#### CS 31: Intro to Systems Pointers and Memory

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#### Reading Quiz

#### Lab 4 Partnership Sign Up

• On Piazza now!

#### Overview

 How to reference the location of a variable in memory

• Where variables are placed in memory

- How to make this information useful
  - Allocating memory
  - Calling functions with pointer arguments

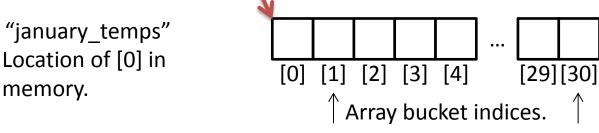
#### The "P" Word

• Pointer: A variable that stores a reference to a memory location.

- We've seen a few things that look like pointers
  - Arrays
  - Putting () around a register

#### Recall: Arrays

int january\_temps[31]; // Daily high temps



• Array variable name means, to the compiler, the beginning of the memory chunk. (address)

• Index number is an offset from beginning.

#### In Assembly Language

## Pointers in C

- Like any other variable, must be declared:
  - Using the format: type \*name;
- Example:
  - int \*myptr;
  - This is a promise to the compiler:
    - This variable holds a memory address. If you follow what it points to in memory (dereference it), you'll find an integer.
- A note on syntax:
  - int\* myptr; int \* myptr; int \* myptr;
  - These all do the same thing. (note the \* position)

#### **Dereferencing a Pointer**

• To follow the pointer, we *dereference* it.

• Dereferencing re-uses the \* symbol.

 If iptr is declared as an integer pointer,
 \*iptr will follow the address it stores to find an integer in memory.

# Putting a \* in front of a variable...

- When you *declare* the variable:
  - Declares the variable to be a pointer
  - It stores a memory address

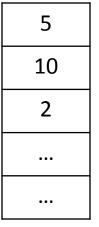
- When you *use* the variable (dereference):
  - Like putting () around a register name
  - Follows the pointer out to memory
  - Acts like the specified type (e.g., int, float, etc.)

Suppose we set up a pointer like this. Which expression gives us 5, and which gives us a memory address?

int \*iptr = (that memory);

#### A. Memory address: \*iptr, Value 5: iptr

B. Memory address: iptr, Value 5: \*iptr



#### So we declared a pointer...

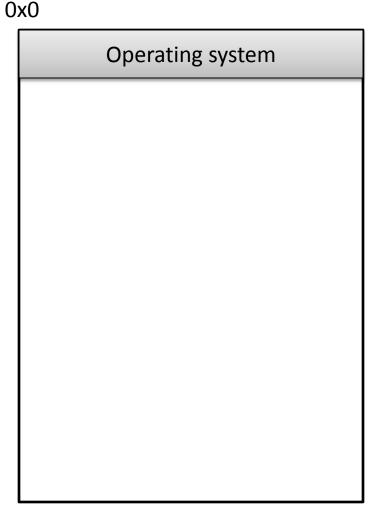
- How do we make it point to something?
  - 1. Assign it the address of an existing variable
  - 2. Copy some other pointer
  - 3. Allocate some memory and point to it

• First, let's look at how memory is organized.

### Memory

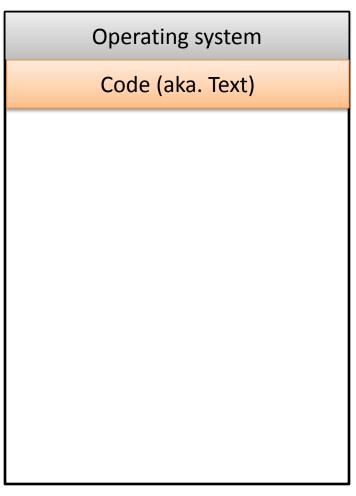


- Behaves like a big array of bytes, each with an address (bucket #).
- By convention, we divide it into regions.
- The region at the lowest addresses is usually reserved for the OS.



#### Memory - Text

- After the OS, we store the program's code.
- Instructions generated by the compiler.



# Memory – (Static) Data

- Next, there's a fixed-size region for static data.
- This stores static variables that are known at compile time.
  - Global variables

Operating system
Code (aka. Text)
Data

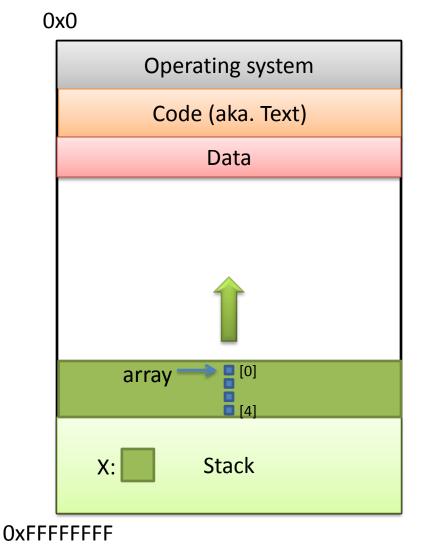
#### Memory - Stack

- At high addresses, we keep the stack.
- This stores local (automatic) variables.
  - The kind we've been using in C so far.
  - e.g., int x;

Operating system
Code (aka. Text)
Data
X: Stack
0xFFFFFFF

### Memory - Stack

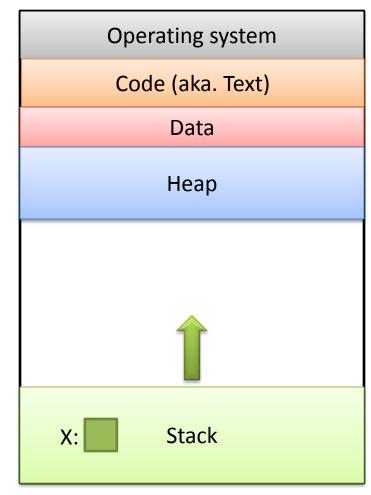
- The stack grows upwards towards lower addresses (negative direction).
- Example: Allocating array
  - int array[4];
- (Note: this differs from Python.)



