

Hacking in C

Memory layout

Radboud University, Nijmegen, The Netherlands



Spring 2019

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)
- ▶ Can do “pointer arithmetic”, i.e., increase and decrease pointers
- ▶ `x++` for type `*x` increases *address* by `sizeof(type)`

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)
- ▶ Can do “pointer arithmetic”, i.e., increase and decrease pointers
- ▶ `x++` for type `*x` increases *address* by `sizeof(type)`
- ▶ Strings are null-terminated arrays of bytes
- ▶ Array access can be expressed as pointers: `a[i]` is the same as `*(a+i)`

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)
- ▶ Can do “pointer arithmetic”, i.e., increase and decrease pointers
- ▶ `x++` for type `*x` increases *address* by `sizeof(type)`
- ▶ Strings are null-terminated arrays of bytes
- ▶ Array access can be expressed as pointers: `a[i]` is the same as `*(a+i)`
- ▶ ... is the same as `i[a]!` (try it out ;-))

A short recap

- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)
- ▶ Can do “pointer arithmetic”, i.e., increase and decrease pointers
- ▶ `x++` for type `*x` increases *address* by `sizeof(type)`
- ▶ Strings are null-terminated arrays of bytes
- ▶ Array access can be expressed as pointers: `a[i]` is the same as `*(a+i)`
- ▶ ... is the same as `i[a]!` (try it out ;-))
- ▶ Can use pointers to inspect raw memory content

A short recap

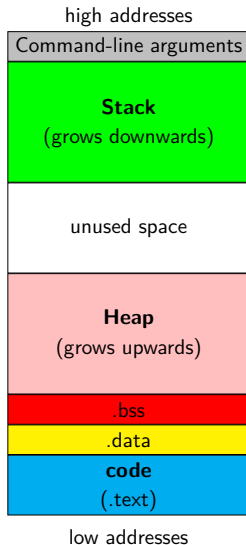
- ▶ The `&` operator gives us the address of data
- ▶ Inverse of `&` is the `*` operator (dereferencing)
- ▶ *Aligning* data to word (or larger) limits makes access more efficient
- ▶ Compilers may introduce padding to align data
- ▶ Arrays are passed by reference (decay to pointer to the first element)
- ▶ Can do “pointer arithmetic”, i.e., increase and decrease pointers
- ▶ `x++` for type `*x` increases *address* by `sizeof(type)`
- ▶ Strings are null-terminated arrays of bytes
- ▶ Array access can be expressed as pointers: `a[i]` is the same as `*(a+i)`
- ▶ ... is the same as `i[a]!` (try it out ;-))
- ▶ Can use pointers to inspect raw memory content

This lecture: look at the systematics of what is stored where

Memory segments

The OS allocates memory for data and code of each running process

- ▶ stack: for local variables (including command-line arguments)
- ▶ heap: For *dynamic* memory
- ▶ data segment:
 - ▶ global and static uninitialized variables (.bss)
 - ▶ global and static initialized variables (.data)
- ▶ code segment: code (and possibly constants)



/proc/<pid>/maps, ps, and size

- ▶ Find information about memory allocation for process with PID <pid> in

```
/proc/<pid>/maps
```

- ▶ For example:

```
008e6000-00b11000      rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [heap]
7ffd739cb000-7ffd739ec000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [stack]
```

- ▶ Also information about dynamic libraries used by process

/proc/<pid>/maps, ps, and size

- ▶ Find information about memory allocation for process with PID <pid> in

```
/proc/<pid>/maps
```

- ▶ For example:

```
008e6000-00b11000      rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [heap]
7ffd739cb000-7ffd739ec000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [stack]
```

- ▶ Also information about dynamic libraries used by process
- ▶ List all processes with PID: ps

/proc/<pid>/maps, ps, and size

- ▶ Find information about memory allocation for process with PID <pid> in

```
/proc/<pid>/maps
```

- ▶ For example:

```
008e6000-00b11000      rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [heap]
7ffd739cb000-7ffd739ec000 rw-p 00000000 00:00 0   [stack]
```

- ▶ Also information about dynamic libraries used by process
- ▶ List all processes with PID: ps
- ▶ Find information about memory segment sizes using size
- ▶ Use size on binary (.o file or executable)
- ▶ For more verbatim output can use size -A

Virtual memory

- ▶ Central idea:
 - ▶ Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ▶ Instead, use *virtual addresses*
 - ▶ For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address

Virtual memory

- ▶ Central idea:
 - ▶ Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ▶ Instead, use *virtual addresses*
 - ▶ For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- ▶ Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- ▶ Chop the memory into *pages* of fixed size (typically 4KB)

Virtual memory

- ▶ Central idea:
 - ▶ Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ▶ Instead, use *virtual addresses*
 - ▶ For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- ▶ Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- ▶ Chop the memory into *pages* of fixed size (typically 4KB)
- ▶ Use a *page table* to establish the mapping

Virtual memory

- ▶ Central idea:
 - ▶ Don't let processes use addresses in physical memory
 - ▶ Instead, use *virtual addresses*
 - ▶ For each access to a virtual address, map to actual physical address
- ▶ Obviously, don't want to map byte-by-byte
- ▶ Chop the memory into *pages* of fixed size (typically 4KB)
- ▶ Use a *page table* to establish the mapping
- ▶ Essentially, use a different page table for each process
- ▶ If there is no entry for a virtual address in a processes' page table:
exit with segmentation fault

Advantages of virtual memory

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory

Advantages of virtual memory

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory
- ▶ Can even assign more memory than is physically available
- ▶ Need to swap memory content to and from hard drive

