

Valgrind Documentation

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This is the top level of Valgrind's documentation tree. The documentation is contained in six logically separate documents, as listed in the following Table of Contents. To get started quickly, read the Valgrind Quick Start Guide. For full documentation on Valgrind, read the Valgrind User Manual.

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The Valgrind Quick Start Guide

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The Valgrind Quick Start Guide

1. Introduction

The Valgrind tool suite provides a number of debugging and profiling tools. The most popular is Memcheck, a memory checking tool which can detect many common memory errors such as:

- Touching memory you shouldn't (eg. overrunning heap block boundaries, or reading/writing freed memory).
- Using values before they have been initialized.
- Incorrect freeing of memory, such as double-freeing heap blocks.
- Memory leaks.

Memcheck is only one of the tools in the Valgrind suite. Other tools you may find useful are:

- **Cachegrind**: a profiling tool which produces detailed data on cache (miss) and branch (misprediction) events. Statistics are gathered for the entire program, for each function, and for each line of code, if you need that level of detail.
- **Callgrind**: a profiling tool that shows cost relationships across function calls, optionally with cache simulation similar to Cachegrind. Information gathered by Callgrind can be viewed either with an included command line tool, or by using the KCachegrind GUI. KCachegrind is not part of the Valgrind suite -- it is part of the KDE Desktop Environment.
- **Massif**: a space profiling tool. It allows you to explore in detail which parts of your program allocate memory.
- **Helgrind**: a debugging tool for threaded programs. Helgrind looks for various kinds of synchronisation errors in code that uses the POSIX PThreads API.
- In addition, there are a number of "experimental" tools in the codebase. They can be distinguished by the "exp-" prefix on their names. Experimental tools are not subject to the same quality control standards that apply to our production-grade tools (Memcheck, Cachegrind, Callgrind, Massif, Helgrind and DRD).

The rest of this guide discusses only the Memcheck tool. For full documentation on the other tools, and for Memcheck, see the Valgrind User Manual.

What follows is the minimum information you need to start detecting memory errors in your program with Memcheck. Note that this guide applies to Valgrind version 3.4.0 and later. Some of the information is not quite right for earlier versions.

2. Preparing your program

Compile your program with `-g` to include debugging information so that Memcheck's error messages include exact line numbers. Using `-O0` is also a good idea, if you can tolerate the slowdown. With `-O1` line numbers in error messages can be inaccurate, although generally speaking Memchecking code compiled at `-O1` works fairly well and is recommended. Use of `-O2` and above is not recommended as Memcheck occasionally reports uninitialised-value errors which don't really exist.

3. Running your program under Memcheck

If you normally run your program like this:

```
myprog arg1 arg2
```

Use this command line:

```
valgrind --leak-check=yes myprog arg1 arg2
```

Memcheck is the default tool. The `--leak-check` option turns on the detailed memory leak detector.

Your program will run much slower (eg. 20 to 30 times) than normal, and use a lot more memory. Memcheck will issue messages about memory errors and leaks that it detects.

4. Interpreting Memcheck's output

Here's an example C program with a memory error and a memory leak.

```
#include <stdlib.h>

void f(void)
{
    int* x = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
    x[10] = 0;          // problem 1: heap block overrun
}                      // problem 2: memory leak -- x not freed

int main(void)
{
    f();
    return 0;
}
```

Most error messages look like the following, which describes problem 1, the heap block overrun:

```

==19182== Invalid write of size 4
==19182==   at 0x804838F: f (example.c:6)
==19182==   by 0x80483AB: main (example.c:11)
==19182== Address 0x1BA45050 is 0 bytes after a block of size 40 alloc'd
==19182==   at 0x1B8FF5CD: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:130)
==19182==   by 0x8048385: f (example.c:5)
==19182==   by 0x80483AB: main (example.c:11)

```

Things to notice:

- There is a lot of information in each error message; read it carefully.
- The 19182 is the process ID; it's usually unimportant.
- The first line ("Invalid write...") tells you what kind of error it is. Here, the program wrote to some memory it should not have due to a heap block overrun.
- Below the first line is a stack trace telling you where the problem occurred. Stack traces can get quite large, and be confusing, especially if you are using the C++ STL. Reading them from the bottom up can help. If the stack trace is not big enough, use the `--num-callers` option to make it bigger.
- The code addresses (eg. 0x804838F) are usually unimportant, but occasionally crucial for tracking down weirder bugs.
- Some error messages have a second component which describes the memory address involved. This one shows that the written memory is just past the end of a block allocated with `malloc()` on line 5 of `example.c`.

It's worth fixing errors in the order they are reported, as later errors can be caused by earlier errors. Failing to do this is a common cause of difficulty with Memcheck.

Memory leak messages look like this:

```

==19182== 40 bytes in 1 blocks are definitely lost in loss record 1 of 1
==19182==   at 0x1B8FF5CD: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:130)
==19182==   by 0x8048385: f (a.c:5)
==19182==   by 0x80483AB: main (a.c:11)

```

The stack trace tells you where the leaked memory was allocated. Memcheck cannot tell you why the memory leaked, unfortunately. (Ignore the "vg_replace_malloc.c", that's an implementation detail.)

There are several kinds of leaks; the two most important categories are:

- "definitely lost": your program is leaking memory -- fix it!
- "probably lost": your program is leaking memory, unless you're doing funny things with pointers (such as moving them to point to the middle of a heap block).

It can be difficult to track down the root causes of uninitialised-value errors reported by Memcheck. Try using the `--track-origins=yes` to get extra information. This makes Memcheck run slower, but the extra information you get often saves a lot of time figuring out where the uninitialised values are coming from.

If you don't understand an error message, please consult [Explanation of error messages from Memcheck](#) in the [Valgrind User Manual](#) which has examples of all the error messages Memcheck produces.