#### Memory - Heap

0x0

- The heap stores dynamically allocated variables.
- When programs explicitly ask the OS for memory, it comes from the heap.
  - malloc() function



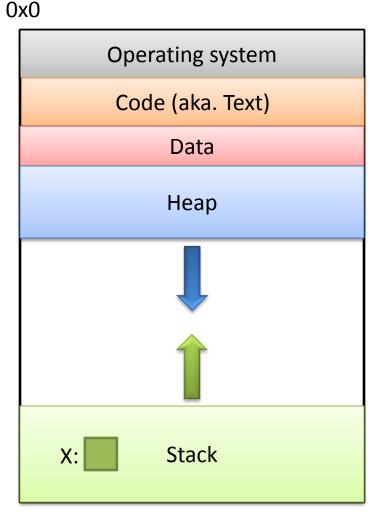
OxFFFFFFF

# If we can declare variables on the stack, why do we need to dynamically allocate things on the heap?

- A. There is more space available on the heap.
- B. Heap memory is better. (Why?)
- C. We may not know a variable's size in advance.
- D. The stack grows and shrinks automatically.
- E. Some other reason.

#### Memory - Heap

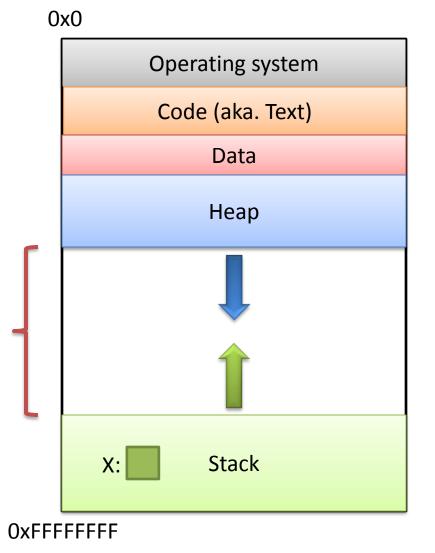
- The heap grows downwards, towards higher addresses.
- I know you want to ask a question...



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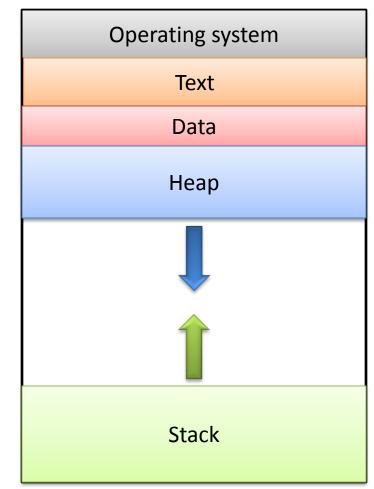
#### Memory - Heap

- "What happens if the heap and stack collide?"
- This picture is not to scale
   the gap is huge.
- The OS works really hard to prevent this.
  - Would likely kill your program before it could happen.



# Which region would we expect the PC register (prog. counter) to point to?

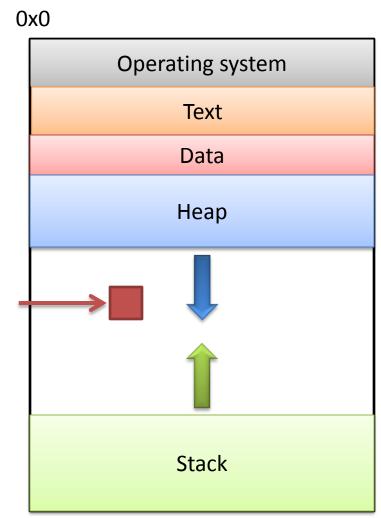
- A. OS
- B. Text
- C. Data
- D. Heap
- E. Stack



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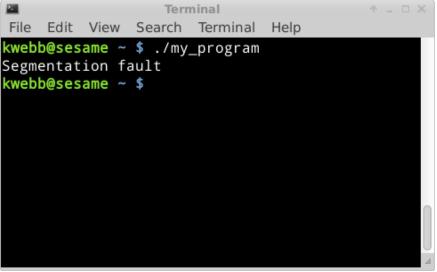
# What should happen if we try to access an address that's NOT in one of these regions?

- A. The address is allocated to your program.
- B. The OS warns your program.
- C. The OS kills your program.
- D. The access fails, try the next instruction.
- E. Something else



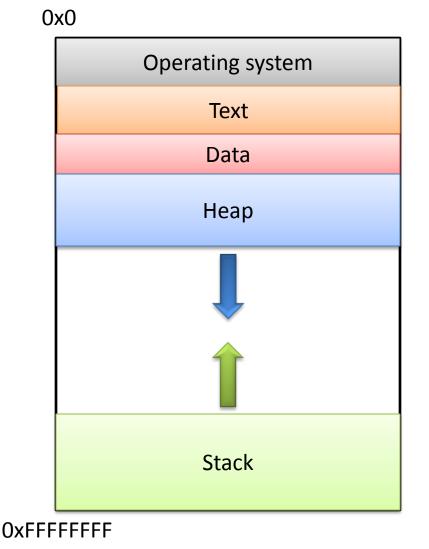
#### **Segmentation Violation**





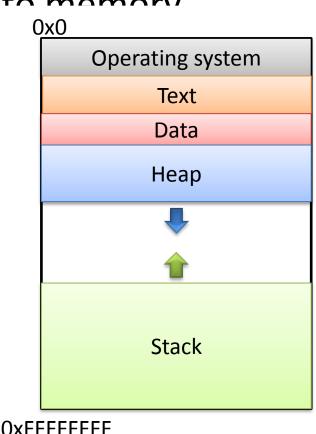
#### **Segmentation Violation**

- Each region also known as a memory segment.
- Accessing memory outside a segment is not allowed.
- Can also happen if you try to access a segment in an invalid way.
  - OS not accessible to users
  - Text is usually read-only



#### Recap

- & gives us the address of a variable (a pointer)
- \* allows us to follow the address to momony accessing the item (dereference
- Memory model:
- So far, all variables on stack.
- Up next: using the heap.
  - We may not know the size of a variable in advance. (dynamic)



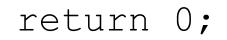
#### So we declared a pointer...

