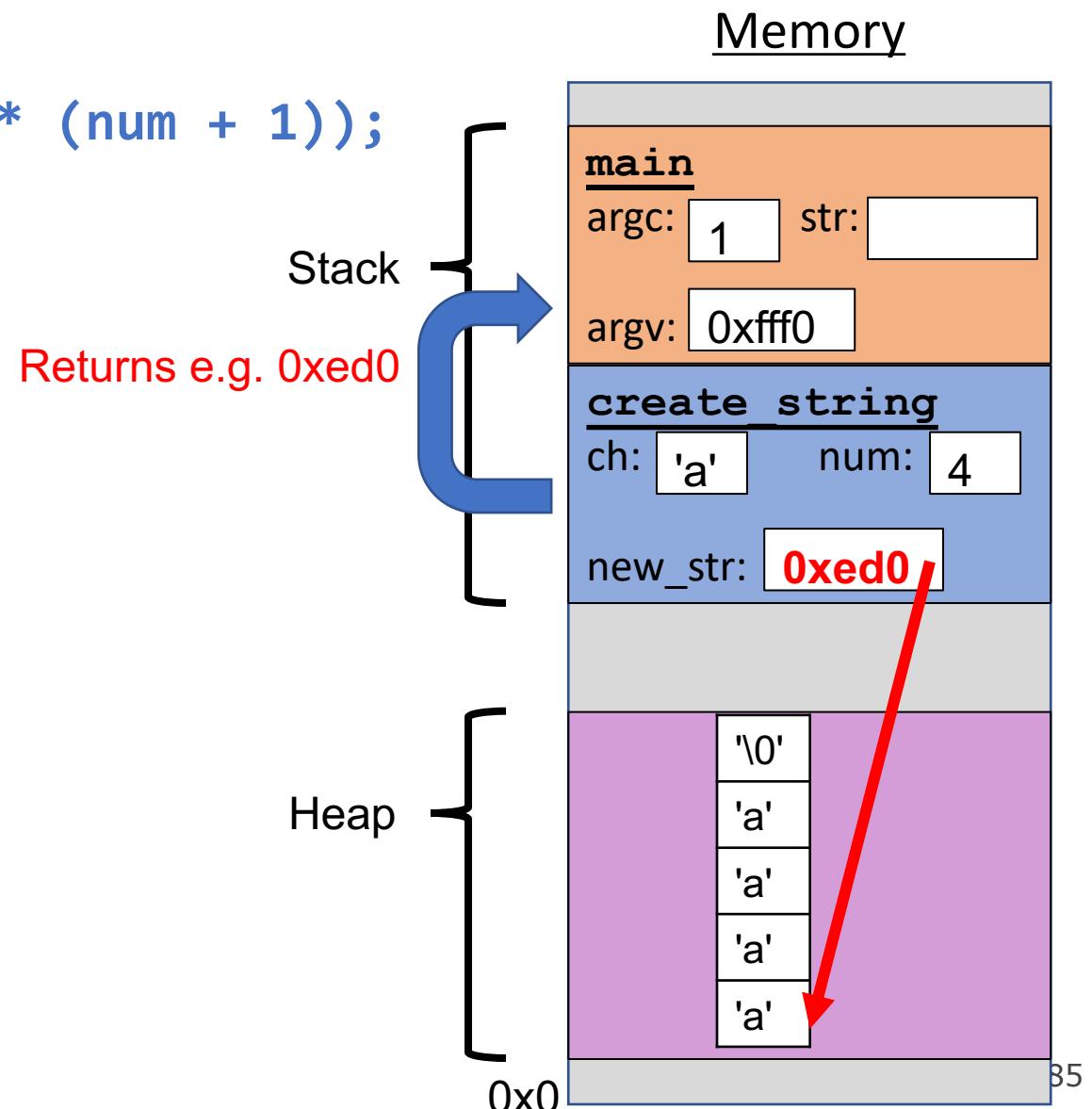
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
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}
```



# The Heap

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```

