

INTRODUCTION TO MEMORY

CS/COE 0449 Introduction to Systems Software

wilkie

(with content borrowed from Vinicius Petrucci and Jarrett Billingsley)

THE MEMORY MODEL

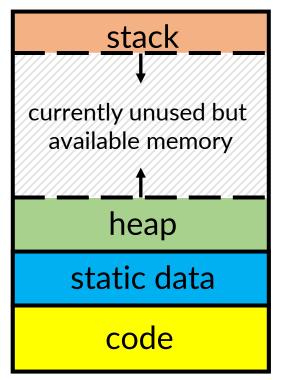
If you forget how addressing works, I have a few pointers for you.

The C Memory Model

- Memory is a continuous series of bits.
 - It can be logically divided into bytes or words.
- We will treat it as byte-addressable which means individual bytes can be read.
 - This is not always the case!!
 - Consider masking and shifting to know the workaround!
- With byte-addressable memory, each and every byte (8 bits) has its own unique address.
 - It's the place it lives!! Memory is JUST LIKE US!
 - Address starts at 0, second byte is at address 1, and increases ("upward") as you add new data.

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



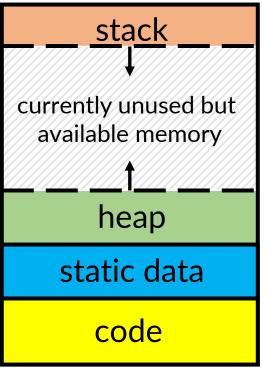
~ 0x00000000

The C Memory Model

- There are two main parts of a program: code and data
 - "code" is sometimes called "text"
- Where in memory should each go?
 - Should we interleave them?
 - Which do you think is usually largest?
- How do we use memory dynamically?
 - That is, only when we know we need it, in the moment.

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



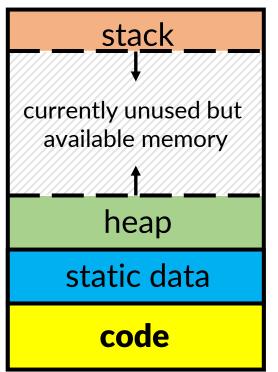
The C Memory Model: Code

- Code has a few known properties:
 - It likely should not change.
 - It must be loaded before a program can start.

```
int my_static_var = 1;
int factorial(int n) {
  if (n <= 1) { return my_static_var; }</pre>
  return n * factorial(n - 1);
void main(void) {
  factorial(5);
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



~ 0x00000000

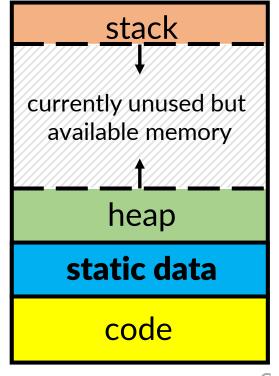
The C Memory Model: Static Data

- Static Data is an oft forgotten but useful section.
 - It does change. (contrary to its name)
 - It generally must be loaded before a program starts.
 - The size of the data and section is fixed.

```
int my_static_var = 1;
int factorial(int n) {
  if (n <= 1) { return my_static_var; }</pre>
  return n * factorial(n - 1);
void main(void) {
  factorial(5);
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



The C Memory Model: The Stack

- The Stack is a space for temporary dynamic data.
 - Holds local variables and function arguments.
 - Allocated when functions are called. Freed on return.

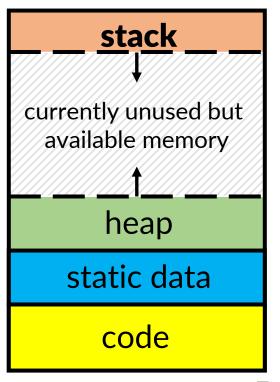
use! (Stack is only freed on return)

Grows "downward"! (Allocates lower addresses)

```
int my_static_var = 1;
int factorial(int n) ←
  if (n <= 1) { return my_static_var; }</pre>
  return n * factorial(h - 1);
                    Stack Allocation allows
void main(void)
                    recursion. However, the more
  factorial(5);
                    you recurse, the more you
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



0x00000000

Revisiting our past troubles:

```
#include <stdio.h> // Gives us 'printf'
#include <stdlib.h> // Gives us 'rand' which returns a random-ish int
void undefined_local() {
                          4. Stack Allocation (No initialization!)
  int x;
  printf("x = %d\n", x);
                             It reuses what is already there!!
void some_calc(int a) { 2. Stack Allocation
  a = a \% 2 ? rand() : -a;
int main(void) {
  for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
    some_calc(i * i); — 1. Function Call
    undefined_local(); ____ 3. Function Call
  return 0;
```

Output:

x = 1804289383

x = 846930886

x = -16

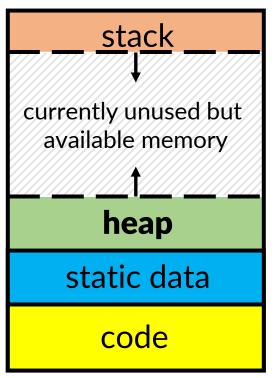
The C Memory Model: The Heap

- The Heap is the dynamic data section!
 - Managing this memory can be very complex.
 - No garbage collection provided!!
 - We will revisit it in greater detail very soon.

```
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'malloc'
void main(void) {
  // I want 10 integers in my array.
  // malloc returns the address in the
  // heap. But, wait, what's that * ??
  int* data = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



Pointers

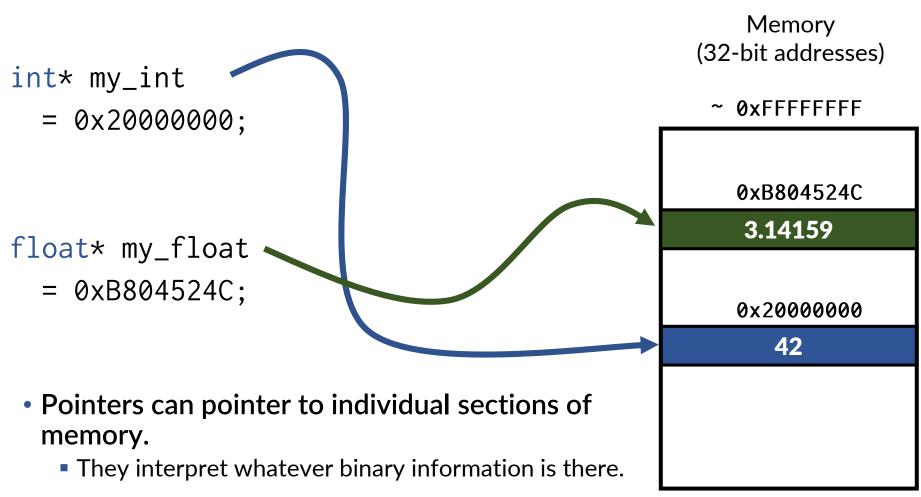
They point to things. They are not the things.

The "Memory Address" Variable Type

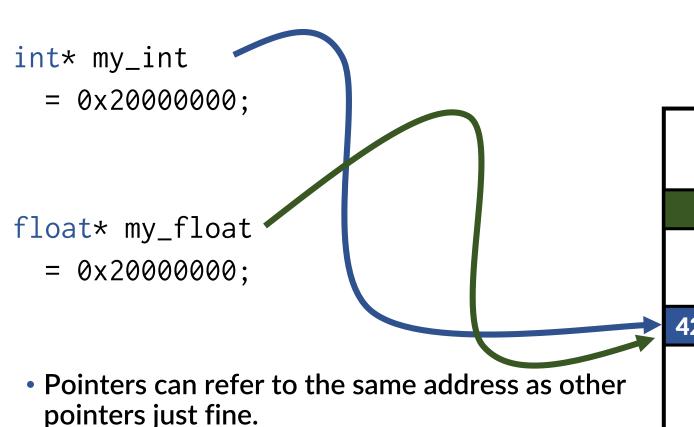
- In C, we have integer types, floating point types...
- Now we introduce our dedicated address type!
- A pointer is a specific variable type that holds a memory address.
- You can create a pointer that points to any address in memory.
- Furthermore, you can tell it what type of data it should interpret that memory to be: Just place that * at the end.

```
int* my_integer_somewhere;
float* hey_its_a_float;
struct Song* ah_our_trusty_song_type;
```