- How do we make it point to something?
  - 1. Assign it the address of an existing variable
  - 2. Copy some other pointer
  - 3. Allocate some memory and point to it

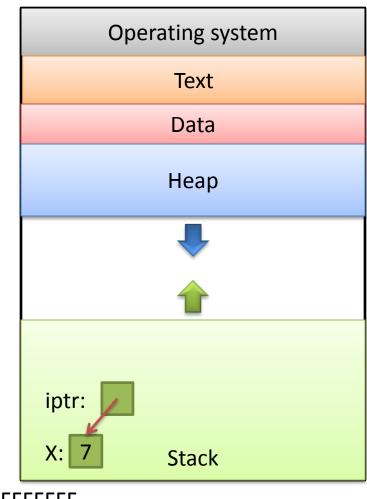
### The Address Of (&)

• You can create a pointer to anything by taking its address with the *address of* operator (&).

#### The Address Of (&)

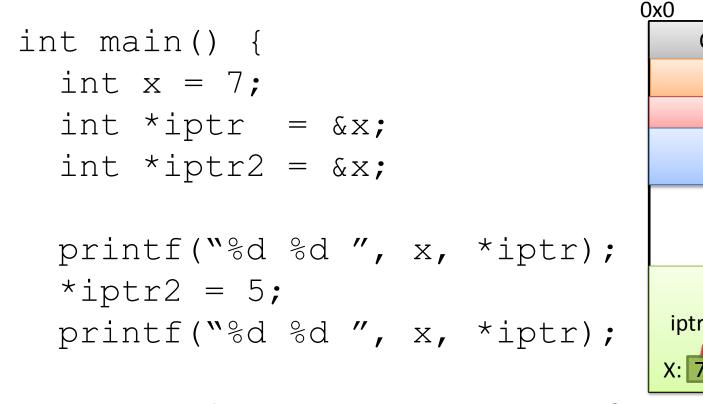


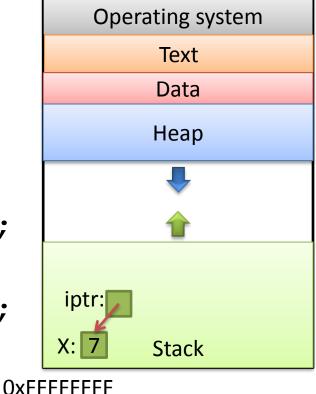
}



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#### What would this print?





return 0;

A. 7777 B. 7775 C. 7755 D. Something else

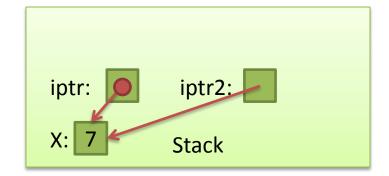
#### So we declared a pointer...

- How do we make it point to something?
  - 1. Assign it the address of an existing variable
  - 2. Copy some other pointer
  - 3. Allocate some memory and point to it

# **Copying a Pointer**

• We can perform assignment on pointers to copy the stored address.

```
int x = 7;
int *iptr, *iptr2;
iptr = &x;
iptr2 = iptr;
```



#### **Pointer Types**

• By default, we can only assign a pointer if the type matches what C expects.

int x = 7; int \*iptr = &x; float \*fptr = &x;

 "Warning: initialization from incompatible pointer type" (<u>Don't ignore this!</u>)

#### void \*

- There exists a special type, void \*, which represents "generic pointer" type.
  - Can be assigned to any pointer variable
  - int \*iptr = (void \*) &x; // Doesn't matter what x is
- This is useful for cases when:
  - 1. You want to create a generic "safe value" that you can assign to any pointer variable.
  - 2. You want to pass a pointer to / return a pointer from a function, but you don't know its type.
  - 3. You know better than the compiler that what you're doing is safe, and you want to eliminate the warning.

#### NULL: A special pointer value.

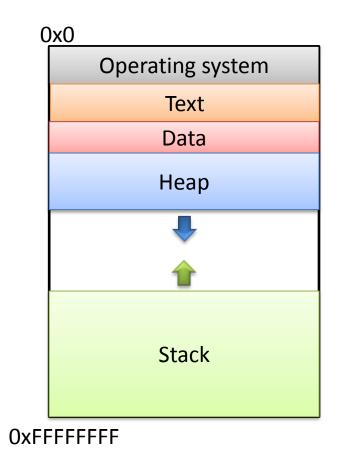
- You can assign NULL to any pointer, regardless of what type it points to (it's a void \*).
  - int \*iptr = NULL;
  - float \*fptr = NULL;
- NULL is equivalent to pointing at memory address 0x0. This address is NEVER in a valid segment of your program's memory.
  - This guarantees a segfault if you try to deref it.
  - Generally a good ideal to initialize pointers to NULL.

## What will this do?

```
int main() {
    int *ptr;
    printf("%d", *ptr);
}
```

- A. Print 0
- B. Print a garbage value
- C. Segmentation fault
- D. Something else

Takeaway: If you're not immediately assigning it something when you declare it, initialize your pointers to NULL.



## So we declared a pointer...

- How do we make it point to something?
  - 1. Assign it the address of an existing variable
  - 2. Copy some other pointer
  - 3. Allocate some memory and point to it

## Allocating (Heap) Memory

 The standard C library (#include <stdlib.h>) includes functions for allocating memory

#### void \*malloc(size\_t size)

 Allocate size bytes on the heap and return a pointer to the beginning of the memory block

#### void free(void \*ptr)

- Release the malloc()ed block of memory starting
at ptr back to the system

## Recall: void \*

- void \* is a special type that represents "generic pointer".
   Can be assigned to any pointer variable
- This is useful for cases when:
  - 1. You want to create a generic "safe value" that you can assign to any pointer variable.
  - 2. You want to pass a pointer to / return a pointer from a function, but you don't know its type.
  - 3. You know better than the compiler that what you're doing is safe, and you want to eliminate the warning.
- When malloc() gives you bytes, it doesn't know or care what you use them for...

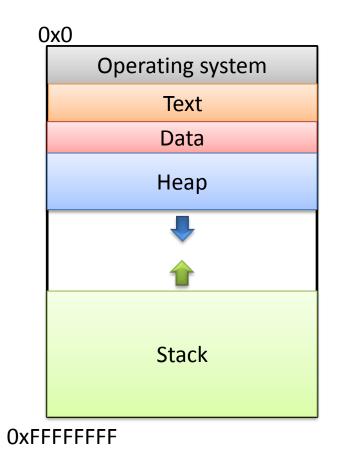
#### Size Matters

- void \*malloc(size\_t size)
  - Allocate size bytes on the heap and return a pointer to the beginning of the memory block
- How much memory should we ask for?
- Use C's sizeof() operator: int \*iptr = NULL; iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

int \*iptr = NULL;

iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

\*iptr = 5;



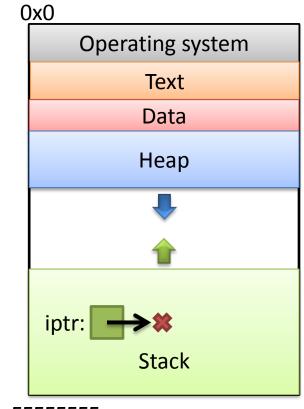
int \*iptr = NULL;

iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

\*iptr = 5;

Create an integer pointer, named iptr, on the stack.

