

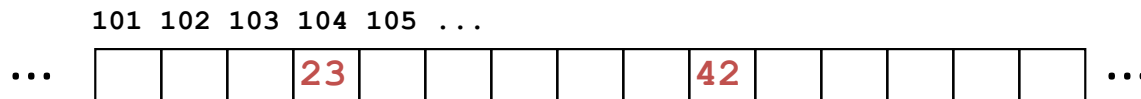
Pointers, Arrays, Memory: AKA the cause of those F@#)(#@*(Segfaults

Agenda

- Pointers
- Arrays in C
- Memory Allocation

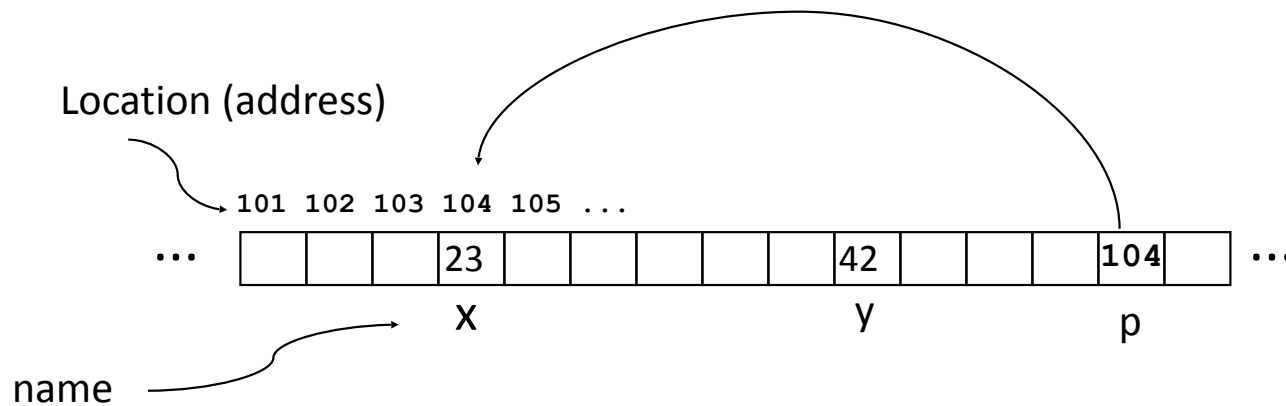
Address vs. Value

- Consider memory to be a **single** huge array
 - Each cell of the array has an address associated with it
 - Each cell also stores some value
 - For addresses do we use signed or unsigned numbers? Negative address?!
- Don't confuse the address referring to a memory location with the value stored there



Pointers

- An *address* refers to a particular memory location; e.g., it points to a memory location
- *Pointer*: A variable that contains the address of a variable



Pointer Syntax

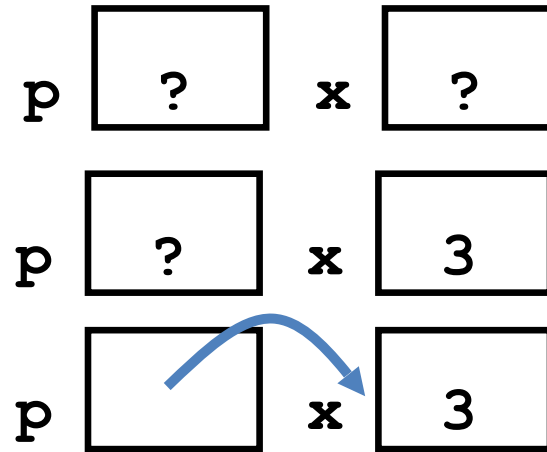
- `int *p;`
 - Tells compiler that `variable p` is address of an `int`
- `p = &y;`
 - Tells compiler to assign `address of y` to `p`
 - `&` called the “address operator” in this context
- `z = *p;`
 - Tells compiler to assign `value at address in p` to `z`
 - `*` called the “dereference operator” in this context

Creating and Using Pointers

- How to create a pointer:
& operator: get address of a variable

```
int *p, x;      x = 3;

                p = &x;
```