Interpreting Pointers: Basics



Interpreting Pointers: Hmm



Memory (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF

0xB804524C

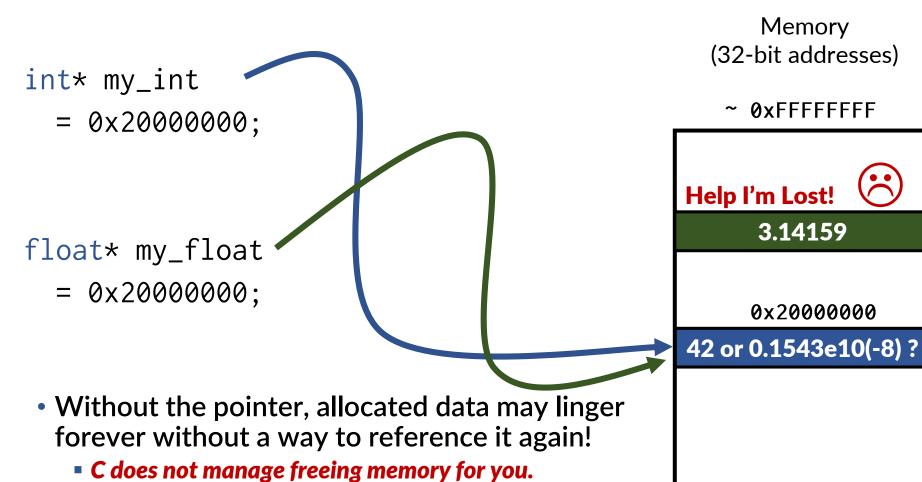
3.14159

0x20000000

42 or 0.1543e10(-8)?

They interpret whatever binary information is there.

Interpreting Pointers: A Sign of Trouble



Dereferencing Pointers: A Star is Born

- So, we have some ambiguity in our language.
- If we have a **variable that holds an address**, normal operations change the address not the value referenced by the pointer.

We use the dereference operator (*)

int* dataptr = 0x00800000; // this address is arbitrary

Dereferencing Pointers: A Star is Born

- Remember: C implicitly coerces whatever values you throw at it...
- Incorrectly assigning a value to an address or vice versa will be...
 - ... Well ... It will be surprising to say the least.
- Generally, compilers will issue a warning.
 - But warnings mean it still compiles!! (You should eliminate warnings in practice)

```
int* dataptr = 0x00800000; // this address is arbitrary
int* secondptr = dataptr; // Assigns ADDRESS
int* thirdptr = *dataptr; // VALUE casted to ADDRESS?
```

```
example.c:4:17: warning: initialization of 'int *' from 'int' makes pointer from integer without a cast 16
```

CS/COE 0449 - Spring 2019/2020

Referencing Data: An... &... is Born?

- Again... ambiguity. When do you want the address or the data?
- We can pull out the address to data and assign that to a pointer.
 - Sometimes we refer to pointers as 'references' to data.
- We use the reference operator (&)

Turtles all the way down

```
int data = 42;
int* dataptr = &data;
                     // store address of data
// pointer to a pointer of an int:
int** dataptrptr = &dataptr; // store address of dataptr
// dereference dataptrptr... then dereference that...
*(*dataptrptr) = -64; // store VALUE into 'data'
```



Like skipping rocks on the lake...

```
// Initializes a new variable
int data = 42;
                           // Assigns ADDRESS to pointer
int* dataptr = &data;
printf("%d\n", data);
                      // Prints 42!
printf("%d\n", *dataptr); // Prints 42!
printf("%p\n", dataptr); // Prints the ADDRESS of data
         // However, 'data' could be ANYWHERE
            42
               data
                                              dataptr
```

Like skipping rocks on the lake...

```
int data = 42;
                            // Initializes a new variable
int* dataptr = &data;
                      // Assigns ADDRESS to pointer
int** dataptrptr = &dataptr; 🙄
printf("%p\n", dataptr);
printf("%p\n", dataptrptr);
printf("%d\n", **dataptrptr); // Prints "42"!
                                  OC
 00
            42
                                dataptr
                                                 dataptrptr
                data
```