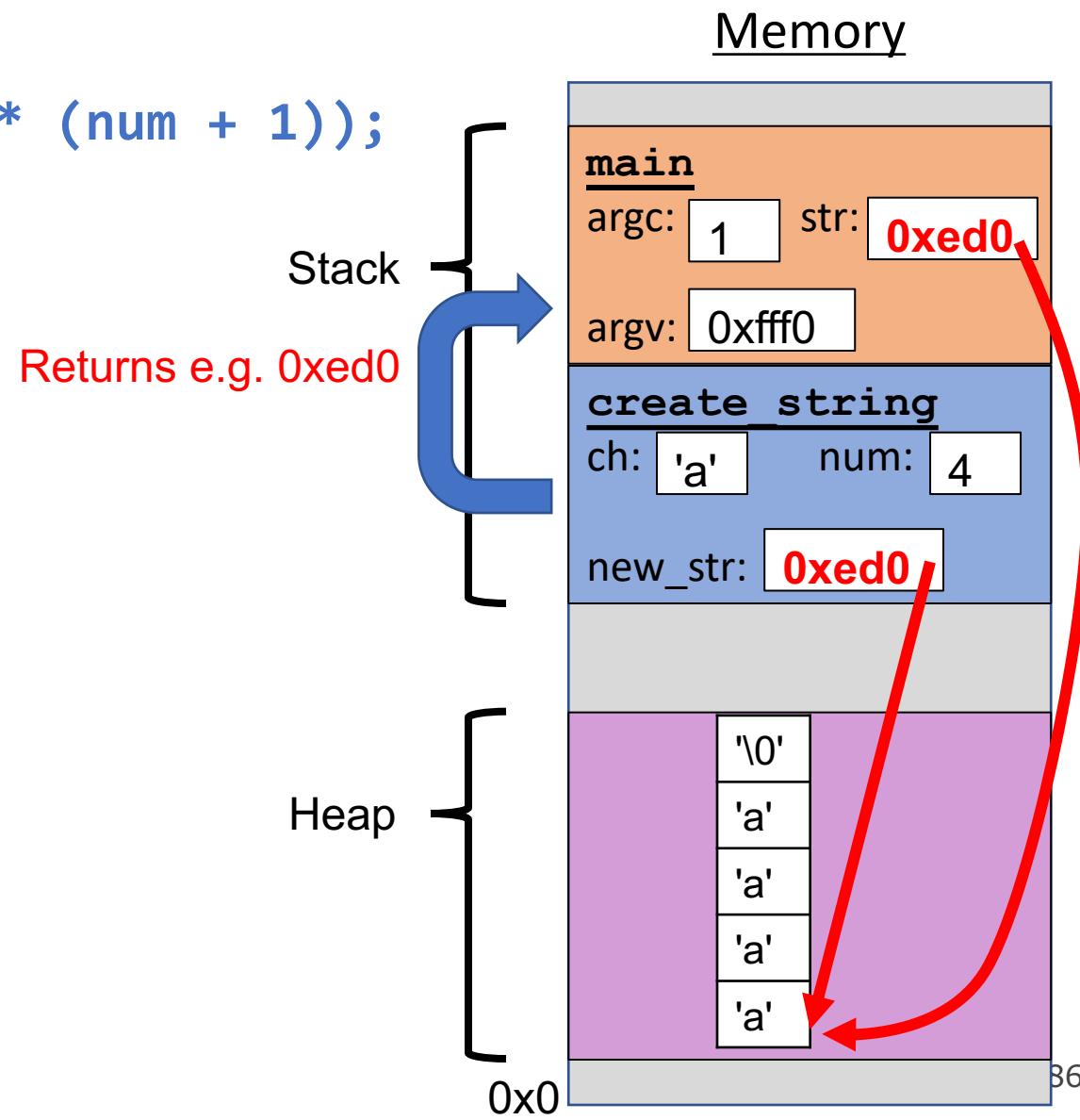
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
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}
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# The Heap