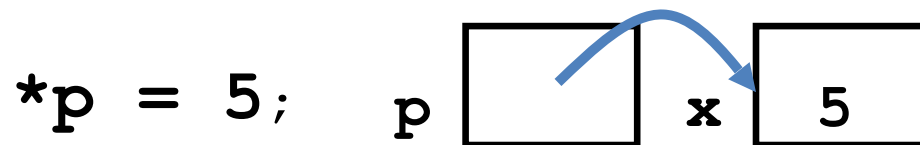
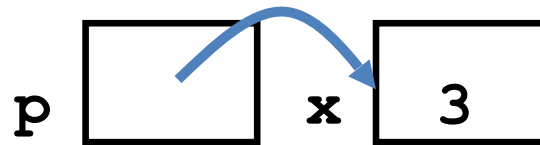


Note the “*” gets used two different ways in this example. In the declaration to indicate that `p` is going to be a pointer, and in the `printf` to get the value pointed to by `p`.

- How get a value pointed to?
“*” (dereference operator): get the value that the pointer points to
- ```
printf("p points to %d\n", *p);
```

# Using Pointer for Writes

- How to change a variable pointed to?
  - Use the dereference operator `*` on left of assignment operator `=`



# Pointers and Parameter Passing

- Java and C pass parameters “by value”:  
Procedure/function/method gets a copy of the parameter, so *changing the copy cannot change the original*

```
void add_one (int x)
{
 x = x + 1;
}
int y = 3;
add_one(y);
```

*y remains equal to 3*



# Pointers and Parameter Passing

- How can we get a function to change the value held in a variable?

```
void add_one (int *p)
{
 *p = *p + 1;
}
int y = 3;
```

```
add_one(&y);
```

*y is now equal to 4*

# Types of Pointers

- Pointers are used to point to any kind of data (**int**, **char**, a **struct**, etc.)
- Normally a pointer only points to one type (**int**, **char**, a **struct**, etc.).
  - **void \*** is a type that can point to anything (generic pointer)
  - Use **void \*** sparingly to help avoid program bugs, and security issues, and other bad things!
- You can even have pointers to functions...
  - **int (\*fn) (void \*, void \*) = &foo**
    - **fn** is a function that accepts two **void \*** pointers and returns an **int** and is initially pointing to the function **foo**.
    - **(\*fn) (x, y)** will then call the function

# More C Pointer Dangers

- *Declaring a pointer just allocates space to hold the pointer – it does not allocate the thing being pointed to!*
- Local variables in C are not initialized, they may contain anything (aka “garbage”)
- What does the following code do?

```
void f()
{
 int *ptr;
 *ptr = 5;
}
```

# Pointers and Structures

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

```
Point p1;
Point p2;
Point *paddr;
```

```
/* dot notation */
int h = p1.x;
p2.y = p1.y;
```

```
/* arrow notation */
int h = paddr->x;
int h = (*paddr).x;
```

```
/* This works too */
p1 = p2;
```

# Pointers in C

- Why use pointers?
  - If we want to pass a large struct or array, it's easier / faster / etc. to pass a pointer than the whole thing
    - Otherwise we'd need to copy a huge amount of data
  - In general, pointers allow cleaner, more compact code
- So what are the drawbacks?
  - Pointers are probably the single largest source of bugs in C, so be careful anytime you deal with them
    - Most problematic with dynamic memory management—coming up next week
    - Dangling references and memory leaks

# Why Pointers in C?

- At time C was invented (early 1970s), compilers often didn't produce efficient code
  - Computers 100,000x times faster today, compilers better
- C designed to let programmer say what they want code to do without compiler getting in way
  - Even give compilers hints which registers to use!
- Today's compilers produce much better code, so may not need to use pointers in application code
  - Low-level system code still needs low-level access via pointers

# C Arrays

- Declaration:

```
int ar[2];
```

declares a 2-element integer array: just a block of memory

```
int ar[] = {795, 635};
```

declares and initializes a 2-element integer array

# C Strings

- String in C is just an array of characters

```
char string[] = "abc";
```

- How do you tell how long a string is?
- Last character is followed by a 0 byte  
(aka “null terminator”, aka '`\0`')

```
int strlen(char s[])
{
 int n = 0;
 while (s[n] != 0) n++;
 return n;
}
```



# Array Name / Pointer Duality

- *Key Concept:* Array variable is a “pointer” to the first (0<sup>th</sup>) element
- So, array variables almost identical to pointers
  - `char *string` and `char string[]` are nearly identical declarations
  - Differ in subtle ways: incrementing, declaration of filled arrays
- Consequences:
  - `ar` is an array variable, but works like a pointer
  - `ar[0]` is the same as `*ar`
  - `ar[2]` is the same as `*(ar+2)`
  - Can use pointer arithmetic to conveniently access arrays