5. Caveats

Memcheck is not perfect; it occasionally produces false positives, and there are mechanisms for suppressing these (see [Suppressing errors](#) in the [Valgrind User Manual](#)). However, it is typically right 99% of the time, so you should be wary of ignoring its error messages. After all, you wouldn't ignore warning messages produced by a compiler, right? The suppression mechanism is also useful if Memcheck is reporting errors in library code that you cannot change. The default suppression set hides a lot of these, but you may come across more.

Memcheck cannot detect every memory error your program has. For example, it can't detect out-of-range reads or writes to arrays that are allocated statically or on the stack. But it should detect many errors that could crash your program (eg. cause a segmentation fault).

Try to make your program so clean that Memcheck reports no errors. Once you achieve this state, it is much easier to see when changes to the program cause Memcheck to report new errors. Experience from several years of Memcheck use shows that it is possible to make even huge programs run Memcheck-clean. For example, large parts of KDE 3.5.X, and recent versions of OpenOffice.org (2.3.0) are Memcheck-clean, or very close to it.

6. More information

Please consult the [Valgrind FAQ](#) and the [Valgrind User Manual](#), which have much more information. Note that the other tools in the Valgrind distribution can be invoked with the `--tool` option.

Valgrind User Manual

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1. Introduction

1.1. An Overview of Valgrind

Valgrind is a suite of simulation-based debugging and profiling tools for programs running on Linux (x86, amd64, ppc32 and ppc64). The system consists of a core, which provides a synthetic CPU in software, and a set of tools, each of which performs some kind of debugging, profiling, or similar task. The architecture is modular, so that new tools can be created easily and without disturbing the existing structure.

A number of useful tools are supplied as standard. In summary, these are:

1. **Memcheck** detects memory-management problems in programs. All reads and writes of memory are checked, and calls to `malloc/new/free/delete` are intercepted. As a result, Memcheck can detect the following problems:

- Use of uninitialised memory
- Reading/writing memory after it has been free'd
- Reading/writing off the end of malloc'd blocks
- Reading/writing inappropriate areas on the stack
- Memory leaks -- where pointers to malloc'd blocks are lost forever
- Mismatched use of `malloc/new/new []` vs `free/delete/delete []`
- Overlapping `src` and `dst` pointers in `memcpy()` and related functions

Problems like these can be difficult to find by other means, often remaining undetected for long periods, then causing occasional, difficult-to-diagnose crashes.

2. **Cachegrind** is a cache profiler. It performs detailed simulation of the I1, D1 and L2 caches in your CPU and so can accurately pinpoint the sources of cache misses in your code. It will show the number of cache misses, memory references and instructions accruing to each line of source code, with per-function, per-module and whole-program summaries. If you ask really nicely it will even show counts for each individual machine instruction.

On x86 and amd64, Cachegrind auto-detects your machine's cache configuration using the `CPUID` instruction, and so needs no further configuration info, in most cases.

3. **Callgrind** is a profiler similar in concept to Cachegrind, but which also tracks caller-callee relationships. By doing so it is able to show how instruction, memory reference and cache miss costs flow between callers and callees. Callgrind collects a large amount of data which is best navigated using Josef Weidendorfer's amazing KCachegrind visualisation tool (<http://kcachegrind.sourceforge.net>). KCachegrind is a KDE application which presents these profiling results in a graphical and easy-to-understand form.

4. **Massif** is a heap profiler. It measures how much heap memory programs use. In particular, it can give you information about heap blocks, heap administration overheads, and stack sizes.

Heap profiling can help you reduce the amount of memory your program uses. On modern machines with virtual memory, this reduces the chances that your program will run out of memory, and may make it faster by reducing the amount of paging needed.

5. **Helgrind** detects synchronisation errors in programs that use the POSIX pthreads threading primitives. It detects the following three classes of errors:

- Misuses of the POSIX pthreads API.
- Potential deadlocks arising from lock ordering problems.
- Data races -- accessing memory without adequate locking.

Problems like these often result in unreproducible, timing-dependent crashes, deadlocks and other misbehaviour, and can be difficult to find by other means.

A couple of minor tools (**Lackey** and **Nulgrind**) are also supplied. These aren't particularly useful -- they exist to illustrate how to create simple tools and to help the valgrind developers in various ways. Nulgrind is the null tool -- it adds no instrumentation. Lackey is a simple example tool which counts instructions, memory accesses, and the number of integer and floating point operations your program does.

Valgrind is closely tied to details of the CPU and operating system, and to a lesser extent, the compiler and basic C libraries. Nonetheless, as of version 3.3.0 it supports several platforms: x86/Linux (mature), amd64/Linux (maturing), ppc32/Linux and ppc64/Linux (less mature but work well). There is also experimental support for ppc32/AIX5 and ppc64/AIX5 (AIX 5.2 and 5.3 only). Valgrind uses the standard Unix `./configure`, `make`, `make install` mechanism, and we have attempted to ensure that it works on machines with Linux kernel 2.4.X or 2.6.X and glibc 2.2.X to 2.7.X.

Valgrind is licensed under the [The GNU General Public License](#), version 2. The `valgrind/*.h` headers that you may wish to include in your code (eg. `valgrind.h`, `memcheck.h`, `helgrind.h`) are distributed under a BSD-style license, so you may include them in your code without worrying about license conflicts. Some of the PThreads test cases, `pth_*.c`, are taken from "Pthreads Programming" by Bradford Nichols, Dick Buttlar & Jacqueline Proulx Farrell, ISBN 1-56592-115-1, published by O'Reilly & Associates, Inc.