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```

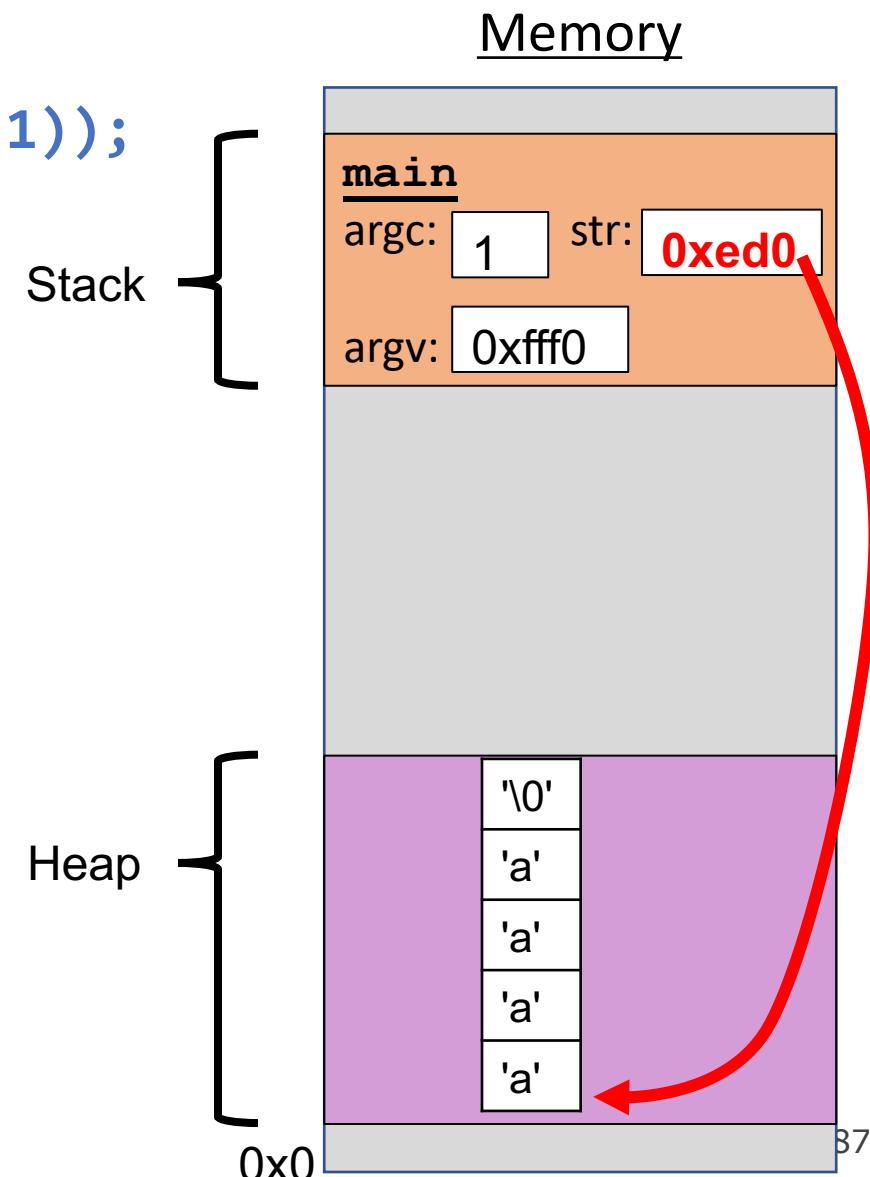
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
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}
```