Assign it NULL.



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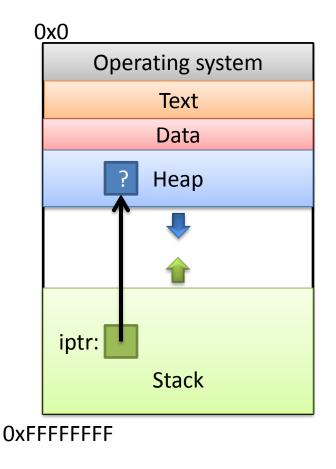
int \*iptr = NULL;

iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

\*iptr = 5;

Allocate space for an integer on the heap (4 bytes), and return a pointer to that space.

Assign that pointer to iptr.



What value is stored in that area right now?

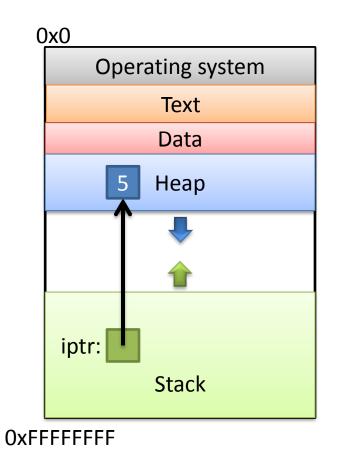
Who knows... Garbage.

int \*iptr = NULL;

iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

⇒ \*iptr = 5;

Use the allocated heap space by dereferencing the pointer.

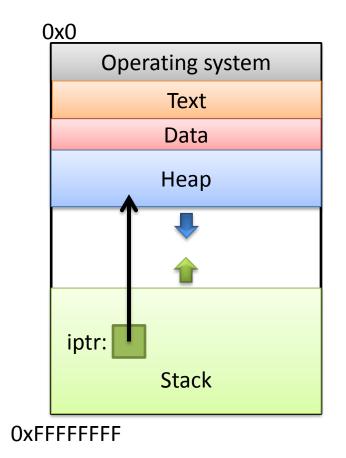


int \*iptr = NULL;

iptr = malloc(sizeof(int));

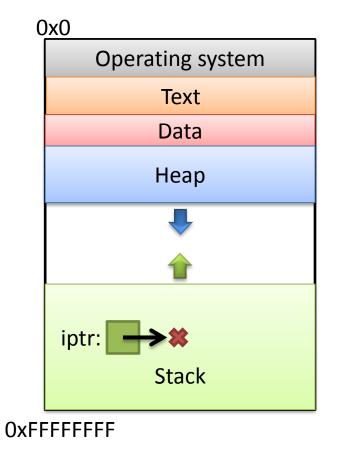
\*iptr = 5;

➡ free(iptr);



Free up the heap memory we used.

int \*iptr = NULL; iptr = malloc(sizeof(int)); \*iptr = 5; free(iptr); ⇒ iptr = NULL;



Clean up this pointer, since it's no longer valid.

## sizeof()

- Despite the ()'s, it's an operator, not a function
  - Other operators:
    - addition / subtraction (+ / -)
    - address of (&)
    - indirection (\*) (dereference a pointer)
- Works on any type to tell you how much memory it needs.

#### sizeof() example

How many bytes is this? Who cares... Let the compiler figure that out.

struct student \*bob = NULL;

bob = malloc(sizeof(struct student));

I don't ever want to see a number hard-coded in here!

You're designing a system. What should happen if a program requests memory and the system doesn't have enough available?

- A. The OS kills the requesting program.
- B. The OS kills another program to make room.
- C. malloc gives it as much memory as is available.
- D. malloc returns NULL.
- E. Something else.

## Running out of Memory

- If you're ever unsure of malloc / free's behavior:
   \$ man malloc
- According to the C standard:

"The malloc() function returns a pointer to the allocated memory that is suitably aligned for any kind of variable. **On error, this function returns NULL.**"

• Further down in the "Notes" section of the manual: "[On Linux], when malloc returns non-NULL there is no guarantee that memory is really available. If the system is out of memory, one or more processes will be killed by the OOM killer."

## Running out of Memory

- If you're ever unsure of malloc / free's behavior:
   \$ man malloc
- According to the C standard:

"The malloc() function returns a pointer to the allocated memory that is suitably aligned for any kind of variable. **On error, this function returns NULL.**"

You should check for NULL after every malloc():

```
struct student *bob = NULL;
bob = malloc(sizeof(struct student));
if (bob == NULL) {
    /* Handle this. Often, print and exit. */
```

# What do you expect to happen to the 100-byte chunk if we do this?

// What happens to these 100 bytes?
int \*ptr = malloc(100);

#### ptr = malloc(2000);

- A. The 100-byte chunk will be lost.
- B. The 100-byte chunk will be automatically freed (garbage collected) by the OS.
- C. The 100-byte chunk will be automatically freed (garbage collected) by C.
- D. The 100-byte chunk will be the first 100 bytes of the 2000-byte chunk.
- E. The 100-byte chunk will be added to the 2000-byte chunk (2100 bytes total).

## "Memory Leak"

• Memory that is allocated, and not freed, for which there is no longer a pointer.

- In many languages (Java, Python, ...), this memory will be cleaned up for you.
  - "Garbage collector" finds unreachable memory blocks, frees them.
  - C doesn't does NOT do this for you!

#### Why doesn't C do garbage collection?

- A. It's impossible in C.
- B. It requires a lot of resources.
- C. It might not be safe to do so. (break programs)
- D. It hadn't been invented at the time C was developed.
- E. Some other reason.