Advantages of virtual memory

- ▶ Processes can use (seemingly) contiguous memory locations
- ▶ Those addresses don't have to be contiguous in *physical* memory
- ▶ Can even assign more memory than is physically available
- ▶ Need to swap memory content to and from hard drive
- ▶ Can **separate address spaces** of different programs!
- ▶ OS can now ensure that one process cannot read/write another processes' memory

Bare-metal “memory management”

- ▶ C is also used to program small embedded microcontrollers
- ▶ Sometimes run code *bare metal*, i.e., without OS
- ▶ No virtual memory, no segfaults



Bare-metal “memory management”

- ▶ C is also used to program small embedded microcontrollers
- ▶ Sometimes run code *bare metal*, i.e., without OS
- ▶ No virtual memory, no segfaults
- ▶ Stack can happily grow into heap or data segment
- ▶ Typically rather little RAM, so this happens easily
- ▶ Nasty to debug behavior



Global variables

- ▶ Global variables are declared outside of all functions
- ▶ Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
long n = 12345678;
char *s = "hello world!\n";
int a[256];
...
```

- ▶ The initialized variables `n` and `s` will be in `.data`
- ▶ The uninitialized variable `a` will be in `.bss`

Global variables

- ▶ Global variables are declared outside of all functions
- ▶ Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
long n = 12345678;
char *s = "hello world!\n";
int a[256];
...
```

- ▶ The initialized variables `n` and `s` will be in `.data`
- ▶ The uninitialized variable `a` will be in `.bss`
- ▶ The `.bss` section is typically initialized to zero
- ▶ An OS can do this “on-demand”, i.e., when reading a variable for the first time

Global variables

- ▶ Global variables are declared outside of all functions
- ▶ Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
long n = 12345678;
char *s = "hello world!\n";
int a[256];
...
```

- ▶ The initialized variables `n` and `s` will be in `.data`
- ▶ The uninitialized variable `a` will be in `.bss`
- ▶ The `.bss` section is typically initialized to zero
- ▶ An OS can do this “on-demand”, i.e., when reading a variable for the first time
- ▶ Some platforms have a special non-initialized `.bss` subsection
- ▶ Example: AVR microcontrollers with a `.noinit` section

Static variables

- ▶ A static variable is local, but keeps its value across calls
- ▶ Example:

```
void f()
{
    static int x = 0;
    printf("%d\n", x++);
}
```

- ▶ If x was not declared static, this function would always print 0

Static variables

- ▶ A static variable is local, but keeps its value across calls
- ▶ Example:

```
void f()
{
    static int x = 0;
    printf("%d\n", x++);
}
```

- ▶ If x was not declared static, this function would always print 0

Static variables

- ▶ A static variable is local, but keeps its value across calls
- ▶ Example:

```
void f()
{
    static int x = 0;
    printf("%d\n", x++);
}
```

- ▶ If `x` was not declared static, this function would always print 0
- ▶ Different for static `x`; output increases by one for every call

Static variables

- ▶ A static variable is local, but keeps its value across calls
- ▶ Example:

```
void f()
{
    static int x = 0;
    printf("%d\n", x++);
}
```

- ▶ If `x` was not declared static, this function would always print 0
- ▶ Different for static `x`; output increases by one for every call
- ▶ Would get the same behavior if `x` was global
- ▶ ... but a global `x` could be modified also by other functions

The stack – a simple datastructure

- ▶ A stack is essentially a LIFO queue; two operations
 - ▶ `PUSH(x)`
 - ▶ `x = POP()`

The stack – a simple datastructure

- ▶ A stack is essentially a LIFO queue; two operations
 - ▶ PUSH(x)
 - ▶ $x = \text{POP}()$
- ▶ The memory stack, very much simplified:
 - ▶ Function calls push local data on the stack
 - ▶ Returns from functions pop that data again

The stack – a simple datastructure

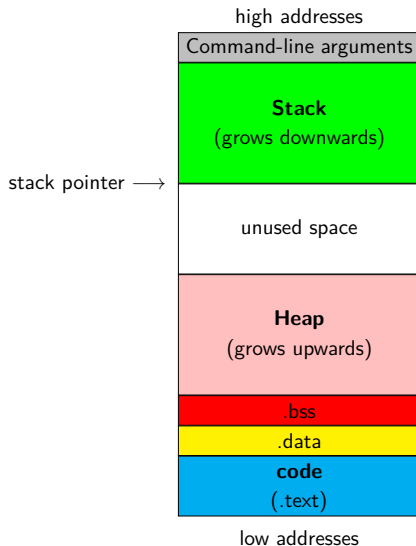
- ▶ A stack is essentially a LIFO queue; two operations
 - ▶ PUSH(x)
 - ▶ $x = \text{POP}()$
- ▶ The memory stack, very much simplified:
 - ▶ Function calls push local data on the stack
 - ▶ Returns from functions pop that data again
- ▶ Often also possible: access data relative to the top
- ▶ Required for all these operations: pointer to the top

The stack – a simple datastructure

- ▶ A stack is essentially a LIFO queue; two operations
 - ▶ PUSH(x)
 - ▶ $x = \text{POP}()$
- ▶ The memory stack, very much simplified:
 - ▶ Function calls push local data on the stack
 - ▶ Returns from functions pop that data again
- ▶ Often also possible: access data relative to the top
- ▶ Required for all these operations: pointer to the top
- ▶ Pointer can be
 - ▶ “hidden” (only modified by PUSH or POP)
 - ▶ “exposed” (allowing relative data access)
- ▶ On AVR: extra instructions to expose the stack pointer

Stack frames and the stack pointer

- ▶ Stack consists of *stack frames*
- ▶ Each function on the current *call stack* has its own frame
- ▶ Active frame is on top of the stack
- ▶ “Top of the stack”: at low addresses
- ▶ Stack pointer points to end (low address) of active frame
- ▶ Stack pointer is typically in special register (`rsp` on AMD64)

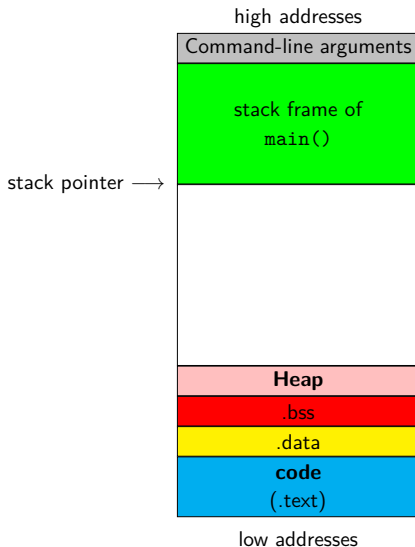


Stack frames and the stack pointer

Example:

```
int func(int a, int b)
{
    ...
    return 10001;
}

int main(void)
{
    ...
    int x = func(42, 23)
    ...
}
```

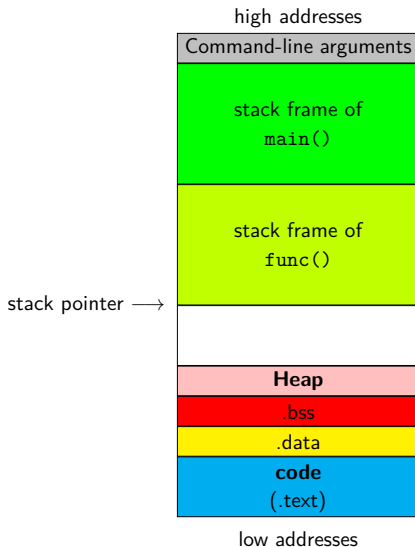


Stack frames and the stack pointer

Example:

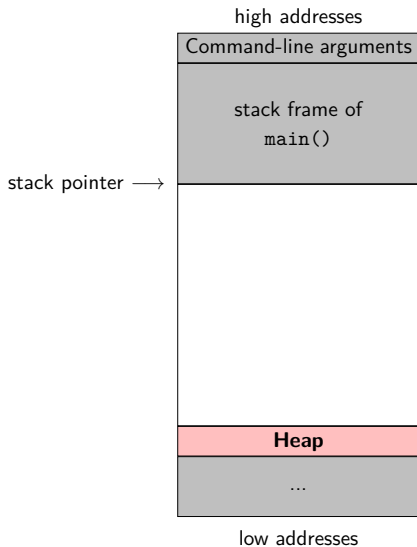
```
int func(int a, int b)
{
    ...
    return 10001;
}

