

Recall: Pointers

```
int x = 12;
int *p;
int main()
{
    p = &x;
    *p = 13;
    return x * 2;
}
```

- A pointer is just a variable and it can hold the address of another variable.
- When `p` points to `x`, writing `*p` accesses `x`.

Recall: Memory layout

	instruction/data	Java	comment
0	STORE 6 at 7	MEMORY[7] = 6	&x is put in element 7, ie p
1	READ from 7 into R	R = MEMORY[7]	read data in p: R=6
2	STORE 13 at R	MEMORY[R] = 13	*p = 13
3	READ 6 into R	R = MEMORY[6]	fetch the value of x
4	MUL 2	R = R * 2	multiply x and R
5	RETURN	return R	
6	12		x lives here
7	0		p lives here

Function calls and local variables

- When you call a function or method, all the local variables must be stored somewhere.
- It is a convention to put them at the end of the memory array.
- The local variables of the main function are put at the very end of the array.
- When main calls a function, its local variables are put just before main's.
- In general, when a new function starts running, it puts its local variables at the last (highest index) unused memory array elements.
- This works like a stack of plates: main is at the bottom and you put newly called functions on the plate at the top.

The stack

```
int main()           int f(int a)           int g(int a)
{                   {                   {
    int x = 12;      int b = a+1;           return a + 3;
    return f(x);     return g(b+2); }
}                   }
```

1073741820	15	a in g lives here.
1073741821	13	b in f lives here.
1073741822	12	a in f lives here.
1073741823	12	x in main lives here.

- When a function returns, it deallocates its memory space.
- This is managed by the compiler which uses a register for holding the current free memory index, called the **stack pointer**.

More about pointers

- In Java, you have used pointers all the time, but they are called object references.
- Suppose you have `Link p`, then `p` is a pointer.
- In Java, pointers can only point at objects.
- The address of some object is, as you might know, the location in memory where that object lives, ie just an integer number.
- In Java, `new` returns the address of a newly created object.
- In C, `new` is a normal function and is called `malloc`.

More about pointers

- In C, but not in Java, the programmer can ask for the address of almost anything and thus get a pointer to that object (or function).
- To change the value of a variable in a function, you need to pass the address of the variable as a parameter to the function:

```
void f(int* a)
{
    *a = 12;
}
```

```
void g()
{
    int b;

    f(&b);
}
```

More about pointers

- If the type of the variable is a pointer, then you will need two stars:

```
void f(int** a)
{
    *a = NULL;
}
```

```
void g()
{
    int* b;

    f(&b);
}
```

Class in Java vs Struct in C 1(4)

- C has no classes!
- C has structs which are Java classes with everything public and no methods.

```
struct a { // a is a tag.  
    int    b;  
    int    c;  
} d;      // d is a variable identifier.
```

- Struct names have a so called **tag** which is a different name space than variables and functions: so the above declares a struct `a` which is a type and a variable `d`.
- If we write `Link p` in Java we declare `p` to be a reference but not the object itself whereas `s` above is the *real* object, or data.

Class in Java vs Struct in C 2(4)

- In Java we can declare a List class something like this:

```
class List {  
    List    next;    // Next is a reference  
    int     a;  
    int     b;  
};
```

- `next` above only holds the address of another object but `next` *is not a List object itself*. The list does not contain a list.
- Java let's you use pointers conveniently without giving you too much head ache.
- C does not.

Class in Java vs Struct in C 3(4)

- We cannot write the following in C:

```
struct list_t {  
    struct list_t    next;    // Compilation error!!  
    int              a;  
    int              b;  
};
```

- It is impossible to allocate a list within the list!
- We really want to declare `next` to simply hold the address of a list object.
- In C this is done as: `struct list_t* next;` which makes `next` a pointer.

Class in Java vs Struct in C 4(4)

- The following is correct in C:

```
struct list_t {  
    struct list_t*  next;  
    int             a;  
    int             b;  
};
```

- After going into pointers in more detail we will see how to avoid typing `struct list_t` more than twice using `typedef`.

More about pointers

- To return multiple values in Java, you create and return an extra object.
- Option 1 in C: use a plain struct which is allocated on the stack.
- Option 2 in C: Pass additional arguments as pointers (preferable).

```
struct s f()
{
    struct s a;
    a.x = ...;
    a.y = ...;
    a.u = ...;
    return a;
}
```

```
void g(int* x, int* y, int* u)
{
    *x = ...;
    *y = ...;
    *u = ...;
}
```

Creating another name of a type

- The typedef command creates another name for the specified type:

```
typedef int integer;  
integer a,b;
```

```
typedef struct list_t list_t; // list_t is a type.
```

```
struct list_t {  
    list_t*    next;  
    int        a;  
    int        b;  
};
```

More about typedef

```
typedef struct _list_t  list_t;
struct _list_t {
    list_t*    next;
    int        a;
    int        b;
};
```

- Two errors: starting a tag (or identifier) with an underscore is permitted **only for compiler and library implementors**.
- There is no need to invent two identifiers here: call both the typedef name and the tag the same thing!

