

# Basic C Memory Model

Introduction to Computer Systems, Fall 2024

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❖ How are you? Any Questions from last lecture?

# Upcoming Due Dates TODO

- ❖ HW00 (Approx): Due Friday (Sept 6) @ 11:59 pm
  - Remember, we are super lenient with late days...
  - Don't stress out already pls
  - Take care of yourself.
- ❖ In general, there will be a ***lecture check in*** due before Lecture on Tuesdays!
  - Next one should be out sometime tomorrow morning

# Lecture Outline

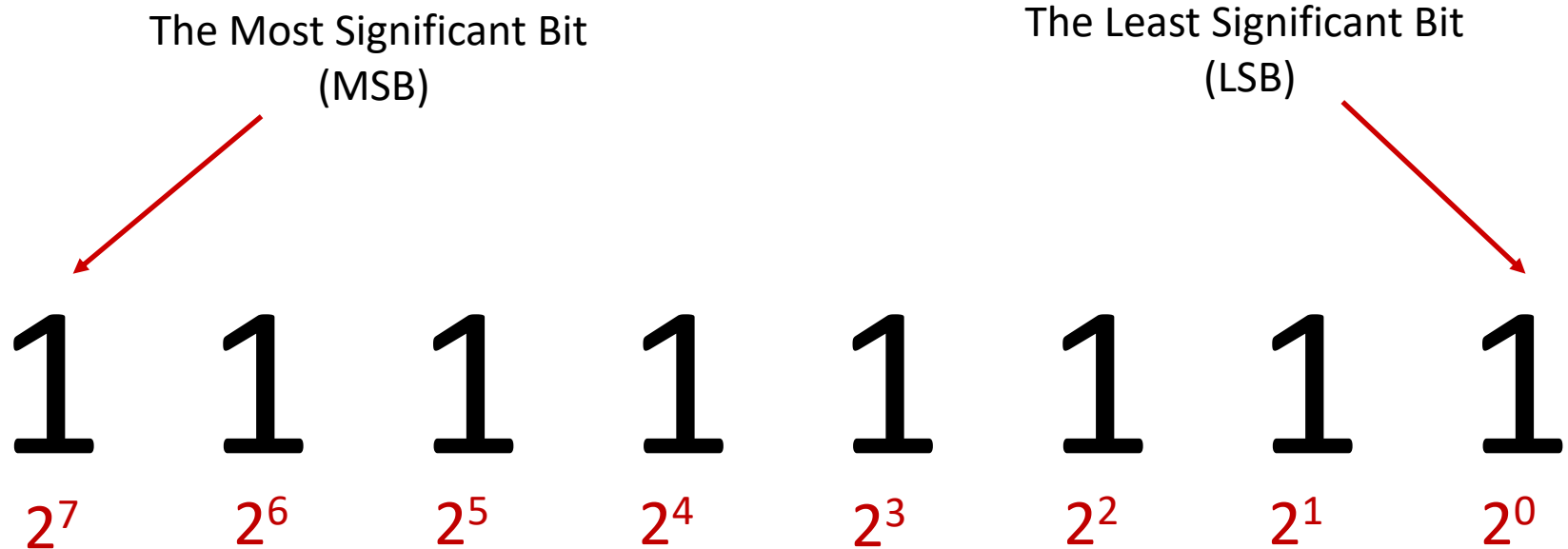
- ❖ **Review**
  - **Bits, Bytes, Operators, and more.**
- ❖ Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]
- ❖ Global Memory
- ❖ The Stack
- ❖ The Heap
  - malloc() & free()
- ❖ Structs & C Data Structures

# Base 2

**1**   **1**   **1**   **1**   **1**   **1**   **1**   **1**  
 $2^7$     $2^6$     $2^5$     $2^4$     $2^3$     $2^2$     $2^1$     $2^0$

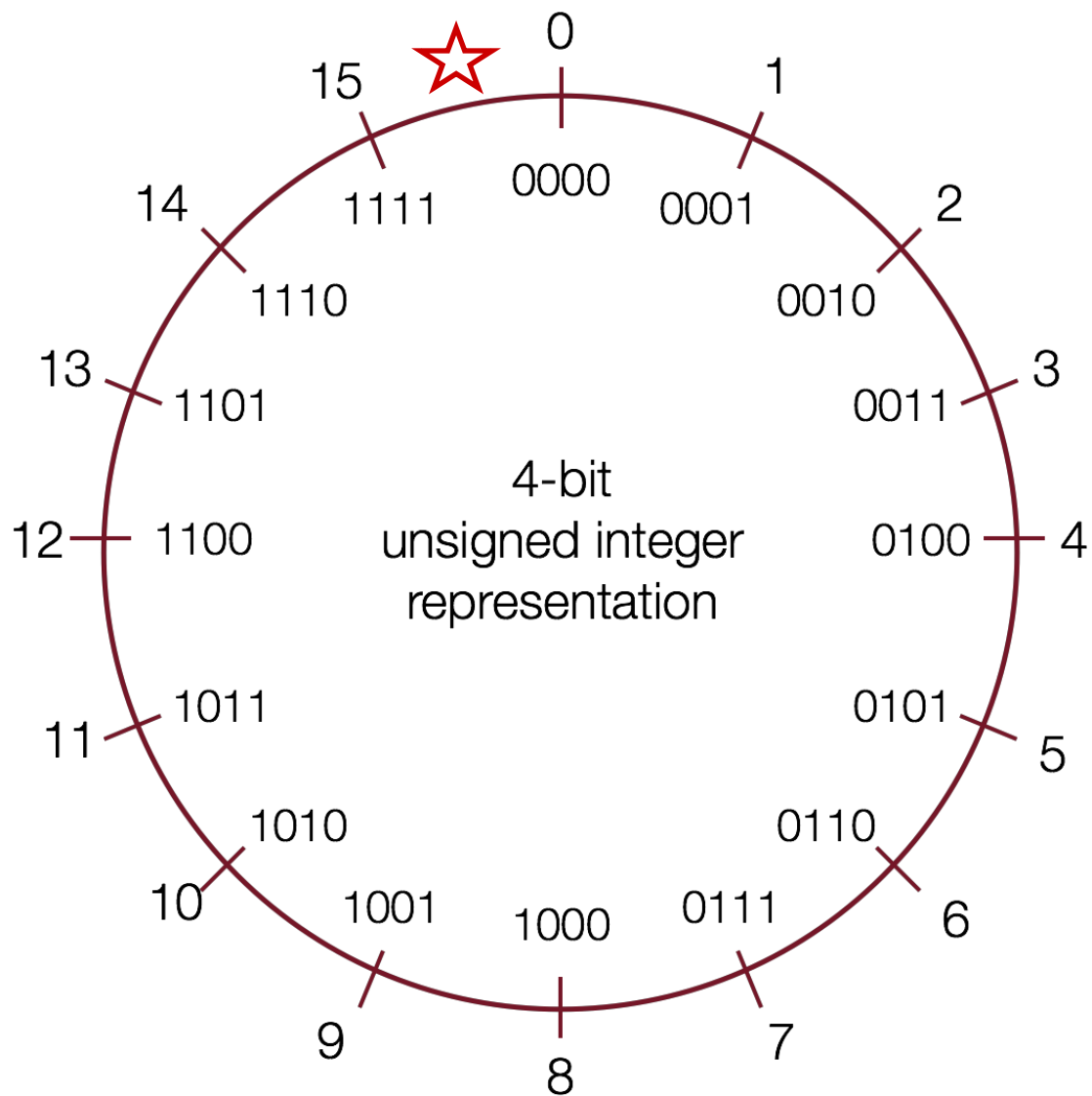
- ❖ The  $i$ 'th bit represents  $2^i$
- ❖ We can use the prefix '0b' to denote base 2. (e.g. **0b1101**)

# Binary



Note: This is One Byte (8 Bits).  
The size of a char!

# Unsigned Integers



# Overflow

If you exceed the maximum value of your bit representation, you wrap around or **overflow** back to the smallest bit representation.

- $0b1111 + 0b1 = 0b0000$

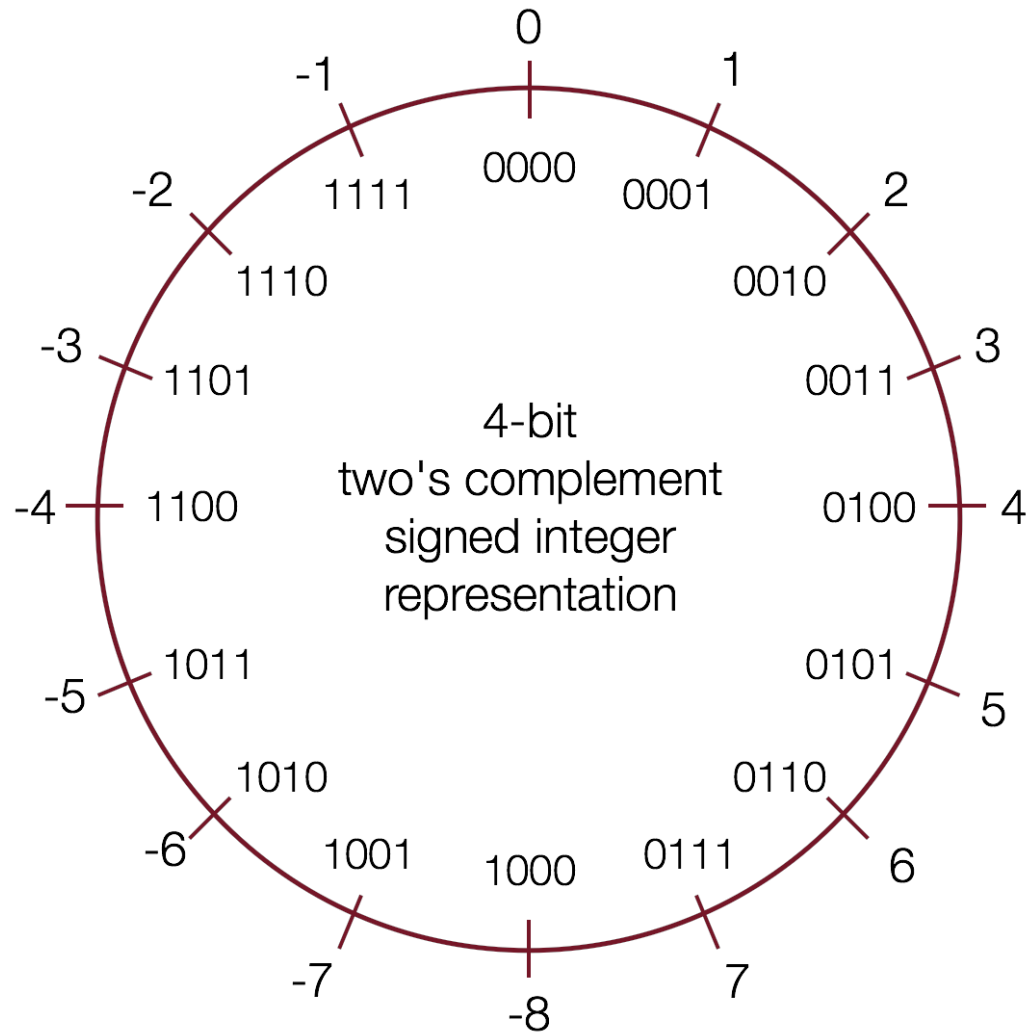
If you go below the minimum value of your bit representation, you wrap around or **overflow** back to the largest bit representation.