If you contribute code to Valgrind, please ensure your contributions are licensed as "GPLv2, or (at your option) any later version." This is so as to allow the possibility of easily upgrading the license to GPLv3 in future. If you want to modify code in the VEX subdirectory, please also see `VEX/HACKING.README`.

1.2. How to navigate this manual

The Valgrind distribution consists of the Valgrind core, upon which are built Valgrind tools. The tools do different kinds of debugging and profiling. This manual is structured similarly.

First, we describe the Valgrind core, how to use it, and the flags it supports. Then, each tool has its own chapter in this manual. You only need to read the documentation for the core and for the tool(s) you actually use, although you may find it helpful to be at least a little bit familiar with what all tools do. If you're new to all this, you probably want to run the Memcheck tool. The final chapter explains how to write a new tool.

Be aware that the core understands some command line flags, and the tools have their own flags which they know about. This means there is no central place describing all the flags that are accepted -- you have to read the flags documentation both for [Valgrind's core](#) and for the tool you want to use.

The manual is quite big and complex. If you are looking for a quick getting-started guide, have a look at [The Valgrind Quick Start Guide](#).

2. Using and understanding the Valgrind core

This chapter describes the Valgrind core services, flags and behaviours. That means it is relevant regardless of what particular tool you are using. The information should be sufficient for you to make effective day-to-day use of Valgrind. Advanced topics related to the Valgrind core are described in [Valgrind's core: advanced topics](#).

A point of terminology: most references to "Valgrind" in this chapter refer to the Valgrind core services.

2.1. What Valgrind does with your program

Valgrind is designed to be as non-intrusive as possible. It works directly with existing executables. You don't need to recompile, relink, or otherwise modify, the program to be checked.

Simply put `valgrind --tool=tool_name` at the start of the command line normally used to run the program. For example, if want to run the command `ls -l` using the heavyweight memory-checking tool Memcheck, issue the command:

```
valgrind --tool=memcheck ls -l
```

Memcheck is the default, so if you want to use it you can omit the `--tool` flag.

Regardless of which tool is in use, Valgrind takes control of your program before it starts. Debugging information is read from the executable and associated libraries, so that error messages and other outputs can be phrased in terms of source code locations, when appropriate.

Your program is then run on a synthetic CPU provided by the Valgrind core. As new code is executed for the first time, the core hands the code to the selected tool. The tool adds its own instrumentation code to this and hands the result back to the core, which coordinates the continued execution of this instrumented code.

The amount of instrumentation code added varies widely between tools. At one end of the scale, Memcheck adds code to check every memory access and every value computed, making it run 10-50 times slower than natively. At the other end of the spectrum, the ultra-trivial "none" tool (also referred to as Nulgrind) adds no instrumentation at all and causes in total "only" about a 4 times slowdown.

Valgrind simulates every single instruction your program executes. Because of this, the active tool checks, or profiles, not only the code in your application but also in all supporting dynamically-linked (.so-format) libraries, including the GNU C library, the X client libraries, Qt, if you work with KDE, and so on.

If you're using an error-detection tool, Valgrind may detect errors in libraries, for example the GNU C or X11 libraries, which you have to use. You might not be interested in these errors, since you probably have no control over that code. Therefore, Valgrind allows you to selectively suppress errors, by recording them in a suppressions file which is read when Valgrind starts up. The build mechanism attempts to select suppressions which give reasonable behaviour for the C library and X11 client library versions detected on your machine. To make it easier to write suppressions, you can use the `--gen-suppressions=yes` option. This tells Valgrind to print out a suppression for each reported error, which you can then copy into a suppressions file.

Different error-checking tools report different kinds of errors. The suppression mechanism therefore allows you to say which tool or tool(s) each suppression applies to.

2.2. Getting started

First off, consider whether it might be beneficial to recompile your application and supporting libraries with debugging info enabled (the `-g` flag). Without debugging info, the best Valgrind tools will be able to do is guess which function a particular piece of code belongs to, which makes both error messages and profiling output nearly useless. With `-g`, you'll get messages which point directly to the relevant source code lines.

Another flag you might like to consider, if you are working with C++, is `-fno-inline`. That makes it easier to see the function-call chain, which can help reduce confusion when navigating around large C++ apps. For example, debugging OpenOffice.org with Memcheck is a bit easier when using this flag. You don't have to do this, but doing so helps Valgrind produce more accurate and less confusing error reports. Chances are you're set up like this already, if you intended to debug your program with GNU `gdb`, or some other debugger.

If you are planning to use Memcheck: On rare occasions, compiler optimisations (at `-O2` and above, and sometimes `-O1`) have been observed to generate code which fools Memcheck into wrongly reporting uninitialised value errors, or missing uninitialised value errors. We have looked in detail into fixing this, and unfortunately the result is that doing so would give a further significant slowdown in what is already a slow tool. So the best solution is to turn off optimisation altogether. Since this often makes things unmanageably slow, a reasonable compromise is to use `-O`. This gets you the majority of the benefits of higher optimisation levels whilst keeping relatively small the chances of false positives or false negatives from Memcheck. Also, you should compile your code with `-Wall` because it can identify some or all of the problems that Valgrind can miss at the higher optimisation levels. (Using `-Wall` is also a good idea in general.) All other tools (as far as we know) are unaffected by optimisation level.

Valgrind understands both the older "stabs" debugging format, used by `gcc` versions prior to 3.1, and the newer DWARF2 and DWARF3 formats used by `gcc` 3.1 and later. We continue to develop our debug-info readers, although the majority of effort will naturally enough go into the newer DWARF2/3 reader.