int main(void)
{
    ...
    int x = func(42, 23)
    ...
}
```



A zoom into the stack frame

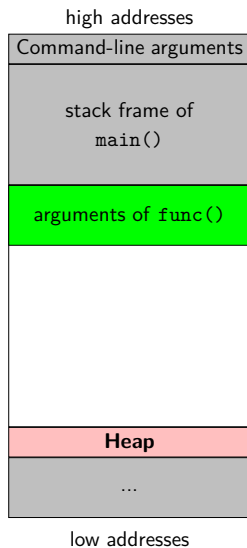
- ▶ Stack before the function call



A zoom into the stack frame

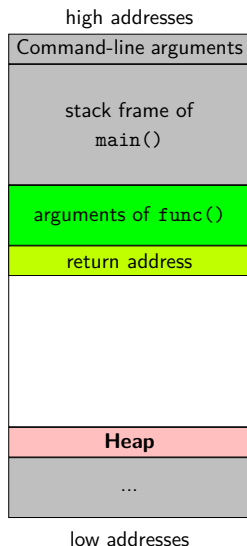
- ▶ Stack before the function call
- ▶ Caller (`main`) first puts arguments for `func` on the stack

stack pointer →



A zoom into the stack frame

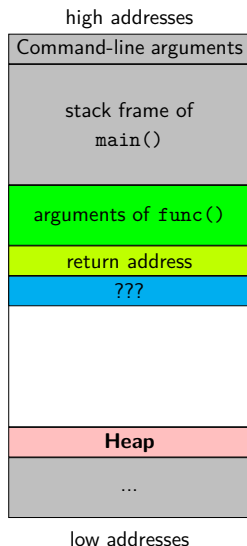
- ▶ Stack before the function call
- ▶ Caller (`main`) first puts arguments for `func` on the stack
- ▶ Caller pushes the **return address** stack pointer → onto the stack



A zoom into the stack frame

- ▶ Stack before the function call
- ▶ Caller (`main`) first puts arguments for `func` on the stack
- ▶ Caller pushes the **return address** onto the stack
- ▶ ???

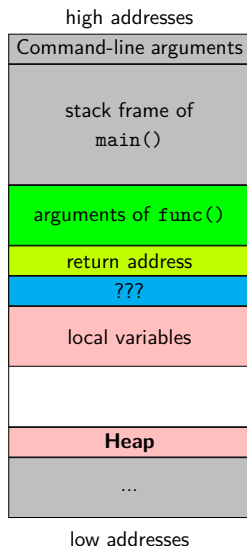
stack pointer →



A zoom into the stack frame

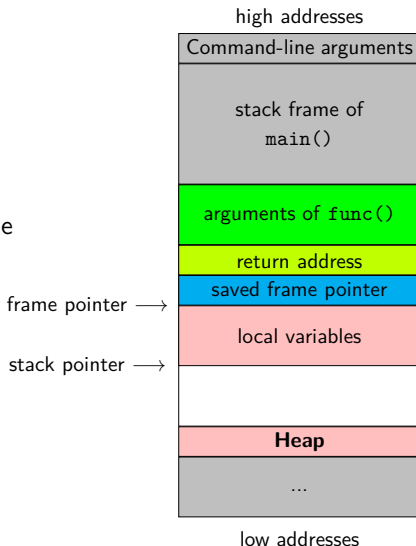
- ▶ Stack before the function call
- ▶ Caller (`main`) first puts arguments for `func` on the stack
- ▶ Caller pushes the **return address** onto the stack
- ▶ ???
- ▶ Callee pushes local variables onto the stack

stack pointer →



The frame pointer

- ▶ So what's with the ???...
- ▶ Traditionally also have a *frame pointer*
- ▶ Pointing to the end (high address) of the active stack frame
- ▶ On x86 in `ebp` register (AMD64: `rbp`)
- ▶ Function call also saves previous frame pointer on the stack
- ▶ On AMD64 commonly omitted:
 - ▶ Faster function calls
 - ▶ One additional register available



Size of the stack

- ▶ C does not limit the size of the stack *in the language*
- ▶ In practice, of course stack space is limited
- ▶ In bare-metal environments, limited by hardware
- ▶ Otherwise limited by OS

Size of the stack

- ▶ C does not limit the size of the stack *in the language*
- ▶ In practice, of course stack space is limited
- ▶ In bare-metal environments, limited by hardware
- ▶ Otherwise limited by OS
- ▶ Under Linux, use `ulimit -s` to see stack size (in KB)
- ▶ Inside a C program, can use `getrlimit`
- ▶ Can also use `setrlimit` to request larger (or smaller) stack

Things that may go wrong on the stack

- ▶ Obviously, we may exhaust stack space
- ▶ Simple example: infinite recursion (`exhauststack.c`)
- ▶ This is known as **stack overflow**
- ▶ In safety critical environments need to avoid this!
- ▶ Generally, don't put "big data" on the stack

Things that may go wrong on the stack

- ▶ Obviously, we may exhaust stack space
- ▶ Simple example: infinite recursion (`exhauststack.c`)
- ▶ This is known as **stack overflow**
- ▶ In safety critical environments need to avoid this!
- ▶ Generally, don't put "big data" on the stack
- ▶ Variables on the stack are not auto-initialized
- ▶ Reading uninitialized local variables allows to read local data from previous functions

Things that may go wrong on the stack

- ▶ Obviously, we may exhaust stack space
- ▶ Simple example: infinite recursion (`exhauststack.c`)
- ▶ This is known as **stack overflow**
- ▶ In safety critical environments need to avoid this!
- ▶ Generally, don't put "big data" on the stack
- ▶ Variables on the stack are not auto-initialized
- ▶ Reading uninitialized local variables allows to read local data from previous functions
- ▶ The stack mixes program and control data
- ▶ Writing beyond buffers may overwrite return addresses
- ▶ Main attack vector for "targeted undefined behavior"

... how bad is “wrong” exactly?

The screenshot shows the EDN Network website interface. At the top right, there is a navigation menu with the text "ADVERTISEMENT". Below this, the EDN Network logo is displayed in red, with "About Us" in smaller text to its right. A search bar with a magnifying glass icon is located to the right of the logo. Below the logo, there are navigation links: "DESIGN CENTERS", "TOOLS & LEARNING", "COMMUNITY", and "EDN VAULT", each followed by a small downward arrow. To the right of these links is a dark blue button with the text "Sign In | Sign Up".

Below the navigation bar, the breadcrumb trail reads "Home > Automotive Design Center > How To Article". The main article title is "Toyota's killer firmware: Bad design and its consequences" in a large, bold, black font. Below the title, the author's name "Michael Dunn" and the date "October 28, 2013" are displayed.

On the right side of the article, there is a section titled "EDN MOMENT" in red. Below this title, the text reads "1st US rocket to reach outer space launches, February 24, 1949". To the right of this text is a small image of a rocket launch. Below the "EDN MOMENT" section, there are two tabs: "Most Popular" (highlighted in red) and "Most Commented".

... how bad is “wrong” exactly?



The screenshot shows the top portion of a website. At the top right, there is a small logo that reads "MAY 2013". Below this, the main header features the "EDN NETWORK" logo in large red letters, with "About Us" in smaller text to its right. To the right of the logo is a search bar with the word "Search" and a magnifying glass icon. Below the logo and search bar are navigation links: "DESIGN CENTERS", "TOOLS & LEARNING", "COMMUNITY", and "EDN VAULT", each followed by a small downward arrow. To the right of these links is a dark blue button with the text "Sign In | Sign Up".

Below the navigation bar, the breadcrumb trail reads "Home > Automotive Design Center > How To Article". The main article title is "Toyota's killer firmware: Bad design and its consequences" in a large, bold, black font. Below the title, the author's name "Michael Dunn" and the date "October 28, 2013" are displayed. To the right of the article title is a section titled "EDN MOMENT" with a sub-headline "1st US rocket to reach outer space launches, February 24, 1949" and a small image of a rocket launch. Below this section are two buttons: "Most Popular" (highlighted in red) and "Most Commented".

“On Thursday October 24, 2013, an Oklahoma court ruled against Toyota in a case of unintended acceleration that led to the death of one of the occupants. Central to the trial was the Engine Control Module’s (ECM) firmware.”

What went wrong?

- ▶ Critical variables were not mirrored (stored twice)
- ▶ Most importantly, result value `TargetThrottleAngle` wasn't mirrored
- ▶ Also critical data structures of the real-time OS weren't mirrored

What went wrong?

- ▶ Critical variables were not mirrored (stored twice)
- ▶ Most importantly, result value `TargetThrottleAngle` wasn't mirrored
- ▶ Also critical data structures of the real-time OS weren't mirrored
- ▶ Stack overflow
 - ▶ Toyota claimed stack upper bound of 41% of total memory
 - ▶ Stack was actually using 94% of total memory
 - ▶ Analysis ignored stack used by some 350 assembly functions

What went wrong?

- ▶ Critical variables were not mirrored (stored twice)
- ▶ Most importantly, result value `TargetThrottleAngle` wasn't mirrored
- ▶ Also critical data structures of the real-time OS weren't mirrored
- ▶ Stack overflow
 - ▶ Toyota claimed stack upper bound of 41% of total memory
 - ▶ Stack was actually using 94% of total memory
 - ▶ Analysis ignored stack used by some 350 assembly functions
- ▶ Code used recursion (forbidden by MISRA-C guidelines)
- ▶ MISRA-C: guidelines by the Motor Industry Software Reliability Association

What went wrong?

- ▶ Critical variables were not mirrored (stored twice)
- ▶ Most importantly, result value `TargetThrottleAngle` wasn't mirrored
- ▶ Also critical data structures of the real-time OS weren't mirrored
- ▶ Stack overflow
 - ▶ Toyota claimed stack upper bound of 41% of total memory
 - ▶ Stack was actually using 94% of total memory
 - ▶ Analysis ignored stack used by some 350 assembly functions
- ▶ Code used recursion (forbidden by MISRA-C guidelines)
- ▶ MISRA-C: guidelines by the Motor Industry Software Reliability Association

“A litany of other faults were found in the code, including buffer overflow, unsafe casting, and race conditions between tasks.”

Hardware specifics

- ▶ Stack layout shown so far is typical
- ▶ Many details look different on different architectures:
 - ▶ Memory-segment layout may be different
 - ▶ (Some) function arguments may be passed through registers
 - ▶ Return values often passed through registers (sometimes also over the stack)
 - ▶ Frame pointer may be omitted

Hardware specifics

- ▶ Stack layout shown so far is typical
- ▶ Many details look different on different architectures:
 - ▶ Memory-segment layout may be different
 - ▶ (Some) function arguments may be passed through registers
 - ▶ Return values often passed through registers (sometimes also over the stack)
 - ▶ Frame pointer may be omitted
- ▶ Example: AMD64
 - ▶ Integer and pointer arguments are passed through `rdi`, `rsi`, `rdx`, `rcx`, `r8`, `r9`
 - ▶ Return value in `rax`
 - ▶ ... at least for Linux, Windows is subtly different

Limitations of the stack