- $0b0000 - 0b1 = 0b1111$

*Here we're assuming we **only** have 4 bits to work with!*



# Two's Complement



# Two's Complement

- ❖ Here, we represent a positive number as **itself**, and its negative equivalent as the **two's complement of itself**.
- ❖ **The two's complement of a number is the binary digits inverted, plus 1.**
- ❖ **A nice consequence is all negative numbers have a 1 in the Most Significant Bit.**

# Size Does Matter When Talking About Range

Type	Size (Bytes)	Minimum	Maximum
char	1	-128	127
unsigned char	1	0	255
short	2	-32768	32767
unsigned short	2	0	65535
int	4	-2147483648	2147483647
unsigned int	4	0	4294967295
long	8	-9223372036854775808	9223372036854775807
unsigned long	8	0	18446744073709551615

# Bit Operator: & (and)

$$1 \ \& \ 1 \ = \ 1$$

Only if both bits are one,  
will it stay one!

$$1 \ \& \ 0 \ = \ 0$$

$$0 \ \& \ 1 \ = \ 0$$

$$0 \ \& \ 0 \ = \ 0$$

# Bit Operator: | (or)

$$1 \mid 1 = 1$$

$$1 \mid 0 = 1$$

$$0 \mid 1 = 1$$

$$0 \mid 0 = 0$$

If either bits are one,  
will evaluate to one

# Bit Operator: ^ (XOR)

$$1 \wedge 1 = 0$$

**ONLY IF** a singular bit is one,  
will evaluate to one

$$1 \wedge 0 = 1$$

$$0 \wedge 1 = 1$$

$$0 \wedge 0 = 0$$

## More Bit Operators: << (left shift)

0b 0 0 1 0 1 << 1



0b 0 1 0 1 0

This operation shifts the bits *n* many times to the left.

## More Bit Operators: >> (right shift)

0b 0 0 1 0 1 >> 1

---

0b 0 0 0 1 0

What happened  
to the LSB?



This operation shifts the bits *n* many times to the right.

Bits are “truncated” if they are right shifted by too much.



# REMEMBER THIS

***&& IS NOT &***

***|| IS NOT |***

***! IS NOT ~***

# Clarification on $\sim$

- ❖ This “flips”, “negates”, or creates the compliment of a binary number.
- ❖ These terms are used sometimes interchangeably.

$\sim$  0b 1 1 0 1 0 1

---

0b 0 0 1 0 1 0

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❖ What will be the resulting value of num be in binary?

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main() {

    unsigned char num = 0xff;

    num = num & 0xf0;
    num = num ^ 0x01;
    num = ~num;

    ...
}
```

A. **0b11110001**

B. **0b10110001**

C. **0b11110000**

D. **0b00001110**

E. **What is binary?**

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❖ What will be the resulting value of num be in binary?

```
#include <stdio.h>
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int main() {

    unsigned char num = 0xff;

    num = num & 0xf0;
    num = num ^ 0x01;
    num = ~num;

    ...
}
```

A. 0b11110001

B. 0b10110001

C. 0b11110000

**D. 0b00001110**

E. What is binary?

# Goals for This Lecture:

- ❖ C Strings from the Perspective of Memory
- ❖ Char \*s vs Char []'s
- ❖ To understand where data is stored over the *lifetime* of a C program
  
- ❖ Three types of data allocation:
  - Static (e.g. Globals)
  - Automatic (e.g. Local Variables & the stack)
  - Dynamic (e.g. stored on the Heap)
    - Covered by Travis next week!

# Lecture Outline

- ❖ Review
  - Bits, Bytes, Operators, and more.
- ❖ Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]
- ❖ Global Memory
- ❖ The Stack
- ❖ The Heap
  - malloc() & free()
- ❖ Structs & C Data Structures

# Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]

- ❖ C doesn't know what a "string" is.
- ❖ A string in C is simply an **array of characters** with a special ending value "**\0**"

"Miso"

<i>index</i>	0	1	2	3	4
<i>char</i>	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'



This is what the string might look like directly in memory.

# Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]

```
char str[5];
str[0] = 'M'
str[1] = 'i'
str[2] = 's'
str[3] = 'o'
str[4] = '\0'
```

<i>index</i>	0	1	2	3	4
<i>char</i>	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

And we're done right?

We need the Null Terminator !!

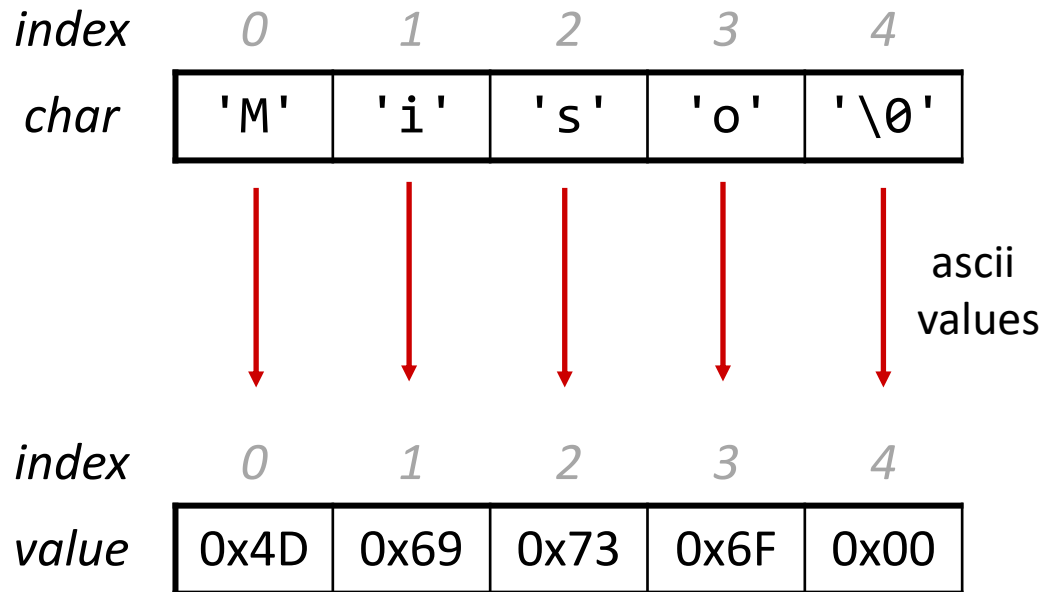
- ❖ Here we have an array of 5 chars, where each char is a single byte
  - ***In total, 5 bytes!***



# Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]

```
str[0] = 'M'
```

- This *literally* inserts the ascii value of 'M' (0x4D) into str[0]



Human readable;  
great for teaching!

Under the hood it  
might actually look like  
this.....

Reminder: Two Hex digits are one byte. 0xff = 0b11111111

# Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]

- ❖ Each character takes up one byte of memory
- ❖ In C, things are byte addressable meaning that you can grab things "one byte at a time".
- ❖ Which should make sense if chars are one byte...

# Lecture Outline

- ❖ Review
  - Bits, Bytes, Operators, and more.
- ❖ Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]
- ❖ **Strings as Arrays of Memory**
- ❖ Global Memory
- ❖ The Stack
- ❖ The Heap
  - malloc() & free()
- ❖ Structs & C Data Structures

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

❖ A more realistic view of arrays.

```
char str[5];
str[0] = "M"
str[1] = "i"
str[2] = "s"
str[3] = "o"
str[4] = "\0"
```

These are **addresses**. They show where the characters in this array are stored in memory.

Address

0xfffff00    0xfffff01    0xfffff02    0xfffff03    0xfffff04

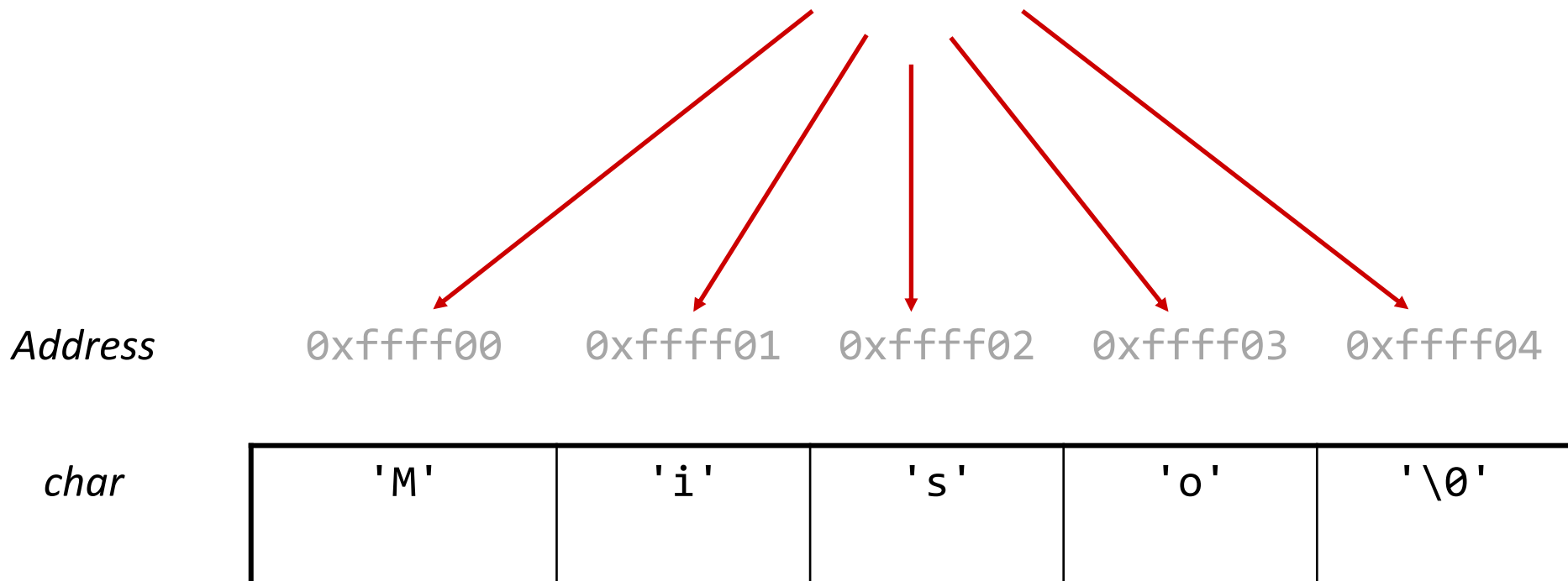
char

'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'
-----	-----	-----	-----	------

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

- ❖ Notice that these characters are literally next to each other.

These *addresses* go from `0xfffff0` to `0xfffff04`.



# Strings as Arrays of Memory