When you're ready to roll, just run your application as you would normally, but place `valgrind --tool=tool_name` in front of your usual command-line invocation. Note that you should run the real (machine-code) executable here. If your application is started by, for example, a shell or perl script, you'll need to modify it to invoke Valgrind on the real executables. Running such scripts directly under Valgrind will result in you getting error reports pertaining to `/bin/sh`, `/usr/bin/perl`, or whatever interpreter you're using. This may not be what you want and can be confusing. You can force the issue by giving the flag `--trace-children=yes`, but confusion is still likely.

2.3. The Commentary

Valgrind tools write a commentary, a stream of text, detailing error reports and other significant events. All lines in the commentary have following form:

```
==12345== some-message-from-Valgrind
```

The 12345 is the process ID. This scheme makes it easy to distinguish program output from Valgrind commentary, and also easy to differentiate commentaries from different processes which have become merged together, for whatever reason.

By default, Valgrind tools write only essential messages to the commentary, so as to avoid flooding you with information of secondary importance. If you want more information about what is happening, re-run, passing the `-v` flag to Valgrind. A second `-v` gives yet more detail.

You can direct the commentary to three different places:

1. The default: send it to a file descriptor, which is by default 2 (stderr). So, if you give the core no options, it will write commentary to the standard error stream. If you want to send it to some other file descriptor, for example number 9, you can specify `--log-fd=9`.

This is the simplest and most common arrangement, but can cause problems when Valgrinding entire trees of processes which expect specific file descriptors, particularly stdin/stdout/stderr, to be available for their own use.

2. A less intrusive option is to write the commentary to a file, which you specify by `--log-file=filename`. There are special format specifiers that can be used to use a process ID or an environment variable name in the log file name. These are useful/necessary if your program invokes multiple processes (especially for MPI programs). See the [basic options section](#) for more details.
3. The least intrusive option is to send the commentary to a network socket. The socket is specified as an IP address and port number pair, like this: `--log-socket=192.168.0.1:12345` if you want to send the output to host IP 192.168.0.1 port 12345 (note: we have no idea if 12345 is a port of pre-existing significance). You can also omit the port number: `--log-socket=192.168.0.1`, in which case a default port of 1500 is used. This default is defined by the constant `VG_CLO_DEFAULT_LOGPORT` in the sources.

Note, unfortunately, that you have to use an IP address here, rather than a hostname.

Writing to a network socket is pointless if you don't have something listening at the other end. We provide a simple listener program, `valgrind-listener`, which accepts connections on the specified port and copies whatever it is sent to stdout. Probably someone will tell us this is a horrible security risk. It seems likely that people will write more sophisticated listeners in the fullness of time.

`valgrind-listener` can accept simultaneous connections from up to 50 Valgrinded processes. In front of each line of output it prints the current number of active connections in round brackets.

`valgrind-listener` accepts two command-line flags:

- `-e` or `--exit-at-zero`: when the number of connected processes falls back to zero, exit. Without this, it will run forever, that is, until you send it Control-C.
- `portnumber`: changes the port it listens on from the default (1500). The specified port must be in the range 1024 to 65535. The same restriction applies to port numbers specified by a `--log-socket` to Valgrind itself.

If a Valgrinded process fails to connect to a listener, for whatever reason (the listener isn't running, invalid or unreachable host or port, etc), Valgrind switches back to writing the commentary to stderr. The same goes for any process which loses an established connection to a listener. In other words, killing the listener doesn't kill the processes sending data to it.

Here is an important point about the relationship between the commentary and profiling output from tools. The commentary contains a mix of messages from the Valgrind core and the selected tool. If the tool reports errors, it will report them to the commentary. However, if the tool does profiling, the profile data will be written to a file of some kind, depending on the tool, and independent of what `--log-*` options are in force. The commentary is intended to be a low-bandwidth, human-readable channel. Profiling data, on the other hand, is usually voluminous and not meaningful without further processing, which is why we have chosen this arrangement.

2.4. Reporting of errors

When an error-checking tool detects something bad happening in the program, an error message is written to the commentary. Here's an example from Memcheck:

```

==25832== Invalid read of size 4
==25832==    at 0x8048724: BandMatrix::ReSize(int, int, int) (bogon.cpp:45)
==25832==    by 0x80487AF: main (bogon.cpp:66)
==25832== Address 0xBFFFFFF74C is not stack'd, malloc'd or free'd

```

This message says that the program did an illegal 4-byte read of address 0xBFFFFFF74C, which, as far as Memcheck can tell, is not a valid stack address, nor corresponds to any current malloc'd or free'd blocks. The read is happening at line 45 of `bogon.cpp`, called from line 66 of the same file, etc. For errors associated with an identified malloc'd/free'd block, for example reading free'd memory, Valgrind reports not only the location where the error happened, but also where the associated block was malloc'd/free'd.

Valgrind remembers all error reports. When an error is detected, it is compared against old reports, to see if it is a duplicate. If so, the error is noted, but no further commentary is emitted. This avoids you being swamped with bazillions of duplicate error reports.

If you want to know how many times each error occurred, run with the `-v` option. When execution finishes, all the reports are printed out, along with, and sorted by, their occurrence counts. This makes it easy to see which errors have occurred most frequently.

Errors are reported before the associated operation actually happens. If you're using a tool (eg. Memcheck) which does address checking, and your program attempts to read from address zero, the tool will emit a message to this effect, and the program will then duly die with a segmentation fault.

In general, you should try and fix errors in the order that they are reported. Not doing so can be confusing. For example, a program which copies uninitialised values to several memory locations, and later uses them, will generate several error messages, when run on Memcheck. The first such error message may well give the most direct clue to the root cause of the problem.

The process of detecting duplicate errors is quite an expensive one and can become a significant performance overhead if your program generates huge quantities of errors. To avoid serious problems, Valgrind will simply stop collecting errors after 1,000 different errors have been seen, or 10,000,000 errors in total have been seen. In this situation you might as well stop your program and fix it, because Valgrind won't tell you anything else useful after this. Note that the 1,000/10,000,000 limits apply after suppressed errors are removed. These limits are defined in `m_errormgr.c` and can be increased if necessary.