# C Arrays are Very Primitive

- An array in C does not know its own length, and its bounds are not checked!
  - Consequence: We can accidentally access off the end of an array
  - Consequence: We must pass the array and its size to any procedure that is going to manipulate it
- Segmentation faults and bus errors:
  - These are VERY difficult to find; be careful! (You'll learn how to debug these in lab)
  - But also “fun” to exploit:
    - “Stack overflow exploit”, maliciously write off the end of an array on the stack
    - “Heap overflow exploit”, maliciously write off the end of an array on the heap

# Use Defined Constants

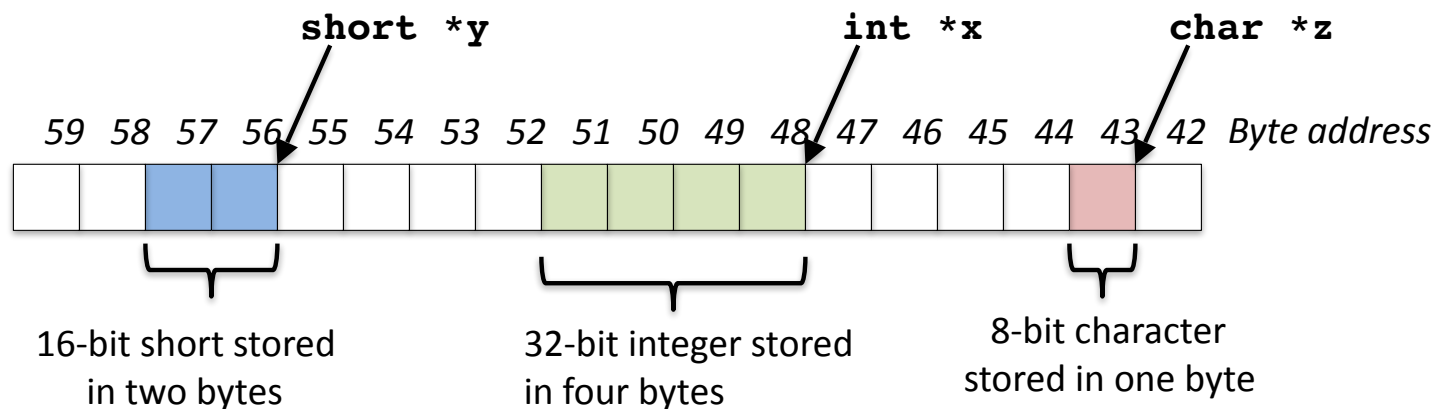
- Array size  $n$ ; want to access from 0 to  $n-1$ , so you should use counter AND utilize a variable for declaration & incrementation
  - Bad pattern

```
int i, ar[10];
for(i = 0; i < 10; i++){ ... }
```
  - Better pattern

```
const int ARRAY_SIZE = 10;
int i, a[ARRAY_SIZE];
for(i = 0; i < ARRAY_SIZE; i++){ ... }
```
- SINGLE SOURCE OF TRUTH
  - You're utilizing indirection and avoiding maintaining two copies of the number 10
  - DRY: "Don't Repeat Yourself"
  - And don't forget the  $<$  rather than  $<=$

# Pointing to Different Size Objects

- Modern machines are “byte-addressable”
  - Hardware’s memory composed of 8-bit storage cells, each has a unique address
- A C pointer is just abstracted memory address
- Type declaration tells compiler how many bytes to fetch on each access through pointer
  - E.g., 32-bit integer stored in 4 consecutive 8-bit bytes
- But we actually want “word alignment”
  - Some processors will not allow you to address 32b values without being on 4 byte boundaries
  - Others will just be very slow if you try to access “unaligned” memory.



# sizeof() operator

- **sizeof (type)** returns number of bytes in object
- But number of bits in a byte is not standardized
  - In olden times, when dragons roamed the earth, bytes could be 5, 6, 7, 9 bits long
- Includes any padding needed for alignment
- By Standard C99 definition, **sizeof (char) == 1**
- Can take **sizeof (arg)**, or **sizeof (structtype)**
- We'll see more of sizeof when we look at dynamic memory management

# Pointer Arithmetic

*pointer + number*      *pointer – number*

e.g., *pointer + 1* adds 1 something to a pointer

```
char *p;
char a;
char b;

p = &a;
p += 1;
```

In each, p now points to b  
(Assuming compiler doesn't  
reorder variables in memory.