# The Heap

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    }  
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    return new_str;  
}
```

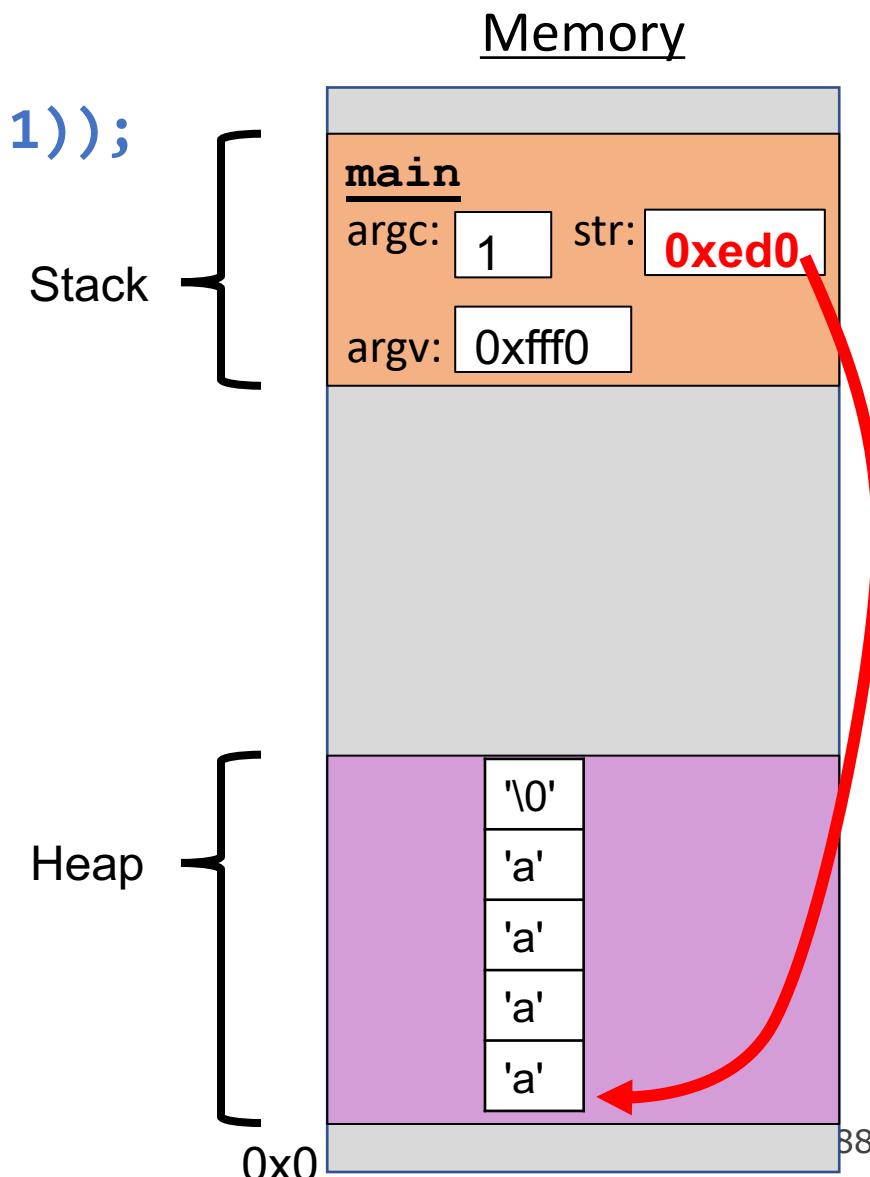
```
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    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
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}
```



# The Heap

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    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
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}
```