To avoid this cutoff you can use the `--error-limit=no` flag. Then Valgrind will always show errors, regardless of how many there are. Use this flag carefully, since it may have a bad effect on performance.

2.5. Suppressing errors

The error-checking tools detect numerous problems in the base libraries, such as the GNU C library, and the X11 client libraries, which come pre-installed on your GNU/Linux system. You can't easily fix these, but you don't want to see these errors (and yes, there are many!) So Valgrind reads a list of errors to suppress at startup. A default suppression file is created by the `./configure` script when the system is built.

You can modify and add to the suppressions file at your leisure, or, better, write your own. Multiple suppression files are allowed. This is useful if part of your project contains errors you can't or don't want to fix, yet you don't want to continuously be reminded of them.

Note: By far the easiest way to add suppressions is to use the `--gen-suppressions=yes` flag described in [Command-line flags for the Valgrind core](#). This generates suppressions automatically. For best results, though, you may want to edit the output of `--gen-suppressions=yes` by hand, in which case it would be advisable to read through this section.

Each error to be suppressed is described very specifically, to minimise the possibility that a suppression-directive inadvertently suppresses a bunch of similar errors which you did want to see. The suppression mechanism is designed to allow precise yet flexible specification of errors to suppress.

If you use the `-v` flag, at the end of execution, Valgrind prints out one line for each used suppression, giving its name and the number of times it got used. Here's the suppressions used by a run of `valgrind --tool=memcheck ls -l`:

```
--27579-- supp: 1 socketcall.connect(serv_addr)/__libc_connect/__nscd_getgrgid_r
--27579-- supp: 1 socketcall.connect(serv_addr)/__libc_connect/__nscd_getpwuid_r
--27579-- supp: 6 strrchr/_dl_map_object_from_fd/_dl_map_object
```

Multiple suppressions files are allowed. By default, Valgrind uses `$PREFIX/lib/valgrind/default.supp`. You can ask to add suppressions from another file, by specifying `--suppressions=/path/to/file.supp`.

If you want to understand more about suppressions, look at an existing suppressions file whilst reading the following documentation. The file `glibc-2.3.supp`, in the source distribution, provides some good examples.

Each suppression has the following components:

- First line: its name. This merely gives a handy name to the suppression, by which it is referred to in the summary of used suppressions printed out when a program finishes. It's not important what the name is; any identifying string will do.
- Second line: name of the tool(s) that the suppression is for (if more than one, comma-separated), and the name of the suppression itself, separated by a colon (n.b.: no spaces are allowed), eg:

```
tool_name1,tool_name2:suppression_name
```

Recall that Valgrind is a modular system, in which different instrumentation tools can observe your program whilst it is running. Since different tools detect different kinds of errors, it is necessary to say which tool(s) the suppression is meaningful to.

Tools will complain, at startup, if a tool does not understand any suppression directed to it. Tools ignore suppressions which are not directed to them. As a result, it is quite practical to put suppressions for all tools into the same suppression file.

- Next line: a small number of suppression types have extra information after the second line (eg. the `Param` suppression for Memcheck)

- Remaining lines: This is the calling context for the error -- the chain of function calls that led to it. There can be up to 24 of these lines.

Locations may be names of either shared objects or functions. They begin `obj:` and `fun:` respectively. Function and object names to match against may use the wildcard characters `*` and `?`.

Important note: C++ function names must be **mangled**. If you are writing suppressions by hand, use the `--demangle=no` option to get the mangled names in your error messages. An example of a mangled C++ name is `_ZN9QListView4showEv`. This is the form that the GNU C++ compiler uses internally, and the form that must be used in suppression files. The equivalent demangled name, `QListView::show()`, is what you see at the C++ source code level.

A location line may also be simply `...` (three dots). This is a frame-level wildcard, which matches zero or more frames. Frame level wildcards are useful because they make it easy to ignore varying numbers of uninteresting frames in between frames of interest. That is often important when writing suppressions which are intended to be robust against variations in the amount of function inlining done by compilers.

- Finally, the entire suppression must be between curly braces. Each brace must be the first character on its own line.

A suppression only suppresses an error when the error matches all the details in the suppression. Here's an example:

```
{
__gconv_transform_ascii_internal/__mbrtowc/mbtowc
Memcheck:Value4
fun:__gconv_transform_ascii_internal
fun:__mbr*toc
fun:mbtowc
}
```

What it means is: for Memcheck only, suppress a use-of-uninitialised-value error, when the data size is 4, when it occurs in the function `__gconv_transform_ascii_internal`, when that is called from any function of name matching `__mbr*toc`, when that is called from `mbtowc`. It doesn't apply under any other circumstances. The string by which this suppression is identified to the user is `__gconv_transform_ascii_internal/__mbrtowc/mbtowc`.

(See [Writing suppression files](#) for more details on the specifics of Memcheck's suppression kinds.)

Another example, again for the Memcheck tool:

```
{
libX11.so.6.2/libX11.so.6.2/libXaw.so.7.0
Memcheck:Value4
obj:/usr/X11R6/lib/libX11.so.6.2
obj:/usr/X11R6/lib/libX11.so.6.2
obj:/usr/X11R6/lib/libXaw.so.7.0
}
```

This suppresses any size 4 uninitialised-value error which occurs anywhere in `libX11.so.6.2`, when called from anywhere in the same library, when called from anywhere in `libXaw.so.7.0`. The inexact specification of locations is regrettable, but is about all you can hope for, given that the X11 libraries shipped on the Linux distro on which this example was made have had their symbol tables removed.