***Never code like this!!!!***

```
int *p;
int a;
int b;

p = &a;
p += 1;
```

Adds `1*sizeof(char)`  
to the memory address

Adds `1*sizeof(int)`  
to the memory address

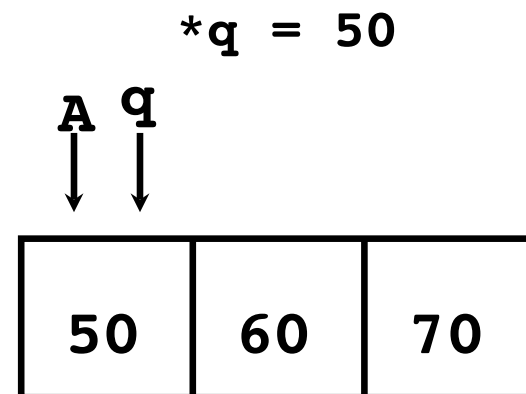
*Pointer arithmetic should be used cautiously*

# Changing a Pointer Argument?

- What if want function to change a pointer?
- What gets printed?

```
void inc_ptr(int *p)
{
 p = p + 1;
}

int A[3] = {50, 60, 70};
int* q = A;
inc_ptr(q);
printf(" *q = %d\n", *q);
```

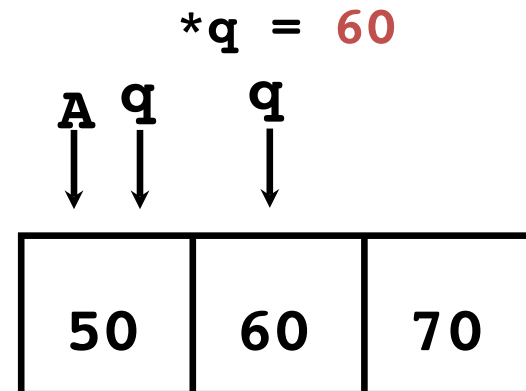


# Pointer to a Pointer

- Solution! Pass a pointer to a pointer, declared as **\*\*h**
- Now what gets printed?

```
void inc_ptr(int **h)
{ *h = *h + 1; }

int A[3] = {50, 60, 70};
int* q = A;
inc_ptr(&q);
printf("*q = %d\n", *q);
```





# Conclusion on Pointers...

- All data is in memory
  - Each memory location has an address to use to refer to it and a value stored in it
- Pointer is a C version (abstraction) of a data address
  - \* “follows” a pointer to its value
  - & gets the address of a value
  - Arrays and strings are implemented as variations on pointers
- C is an efficient language, but leaves safety to the programmer
  - Variables not automatically initialized
  - Use pointers with care: they are a common source of bugs in programs

# Administrivia:

- Project 1 is now live...
  - Yes, we are throwing you in the deep end right away
- Designed to touch on a huge amount of C concepts:
  - Need to read from a file & standard input
  - Need to handle dynamic allocation of ***arbitrarily large*** strings
  - Casting to/from **`(void *)`** types
  - The skeleton code also uses pointers to functions because, hey, why not...
- DSP students:
  - Also mail Peiji in addition to making sure your DSP letters are submitted
- Midterm/final conflicts: Fill out the form referenced on Piazza

# Clicker Time

```
void foo(int *x, int *y)
{
 int t;
 if (*x > *y) { t = *y; *y = *x; *x = t; }
}

int a=3, b=2, c=1;
foo(&a, &b);
foo(&b, &c);
foo(&a, &b);
printf("a=%d b=%d c=%d\n", a, b, c);
```

Result is:

A: a=3 b=2 c=1

B: a=1 b=2 c=3

C: a=1 b=3 c=2

D: a=3 b=3 c=3

E: a=1 b=1 c=1

# C Arrays

- Declaration:

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```

declares a 2-element integer array: just a block of memory which is uninitialized

```
int ar[] = {795, 635};
```

declares and initializes a 2-element integer array

# Array Name / Pointer Duality

- *Key Concept:* Array variable is simply a “pointer” to the first (0th) element
- So, array variables almost identical to pointers
  - `char *string` and `char string[]` are nearly identical declarations
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# C Arrays are Very Primitive