## Faculty Candidates

- Mock class: 11:30 Noon
- Lunch w/ candidate:
- Research talk:

11:30 - NoorNoon - 1:004:30 - 5:30

- 2/18: Bryce Widenbeck (Game Theory)
- 2/20: Sindhu Kutty (Social Computing Systems)
- 2/27: Peter-Michael Osera (Prog. Languages)

## Memory Bookkeeping

- To free a chunk, you MUST call free with the same pointer that malloc gave you. (or a copy)
- The standard C library keeps track of the chunks that have been allocated to your program.
   This is called "metadata" – data about your data.
- Wait, where does it store that information?
  It's not like it can use malloc() to get memory...

#### Where should we store this metadata?

A. In the CPU (where?)

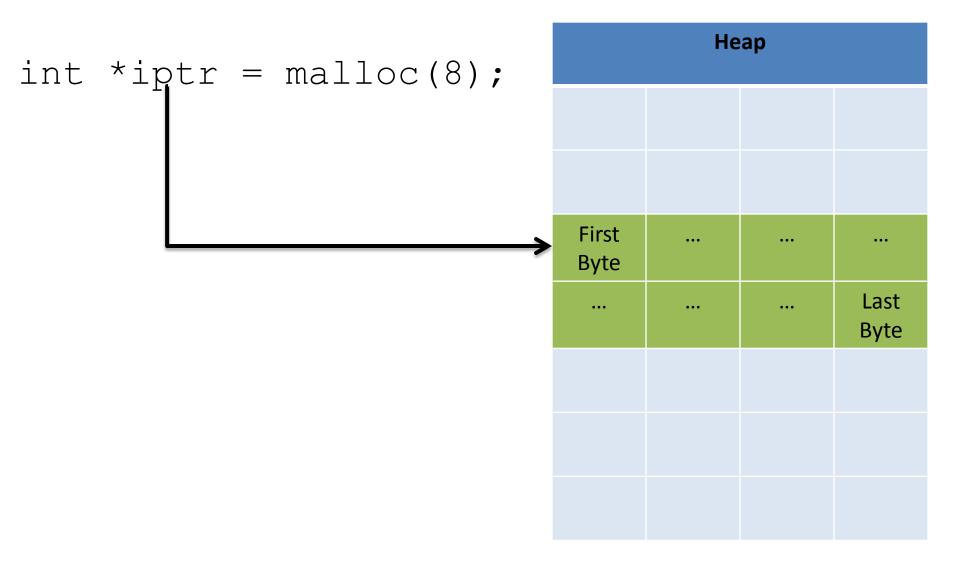
B. In main memory (how?)

C. On the disk

D. Somewhere else

int \*iptr = malloc(8);

Неар			



int \*iptr = malloc(8);

- C Library: "Let me record this allocation's info here."
  - Size of allocation
  - Maybe other info

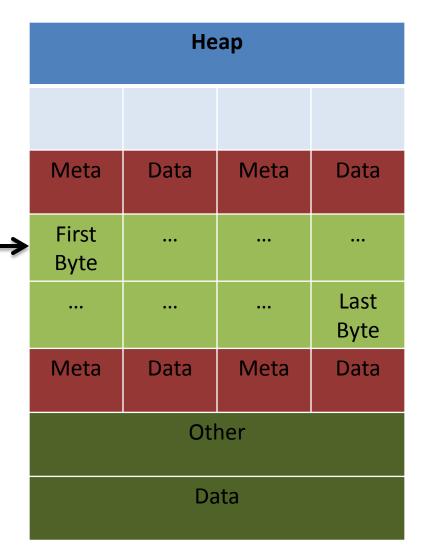


- Heap int \*iptr = malloc(8); Meta Data Meta Data **First** • • • ... ... Byte Last • • • ... ... Byte For all you know, there could Meta Data Meta Data be another chunk after yours. Other
  - Data

int \*iptr = malloc(8);

- Takeaway: very important that you stay within the memory chunks you allocate.
- If you corrupt the metadata, you will get weird behavior.

Valgrind is your new best friend.

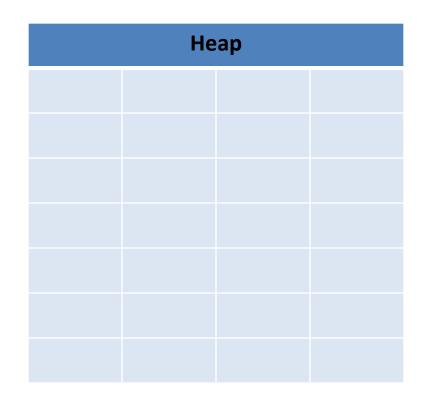


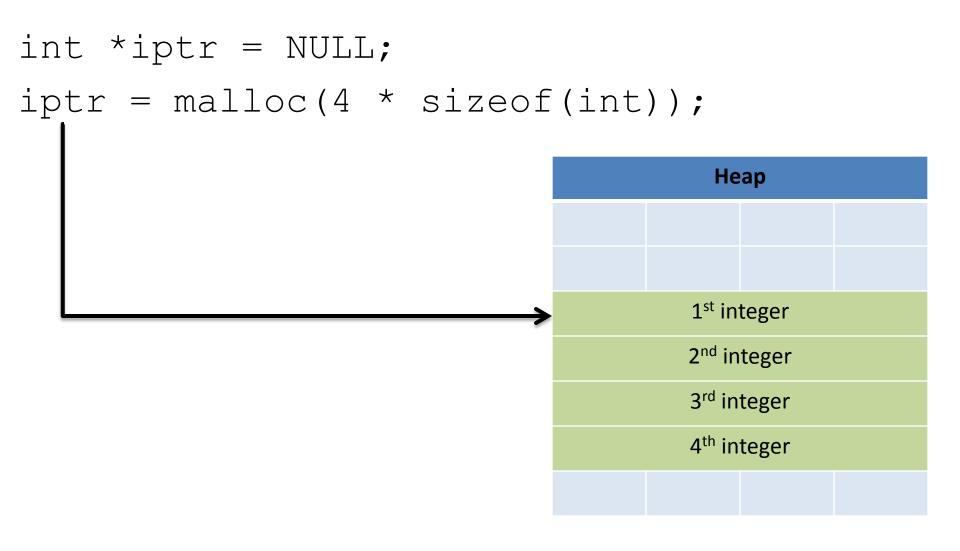
 "Why did you allocate 8 bytes for an int pointer? Isn't an int only 4 bytes?"