20

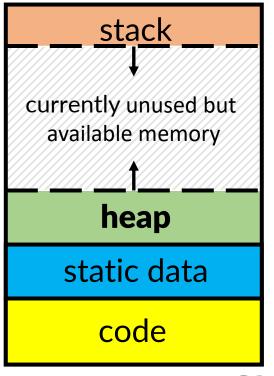
The C Memory Model: The Heap

- The Heap is the dynamic data section!
 - You interact with the heap entirely with pointers.
 - malloc returns the address to the heap with at least the number of bytes requested. Or NULL on error.

```
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'malloc'
void main(void) {
  // I want 10 integers in my array.
  // malloc returns the address in the
  // heap. WAIT, that's an array??!?
  int* data = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



ARRAYS

It is what all my fellow teachers desperately need: Arrays. (Support your local teacher's union)

Many ducks lined up in a row

- An array is simply a continuous span of memory.
- You can declare an array on the stack:

```
void main(void) {
  int array[5]; // 5 integers... with garbage in them
}
```

You can declare an array on the heap:

```
void main(void) {
   // 5 integers... with garbage in them
   int* array = (int*)malloc(sizeof(int) * 5);
}
writing in a pedantic style, you
   would write the cast here.
```

Initialization

- You can initialize them depending on how they are allocated:
- You can initialize an array as it is allocated on the stack:

```
void main(void) { // Unspecified values default to 0:
  int array[5] = {1, 42, -3}; // [1, 42, -3, 0, 0]
}
```

• And the heap (for values other than 0, you'll need a loop):

```
void main(void) {
   // 5 integers... 'calloc' sets the memory to 0.
   int* array = (int*)calloc(5, sizeof(int));
}
O: Why is using sizeof important here.
```

Carelessness means the Stack; Can stab you in the back!

– "A poem about betrayal" by wilkie

- Remember: Variables declared on the stack are temporary.
- All arrays can be considered pointers, but addresses to the stack are not reliable:

- This may work sometimes.
 - However calling a new function will overwrite the array. Don't trust it!!
- Instead: Allocate on the heap and pass in a buffer. (next slide)

25

Appropriate use of arrays. Approp-array-te.

```
#include <stddef.h> // For 'size_t'
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'malloc', 'calloc', and 'free'
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
                                         Arrays don't store length. Gotta pass it in.
void powers_of_two(int* buffer, size_t length) {
                                Pointers allow for passing arguments "by reference"
  int value = 1;
  for (int i = 0; i < length; i++) {
   buffer[i] = value;
   value *= 2;
                        Pointers can indeed be array-like!
void main(void) {
  int* buffer = calloc(10, sizeof(int));
  powers_of_two(buffer, 10);
                                   Heap allocation!
  for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
                                   Although we overwrite all values, using calloc to
   printf("%d\n", buffer[i]);
                                   initialize array elements to 0 reduces surprises.
  free(buffer); // Make sure you free any memory you use!
```

Q: What happens if we pass 20 instead of 10 to powers_of_two? 26

Quick notes on function arguments, here...

- All arguments are passed "by value" in C.
 - This means the values are copied into temporary space (the stack, usually) when the functions are called.
 - This means changing those values does not change their original sources.
- However, we can pass "by reference" indirectly using pointers:
 - Similar to how you pass "by reference" in Java by using arrays.

Careful! No guard rails... You might run off the edge...

- Since arrays are just pointers... and the length is not known...
 - Accessing any element is correct regardless of actual intended length!
 - No array bounds checking is the source of many very serious bugs!
 - Can pull out and leak arbitrary memory.
 - Can potentially cause the program to execute arbitrarily code. What if this is too big?

Pointer arithmetic (Warning: it's wacky)

- Because pointers and arrays are essentially the same concept in C...
 - Pointers have some strange interactions with math operations.
- Ideally pointers should "align" to their values in memory.
 - Goal: Incrementing an int pointer should go to the next int in memory.
 - That is, not part way between two int values.
- Therefore, pointer sum is scaled to the element size.
 - Multiplication and other operators are undefined and result in a compiler error.

Pointer arithmetic in practice:

```
#include <stddef.h> // For 'size_t'
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'malloc', 'calloc', and 'free'
#include <stdio.h>
                         Alternative (and less common) way of expressing a pointer.
void powers_of_two(int buffer[], size_t length) {
  int value = 1;
 for (int i = 0; i < length; i++) {
   *buffer++ = value; // Assigns and then moves the pointer to the next item.
   value *= 2;▼,
                 The ++ (postfix-increment) happens AFTER the dereference.
                This is defined by the C language and is really confusing in practice.
                                   (but you'll see it. often.)
void main(void) {
  int* buffer = calloc(10, sizeof(int));
  powers_of_two(buffer, 10);
 for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
   printf("%d\n", buffer[i]);
  free(buffer); // Make sure you free any memory you use!
```

30

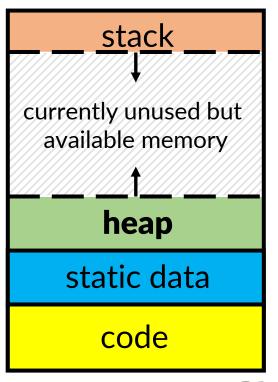
The C Memory Model: The Heap

- The Heap is the dynamic data section!
 - You interact with the heap entirely with pointers.
 - malloc returns the address to the heap with at least the number of bytes requested. Or NULL on error.

```
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'malloc'
void main(void) {
  // I want 10 integers in my array.
  // malloc returns the address in the
  // heap. This can be used as an array.
  int* data = malloc(sizeof(int) * 10);
  data[5] = 42;
  free(data); // Good to free memory!
```

Potential Layout (32-bit addresses)

~ 0xFFFFFFF



STRINGS

No longer just for cats!

Strings

- They are arrays and, as such, inherit all their limitations/issues.
 - The size is not stored.
 - They are essentially just pointers to memory.
- Text is represented as an array of char elements.



- Representing text is hard!!!
 - Understatement of the dang century.
 - Original ASCII is 7-bit, encodes Latin and Greek
 - Hence char being the C integer byte type.
 - Extended for various locales haphazardly.
 - 7-bits woefully inadequate for certain languages.
 - Unicode mostly successfully unifies a variety of glyphs.
 - Tens of thousands of different characters! More than a byte!!



How long is your string?

- Arrays in C are just pointers and as such do not store their length.
 - They are simply continuous sections of memory!
 - Up to you to figure out how long it is!
 - Misreporting or assuming length is often a big source of bugs!
- So, there are two common ways of expressing length:
 - Storing the length alongside the array.
 - Storing a special value within the array to mark the end. (A sentinel value)
- Strings in C commonly employ a sentinel value.
 - Such a valid must be something considered invalid for actual data.
 - How do you know how long such an array is?
 - You will have to search for the sentinel value! Incurring a O(n) time cost.

The string literal.

String literals should be familiar from Java.

#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'

- However, in C, they are char pointers. (That is: char*)
- The address of the literal does not change, so it is const.
- Furthermore, the contents of the literal are read-only (immutable)
 - Modifying it crashes your program!! (This makes it, technically, a const char* const)

Let's ignore this! ©

which is a pointer. The string itself is

likely in the static data segment!

How long is your string? Let's find out.

- The strlen standard library function reports the length of a string.
 - This is done in roughly O(n) time as it must find the sentinel.
 - The following code investigates and prints out the sentinel:

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strlen'
void main(void) {
  const char* my_string = "Hello World.";
  int length = strlen(my_string);
  printf("length: %d\n", length);
  printf("sentinel: %x\n", my_string[length]);
```

36

When good strings go bad.

- What happens if that sentinel... was not there?
 - Well... it would keep counting garbage memory until it sees a 0.

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strlen'
                   This syntax copies the string literal on to the stack.
char my_string[] = "Hello World.";
  int length = strlen(my_string);
 my_string[length] = 42; // Corrupt the sentinel
  length = strlen(my_string); // Uh oh.
      The length here depends on the state of memory in the stack.
```

Using stronger strings. A... rope... perhaps.

- To ensure that malicious input is less likely to be disastrous...
 - We have alternative standard functions that set a maximum length.

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strnlen'
void main(void) {
  char my_string[] = "Hello World.";
  int length = strlen(my_string);
  my_string[length] = 42; // Corrupt the sentinel
  length = strnlen(my_string, 12); // That's fine.
        strnlen will stop after the 12<sup>th</sup> character if it does not see a sentinel.
```

38

Comparing "Apples" to "Oranges"

- When you compare strings using == it compares the addresses!
 - Since string literals are constant, they only exist in the executable once.
 - All references will refer to the same string!