- An array in C does not know its own length, ***and its bounds are not checked!***
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# C Strings

- String in C is just an array of characters

```
char string[] = "abc";
```

- How do you tell how long a string is?
- Last character is followed by a 0 byte (aka “null terminator”):  
written as 0 (the number) or '\0'  
as a character

```
int strlen(char s[])
{
 int n = 0;
 while (s[n] != 0) {
 n++;
 }
 return n;
}
```

# Use Defined Constants

- Array size  $n$ ; want to access from  $0$  to  $n-1$ , so you should use counter AND utilize a variable for declaration & incrementation
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for(i = 0; i < ARRAY_SIZE; i++){ ... }
```
- **SINGLE SOURCE OF TRUTH**
  - You're utilizing indirection and avoiding maintaining two copies of the number 10
  - DRY: "Don't Repeat Yourself"
  - And don't forget the  $<$  rather than  $<=$ :  
When Nick took 60c, he lost a day to a "segfault in a malloc called by printf on large inputs":  
Had a  $<=$  rather than a  $<$  in a single array initialization!

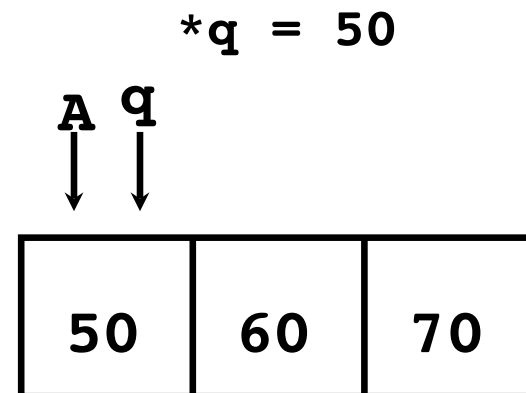


# Changing a Pointer Argument?

- What if want function to change a pointer?
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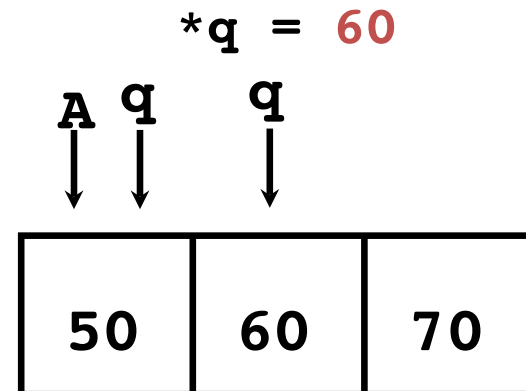


# Pointer to a Pointer

- Solution! Pass a pointer to a pointer, declared as **\*\*h**
- Now what gets printed?

```
void inc_ptr(int **h)
{ *h = *h + 1; }

int A[3] = {50, 60, 70};
int* q = A;
inc_ptr(&q);
printf("*q = %d\n", *q);
```



# Arrays and Pointers

- Array  $\approx$  pointer to the initial element
  - $a[i] \equiv *(a+i)$
- An array is passed to a function as a pointer
  - The array size is lost!
- Usually bad style to interchange arrays and pointers
  - Avoid pointer arithmetic!
    - Especially avoid things like `ar++`;

## Passing arrays:

Really `int *array`      Must explicitly pass the size

```
int
foo(int array[],
 unsigned int size)
{
 ... array[size - 1] ...
}

int
main(void)
{
 int a[10], b[5];
 ... foo(a, 10)... foo(b, 5) ...
}
```

# Arrays and Pointers

```
int
foo(int array[],
 unsigned int size)
{
 ...
 printf("%d\n", sizeof(array));
}

int
main(void)
{
 int a[10], b[5];
 ... foo(a, 10) ... foo(b, 5) ...
 printf("%d\n", sizeof(a));
}
```

What does this print? **4**

... because **array** is really a pointer (and a pointer is architecture dependent, but likely to be 4 or 8 on modern 32-64 bit machines!)

What does this print? **40**

# Arrays and Pointers

```
int i;
int array[10];

for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
{
 array[i] = ...;
}
```

```
int *p;
int array[10];

for (p = array; p < &array[10]; p++)
{
 *p = ...;
}
```

These code sequences have the same effect!

But the former is ***much more readable***:

Especially don't want to see code like **ar++**

# When Arrays Go Bad: Heartbleed

- In TLS encryption, messages have a length...
  - And get copied into memory before being processed
- One message was “Echo Me back the following data, its this long...”
  - But the (different) echo length wasn’t checked to make sure it wasn’t too big...