- int \*iptr = malloc(8);

- Recall: an array variable acts like a pointer to a block of memory. The number in [] is an offset from bucket 0, the first bucket.
- We can treat pointers in the same way!

int \*iptr = NULL;
iptr = malloc(4 \* sizeof(int));



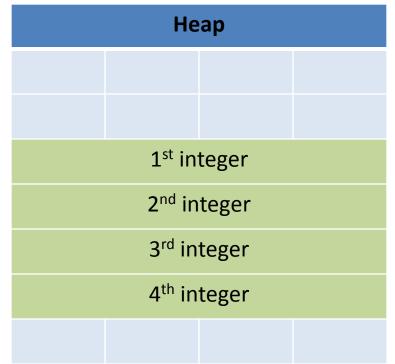


## int \*iptr = NULL; iptr = malloc(4 \* sizeof(int));

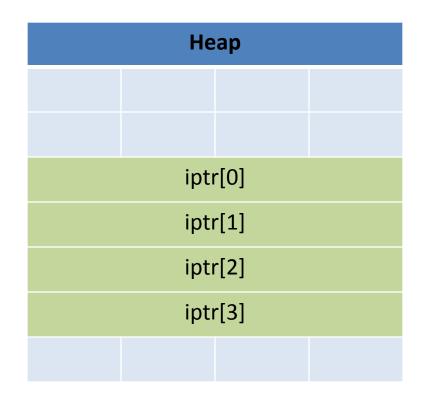
The C compiler knows how big an integer is.

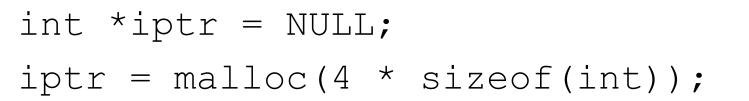
As an alternative way of dereferencing, you can use []'s like an array.

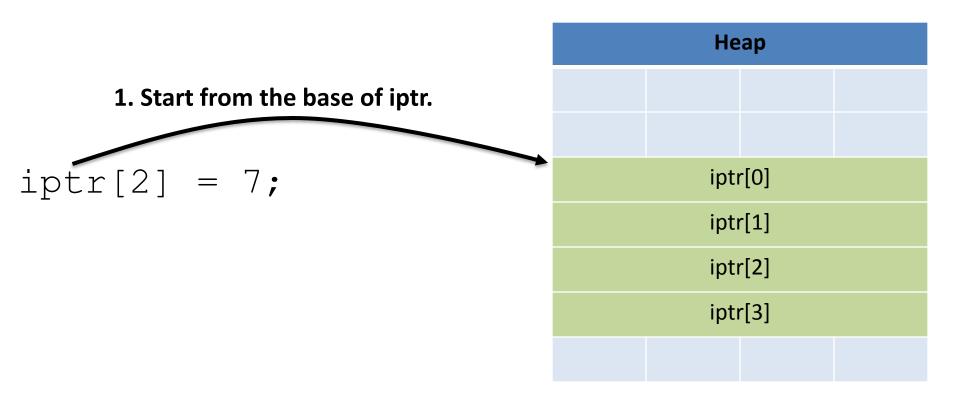
The C compiler will jump ahead the right number of bytes, based on the type.

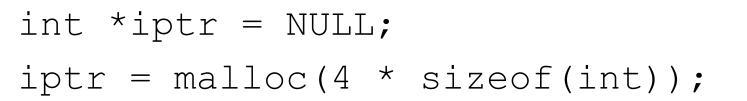


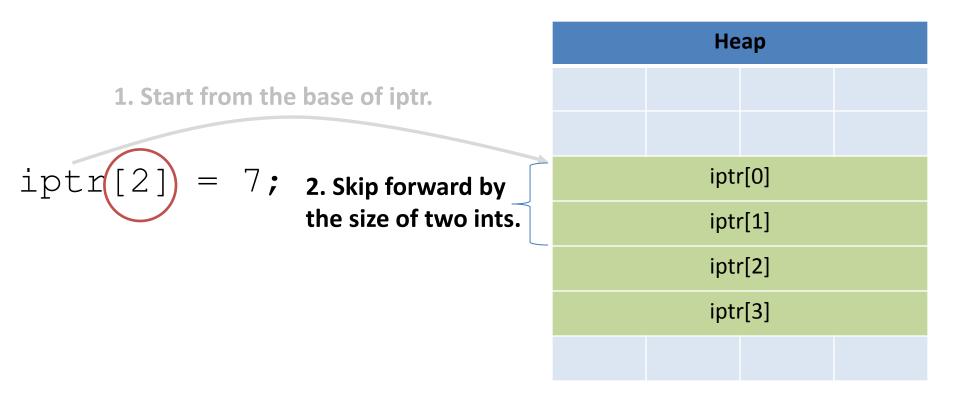
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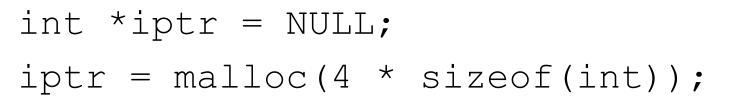


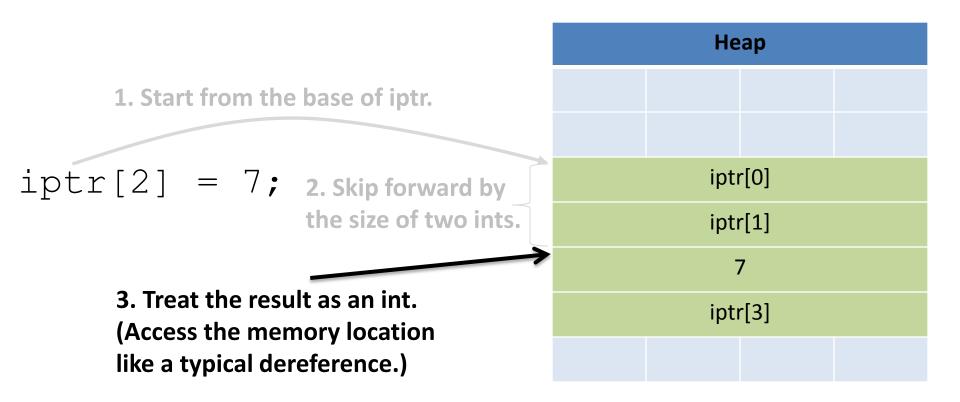












- This is one of the most common ways you'll use pointers:
  - You need to dynamically allocate space for a collection of things (ints, structs, whatever).
  - You don't know how many at compile time.