Although the above two examples do not make this clear, you can freely mix `obj:` and `fun:` lines in a suppression.

Finally, here's an example using three frame-level wildcards:

```
{
  a-contrived-example
  Memcheck:Leak
  fun:malloc
  ...
  fun:ddd
  ...
  fun:ccc
  ...
  fun:main
}
```

This suppresses Memcheck memory-leak errors, in the case where the allocation was done by `main` calling (though any number of intermediaries, including zero) `ccc`, calling onwards via `ddd` and eventually to `malloc`.

2.6. Command-line flags for the Valgrind core

As mentioned above, Valgrind's core accepts a common set of flags. The tools also accept tool-specific flags, which are documented separately for each tool.

You invoke Valgrind like this:

```
valgrind [valgrind-options] your-prog [your-prog-options]
```

Valgrind's default settings succeed in giving reasonable behaviour in most cases. We group the available options by rough categories.

2.6.1. Tool-selection option

The single most important option.

- `--tool=<name>` [default=memcheck]

Run the Valgrind tool called *name*, e.g. Memcheck, Cachegrind, etc.

2.6.2. Basic Options

These options work with all tools.

```
-h --help
```

Show help for all options, both for the core and for the selected tool.

```
--help-debug
```

Same as `--help`, but also lists debugging options which usually are only of use to Valgrind's developers.

`--version`

Show the version number of the Valgrind core. Tools can have their own version numbers. There is a scheme in place to ensure that tools only execute when the core version is one they are known to work with. This was done to minimise the chances of strange problems arising from tool-vs-core version incompatibilities.

`-q --quiet`

Run silently, and only print error messages. Useful if you are running regression tests or have some other automated test machinery.

`-v --verbose`

Be more verbose. Gives extra information on various aspects of your program, such as: the shared objects loaded, the suppressions used, the progress of the instrumentation and execution engines, and warnings about unusual behaviour. Repeating the flag increases the verbosity level.

`-d`

Emit information for debugging Valgrind itself. This is usually only of interest to the Valgrind developers. Repeating the flag produces more detailed output. If you want to send us a bug report, a log of the output generated by `-v -v -d -d` will make your report more useful.

`--tool=<toolname> [default: memcheck]`

Run the Valgrind tool called `toolname`, e.g. Memcheck, Cachegrind, etc.

`--trace-children=<yes|no> [default: no]`

When enabled, Valgrind will trace into sub-processes initiated via the `exec` system call. This can be confusing and isn't usually what you want, so it is disabled by default.

Note that Valgrind does trace into the child of a `fork` (it would be difficult not to, since `fork` makes an identical copy of a process), so this option is arguably badly named. However, most children of `fork` calls immediately call `exec` anyway.

`--child-silent-after-fork=<yes|no> [default: no]`

When enabled, Valgrind will not show any debugging or logging output for the child process resulting from a `fork` call. This can make the output less confusing (although more misleading) when dealing with processes that create children. It is particularly useful in conjunction with `--trace-children=`. Use of this flag is also strongly recommended if you are requesting XML output (`--xml=yes`), since otherwise the XML from child and parent may become mixed up, which usually makes it useless.

`--track-fds=<yes|no> [default: no]`

When enabled, Valgrind will print out a list of open file descriptors on exit. Along with each file descriptor is printed a stack backtrace of where the file was opened and any details relating to the file descriptor such as the file name or socket details.

`--time-stamp=<yes|no> [default: no]`

When enabled, each message is preceded with an indication of the elapsed wallclock time since startup, expressed as days, hours, minutes, seconds and milliseconds.

`--log-fd=<number> [default: 2, stderr]`

Specifies that Valgrind should send all of its messages to the specified file descriptor. The default, 2, is the standard error channel (`stderr`). Note that this may interfere with the client's own use of `stderr`, as Valgrind's output will be interleaved with any output that the client sends to `stderr`.

```
--log-file=<filename>
```

Specifies that Valgrind should send all of its messages to the specified file. If the file name is empty, it causes an abort. There are three special format specifiers that can be used in the file name.

`%p` is replaced with the current process ID. This is very useful for program that invoke multiple processes. **WARNING:** If you use `--trace-children=yes` and your program invokes multiple processes OR your program forks without calling `exec` afterwards, and you don't use this specifier (or the `%q` specifier below), the Valgrind output from all those processes will go into one file, possibly jumbled up, and possibly incomplete.

`%q{FOO}` is replaced with the contents of the environment variable `FOO`. If the `{FOO}` part is malformed, it causes an abort. This specifier is rarely needed, but very useful in certain circumstances (eg. when running MPI programs). The idea is that you specify a variable which will be set differently for each process in the job, for example `BPROC_RANK` or whatever is applicable in your MPI setup. If the named environment variable is not set, it causes an abort. Note that in some shells, the `{` and `}` characters may need to be escaped with a backslash.

`%%` is replaced with `%`.

If an `%` is followed by any other character, it causes an abort.

```
--log-socket=<ip-address:port-number>
```

Specifies that Valgrind should send all of its messages to the specified port at the specified IP address. The port may be omitted, in which case port 1500 is used. If a connection cannot be made to the specified socket, Valgrind falls back to writing output to the standard error (`stderr`). This option is intended to be used in conjunction with the `valgrind-listener` program. For further details, see [the commentary](#) in the manual.

2.6.3. Error-related options

These options are used by all tools that can report errors, e.g. Memcheck, but not Cachegrind.

```
--xml=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

When enabled, output will be in XML format. This is aimed at making life easier for tools that consume Valgrind's output as input, such as GUI front ends. Currently this option only works with Memcheck.