```
char str[5] = "Miso";  
char *ptr = str;
```

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

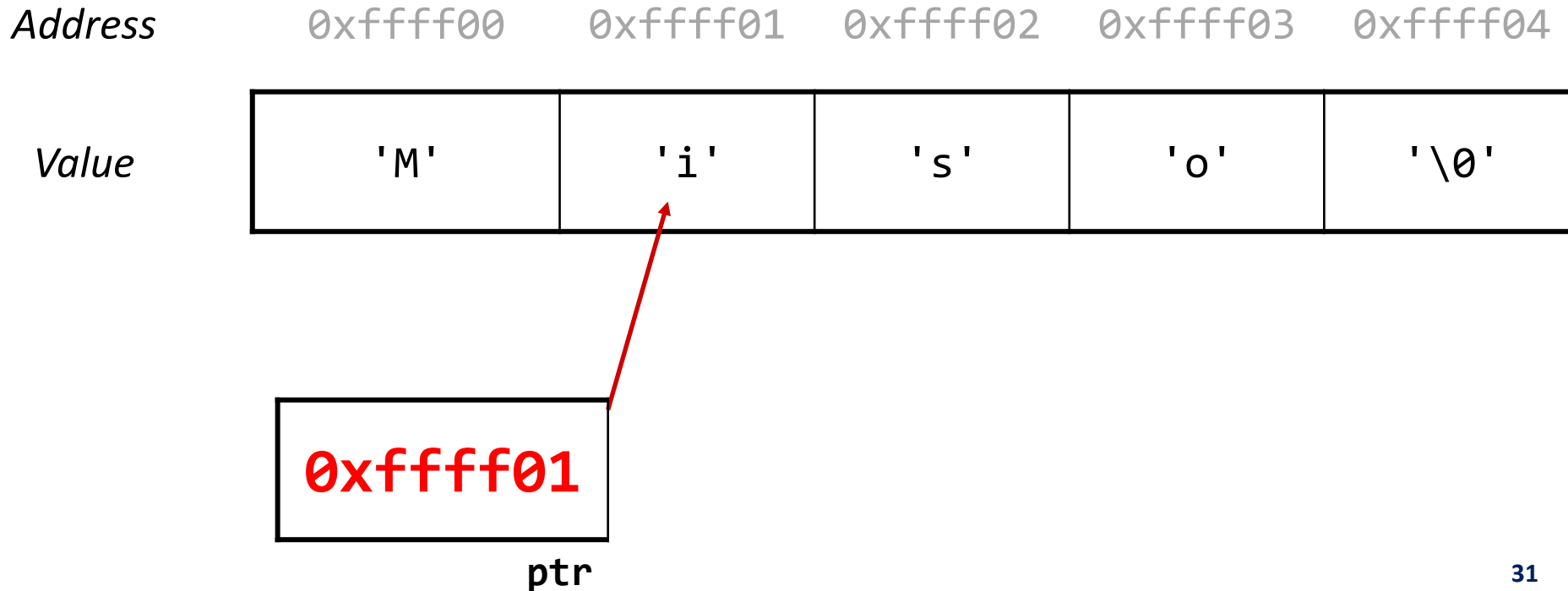
**0xfffff00**

ptr

The value of the pointer *is* the address of the first character in the array

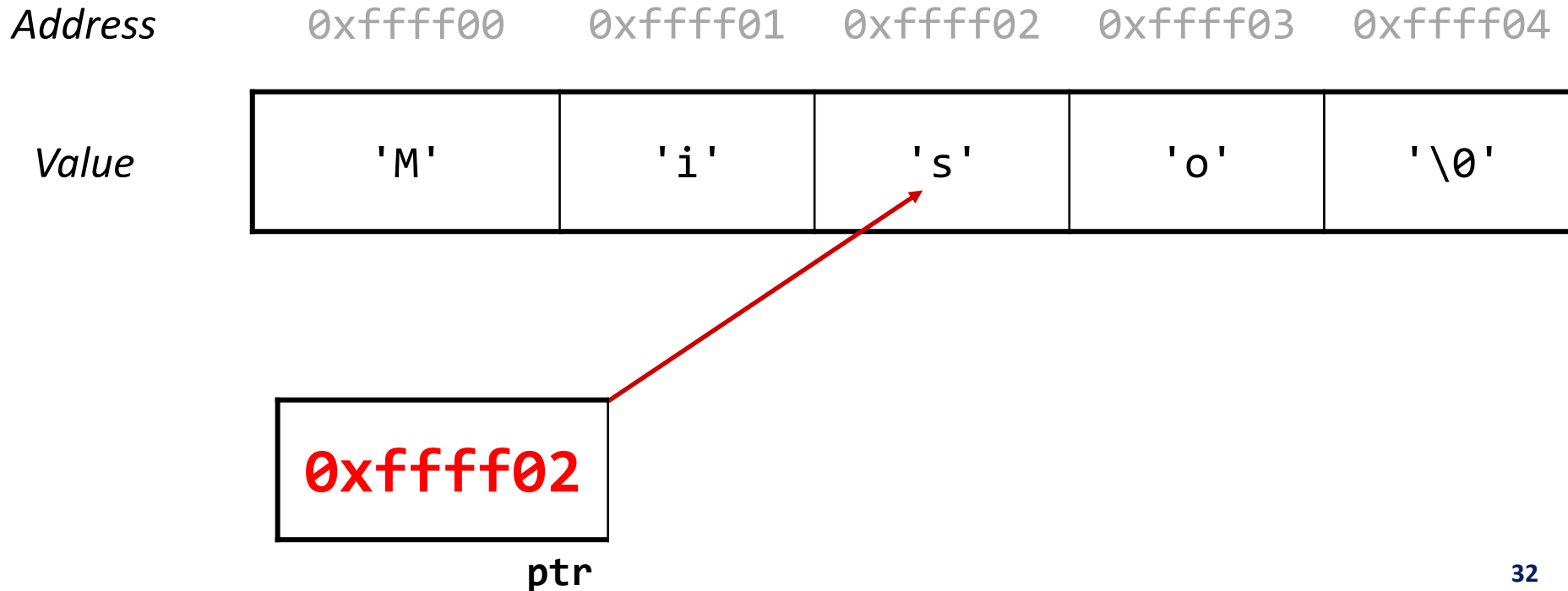
# Strings as Arrays of Memory

```
char str[5] = "Miso";
char *ptr = str;
ptr = &str[1]
```



# Strings as Arrays of Memory


```
char str[5] = "Miso";
char *ptr = str;
ptr = &str[2]
```





# Strings as Arrays of Memory

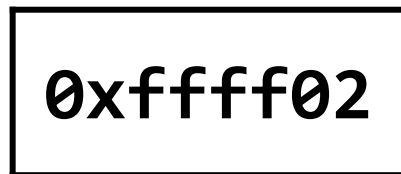
```
char str[5] = "Miso";
char *ptr = str;
ptr = &str[2]
char **ptr_ptr = &ptr;
```


 Typically, as you declare variables, they get initialized right next to each other.

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

Address

0xfffff0c



ptr

Address

0xfffff14



ptr\_ptr

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

Address 0xfffff0c

**0xfffff02**

ptr

Address 0xfffff14

**0xfffff0c**

ptr\_ptr

- ❖ **& Operator** grabs the address of a variable
- ❖ **\* Operator** grabs the value @ the address.
- ❖ A pointer is a variable that holds the address of another variable
- ❖ We **have to be explicit** about its' type

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

Address

0xfffff0c

0xfffff02

ptr

Address

0xfffff14

0xfffff0c

ptr\_ptr

What is the difference/distance between the address 0xfffff0c and 0xfffff14?

Its 0x8!

*ON 64Bit Computers, Pointers are ALWAYS 8 Bytes.*

*Doesn't matter if they're char \* or char \*\* or char \*\*\*\*\**

# C Strings as Arguments

- ❖ As a parameter, it is always passed as a **char \***.
- ❖ C passes the *location or address* of the first character rather than a copy of the whole array.

```
int doSomethingForMe(char *str) {
    str[2] = 'l'; // modifies original string!
    printf("%s\n", str); // prints milo
}
```

```
char ourString[5];
... // e.g. this string is "Miso"
doSomethingForMe(myString);
printf("%s\n", str); // prints milo
```

We can still use a char \* the same way as a char[].

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	'o'	'\0'

Address **0xfffff0c**

**0xfffff02**  
ptr

Address **0xfffff14**

**0xfffff0c**  
ptr\_ptr

```
char str[5] = "Miso";
char *ptr = str;
ptr = &str[2]
char **ptr_ptr = &ptr;
(*ptr_ptr)[1] = 't'; //??
```

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	't'	'\0'

Address

0xfffff0c

**0xfffff02**

ptr

Address

0xfffff14

**0xfffff0c**

ptr\_ptr

```
char str[5] = "Miso";
```

```
char *ptr = str;
```

```
ptr = &str[2]
```

```
char **ptr_ptr = &ptr;
```

```
(*ptr_ptr)[1] = 't'; //??
```

# Strings as Arrays of Memory

Address	0xfffff00	0xfffff01	0xfffff02	0xfffff03	0xfffff04
Value	'M'	'i'	's'	't'	'\0'

Address `0xfffff0c` `(*ptr_ptr)[1] = 't'; //??`

`0xfffff02`  
ptr

`*ptr_ptr`: This gets the value at the address stored in `ptr_ptr`.

Address `0xfffff14`

`0xfffff0c`  
ptr\_ptr

`(addr)[1]`: This accesses the value at an address offset by **one unit** from `addr`.

The unit size is determined by the type we are pointing to.

# Char \* vs Char []

- ❖ char \* is an 8-byte pointer
  - it stores an address of a character
- ❖ char[] is an array of characters
  - it stores the actual characters of a string
- ❖ char[] is automatically passed as a char \*
  - (pointer to its first character)



# Lecture Outline

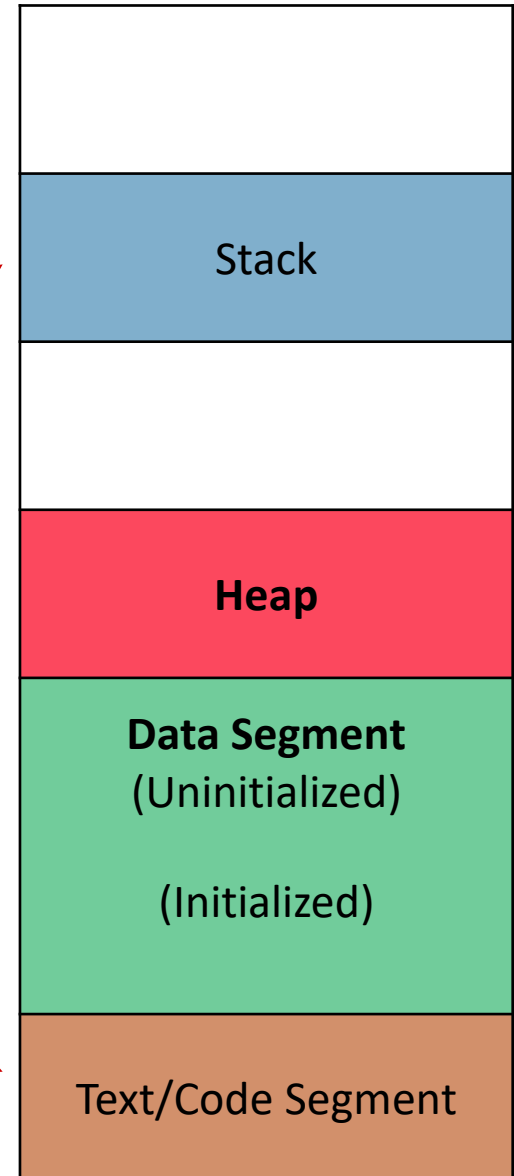
- ❖ Review
  - Bits, Bytes, Operators, and more.
- ❖ Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]
- ❖ Strings as Arrays of Memory
- ❖ C Memory
  - Memory Diagram
  - Global Memory
  - The Stack

# Memory Diagram of C Program

- ❖ `char *` is an 8-byte pointer
  - it stores an address of a character
- ❖ `char[]` is an array of characters
  - it stores the actual characters in a string