C has row-major matrix memory layout

```
int c[3][4] = { { 1, 2, 3, 4}, { 5, 6 }, { 7 } };
int i, j;
for (i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    for (j = 0; j < 4; j++)
        x += c[i][j];
```

- In a two-dimensional array, one row is layed out in memory at a time, ie row-major.
- Could also be called "rightmost index varies fastest".
- The elements $c[i][j]$ and $c[i][j+1]$ are next to each other.

Arrays as parameters

```
int fun(int c[3][4])
{
    printf("%zu %zu\\", sizeof c, sizeof c[0]);
}
```

- If the output is "4 16", what conclusions can we draw about the size of a pointer and the size of an int?
- Answer: both are four bytes.
- The variable c in the function is a pointer: `int (*c)[4]`.

Representation of array references

- $a[i]$ is represented as $*(a+i)$

```
int main(void)
{
    int    a[10], *p, i = 3;

    /* the following are equivalent: */

    &a[i] == a+i;

    p = a; p[i] == a[i];

    p = a+i; p[0] == *p;

    return 0;
}
```

Multidimensional arrays in C

- The language has no concept of multidimensional arrays.
- Instead you simply use arrays of arrays.

Arrays of arrays

```
double m[3][4];  
double x[2][3][4][5];
```

- So `m` is an array with three elements, where each element is an array of four doubles.
- `x` has two elements.

Multidimensional arrays with calloc

- Suppose we want an $m \times n$ matrix from calloc. How do we do?
- A one-dimensional array is declared as: `double* a`.
- Here `a` is a pointer which points to the start of the calloc-ed memory.
- A two-dimensional matrix, can be declared as `double** m`.
- But how can we allocate memory for it???
- First allocate an array which can hold m pointers to the rows,
- and then allocate memory for each row.

More from previous slide

```
double** make_matrix(int m, int n)
{
    double**      a;
    int           i;

    a = calloc(m, sizeof(double*));
    for (i = 0; i < m; i += 1)
        a[i] = calloc(n, sizeof(double));
    return a;
}
```

- Now we can write `double** m = make_matrix(3, 4);`
- We can access the elements as `m[i][j]`.

Alternatives

- Instead of doing $m + 1$ calls to `calloc`, we can make one big:

```
double*      a = calloc(m * n, sizeof(double));
```

- Unfortunately, we cannot use it as a two-dimensional matrix. Assume we want `a[i][j]`:

```
for (i = 0; i < m; i++)  
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)  
        a[ i * n + j ] = ...
```

- The row number is determined by `i` and each row has `n` elements.
- We cannot write `a[i][j]` since the type of `a[i]` is a `double` and not an array.
- We will return to matrices in a later lecture and explain Examples 1.4.10 and 1.4.11 which are more advanced.

- The data allocated by `void* calloc(size_t count, size_t size)` is initialized to zeroes.
- There is an alternative function `void* malloc(size_t size)` which leaves the data uninitialised.
- Using `malloc` but forgetting to initialize the data leads to painful bugs.
- You will often notice that the data is already zeroed by `malloc` but that is only by accident (by chance).
- The function `void* realloc(void* ptr, size_t size)` tries to extend (or shrink) the memory area pointed to by `ptr`, and if that is not possible it allocated new memory and copies to old content. Why can that be dangerous ?

- There are of course various kinds of lists, eg:
 - Single linked,
 - Single linked, with header pointing to the end (instead of having data).
 - Null terminated double linked,
 - Circular double linked.

An example circular double linked list

```
typedef struct list_t list_t;  
  
struct list_t {  
    list_t* succ;  
    list_t* pred;  
    void*   data;  
};
```

- Without the typedef we must write `struct list_t` everywhere.
- By circular is meant that the head's predecessor points to the last node and the successor of the last node points to the head.

Making a list node

```
list_t* new_list(void* data)
{
    list_t*      list;

    list = malloc(sizeof(list_t));

    list->succ = list; // (*list).succ = list;
    list->pred = list; // (*list).pred = list;
    list->data = data; // (*list).data = data;

    return list;
}
```

- The arrow is a shorthand for `(*list)`. and was added to C very early.

Freeing of a list

```
void free_list(list_t** head)
{
    list_t*      h = *head; // better than using *list below
    list_t*      p;
    list_t*      q;
    if (h == NULL)
        return;
    p = h->succ;
    while (p != h) {
        q = p->succ;
        free(p);
        p = q;
    }
    free(p);
    *head = NULL;
}
```