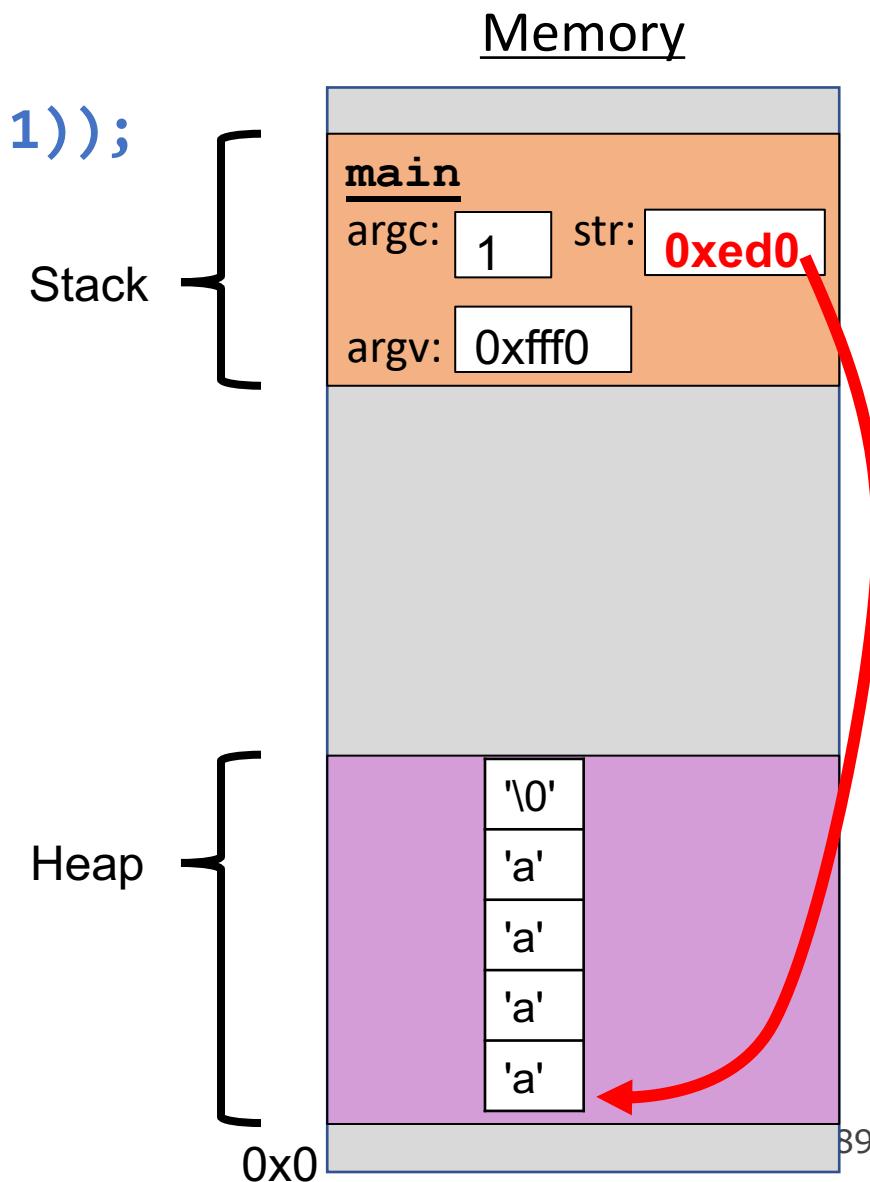
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    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# The Heap

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char *create_string(char ch, int num) {  
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    }  
    new_str[num] = '\0';  
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```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    char *str = create_string('a', 4);  
    printf("%s", str); // want "aaaa"  
    return 0;  
}
```



# Exercise: malloc multiples

Let's write a function that returns an array of the first **len** multiples of **mult**.

```
1 int *array_of_multiples(int mult, int len) {  
2     /* TODO: arr declaration here */  
3  
4     for (int i = 0; i < len; i++) {  
5         arr[i] = mult * (i + 1);  
6     }  
7     return arr;  
8 }
```

Line 2: How should we declare arr?

- A. `int arr[len];`
- B. `int arr[] = malloc(sizeof(int));`
- C. `int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * len);`
- D. `int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * (len + 1));`
- E. Something else



# Exercise: malloc multiples

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3  
4     for (int i = 0; i < len; i++) {  
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6     }  
7     return arr;  
8 }
```

Line 2: How should we declare arr?

- A. `int arr[len];`
- B. `int arr[] = malloc(sizeof(int));`
- C. `int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * len);`
- D. `int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * (len + 1));`
- E. Something else

- Use a pointer to store the address returned by malloc.
- Malloc's argument is the **number of bytes** to allocate.

⚠ This code is missing an assertion.

# Always assert with the heap

Let's write a function that returns an array of the first **len** multiples of **mult**.

```
1 int *array_of_multiples(int mult, int len) {  
2     int *arr = malloc(sizeof(int) * len);  
3     assert(arr != NULL);  
4     for (int i = 0; i < len; i++) {  
5         arr[i] = mult * (i + 1);  
6     }  
7     return arr;  
8 }
```

- If an allocation error occurs (e.g. out of heap memory!), malloc will return NULL. This is an important case to check **for robustness**.
- **assert** will crash the program if the provided condition is false. A memory allocation error is significant, and we should terminate the program.