```
char str[5] = "Miso";
```

```
char *ptr = "Ube";
```



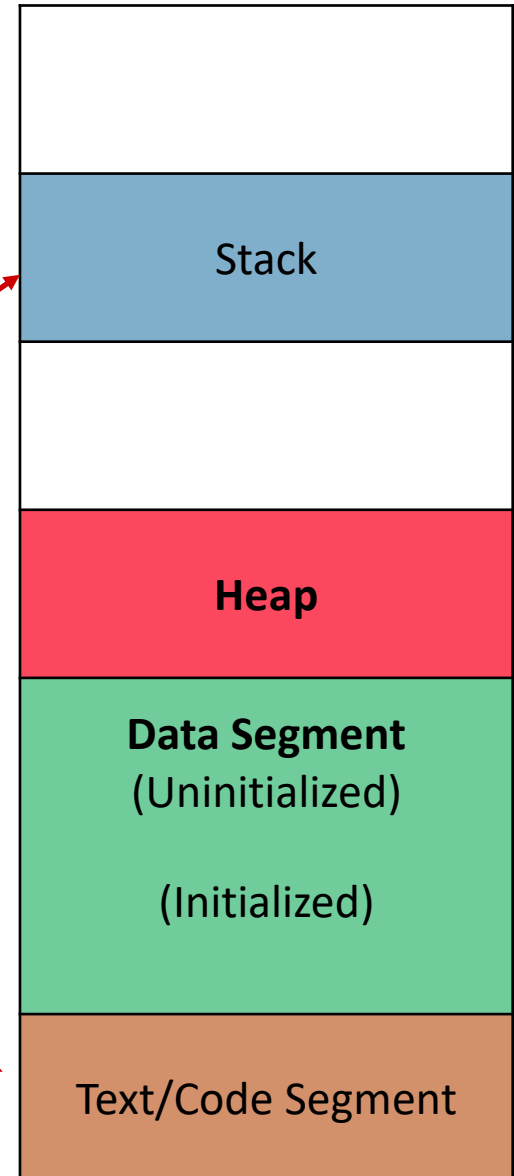
# Memory Diagram of C Program

- ❖ Stack Memory
  - Readable and Modifiable
- ❖ Text/Code Segment
  - Readable Only