```
int * table_of(int num, int len) {
    int table[len];
    for (int i=0; i <= len; i++) {
        table[i] = i * num;
    }
    return table; /* an int [] can be used as an int * */
}
```

What happens if we call this function as follows?:

```
int *table3 = table_of(3,10);
printf("5 times 3 is %d \n", table3[5]);
```


Limitations of the stack

```
int * table_of(int num, int len) {
    int table[len];
    for (int i=0; i <= len; i++) {
        table[i] = i * num;
    }
    return table; /* an int [] can be used as an int * */
}
```

What happens if we call this function as follows?:

```
int *table3 = table_of(3,10);
printf("5 times 3 is %d \n", table3[5]);
```

- ▶ The stack cannot preserve data beyond return of a function.
- ▶ Except of course of returned *data* (not pointers!)

Limitations of the stack

```
int * table_of(int num, int len) {
    int table[len];
    for (int i=0; i <= len; i++) {
        table[i] = i * num;
    }
    return table; /* an int [] can be used as an int * */
}
```

What happens if we call this function as follows?:

```
int *table3 = table_of(3,10);
printf("5 times 3 is %d \n", table3[5]);
```

- ▶ The stack cannot preserve data beyond return of a function.
- ▶ Except of course of returned *data* (not pointers!)
- ▶ Obvious other limitation: size!

The heap

- ▶ Think about the heap as a large piece of scrap paper
- ▶ We can request (large) continuous space on the piece of paper
- ▶ Note that “continuous” is easily ensured by virtual memory

The heap

- ▶ Think about the heap as a large piece of scrap paper
- ▶ We can request (large) continuous space on the piece of paper
- ▶ Note that “continuous” is easily ensured by virtual memory
- ▶ This space is accessible through a pointer (what else ;-))
- ▶ Space remains valid across function calls
- ▶ Every function that “knows” a pointer to the space can use it

malloc

- ▶ Function to request space: `void *malloc(size_t nbytes)`
- ▶ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>` to use `malloc`
- ▶ `size_t` is an unsigned integer type

malloc

- ▶ Function to request space: `void *malloc(size_t nbytes)`
- ▶ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>` to use `malloc`
- ▶ `size_t` is an unsigned integer type
- ▶ Returns a void pointer to `nbytes` of memory
- ▶ Can also fail, in that case, it returns `NULL`

malloc

- ▶ Function to request space: `void *malloc(size_t nbytes)`
- ▶ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>` to use `malloc`
- ▶ `size_t` is an unsigned integer type
- ▶ Returns a void pointer to `nbytes` of memory
- ▶ Can also fail, in that case, it returns `NULL`
- ▶ Usually pointers in C are typed, `void *x` is an “untyped” pointer
- ▶ A `void *` implicitly casts to and from any other pointer type
- ▶ Remember that this is *not* the case in C++!

malloc

- ▶ Function to request space: `void *malloc(size_t nbytes)`
- ▶ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>` to use `malloc`
- ▶ `size_t` is an unsigned integer type
- ▶ Returns a void pointer to `nbytes` of memory
- ▶ Can also fail, in that case, it returns `NULL`
- ▶ Usually pointers in C are typed, `void *x` is an “untyped” pointer
- ▶ A `void *` implicitly casts to and from any other pointer type
- ▶ Remember that this is *not* the case in C++!
- ▶ Example of `malloc` usage:

```
int *x = malloc(10000 * sizeof(int));
```

- ▶ Request for space for 10 000 integers on the heap

NULL

- ▶ The value NULL is guaranteed to not point to a valid address
- ▶ The following code produces **undefined behavior**:

```
int *x = NULL;  
int i = *x;
```

NULL

- ▶ The value NULL is guaranteed to not point to a valid address
- ▶ The following code produces **undefined behavior**:

```
int *x = NULL;  
int i = *x;
```

- ▶ Important to note: NULL is not the same as 0

NULL

- ▶ The value NULL is guaranteed to not point to a valid address
- ▶ The following code produces **undefined behavior**:

```
int *x = NULL;  
int i = *x;
```

- ▶ Important to note: NULL is not the same as 0
- ▶ In boolean expressions, NULL evaluates to false
- ▶ These two lines have the same semantics:

```
if(x == NULL) printf("NULL\n");  
if(!x) printf("NULL\n");
```

NULL

- ▶ The value NULL is guaranteed to not point to a valid address
- ▶ The following code produces **undefined behavior**:

```
int *x = NULL;  
int i = *x;
```

- ▶ Important to note: NULL is not the same as 0
- ▶ In boolean expressions, NULL evaluates to false
- ▶ These two lines have the same semantics:

```
if(x == NULL) printf("NULL\n");  
if(!x) printf("NULL\n");
```

- ▶ Not true in all programming languages, e.g., not in C#

ALWAYS check for malloc failure!

- ▶ The following code is terribly unsafe:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));  
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)  
    table[i] = 42;
```

ALWAYS check for malloc failure!

- ▶ The following code is terribly unsafe:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));  
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)  
    table[i] = 42;
```

ALWAYS check for malloc failure!

- ▶ The following code is terribly unsafe:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)
    table[i] = 42;
```

- ▶ malloc might return NULL
- ▶ table[i] dereferences the pointer table
- ▶ Consequence: **undefined behavior!**

ALWAYS check for malloc failure!

- ▶ The following code is terribly unsafe:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)
    table[i] = 42;
```

- ▶ malloc might return NULL
- ▶ table[i] dereferences the pointer table
- ▶ Consequence: **undefined behavior!**
- ▶ Correct version:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
if(table == NULL) exit(-1);
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)
    table[i] = 42;
```


ALWAYS check for malloc failure!

- ▶ The following code is terribly unsafe:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)
    table[i] = 42;
```

- ▶ malloc might return NULL
- ▶ table[i] dereferences the pointer table
- ▶ Consequence: **undefined behavior!**
- ▶ Correct version:

```
int *table = malloc(TABLESIZE * sizeof(int));
if(table == NULL) exit(-1);
for(size_t i=0;i<TABLESIZE;i++)
    table[i] = 42;
```

- ▶ Could alternatively use boolean behavior of NULL:

```
if(!table) exit(-1);
```

free

- ▶ You, the programmer, are in charge of *releasing* memory!
- ▶ When you don't need some allocated memory anymore, use
`free(x);`
- ▶ Here, `x` is a pointer to previously `malloc`'ed memory

free

- ▶ You, the programmer, are in charge of *releasing* memory!
- ▶ When you don't need some allocated memory anymore, use

```
free(x);
```

- ▶ Here, x is a pointer to previously malloc'ed memory
- ▶ Typical usage patterns:

```
int *x = malloc(NUMX * sizeof(int));  
if(x == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(x);
```

- ▶ The calls to malloc and free can be in different functions

free

- ▶ You, the programmer, are in charge of *releasing* memory!
- ▶ When you don't need some allocated memory anymore, use

```
free(x);
```

- ▶ Here, x is a pointer to previously malloc'ed memory
- ▶ Typical usage patterns:

```
int *x = malloc(NUMX * sizeof(int));  
if(x == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(x);
```

- ▶ The calls to malloc and free can be in different functions
- ▶ Not freeing malloc'ed memory is known as a *memory leak*

realloc

- ▶ Sometimes want to *expand* or *shrink* malloc'ed space
- ▶ Do this by using

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

- ▶ Content in the allocated area is preserved
- ▶ New space is created (or cut away) “at the end”

realloc

- ▶ Sometimes want to *expand* or *shrink* malloc'ed space
- ▶ Do this by using

```
void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t new_size);
```
- ▶ Content in the allocated area is preserved
- ▶ New space is created (or cut away) “at the end”
- ▶ This call may also return NULL
- ▶ If return value is NULL, previously allocated memory is not freed!

realloc

- ▶ Sometimes want to *expand* or *shrink* malloc'ed space
- ▶ Do this by using

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

- ▶ Content in the allocated area is preserved
- ▶ New space is created (or cut away) “at the end”
- ▶ This call may also return NULL
- ▶ If return value is NULL, previously allocated memory is not freed!
- ▶ Usage pattern:

```
xnew = realloc(x, NEWSIZE);
if(xnew == NULL)
{
    free(x);
    exit(-1); // or continue with old size of x
}
else
{
    x = xnew;
}
```

Dangling pointers, double-free, ...

- ▶ **Never** use a pointer after it has been freed, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
...
```

```
printf("Let's see what the value of x is now: %p\n", x);
```

- ▶ This is **undefined behaviour**

Dangling pointers, double-free, ...