```
M 5 HB L=5000 107:Ou17;GET / HTTP/1.1\r\n
Host: www.mydomain.com\r\nCookie: login=1
17kf9012oeu\r\nUser-Agent: Mozilla...
```

- So you send a small request that says “read back a lot of data”
  - And thus get web requests with auth cookies and other bits of data from random bits of memory...

# Clickers/Peer Instruction Time

```
int x[] = { 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 };
int *p = x;
int **pp = &p;
(*pp)++;
(*(*pp))++;
printf("%d\n", *p);
```

Result is:

A: 2

B: 3

C: 4

D: 5

E: None of the above

# Clickers/Peer Instruction Time

```
int x[] = { 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 };
int *p = x;
int **pp = &p;
(*pp)++;
(*(*pp))++;
printf("%d\n", *p);
```

P points to the start of X (2)

PP points to P

Increments P point to 2<sup>nd</sup> element (4)

Increments 2<sup>nd</sup> element by 1 (5)

Result is:

A: 2

B: 3

C: 4

D: 5

E: None of the above



# Concise strlen()

```
int strlen(char *s)
{
 char *p = s;
 while (*p++)
 ; /* Null body of while */
 return (p - s - 1);
}
```

What happens if there is no zero character at end of string?

# Arguments in `main( )`

- To get arguments to the main function, use:
  - `int main(int argc, char *argv[])`
- What does this mean?
  - `argc` contains the number of strings on the command line (the executable counts as one, plus one for each argument). Here `argc` is 2:
    - `unix% sort myFile`
  - `argv` is a pointer to an array containing the arguments as strings
    - Since it is an array of pointers to character arrays
    - Sometimes written as `char **argv`

# Example

- `foo hello 87 "bar baz"`
- `argc = 4 /* number arguments */`
- `argv[0] = "foo",`  
`argv[1] = "hello",`  
`argv[2] = "87",`  
`argv[3] = "bar baz",`
- Array of pointers to strings

# C Memory Management

- How does the C compiler determine where to put all the variables in machine's memory?
- How to create dynamically sized objects?
- To simplify discussion, we assume *one program runs at a time*, with access to all of memory.
- Later, we'll discuss ***virtual memory***, which lets multiple programs all run at same time, each thinking they own all of memory.

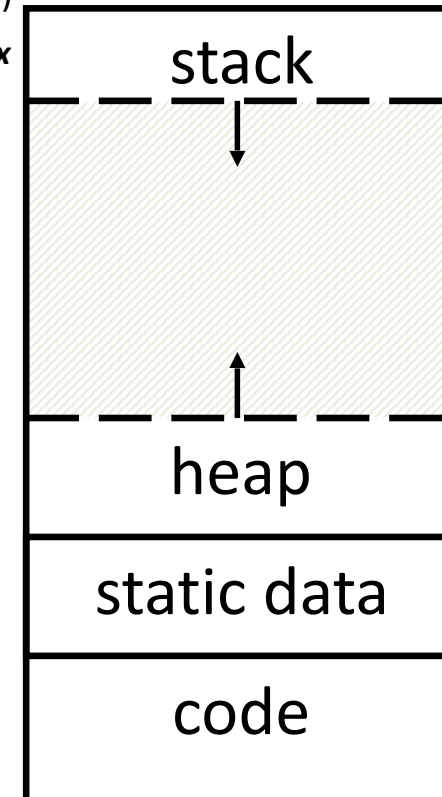
# C Memory Management

- Program's address space contains 4 regions:
  - **stack**: local variables inside functions, grows downward
  - **heap**: space requested for dynamic data via `malloc()` resizes dynamically, grows upward
  - **static data**: variables declared outside functions, does not grow or shrink. Loaded when program starts, can be modified.
  - **code**: loaded when program starts, does not change

Memory Address

(32 bits assumed here)

$\sim FFFF\ FFFF_{hex}$



$\sim 0000\ 0000_{hex}$

# Where are Variables Allocated?

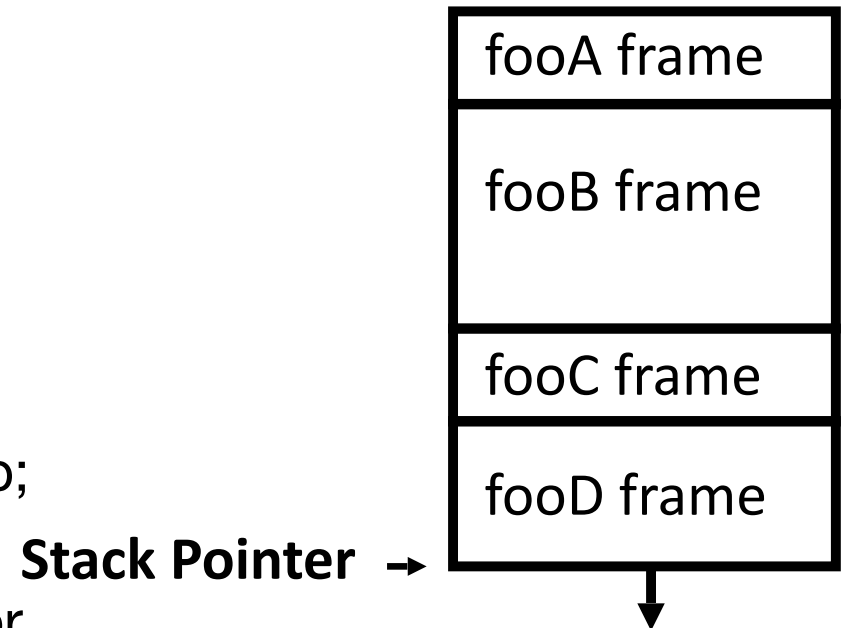
- If declared outside a function, allocated in “static” storage
- If declared inside function, allocated on the “stack” and freed when function returns
- `main()` is treated like a function
- For both of these types of memory, the management is automatic:
  - You don't need to worry about deallocating when you are no longer using them