```
char str[5] = "Miso";
```

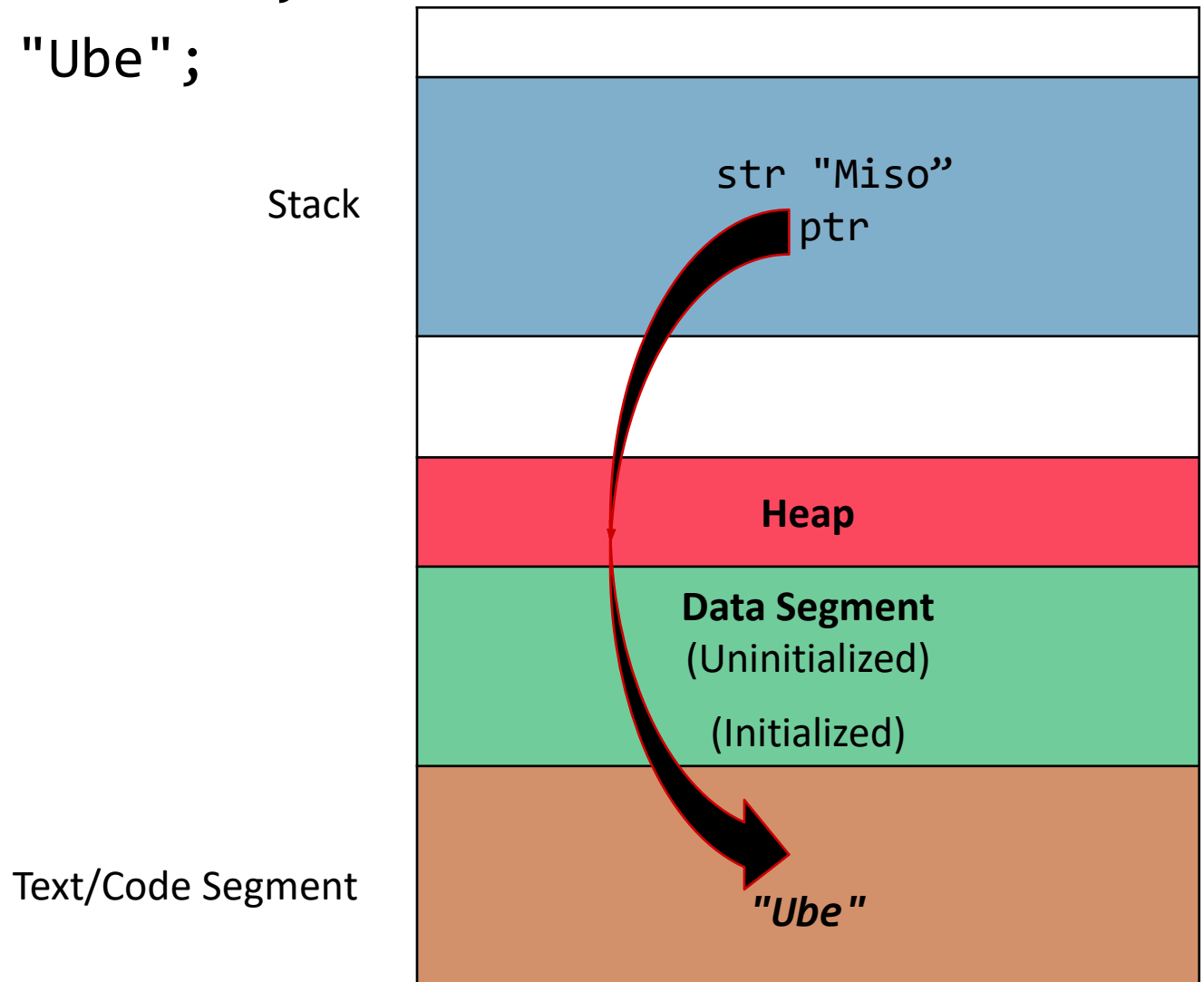
```
char *ptr = "Ube";
```

*Note, here the arrows are showing you where the strings themselves live. NOT THE VARIABLES*

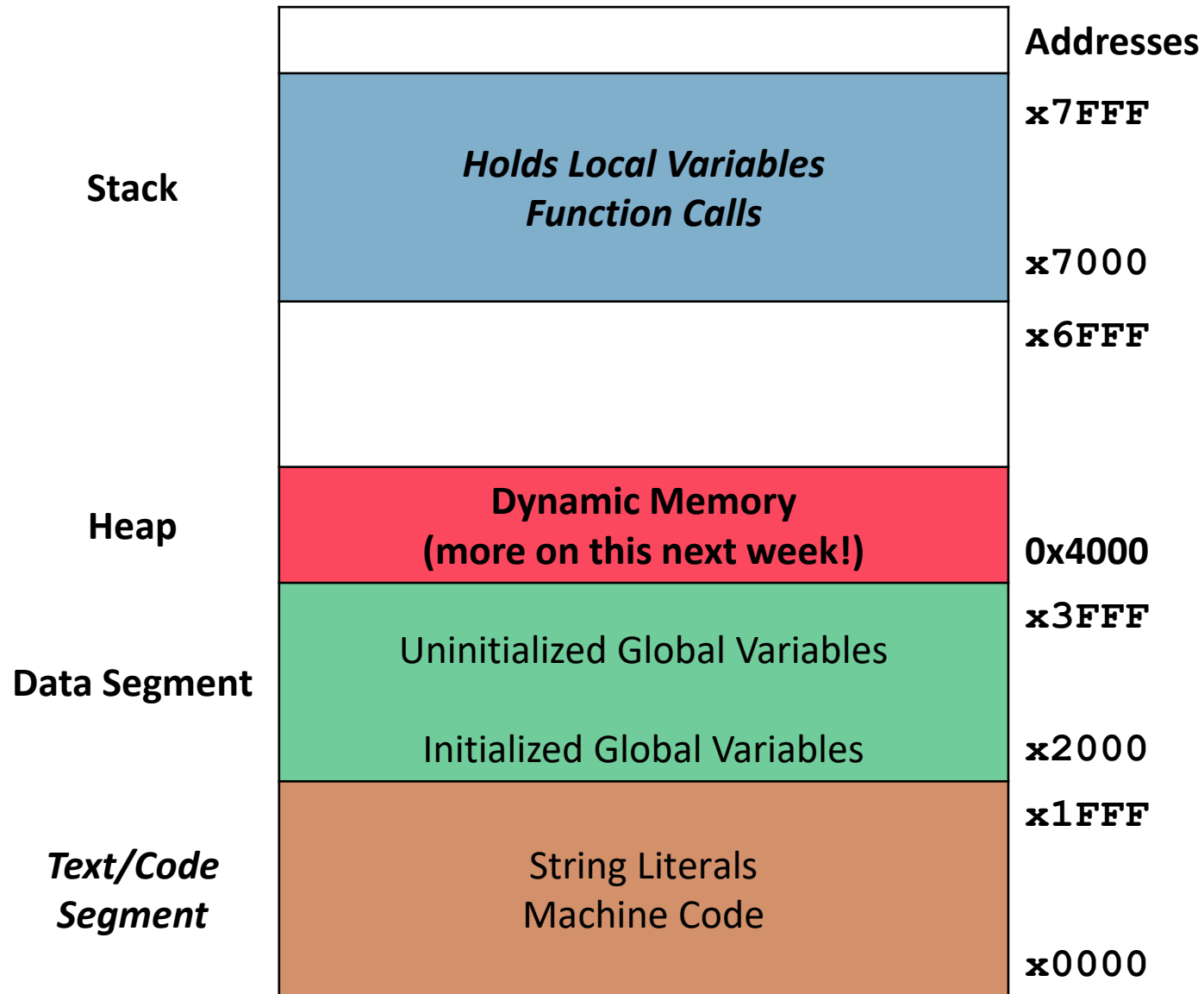


# Memory Diagram of C Program

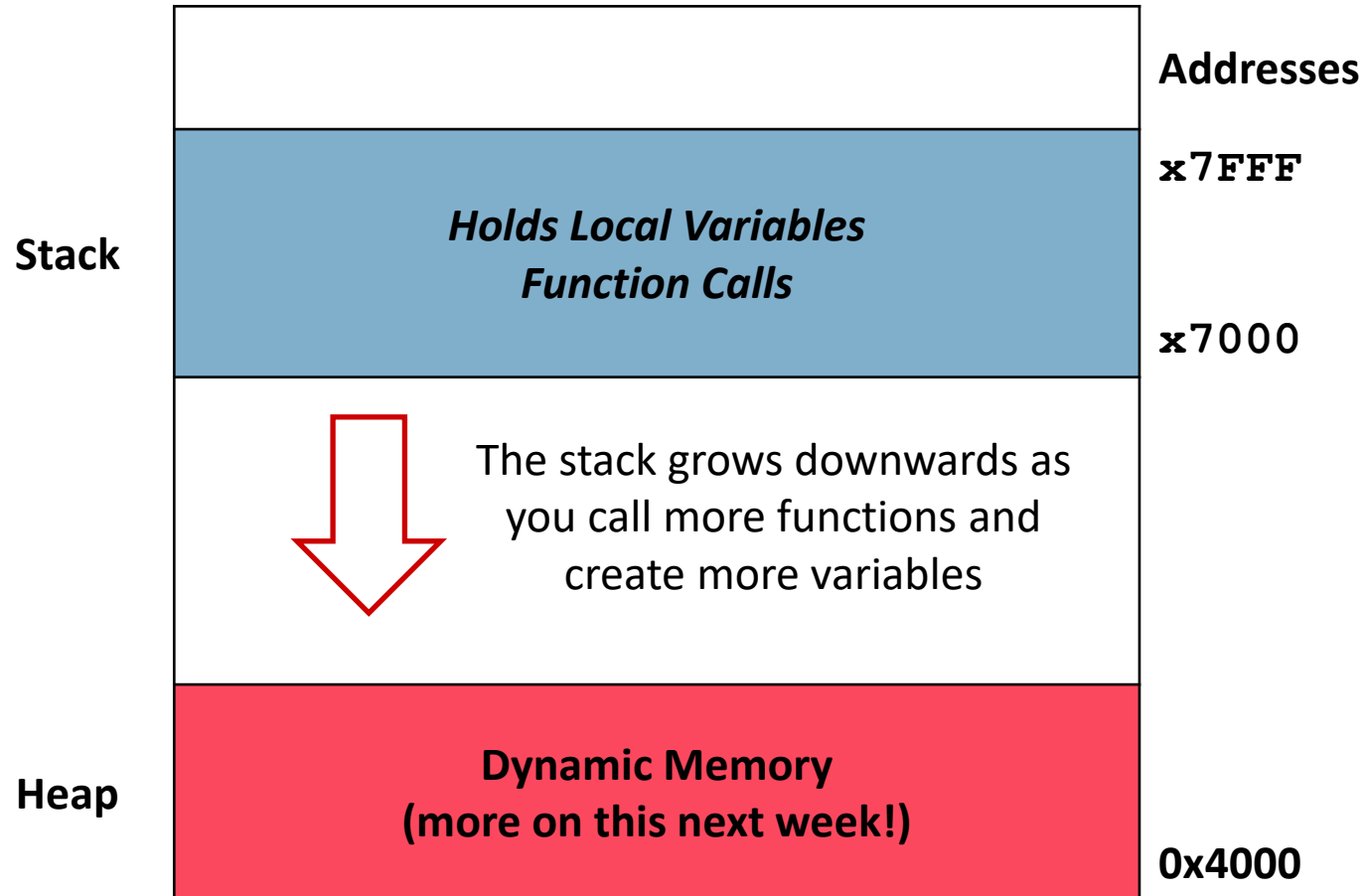
```
char str[5] = "Miso";  
char *ptr = "Ube";
```



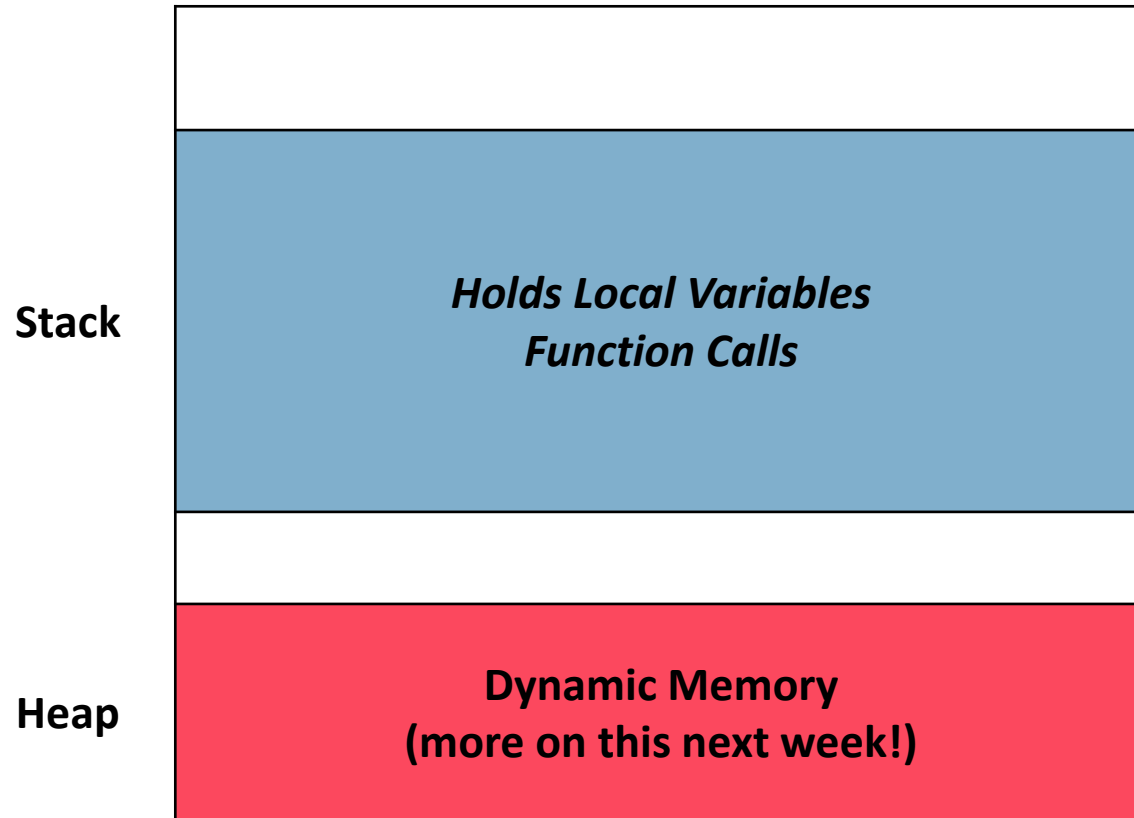
# Memory Diagram of C Program



# Memory Diagram of C Program



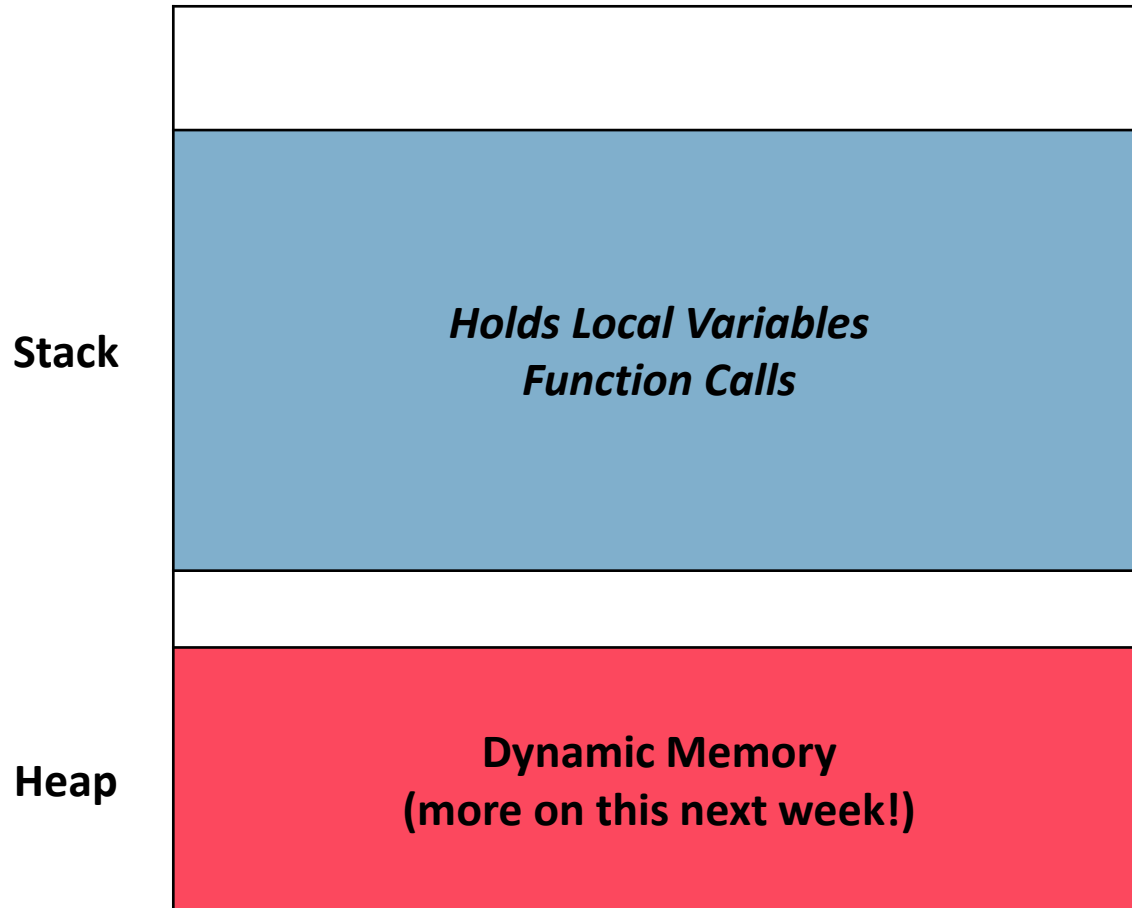
# Memory Diagram of C Program



As you begin to use up all  
the stack space...

(e.g. with recursive calls...)

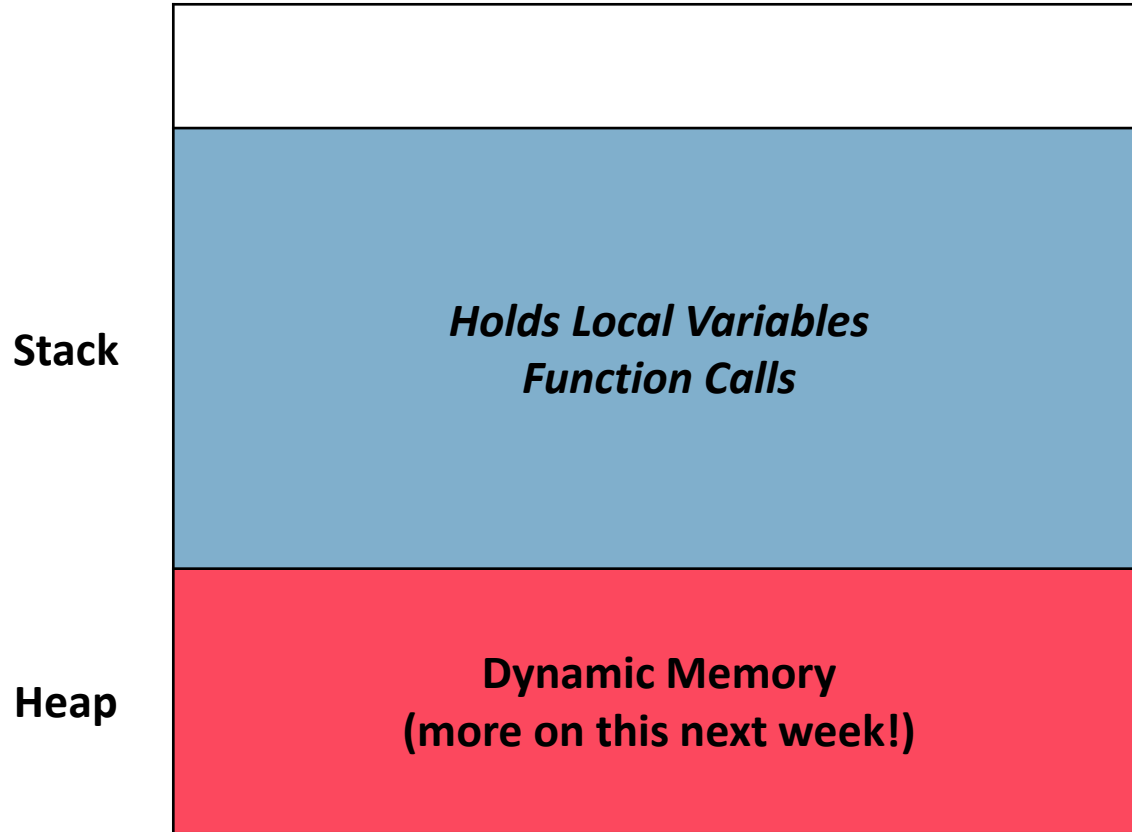
# Memory Diagram of C Program



The stack can flow into the heap...



# Memory Diagram of C Program



Or in other words...

***stack overflow...***

No more memory for  
stack to grow. :/

# Lecture Outline

- ❖ Review
  - Bits, Bytes, Operators, and more.
- ❖ Revisiting: Char \* & Char[]
- ❖ Strings as Arrays of Memory
- ❖ C Memory
  - Memory Diagram
  - **Global Memory**
  - The Stack

# Global Variables in C

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int x = 0;

void incr_globals() {
    x++;
}

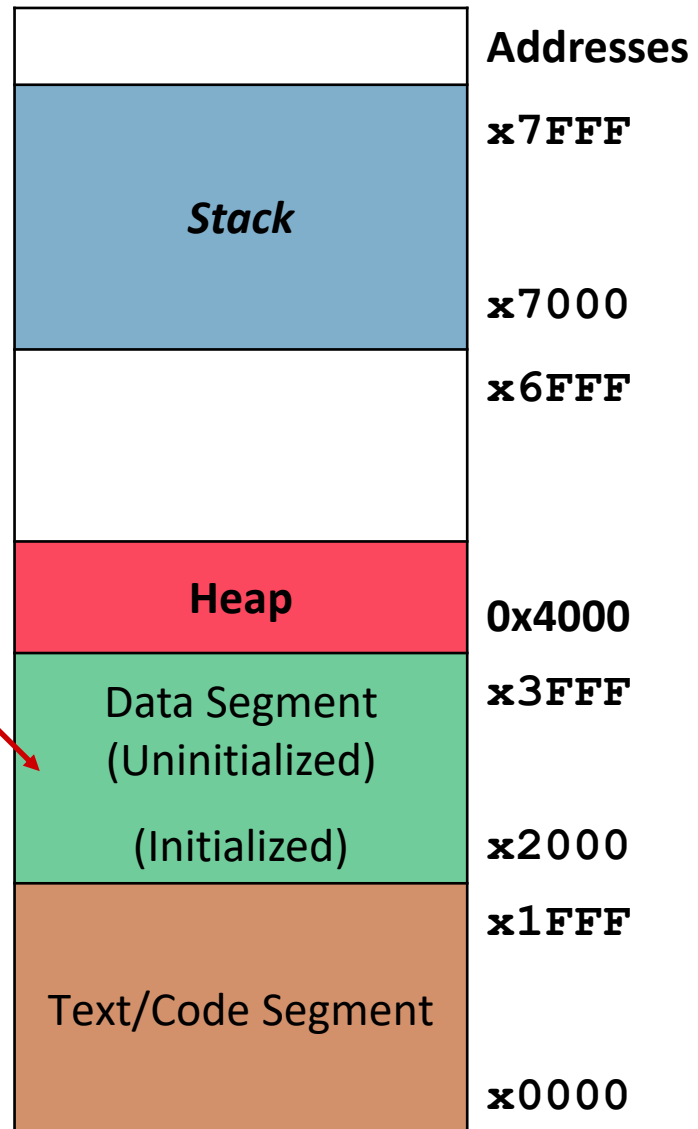
int main() {
    printf("x: %d\n", x); // prints 0
    incr_globals();
    printf("x: %d\n", x); // prints 1
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
    
```