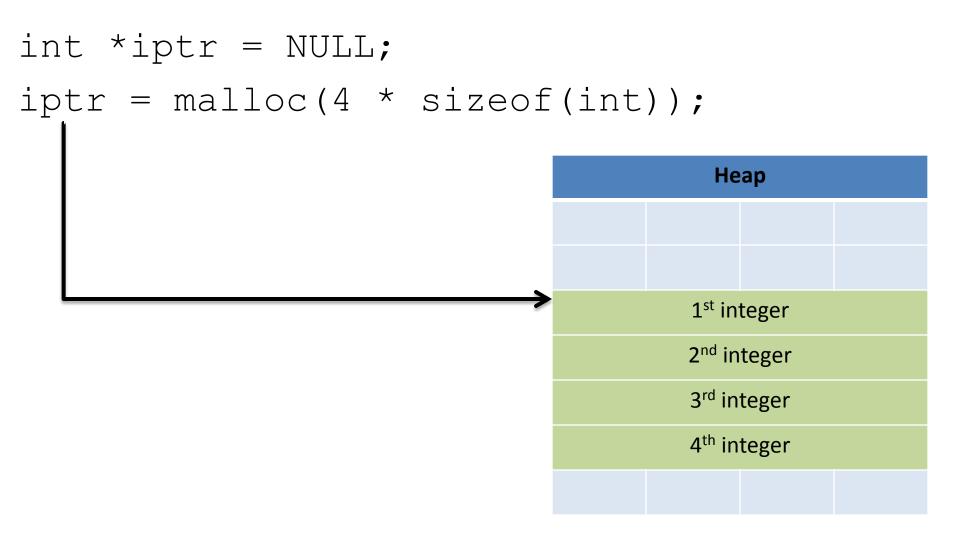
```
float *student_gpas = NULL;
student_gpas = malloc(n_students * sizeof(int));
...
student_gpas[0] = ...;
student_gpas[1] = ...;
```

# Pointer Arithmetic

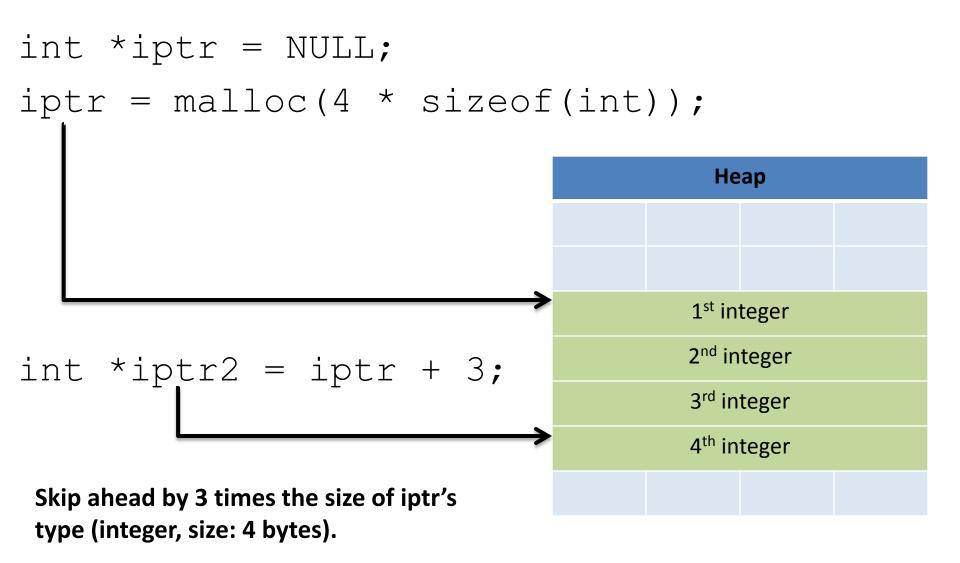
• Addition and subtraction work on pointers.

• C automatically increments by the size of the type that's pointed to.

#### **Pointer Arithmetic**



#### **Pointer Arithmetic**



#### Other uses for pointers...

1. Allowing a function to modify a variable.

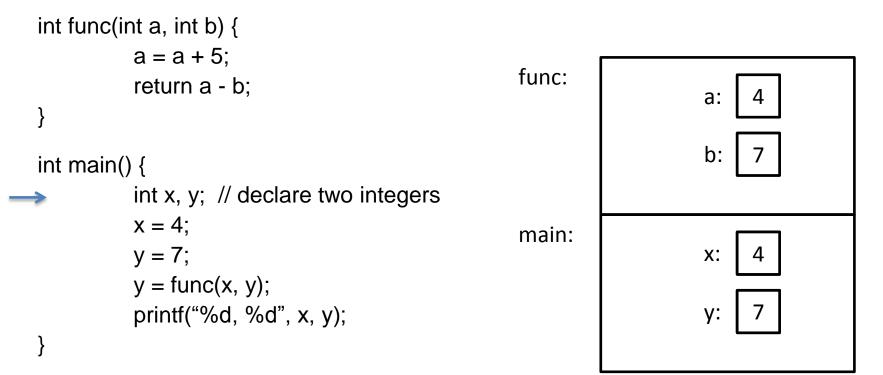
2. Allowing a function to return memory.

3. Many more...

# **Function Arguments**

#### • Arguments are **passed by value**

#### - The function gets a separate <u>copy</u> of the passed variable





# **Function Arguments**

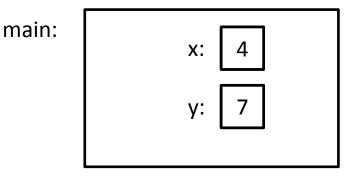
#### • Arguments are **passed by value**

- The function gets a separate <u>copy</u> of the passed variable

}

int main() {
 int x, y; // declare two integers
 x = 4;
 y = 7;
 y = func(x, y);
 printf("%d, %d", x, y);

It doesn't matter what func does with a and b. The value of x in main doesn't change.



Stack

# **Function Arguments**

• Arguments can be pointers!