- ▶ **Never** use a pointer after it has been freed, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
...
```

```
printf("Let's see what the value of x is now: %p\n", x);
```

- ▶ This is **undefined behaviour**

- ▶ Also, never double-free a pointer, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
free(x);
```

Dangling pointers, double-free, ...

- ▶ **Never** use a pointer after it has been freed, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
...
```

```
printf("Let's see what the value of x is now: %p\n", x);
```

- ▶ This is **undefined behaviour**

- ▶ Also, never double-free a pointer, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
free(x);
```

- ▶ Not always that obvious, you may have *pointer aliases*
- ▶ Pointer alias: multiple pointers to the same location

Dangling pointers, double-free, ...

- ▶ **Never** use a pointer after it has been freed, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
...
```

```
printf("Let's see what the value of x is now: %p\n", x);
```

- ▶ This is **undefined behaviour**

- ▶ Also, never double-free a pointer, e.g.,

```
int *x = malloc(SIZEX * sizeof(int));
```

```
...
```

```
free(x);
```

```
free(x);
```

- ▶ Not always that obvious, you may have *pointer aliases*
- ▶ Pointer alias: multiple pointers to the same location
- ▶ Never “lose” the last pointer to a location
- ▶ This inevitable creates a memory leak: you *cannot* free anymore!

Stack vs. heap vs. data segment

Data segment

- ▶ Data in the data segment exists throughout the whole execution of the program
 - ▶ global variables accessible to every function
 - ▶ static local variables only accessible to the respective function

Stack vs. heap vs. data segment

Data segment

- ▶ Data in the data segment exists throughout the whole execution of the program
 - ▶ global variables accessible to every function
 - ▶ static local variables only accessible to the respective function

Stack

- ▶ Space on the stack *allocated automatically*
- ▶ Stack space automatically removed when returning from a function
- ▶ Certain risk of overflowing the stack

Stack vs. heap vs. data segment

Data segment

- ▶ Data in the data segment exists throughout the whole execution of the program
 - ▶ global variables accessible to every function
 - ▶ static local variables only accessible to the respective function

Stack

- ▶ Space on the stack *allocated automatically*
- ▶ Stack space automatically removed when returning from a function
- ▶ Certain risk of overflowing the stack

Heap

- ▶ Space on the heap needs to be *requested manually* (`malloc`)
- ▶ Request may be denied (NULL return) and this must be handled
- ▶ Space on the heap needs to be *freed manually* (`free`)
- ▶ Risk of memory leaks, double frees, etc.

What's wrong with this code (part 1)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    if(a == NULL) return -1;
    char *x = (char *)a;
    ...
    free(x);
    free(a);
}
```

What's wrong with this code (part 1)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    if(a == NULL) return -1;
    char *x = (char *)a;
    ...
    free(x);
    free(a);
}
```


What's wrong with this code (part 1)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    if(a == NULL) return -1;
    char *x = (char *)a;
    ...
    free(x);
    free(a);
}
```

- ▶ Fairly simple: double-free.

What's wrong with this code (part 2)?

```
int *f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}
```

What's wrong with this code (part 2)?

```
int *f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}
```

What's wrong with this code (part 2)?

```
int *f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}
```

- ▶ Return type is `int *`, returning `a` is not a *type* problem
- ▶ Remember that an array can “decay” to a pointer to its first element

What's wrong with this code (part 2)?

```
int *f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}
```

- ▶ Return type is `int *`, returning `a` is not a *type* problem
- ▶ Remember that an array can “decay” to a pointer to its first element
- ▶ Code is syntactically completely correct C
- ▶ Returning pointer to a local variable is **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Never do this, not even for debugging purposes

What's wrong with this code (part 2)?

```
int *f()
{
    int a[100];
    for(i=0;i<100;i++)
        a[i] = i;
    return a;
}
```

- ▶ Return type is `int *`, returning `a` is not a *type* problem
- ▶ Remember that an array can “decay” to a pointer to its first element
- ▶ Code is syntactically completely correct C
- ▶ Returning pointer to a local variable is **undefined behavior**
- ▶ Never do this, not even for debugging purposes
- ▶ Any decent compiler will put out warnings

What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```

What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```


What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```

- ▶ No check whether malloc returned NULL
- ▶ The function is so wrong, that this isn't even really a problem

What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```

- ▶ No check whether `malloc` returned `NULL`
- ▶ The function is so wrong, that this isn't even really a problem
- ▶ The `free` is used on a *stack* address

What's wrong with this code (part 3)?

```
int f()
{
    int *a = malloc(100 * sizeof(int));
    int x = 5;
    int *y = a;
    a = &x;
    free(a);
    return x;
}
```