Declaring a variable outside of a function makes it "global"

- ❖ Global variables exist outside of any function, can be accessed from any function
- ❖ Exist throughout the entire lifespan of a program

# Global Variables in Memory

- ❖ Global variables can be stored at a static (un-changing) address.
- ❖ Reading/writing to that variable just involves going to that static memory location.
- ❖ These variable are “allocated as soon as the program is loaded. Program exiting will “de-allocate” the variable.



# Variables in Functions

- ❖ Variables declared outside of functions (global variables) exist over the lifetime of the program
- ❖ What about variables in functions?
  - Function parameters, local variables, return values etc.
  - Exist only for the lifetime of an instance of execution of a function
  - There may be multiple instances of a function at a time, needing multiple (but separate) sets of variables (e.g. recursion)
  - Where do these exist in memory?

# The Stack

- ❖ Local variables are stored in a portion of memory called the “Stack” sometimes called the “Call Stack”.
  - Whenever a function is invoked, we “push” a “stack frame” for that function onto the top of the stack.
  - The stack frame contains important information about the execution of the function and has space for every local variable
  - When a function exits, its stack frame is “popped” and the local variables are “deallocated”

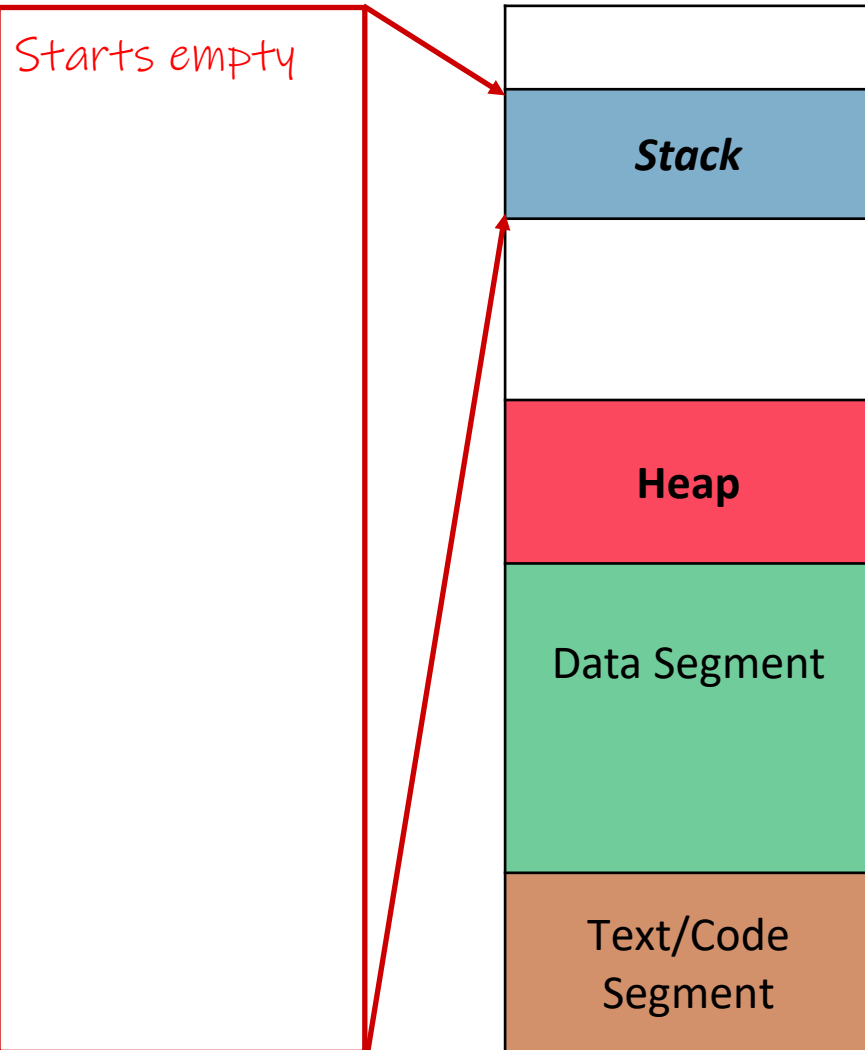
# Stack Example 1:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Zooming in on the  
bottom of the stack



# Stack Example 1:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    → int sum = sum(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

int sum;

Stack frame for  
main()

Stack frame for main is  
created when CPU  
starts executing it



# Stack Example 1:

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

→ int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
    
```

```
int sum;
```

Stack frame for  
main()

```
int i;
```

Stack frame for  
sum()

```
int sum;
```

```
int n;
```

# Stack Example 1:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

```
int sum;
```

Stack frame for  
`main()`

`main()`'s stack frame  
is now top of the stack  
and we keep executing  
`main()`

`sum()`'s stack frame  
goes away after  
`sum()` returns.

# Stack Example 1:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

int sum;

Stack frame for  
main()

????

Stack frame for  
printf()

# Stack Example 2:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum_recursive(int n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return n;
    }
    return n + sum_recursive(n-1);
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum_recursive(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

int sum;

Stack frame for  
main()

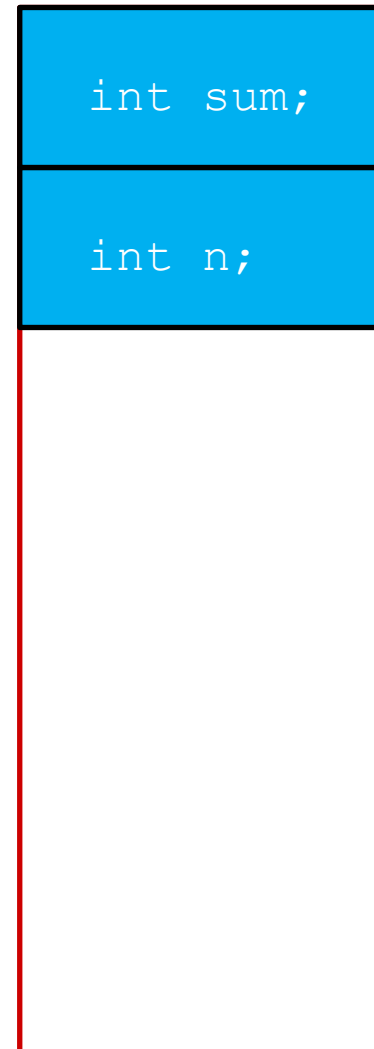
# Stack Example 2:

```

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int main() {
    int sum = sum_recursive(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
    
```



Stack frame for  
main()

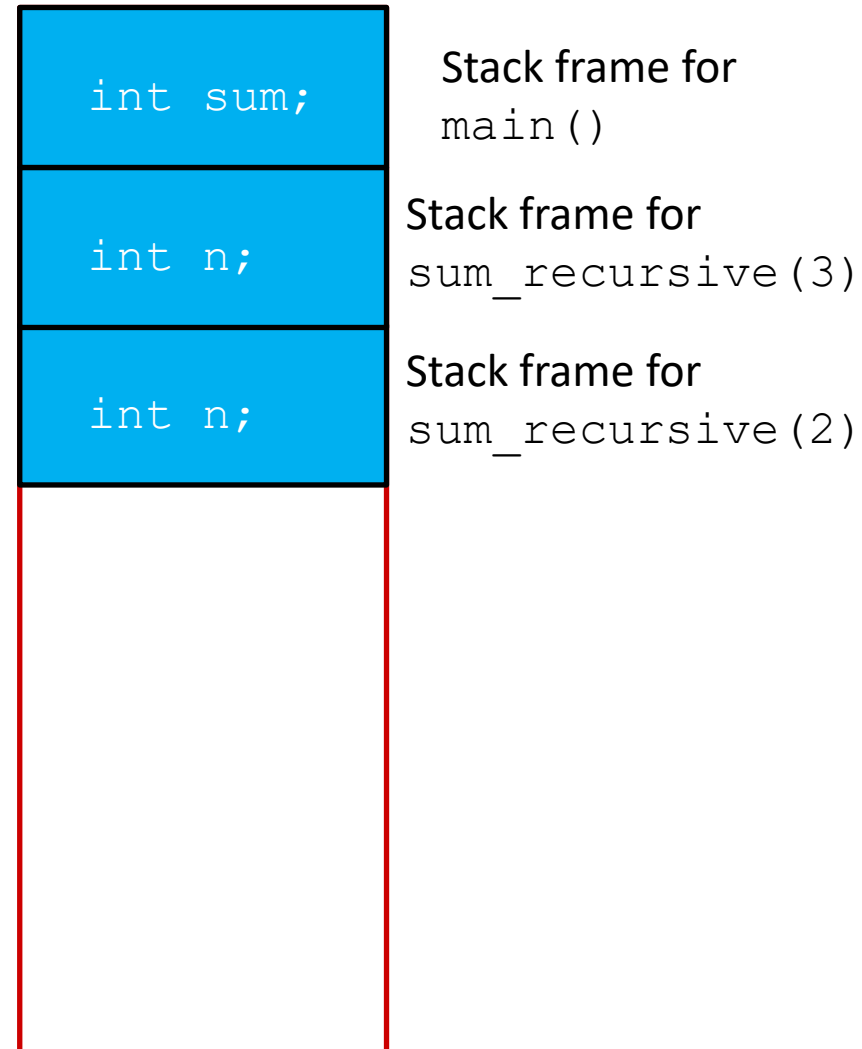
Stack frame for  
sum\_recursive(3)

# Stack Example 2:

```
#include <stdio.h>
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int sum_recursive(int n) {
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int main() {
    int sum = sum_recursive(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



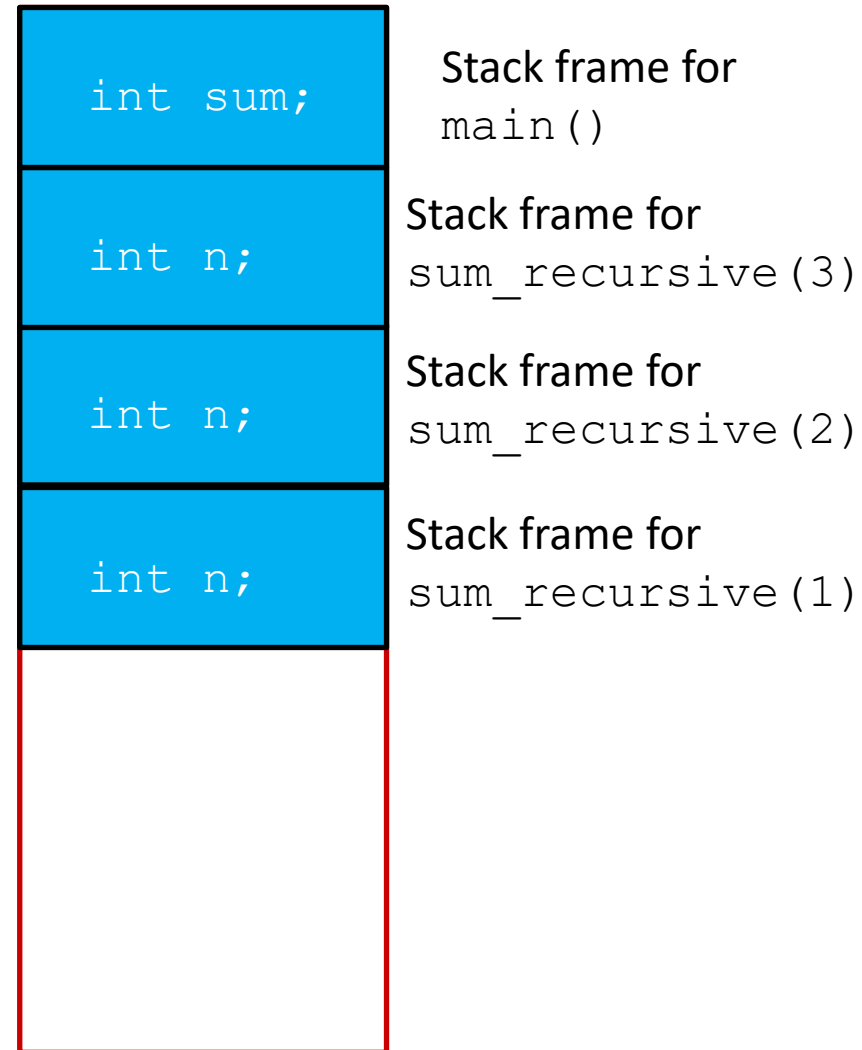
# Stack Example 2:

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int sum_recursive(int n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return n;
    }
    return n + sum_recursive(n-1);
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum_recursive(3);
    printf("sum: %d\n", sum);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
    
```



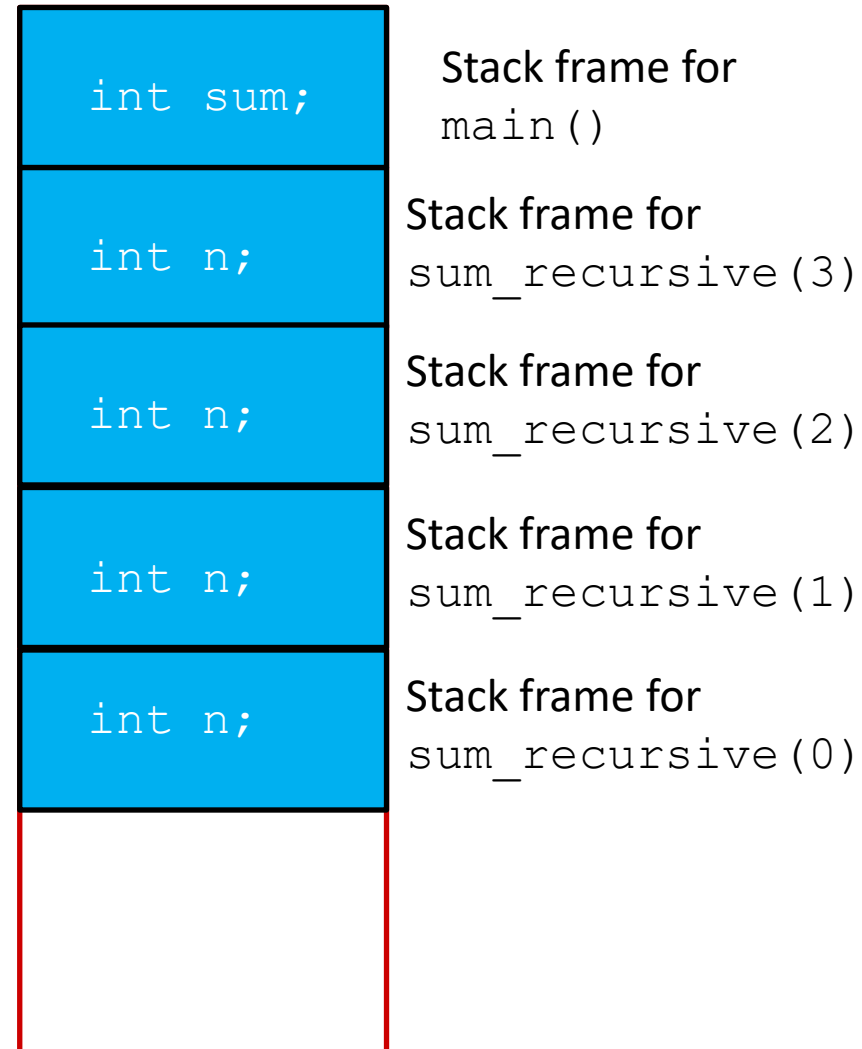
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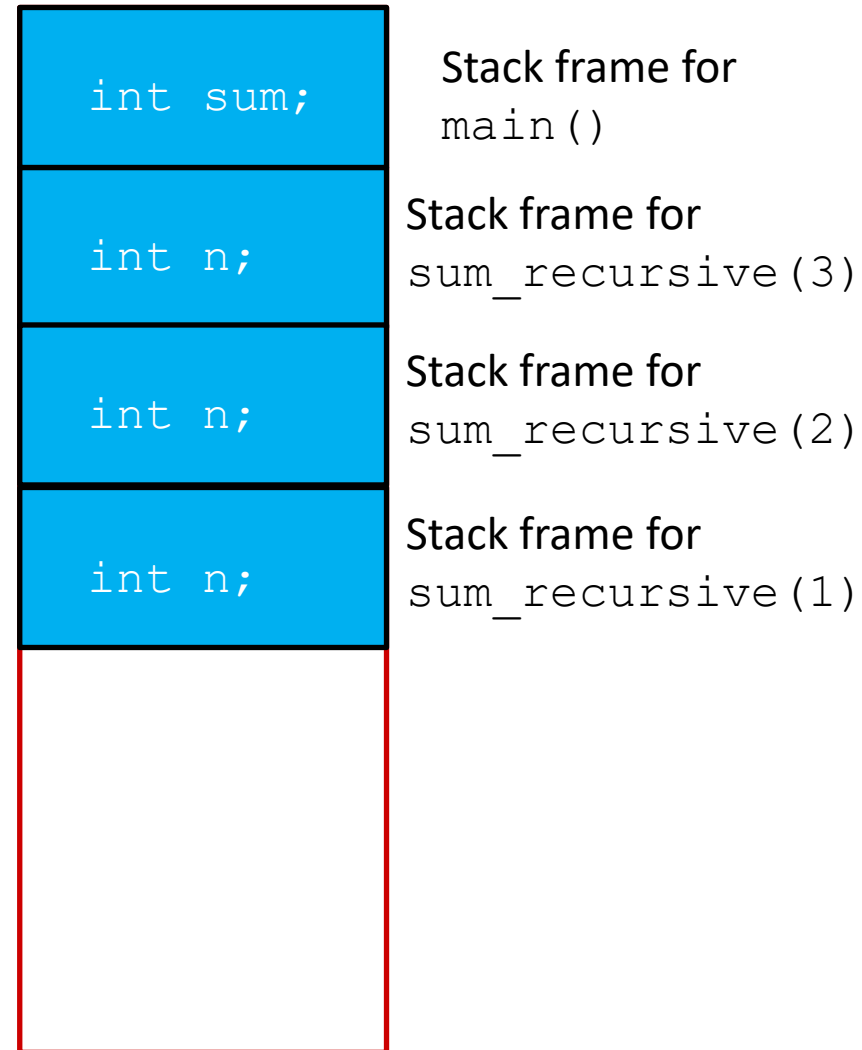
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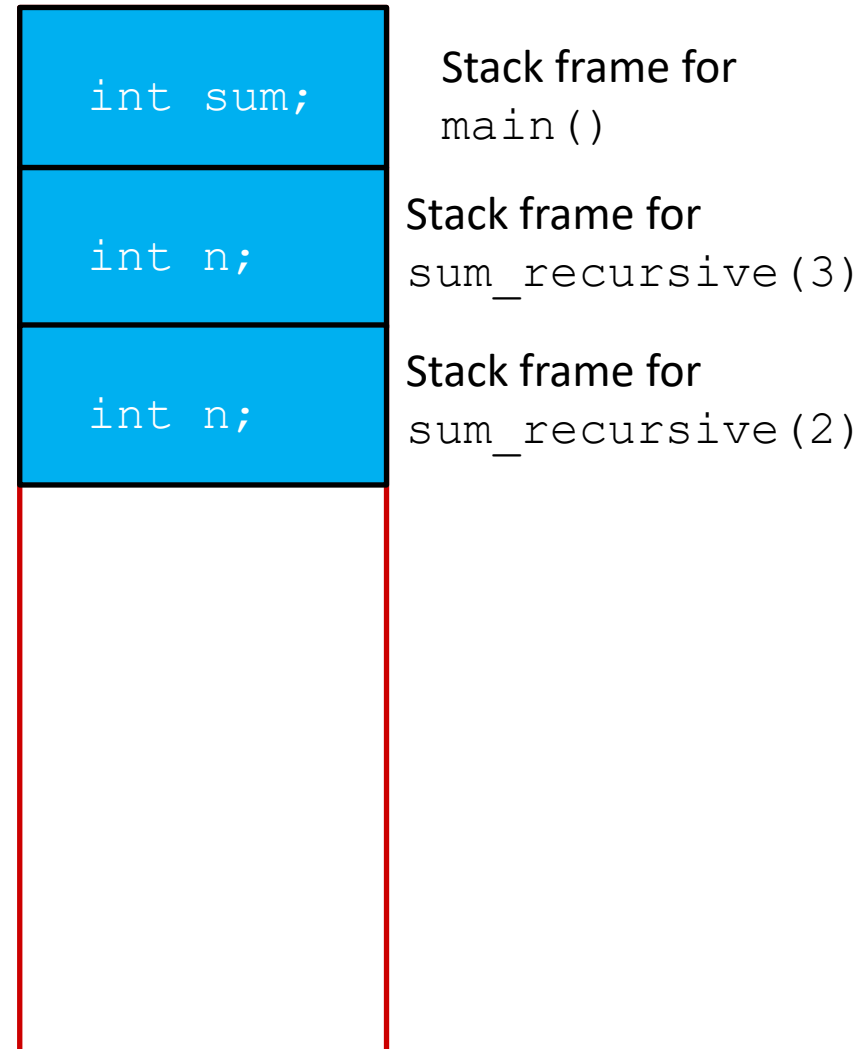
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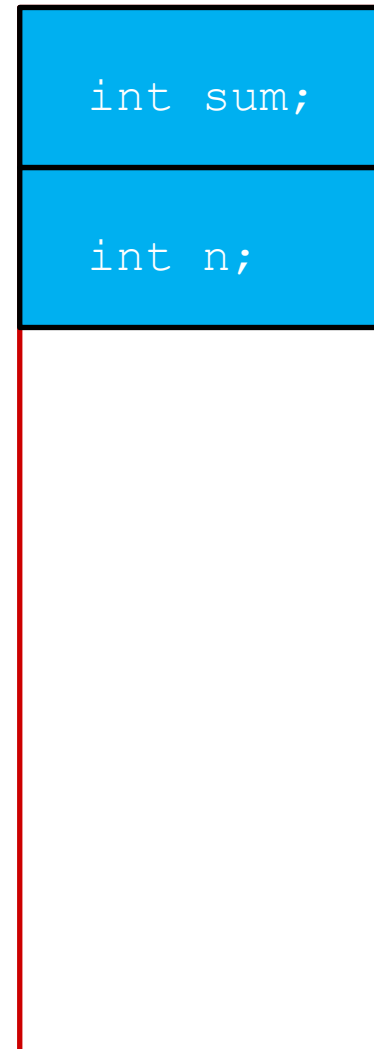


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Stack frame for  
main()

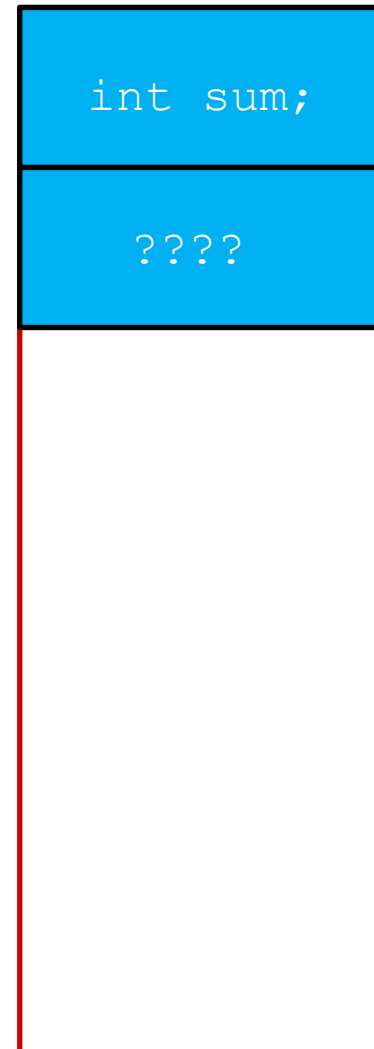
Stack frame for  
sum\_recursive(3)

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}
```