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strncmp'
void main(void) {
  char* string1 = "apples";
  char* string2 = "apples";
  if (string1 == string2) {
    printf("same\n"); // This runs!
```

Comparing "Apples" to "Oranges"

- When the addresses differ, they are not equal.
 - So, you have to be careful when comparing them.
 - This is similar to Java when considering == versus String.equals()

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strncmp'
void main(void) {
  char string1[] = "apples";
  char string2[] = "apples";
  if (string1 == string2) {
    printf("same\n"); // This does not run!
```

Comparing "Apples" to "Oranges"

- To compare values instead, use the standard library's strcmp.
 - This will perform a byte-by-byte comparison of the string.
 - Upon finding a difference, it returns rough difference between those contrary bytes.
 - When they are the same, then the difference is 0!
 - Therefore, it is case sensitive! It also has a O(n) time complexity.

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf'
#include <string.h> // For 'strncmp'
void main(void) {
 char* string1 = "apples";
 char* string2 = "apples";
                                are equal.
  if (strcmp(string1, string2) == 0) {
   printf("same\n"); // This runs!
  // You could write it as: if(!strcmp(string1, string2))
```

Appropriate string construction. A-rope-riate.

```
#include <stdio.h> // For 'printf' and 'scanf'

    C is a very deliberate language.

#include <string.h> // For 'strnlen' etc
#include <stdlib.h> // For 'calloc' and 'free'
#define MAX_STRING 100
                                             calloc is important here! Ensures string has
void main(void) {
                                             a length of 0. (is initially empty, not garbage!)
 const char* str_start = "Hello, ";
 const char* str_end = "!";
                                                     Like a ballroom. Empty, but spacious.
 char* str_name = calloc(MAX_STRING + 1, sizeof(char));
 char* my_buffer = calloc(MAX_STRING + 1, sizeof(char));
 printf("Type in your name: "); // Let someone type in their name
                               // The term %100s has it record at most 100 characters to str name.
  scanf("%100s", str_name);
                                            strncpy is the bounded form of strcpy.
 strncpy(my_buffer, str_start, MAX_STRING);
                                            Overwrites string.
  strncat(my_buffer, str_name, MAX_STRING);
  strncat(my_buffer, str_end, MAX_STRING);
 printf("%s\n", my_buffer); 
                              strncat is the bounded form of strcat.
 free(str_name);
                              Concatenates to end of existing string.
 free(my_buffer);
} // Prints "Hello, wilkie!" depending on what you've typed in.
```

42

Memory/Strings: Summary

Memory Allocation

- #include <stdlib.h>
- malloc(size_t length) Returns pointer to length bytes
- calloc(size_t count, size_t size) Returns pointer to (count*size) bytes, zeros them
- free(void* ptr) Deallocates memory at 'ptr' so it can be allocated elsewhere

Strings

- #include <string.h>
- strcpy(char* dst, const char* src) Copies src to dst overwriting dst.
- strncpy(char* dst, const char* src, size_t max) Copies up to 'max' to dst.
- strcat(char* dst, const char* src) Copies string from src to end of dst.
- strncat(char* dst, const char* src, size_t max) Copies up to 'max' to end of dst.
- strcmp(const char* a, const char* b) Returns difference between strings. (0 if equal)
- strncmp(const char* a, const char* b, size_t max) Compares up to 'max' bytes.
- Generally safer to use the bounded forms.

Input/Output: Summary

Input

- #include <stdio.h>
- scanf("%s", my_buffer) Copies string input by user into buffer (unsafe!)
- scanf("%10s", my_buffer) Copies up to 10 chars into buffer (my_buffer needs to be >= 11 bytes for sentinel)
- scanf("%d", &my_int) Interprets input and places value into int variable.

Output

scanf updates your variable, so you need to pass the address. (my_buffer does not need it. Strings are already char*) #include <stdio.h>

- printf("%s", my_buffer) Prints string. (technically unsafe)
- printf("%d", my_int) Prints int variable. (d for decimal, unfortunately)
- printf("%x", my_int) Prints int variable in hexadecimal. (x for hex)
- printf("%1", my_int) Prints long variable.
- printf("%ul", my_int) Prints unsigned long variable.
- Lots more variations! Generally scanf and printf share terms. Look them up!