– The function gets the address of the passed variable!

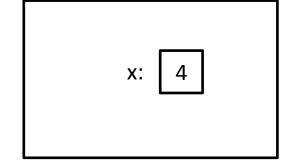
```
void func(int *a) {
     *a = *a + 5;
}
int main() {
     int x = 4;
     func(&x);
     printf("%d", x);
}
```

main:

• Arguments can be pointers!

- The function gets the address of the passed variable!

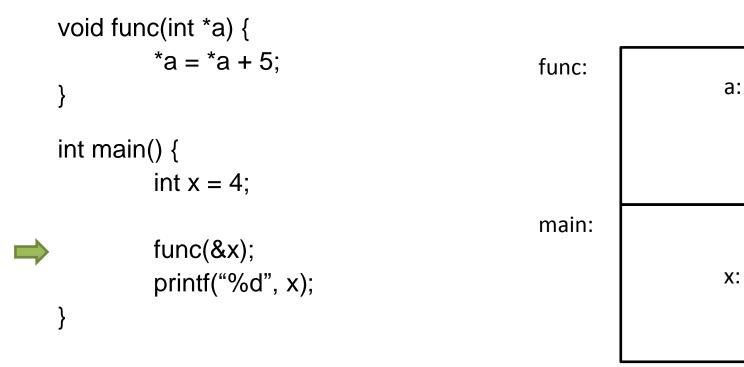
main:



Stack

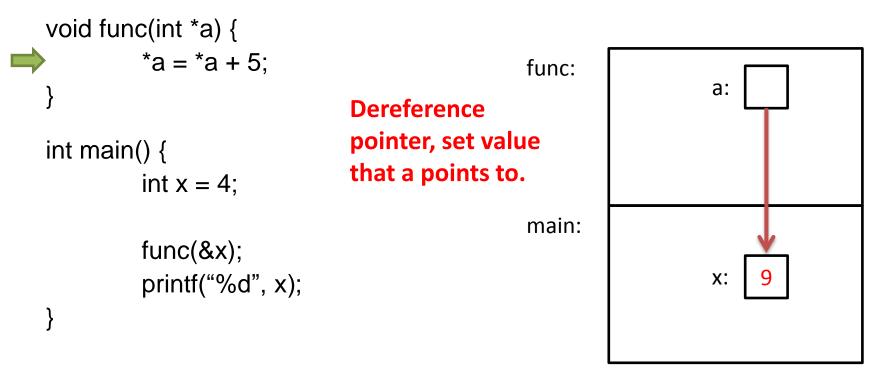
#### • Arguments can be pointers!

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- Arguments can be pointers!
  - The function gets the address of the passed variable!

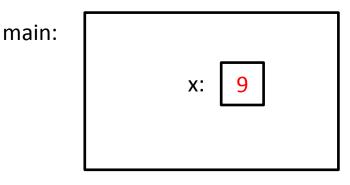




• Arguments can be pointers!

- The function gets the address of the passed variable!

```
void func(int *a) {
         *a = *a + 5;
}
int main() {
         int x = 4;
         func(&x);
         printf("%d", x);
              Prints: 9
              Haven't we seen this
              somewhere before?
```



Stack

# Readfile Library

- We saw this in lab 1 with read\_int, read\_float.
  - This is why you needed an &.
  - e.g.,
     int value;
     status code = read int(&value);
- You're asking read\_int to modify a parameter, so you give it a pointer to that parameter.
  – read\_int will dereference it and set it.

# Other uses for pointers...

1. Allowing a function to modify a variable.

2. Allowing a function to return memory.

3. Many more...

# Can you return an array?

- Suppose you wanted to write a function that copies an array (of 5 integers).
  - Given: array to copy

```
copy_array(int array[]) {
  int result[5];
  result[0] = array[0];
  ...
  result[4] = array[4];
```

```
return result;
```

This is a terrible idea. (Don't worry, compiler wont let you do this anyway.)

#### Consider the memory...

```
copy array(int array[]) {
  int result[5];
  result[0] = array[0];
                              copy array:
                                         result —
  ...
  result[4] = array[4];
  return result;
}
                                 main:
(In main):
                                        copy
copy = copy array(...)
```

#### Consider the memory...

```
copy array(int array[]) {
  int result[5];
  result[0] = array[0];
                              copy array:
                                         result.
  . . .
  result[4] = array[4];
 return result;
                                 main:
(In main):
                                        copy:
copy = copy array(...)
```

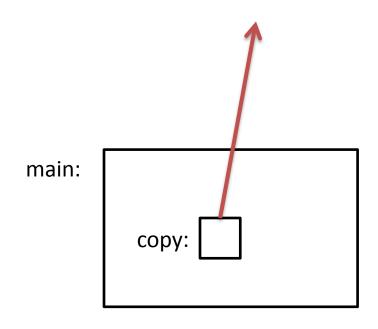
#### Consider the memory...

When we return from copy\_array, its stack frame is gone!

(In main):

copy = copy\_array(...)





#### Using the Heap

```
int *copy_array(int num, int array[]) {
    int *result = malloc(num * sizeof(int));
```

```
result[0] = array[0];
```

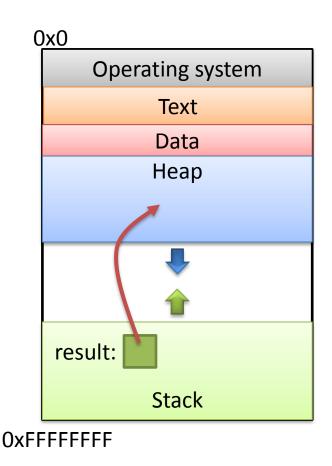
```
return result;
```

...

}

malloc memory is on the heap.

Doesn't matter what happens on the stack (function calls, returns, etc.)



#### Other uses for pointers...

1. Allowing a function to modify a variable.

2. Allowing a function to return memory.

• These are both very common. You'll use them in lab 4.

#### **Pointers to Pointers**

• Why stop at just one pointer?

```
int **double iptr;
```

- "A pointer to a pointer to an int."
  - Dereference once: pointer to an int
  - Dereference twice: int
- Commonly used to:
  - Allow a function to modify a pointer (data structures)
  - Dynamically create an array of pointers.
  - (Program command line arguments use this.)

# Up Next:

• Function calls and stack management