- ▶ No check whether `malloc` returned `NULL`
- ▶ The function is so wrong, that this isn't even really a problem
- ▶ The `free` is used on a *stack* address
- ▶ The value of `y` is lost after `return`
- ▶ Cannot free the allocated memory anymore

valgrind

- ▶ Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- ▶ They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- ▶ Luckily there is tool assistance: `valgrind`

valgrind

- ▶ Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- ▶ They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- ▶ Luckily there is tool assistance: `valgrind`
- ▶ Run code is a sort of virtual machine, include memory checks
- ▶ Muuuuuuch slower than actually running the code, but:
 - ▶ Find memory leaks (`malloc` without `free`)
 - ▶ Find access to freed memory
 - ▶ Find double-free
 - ▶ Find branches and memory access depending on uninitialized data

valgrind

- ▶ Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- ▶ They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- ▶ Luckily there is tool assistance: `valgrind`
- ▶ Run code is a sort of virtual machine, include memory checks
- ▶ Muuuuuuch slower than actually running the code, but:
 - ▶ Find memory leaks (`malloc` without `free`)
 - ▶ Find access to freed memory
 - ▶ Find double-free
 - ▶ Find branches and memory access depending on uninitialized data
- ▶ Many more tools beyond the memory checker in `valgrind`, e.g.,
 - ▶ `cachgrind`, a cache profiler
 - ▶ `callgrind`, generating call graphs

valgrind

- ▶ Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- ▶ They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- ▶ Luckily there is tool assistance: `valgrind`
- ▶ Run code is a sort of virtual machine, include memory checks
- ▶ Muuuuuuch slower than actually running the code, but:
 - ▶ Find memory leaks (`malloc` without `free`)
 - ▶ Find access to freed memory
 - ▶ Find double-free
 - ▶ Find branches and memory access depending on uninitialized data
- ▶ Many more tools beyond the memory checker in `valgrind`, e.g.,
 - ▶ `cachgrind`, a cache profiler
 - ▶ `callgrind`, generating call graphs
- ▶ `valgrind` is a dynamic analyzer, not static
- ▶ For example, no guarantees of branch coverage

valgrind

- ▶ Memory bugs are hard to find manually
- ▶ They are one of the biggest problems in C code
- ▶ Luckily there is tool assistance: `valgrind`
- ▶ Run code is a sort of virtual machine, include memory checks
- ▶ Muuuuuuch slower than actually running the code, but:
 - ▶ Find memory leaks (`malloc` without `free`)
 - ▶ Find access to freed memory
 - ▶ Find double-free
 - ▶ Find branches and memory access depending on uninitialized data
- ▶ Many more tools beyond the memory checker in `valgrind`, e.g.,
 - ▶ `cachgrind`, a cache profiler
 - ▶ `callgrind`, generating call graphs
- ▶ `valgrind` is a dynamic analyzer, not static
- ▶ For example, no guarantees of branch coverage
- ▶ Generally good practice:
 - ▶ run your code in `valgrind` before submitting/publishing
 - ▶ make sure that `valgrind` reports no errors

calloc

- ▶ Remember that data on the stack is not initialized
- ▶ Global variables are initialized
- ▶ Memory space allocated with `malloc` is *not* initialized

calloc

- ▶ Remember that data on the stack is not initialized
- ▶ Global variables are initialized
- ▶ Memory space allocated with `malloc` is *not* initialized
- ▶ Alternative: use `calloc`:

```
void *calloc(size_t nitems, size_t size)
```

- ▶ Request space for `nitems` elements of size `size` each
- ▶ Memory space is initialized to zero

calloc

- ▶ Remember that data on the stack is not initialized
- ▶ Global variables are initialized
- ▶ Memory space allocated with `malloc` is *not* initialized
- ▶ Alternative: use `calloc`:

```
void *calloc(size_t nitems, size_t size)
```

- ▶ Request space for `nitems` elements of size `size` each
- ▶ Memory space is initialized to zero
- ▶ Example usage:

```
int *p = calloc(1000, sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);
```

- ▶ Request space for 1000 integers, all initialized to zero

malloc vs. calloc

- ▶ Aside from initialization, any difference between
 - ▶ `int *p = malloc(nelems*sizeof(int));` and
 - ▶ `int *p = calloc(nelems,sizeof(int));`?

malloc vs. calloc

- ▶ Aside from initialization, any difference between
 - ▶ `int *p = malloc(nelems*sizeof(int));` and
 - ▶ `int *p = calloc(nelems,sizeof(int));`?
- ▶ Multiplication `nelems*sizeof(int)` can overflow!
- ▶ Result: successful allocation, but of *much less* memory!

malloc vs. calloc

- ▶ Aside from initialization, any difference between
 - ▶ `int *p = malloc(nelems*sizeof(int));` and
 - ▶ `int *p = calloc(nelems,sizeof(int));`?
- ▶ Multiplication `nelems*sizeof(int)` can overflow!
- ▶ Result: successful allocation, but of *much less* memory!
- ▶ Another difference:
 - ▶ `malloc` doesn't guarantee you that you can *use* the memory you requested
 - ▶ Linux optimistically grants you the memory
 - ▶ Later access to this memory may still fail
 - ▶ `calloc` gives you memory that is actually "backed" by the OS

Heap management

- ▶ Remember free?:

```
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(p);
```

Heap management

- ▶ Remember free?:

```
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(p);
```

- ▶ Question: How does free know, how much memory belongs to a pointer?

Heap management

- ▶ Remember free?:

```
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(p);
```

- ▶ Question: How does free know, how much memory belongs to a pointer?
- ▶ Answer: malloc needs to write this information somewhere
- ▶ Obvious location: the heap

Heap management

- ▶ Remember free?:

```
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(p);
```

- ▶ Question: How does free know, how much memory belongs to a pointer?
- ▶ Answer: malloc needs to write this information somewhere
- ▶ Obvious location: the heap
- ▶ One solution: maintain a table of all malloc'ed addresses and space

Heap management

- ▶ Remember free?:

```
int *p = malloc(1000*sizeof(int));  
if(p == NULL) exit(-1);  
...  
free(p);
```

- ▶ Question: How does free know, how much memory belongs to a pointer?
- ▶ Answer: malloc needs to write this information somewhere
- ▶ Obvious location: the heap
- ▶ One solution: maintain a table of all malloc'ed addresses and space
- ▶ Other solution: write information just before the pointer