```
--xml-user-comment=<string>
```

Embeds an extra user comment string at the start of the XML output. Only works when `--xml=yes` is specified; ignored otherwise.

```
--demangle=<yes|no> [default: yes]
```

Enable/disable automatic demangling (decoding) of C++ names. Enabled by default. When enabled, Valgrind will attempt to translate encoded C++ names back to something approaching the original. The demangler handles symbols mangled by g++ versions 2.X, 3.X and 4.X.

An important fact about demangling is that function names mentioned in suppressions files should be in their mangled form. Valgrind does not demangle function names when searching for applicable suppressions, because to do otherwise would make suppressions file contents dependent on the state of Valgrind's demangling machinery, and would also be slow and pointless.

```
--num-callers=<number> [default: 12]
```

By default, Valgrind shows twelve levels of function call names to help you identify program locations. You can change that number with this option. This can help in determining the program's location in deeply-nested call chains. Note that errors are commoned up using only the top four function locations (the place in the current function, and that of its three immediate callers). So this doesn't affect the total number of errors reported.

The maximum value for this is 50. Note that higher settings will make Valgrind run a bit more slowly and take a bit more memory, but can be useful when working with programs with deeply-nested call chains.

```
--error-limit=<yes|no> [default: yes]
```

When enabled, Valgrind stops reporting errors after 10,000,000 in total, or 1,000 different ones, have been seen. This is to stop the error tracking machinery from becoming a huge performance overhead in programs with many errors.

```
--error-exitcode=<number> [default: 0]
```

Specifies an alternative exit code to return if Valgrind reported any errors in the run. When set to the default value (zero), the return value from Valgrind will always be the return value of the process being simulated. When set to a nonzero value, that value is returned instead, if Valgrind detects any errors. This is useful for using Valgrind as part of an automated test suite, since it makes it easy to detect test cases for which Valgrind has reported errors, just by inspecting return codes.

```
--show-below-main=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

By default, stack traces for errors do not show any functions that appear beneath `main()` (or similar functions such as `glibc's __libc_start_main()`, if `main()` is not present in the stack trace); most of the time it's uninteresting C library stuff. If this option is enabled, those entries below `main()` will be shown.

```
--suppressions=<filename> [default: $PREFIX/lib/valgrind/default.supp]
```

Specifies an extra file from which to read descriptions of errors to suppress. You may use up to 100 extra suppression files.

```
--gen-suppressions=<yes|no|all> [default: no]
```

When set to `yes`, Valgrind will pause after every error shown and print the line:

```
---- Print suppression ? --- [Return/N/n/Y/y/C/c] ----
```

The prompt's behaviour is the same as for the `--db-attach` option (see below).

If you choose to, Valgrind will print out a suppression for this error. You can then cut and paste it into a suppression file if you don't want to hear about the error in the future.

When set to `all`, Valgrind will print a suppression for every reported error, without querying the user.

This option is particularly useful with C++ programs, as it prints out the suppressions with mangled names, as required.

Note that the suppressions printed are as specific as possible. You may want to common up similar ones, by adding wildcards to function names, and by using frame-level wildcards. The wildcarding facilities are powerful yet flexible, and with a bit of careful editing, you may be able to suppress a whole family of related errors with only a few suppressions. For details on how to do this, see [Suppressing errors](#).

Sometimes two different errors are suppressed by the same suppression, in which case Valgrind will output the suppression more than once, but you only need to have one copy in your suppression file (but having more than one won't cause problems). Also, the suppression name is given as `<insert a suppression name here>`; the name doesn't really matter, it's only used with the `-v` option which prints out all used suppression records.

```
--db-attach=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

When enabled, Valgrind will pause after every error shown and print the line:

```
---- Attach to debugger ? --- [Return/N/n/Y/y/C/c] ----
```

Pressing `Ret`, or `N Ret` or `n Ret`, causes Valgrind not to start a debugger for this error.

Pressing `Y Ret` or `y Ret` causes Valgrind to start a debugger for the program at this point. When you have finished with the debugger, quit from it, and the program will continue. Trying to continue from inside the debugger doesn't work.

`C Ret` or `c Ret` causes Valgrind not to start a debugger, and not to ask again.

```
--db-command=<command> [default: gdb -nw %f %p]
```

Specify the debugger to use with the `--db-attach` command. The default debugger is `gdb`. This option is a template that is expanded by Valgrind at runtime. `%f` is replaced with the executable's file name and `%p` is replaced by the process ID of the executable.

This specifies how Valgrind will invoke the debugger. By default it will use whatever GDB is detected at build time, which is usually `/usr/bin/gdb`. Using this command, you can specify some alternative command to invoke the debugger you want to use.

The command string given can include one or instances of the `%p` and `%f` expansions. Each instance of `%p` expands to the PID of the process to be debugged and each instance of `%f` expands to the path to the executable for the process to be debugged.

Since `<command>` is likely to contain spaces, you will need to put this entire flag in quotes to ensure it is correctly handled by the shell.

```
--input-fd=<number> [default: 0, stdin]
```

When using `--db-attach=yes` or `--gen-suppressions=yes`, Valgrind will stop so as to read keyboard input from you when each error occurs. By default it reads from the standard input (`stdin`), which is problematic for programs which close `stdin`. This option allows you to specify an alternative file descriptor from which to read input.