# Other heap allocations: calloc

```
void *calloc(size_t nmemb, size_t size);
```

`calloc` is like `malloc` that **zeros out** the memory for you—thanks, `calloc`!

- You might notice its interface is also a little different—it takes two parameters, which are multiplied to calculate the number of bytes (`nmemb * size`).

```
// allocate and zero 20 ints
int *scores = calloc(20, sizeof(int));

// alternate (but slower)
int *scores = malloc(20 * sizeof(int));
for (int i = 0; i < 20; i++) scores[i] = 0;
```

- `calloc` is more expensive than `malloc` because it zeros out memory. Use only when necessary!

# Other heap allocations: strdup

```
char *strdup(char *s);
```

**strdup** is a convenience function that returns a **null-terminated**, heap-allocated string with the provided text, instead of you having to **malloc** and copy in the string yourself.

```
char *str = strdup("Hello, world!"); // on heap  
str[0] = 'h';
```

You could imagine **strdup** might be implemented in terms of **malloc + strcpy**.

# Cleaning Up with free

```
void free(void *ptr);
```

- If we allocated memory on the heap and no longer need it, it is our responsibility to **delete** it.
- To do this, use the **free** command and pass in the *starting address on the heap for the memory you no longer need*.
- Example:

```
char *bytes = malloc(4);
```

...

```
free(bytes);
```

# Free

```
void free(void *ptr);
```

When you free an allocation, you are freeing up what it *points* to. You are not freeing the pointer itself. You can still use the pointer to point to something else.

```
char *str = strdup("hello");
```

```
...
```

```
free(str);
```

```
str = strdup("hi");
```



# free details

Even if you have multiple pointers to the same block of memory, each memory block should only be freed once.

```
char *bytes = malloc(4);  
char *ptr = bytes;
```

...  
`free(bytes);` ← 

...  
`free(ptr);` ←  **Memory at this address was already freed!**

You must free the address you received in the previous allocation call; you cannot free just part of a previous allocation.

```
char *bytes = malloc(4);  
char *ptr = malloc(10);
```

...  
`free(bytes);` ← 

...  
`free(ptr + 1);` ← 

# Cleaning Up

You may need to free memory allocated by other functions if that function expects the caller to handle memory cleanup.

```
char *str = strdup("Hello!");  
...  
free(str);    // our responsibility to free!
```

# Memory Leaks

A **memory leak** is when you do not free memory you previously allocated.

```
char *str = strdup("hello");  
...  
str = strdup("hi"); // memory leak! Lost previous str
```

# Memory Leaks

- A memory leak is when you allocate memory on the heap, but do not free it.
- Your program should be responsible for cleaning up any memory it allocates but no longer needs.
- If you never free any memory and allocate an extremely large amount, you may run out of memory in the heap!
- However, memory leaks rarely (if ever) cause crashes.
- We recommend not to worry about freeing memory until your program is written. Then, go back and free memory as appropriate.
- Valgrind is a very helpful tool for finding memory leaks!

# Lecture Plan

- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice: Pig Latin + Valgrind**
- realloc

```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

# Example: Pig Latin

Let's write a program that can convert text to Pig Latin! Simplified Pig Latin rules:

- If the word starts with a vowel, append “way”: *apple* -> *appleway*
- Otherwise, move all starting consonants to the end and append “ay”: *bridge* -> *idgebray*

We want to write a function **char \*pig\_latin(const char \*in)** that returns the Pig Latin version of the given string.

- Good use case for heap allocation – array size is unknown until we convert it to Pig Latin! We'll create and return a heap-allocated string.
- The caller must free the string when it is done.

# Example: Pig Latin

We will also see an example of how to uncover memory leaks using Valgrind.