```
int myGlobal;
main() {
 int myTemp;
}
```

# The Stack

- Every time a function is called, a new frame is allocated on the stack
- Stack frame includes:
  - Return address (who called me?)
  - Arguments
  - Space for local variables
- Stack frames uses contiguous blocks of memory; stack pointer indicates start of stack frame
- When function ends, stack pointer moves up; frees memory for future stack frames
- We'll cover details later for RISC-V processor

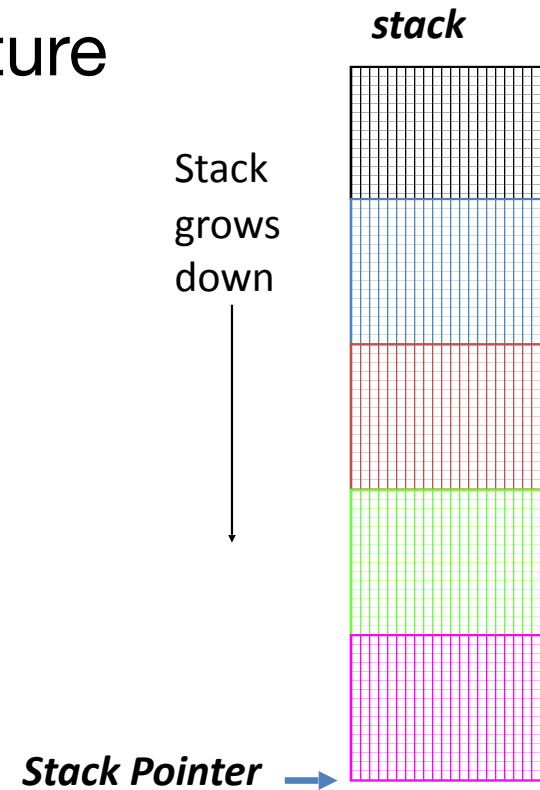
```
fooA() { fooB(); }
fooB() { fooC(); }
fooC() { fooD(); }
```



# Stack Animation

- Last In, First Out (LIFO) data structure