Stack frame for  
main()

Stack frame for  
printf()

# Memory Allocation So Far

❖ So far, we have seen two kinds of memory allocation:

```
int counter = 0; // global var

int main() {
    counter++;
    printf("count = %d\n", counter);
    return 0;
}
```

- counter is **statically**-allocated
  - Allocated when program is loaded
  - Deallocated when program exits

```
int foo(int a) {
    int x = a + 1; // local var
    return x;
}

int main() {
    int y = foo(10); // local var
    printf("y = %d\n", y);
    return 0;
}
```

- a, x, y are **automatically**-allocated
  - Allocated when function is called
  - Deallocated when function returns



 **Poll Everywhere**[pollev.com/cis2400](https://pollev.com/cis2400)

- ❖ The following program compiles without errors. Does it work as seemingly intended though?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. I'm not sure
- D. Skibidi

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int* get_secret_nums () {
    int secret_nums [] = {2400, 3800, 4710};
    return secret_nums;
}

int main () {
    int* nums = get_secret_nums ();
    printf ("%d\n", nums [0]);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

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    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

int\* nums;



Stack frame for  
main ()

# Poll Everywhere

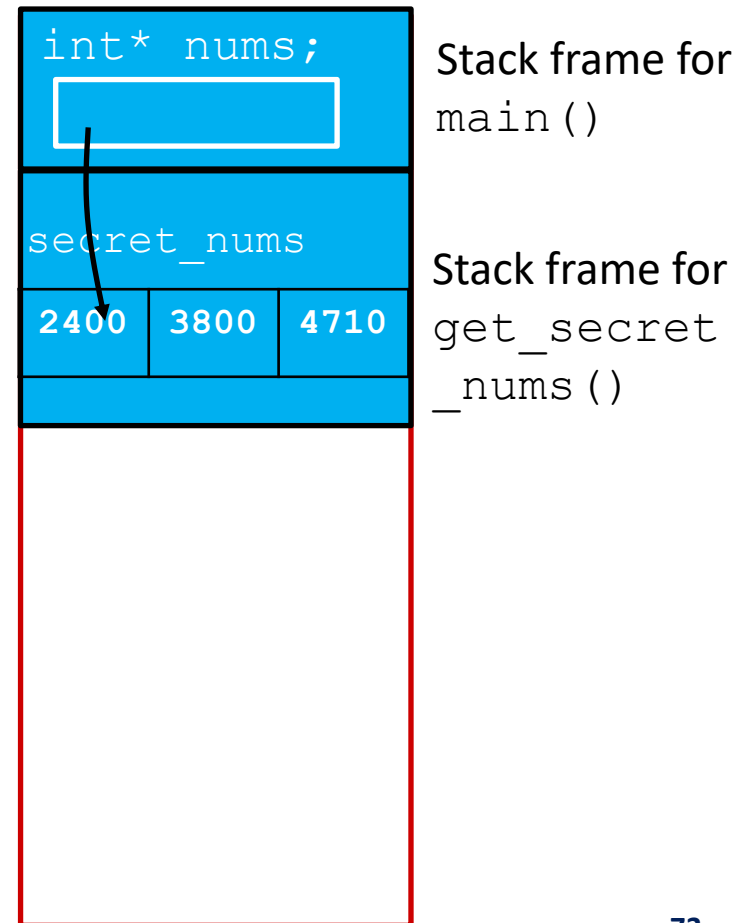
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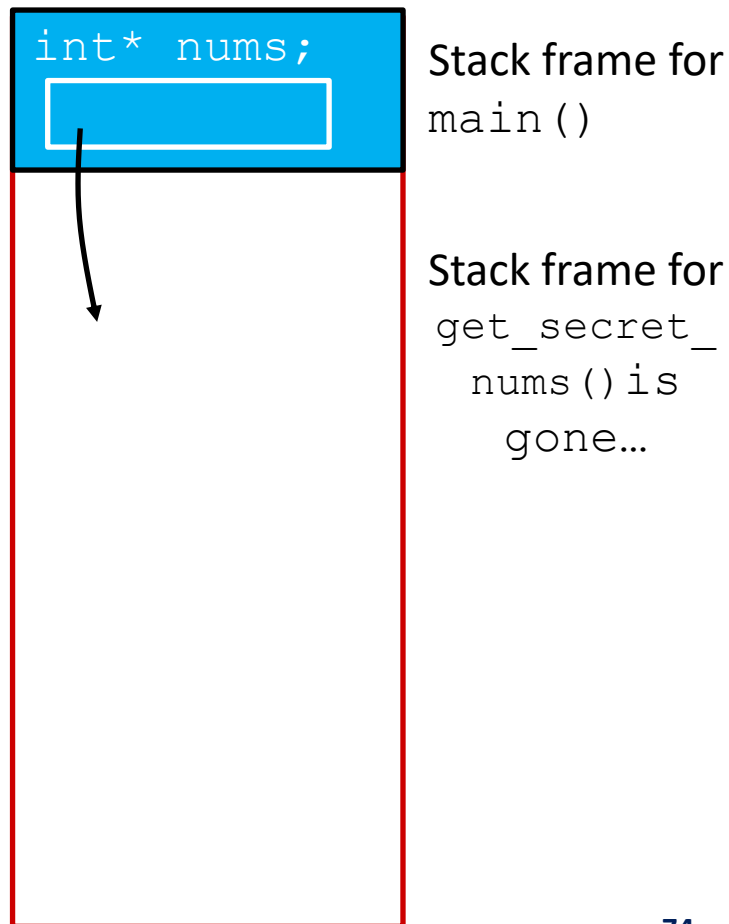
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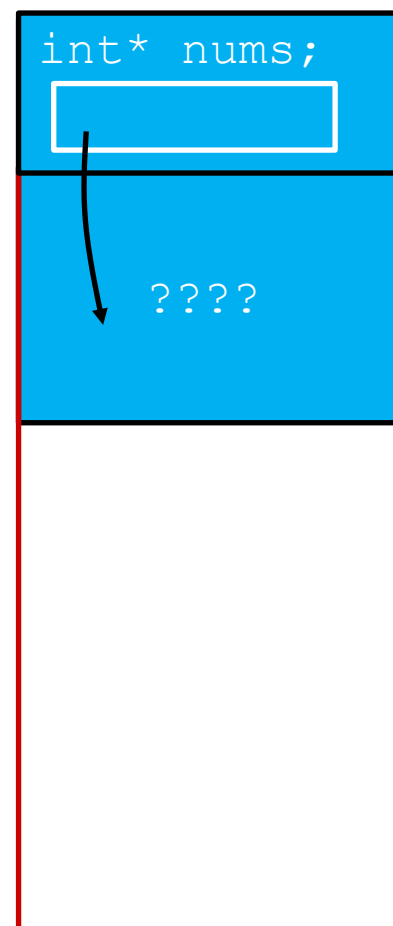
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```



Stack frame for  
`main()`

Stack frame for  
`printf()`

**B. No**

# Poll Everywhere

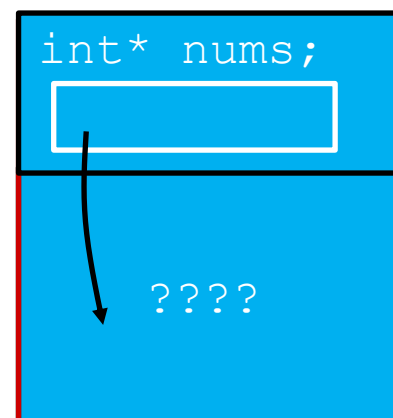
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    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



Stack frame for  
main ()

Stack frame for  
printf ()

Why?

When printf() is called we overwrite the local vars created by the get\_secret\_nums function call.

**B. No**

# Lecture Take-aways

- ❖ `char *` is an 8-byte pointer
  - it stores an address of a character
- ❖ `char[]` is an array of characters
  - it stores the actual characters of a string
- ❖ A pointer is a variable that holds the address of another variable
- ❖ Memory is Split into 4 Spaces
  - Stack, Heap, Data Segment, Text/Code Segment
- ❖ Global variables can be stored at a static (un-changing) address. (Data Segment)
- ❖ Local variables are stored in a portion of memory called the “Stack”



**Have a great weekend!**