```
valgrind --leak-check=full --show-leak-kinds=all [program info here]
```

# Demo: Pig Latin + Valgrind



pig\_latin.c

# Lecture Plan

- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice:** Pig Latin + Valgrind
- realloc

```
cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/lecture-code/lect7 .
```

# realloc

```
void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size);
```

- The **realloc** function takes an existing allocation pointer and enlarges to a new requested size. It returns the new pointer.
- If there is enough space after the existing memory block on the heap for the new size, **realloc** simply adds that space to the allocation.
- If there is not enough space, **realloc** *moves the memory to a larger location*, frees the old memory for you, and *returns a pointer to the new location*.

# realloc

```
char *str = strdup("Hello");
```

```
assert(str != NULL);
```

```
...
```

```
// want to make str longer to hold "Hello world!"
```

```
char *addition = " world!";
```

```
str = realloc(str, strlen(str) + strlen(addition) + 1);
```

```
assert(str != NULL);
```

```
strcat(str, addition);
```

```
printf("%s", str);
```

```
free(str);
```

# realloc

- realloc only accepts pointers that were previously returned by malloc/etc.
- Make sure to not pass pointers to the middle of heap-allocated memory.
- Make sure to not pass pointers to stack memory.

# Cleaning Up with free and realloc

You only need to free the new memory coming out of `realloc`—the previous (smaller) one was already reclaimed by `realloc`.

```
char *str = strdup("Hello");
assert(str != NULL);

...
// want to make str longer to hold "Hello world!"
char *addition = " world!";
str = realloc(str, strlen(str) + strlen(addition) + 1);
assert(str != NULL);
strcat(str, addition);
printf("%s", str);
free(str);
```

# Heap allocation interface: A summary

```
void *malloc(size_t size);
void *calloc(size_t nmemb, size_t size);
void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size);
char *strdup(char *s);
void free(void *ptr);
```

## Heap memory allocation guarantee:

- NULL on failure, so check with assert
- Memory is contiguous; it is not recycled unless you call free
- realloc preserves existing data
- calloc zero-initializes bytes, malloc and realloc do not

## Undefined behavior occurs:

- If you overflow (i.e., you access beyond bytes allocated)
- If you use after free, or if free is called twice on a location.
- If you realloc/free non-heap address

# Heap allocator analogy: A hotel

Request memory by size (`malloc`)

- Receive room key to first of connecting rooms

Need more room? (`realloc`)

- Extend into connecting room if available
- If not, trade for new digs, employee moves your stuff for you

Check out when done (`free`)

- You remember your room number though

Errors! What happens if you...

- Forget to check out?
- Bust through connecting door to neighbor? What if the room is in use? Yikes...
- Return to room after checkout?



# Engineering principles: stack vs heap

## Stack (“local variables”)

- **Fast**

Fast to allocate/deallocate; okay to oversize

- **Convenient.**

Automatic allocation/ deallocation;  
declare/initialize in one step

- **Reasonable type safety**

Thanks to the compiler

 **Not especially plentiful**

Total stack size fixed, default 8MB

 **Somewhat inflexible**

Cannot add/resize at runtime, scope  
dictated by control flow in/out of functions

## Heap (dynamic memory)

# Engineering principles: stack vs heap

## Stack (“local variables”)

- **Fast**  
Fast to allocate/deallocate; okay to oversize
- **Convenient.**  
Automatic allocation/ deallocation;  
declare/initialize in one step
- **Reasonable type safety**  
Thanks to the compiler

### ⚠ Not especially plentiful

Total stack size fixed, default 8MB

### ⚠ Somewhat inflexible

Cannot add/resize at runtime, scope  
dictated by control flow in/out of functions

## Heap (dynamic memory)

- **Plentiful.**  
Can provide more memory on demand!
- **Very flexible.**  
Runtime decisions about how much/when to  
allocate, can resize easily with realloc
- **Scope under programmer control**  
Can precisely determine lifetime

### ⚠ Lots of opportunity for error

Low type safety, forget to allocate/free  
before done, allocate wrong size, etc.,  
Memory leaks (much less critical)

# Stack and Heap

- Generally, unless a situation requires dynamic allocation, stack allocation is preferred. Often both techniques are used together in a program.
- Heap allocation is a necessity when:
  - you have a very large allocation that could blow out the stack
  - you need to control the memory lifetime, or memory must persist outside of a function call
  - you need to resize memory after its initial allocation

# Recap

- **Misc. topics:** const, structs and the ternary operator
- **Recap:** Pointers So Far
- The Stack
- The Heap and Dynamic Memory
- **Practice:** Pig Latin
- Use-after-free bugs and vulnerability disclosure
- realloc

**Lecture 7 takeaway:** We can allocate memory on the heap to manage it ourselves. We manipulate heap memory via pointers. There are many opportunities for leaks and errors, and Valgrind can help detect them!

**Next time:** C Generics

# **Extra Practice**

# strdup means string duplicate

How can we implement **strdup** using functions we've already seen?