```
main ()
{ a(0);
}
void a (int m)
{ b(1);
}
void b (int n)
{ c(2);
}
void c (int o)
{ d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
```





# Managing the Heap

C supports functions for heap management:

- **malloc()** allocate a block of *uninitialized* memory
- **calloc()** allocate a block of *zeroed* memory
- **free()** free previously allocated block of memory
- **realloc()** change size of previously allocated block
  - careful – it might move!
    - And it *will not update other pointers pointing to the same block of memory*

# Malloc()

- **`void *malloc(size_t n):`**
  - Allocate a block of uninitialized memory
  - NOTE: Subsequent calls probably will not yield adjacent blocks
  - **`n`** is an integer, indicating size of requested memory block in bytes
  - **`size_t`** is an unsigned integer type big enough to “count” memory bytes
  - Returns **`void*`** pointer to block; **`NULL`** return indicates no more memory (check for it!)
  - Additional control information (including size) stored in the heap for each allocated block.
- Examples:
  - *“Cast” operation, changes type of a variable.  
Here changes **`(void *)`** to **`(int *)`***  

```
int *ip;
ip = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int));
```
  - ```
typedef struct { ... } TreeNode;  
TreeNode *tp = (TreeNode *) malloc(sizeof(TreeNode));
```
- **`sizeof`** returns size of given type in bytes, ***necessary if you want portable code!***

And then free()

- **void free(void *p) :**
 - **p** is a pointer containing the address originally returned by **malloc()**
- Examples:
 - ```
int *ip;
ip = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int));
... ..
free((void*) ip); /* Can you free(ip) after ip++ ? */
```
  - ```
typedef struct {... } TreeNode;  
TreeNode *tp = (TreeNode *) malloc(sizeof(TreeNode));  
... ..  
free((void *) tp);
```
- When you free memory, you must be sure that you pass the original address returned from **malloc()** to **free()**; Otherwise, crash (or worse)!

Using Dynamic Memory

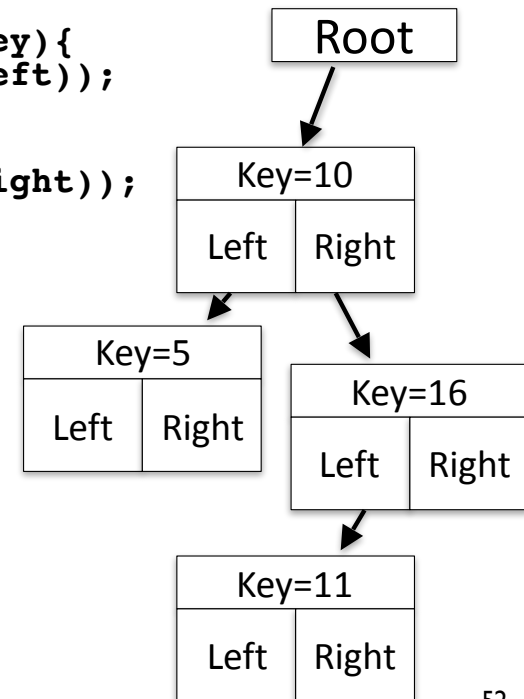
```
typedef struct node {
    int key;
    struct node *left; struct node
    *right;
} Node;

Node *root = NULL;

Node *create_node(int key, Node
    *left,
    Node *right){
    Node *np;
    if(!(np =
        (Node*) malloc(sizeof(Node))){
        printf("Memory exhausted!\n");
        exit(1);}
    else{
        np->key = key;
        np->left = left;
        np->right = right;
        return np;
    }
}
```

```
void insert(int key, Node **tree){
    if ((*tree) == NULL){
        (*tree) = create_node(key, NULL,
            NULL);
    }
    else if (key <= (*tree)->key){
        insert(key, &((*tree)->left));
    }
    else{
        insert(key, &((*tree)->right));
    }
}

int main(){
    insert(10, &root);
    insert(16, &root);
    insert(5, &root);
    insert(11, &root);
    return 0;
}
```



Observations

- Code, Static storage are easy: they never grow or shrink
- Stack space is relatively easy: stack frames are created and destroyed in last-in, first-out (LIFO) order
- Managing the heap is tricky: memory can be allocated / deallocated at any time
 - If you forget to deallocate memory: “Memory Leak”
 - Your program ***will eventually run out of memory***
 - If you call free twice on the same memory: “Double Free”
 - Possible ***crash or exploitable vulnerability***
 - If you use data after calling free: “Use after free”
 - Possible ***crash or exploitable vulnerability***

And In Conclusion, ...

- C has three main memory segments in which to allocate data:
 - Static Data: Variables outside functions
 - Stack: Variables local to function
 - Heap: Objects explicitly malloc-ed/free-d.
- Heap data is biggest source of bugs in C code