```
1 char *mystrdup(const char *str) {  
2     char *heapstr = _____(A);  
3     _____(B);  
4     _____(C);  
5     return heapstr;  
6 }
```

**[Note]** Use library functions:  
`<stdlib.h>`: malloc  
`<assert.h>`: assert  
`<string.h>`: strcpy, strlen



# strdup means string duplicate

How can we implement **strdup** using functions we've already seen?

```
1 char *mystrdup(const char *str) {  
2     char *heapstr = malloc(strlen(str) + 1);  
3     assert(heapstr != NULL);  
4     strcpy(heapstr, str);  
5     return heapstr;  
6 }
```

char arrays differ from other arrays in that valid strings must be null-terminated (i.e., have an extra ending char).

(Note: library strdup doesn't have an assert—it leaves the assert to the callee)

# Goodbye, Free Memory

Where/how should we free memory below so that all memory is freed properly?

```
1 char *str = strdup("Hello");
2 assert(str != NULL);
3 char *ptr = str + 1;
4 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
5     int *num = malloc(sizeof(int));
6     *num = i;
7     printf("%s %d\n", ptr, *num);
8 }
9 printf("%s\n", str);
```

**Recommendation:** Don't worry about putting in frees until **after** you're finished with functionality.

Memory leaks will rarely crash your CS107 programs.

Answer in chat:  
“After line N: free(...);”

What if we didn't free?



# Goodbye, Free Memory

Where/how should we free memory below so that all memory is freed properly?

```
1 char *str = strdup("Hello");
2 assert(str != NULL);
3 char *ptr = str + 1;
4 for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
5     int *num = malloc(sizeof(int));
6     *num = i;
7     printf("%s %d\n", ptr, *num);
8     free(num);
9 }
10 printf("%s\n", str);
11 free(str);
```

**Recommendation:** Don't worry about putting in frees until **after** you're finished with functionality.

Memory leaks will rarely crash your CS107 programs.

# strcat\_extend

Write a function that takes in a heap-allocated **str1**, enlarges it, and concatenates **str2** onto it.

```
1 char *strcat_extend(char *heap_str, const char *concat_str) {  
2     (_____) (1) _____;  
3     heap_str = realloc(____(2A)____, ____(2B)____);  
4     (_____) (3) _____;  
5     strcat(____(3A)____, ____(3B)____);  
6     return heapstr;  
7 }
```

Example usage:

```
char *str = strdup("Hello ");  
str = strcat_extend(str, "world!");  
printf("%s\n", str);  
free(str);
```

# strcat\_extend

Write a function that takes in a heap-allocated **str1**, enlarges it, and concatenates **str2** onto it.

```
1 char *strcat_extend(char *heap_str, const char *concat_str) {  
2     int new_length = strlen(heap_str) + strlen(concat_str) + 1;  
3     heap_str = realloc(heap_str, new_length);  
4     assert(heap_str != NULL);  
5     strcat(heap_str, concat_str);  
6     return heapstr;  
7 }
```

Example usage:

```
char *str = strdup("Hello ");  
str = strcat_extend(str, "world!");  
printf("%s\n", str);  
free(str);
```