```
--max-stackframe=<number> [default: 2000000]
```

The maximum size of a stack frame. If the stack pointer moves by more than this amount then Valgrind will assume that the program is switching to a different stack.

You may need to use this option if your program has large stack-allocated arrays. Valgrind keeps track of your program's stack pointer. If it changes by more than the threshold amount, Valgrind assumes your program is switching to a different stack, and Memcheck behaves differently than it would for a stack pointer change smaller than the threshold. Usually this heuristic works well. However, if your program allocates large structures on the stack, this heuristic will be fooled, and Memcheck will subsequently report large numbers of invalid stack accesses. This option allows you to change the threshold to a different value.

You should only consider use of this flag if Valgrind's debug output directs you to do so. In that case it will tell you the new threshold you should specify.

In general, allocating large structures on the stack is a bad idea, because you can easily run out of stack space, especially on systems with limited memory or which expect to support large numbers of threads each with a small stack, and also because the error checking performed by Memcheck is more effective for heap-allocated data than for stack-allocated data. If you have to use this flag, you may wish to consider rewriting your code to allocate on the heap rather than on the stack.

```
--main-stacksize=<number> [default: use current 'ulimit' value]
```

Specifies the size of the main thread's stack.

To simplify its memory management, Valgrind reserves all required space for the main thread's stack at startup. That means it needs to know the required stack size at startup.

By default, Valgrind uses the current "ulimit" value for the stack size, or 16 MB, whichever is lower. In many cases this gives a stack size in the range 8 to 16 MB, which almost never overflows for most applications.

If you need a larger total stack size, use `--main-stacksize` to specify it. Only set it as high as you need, since reserving far more space than you need (that is, hundreds of megabytes more than you need) constrains Valgrind's memory allocators and may reduce the total amount of memory that Valgrind can use. This is only really of significance on 32-bit machines.

On Linux, you may request a stack of size up to 2GB. Valgrind will stop with a diagnostic message if the stack cannot be allocated. On AIX5 the allowed stack size is restricted to 128MB.

`--main-stacksize` only affects the stack size for the program's initial thread. It has no bearing on the size of thread stacks, as Valgrind does not allocate those.

You may need to use both `--main-stacksize` and `--max-stackframe` together. It is important to understand that `--main-stacksize` sets the maximum total stack size, whilst `--max-stackframe` specifies the largest size of any one stack frame. You will have to work out the `--main-stacksize` value for yourself (usually, if your applications segfaults). But Valgrind will tell you the needed `--max-stackframe` size, if necessary.

As discussed further in the description of `--max-stackframe`, a requirement for a large stack is a sign of potential portability problems. You are best advised to place all large data in heap-allocated memory.

2.6.4. `malloc()` -related Options

For tools that use their own version of `malloc()` (e.g. Memcheck and Massif), the following options apply.

```
--alignment=<number> [default: 8]
```

By default Valgrind's `malloc()`, `realloc()`, etc, return 8-byte aligned addresses. This is standard for most processors. However, some programs might assume that `malloc()` et al return 16-byte or more aligned memory. The supplied value must be between 8 and 4096 inclusive, and must be a power of two.

2.6.5. Uncommon Options

These options apply to all tools, as they affect certain obscure workings of the Valgrind core. Most people won't need to use these.

```
--run-libc-freeres=<yes|no> [default: yes]
```

The GNU C library (`libc.so`), which is used by all programs, may allocate memory for its own uses. Usually it doesn't bother to free that memory when the program ends—there would be no point, since the Linux kernel reclaims all process resources when a process exits anyway, so it would just slow things down.

The glibc authors realised that this behaviour causes leak checkers, such as Valgrind, to falsely report leaks in glibc, when a leak check is done at exit. In order to avoid this, they provided a routine called `__libc_freeres` specifically to make glibc release all memory it has allocated. Memcheck therefore tries to run `__libc_freeres` at exit.

Unfortunately, in some very old versions of glibc, `__libc_freeres` is sufficiently buggy to cause segmentation faults. This was particularly noticeable on Red Hat 7.1. So this flag is provided in order to inhibit the run of `__libc_freeres`. If your program seems to run fine on Valgrind, but segfaults at exit, you may find that `--run-libc-freeres=no` fixes that, although at the cost of possibly falsely reporting space leaks in `libc.so`.

```
--sim-hints=hint1, hint2, ...
```

Pass miscellaneous hints to Valgrind which slightly modify the simulated behaviour in nonstandard or dangerous ways, possibly to help the simulation of strange features. By default no hints are enabled. Use with caution! Currently known hints are:

- `lax-ioctls`: Be very lax about ioctl handling; the only assumption is that the size is correct. Doesn't require the full buffer to be initialized when writing. Without this, using some device drivers with a large number of strange ioctl commands becomes very tiresome.
- `enable-inner`: Enable some special magic needed when the program being run is itself Valgrind.

```
--kernel-variant=variant1, variant2, ...
```

Handle system calls and ioctls arising from minor variants of the default kernel for this platform. This is useful for running on hacked kernels or with kernel modules which support nonstandard ioctls, for example. Use with caution. If you don't understand what this option does then you almost certainly don't need it. Currently known variants are:

- `bproc`: Support the `sys_broc` system call on x86. This is for running on BProc, which is a minor variant of standard Linux which is sometimes used for building clusters.

```
--show-emwarns=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

When enabled, Valgrind will emit warnings about its CPU emulation in certain cases. These are usually not interesting.

```
--smc-check=<none|stack|all> [default: stack]
```

This option controls Valgrind's detection of self-modifying code. Valgrind can do no detection, detect self-modifying code on the stack, or detect self-modifying code anywhere. Note that the default option will catch the vast majority of cases, as far as we know. Running with `all` will slow Valgrind down greatly. Running with `none` will rarely speed things up, since very little code gets put on the stack for most programs.

Some architectures (including ppc32 and ppc64) require programs which create code at runtime to flush the instruction cache in between code generation and first use. Valgrind observes and honours such instructions. Hence, on ppc32/Linux and ppc64/Linux, Valgrind always provides complete, transparent support for self-modifying code. It is only on x86/Linux and amd64/Linux that you need to use this flag.

2.6.6. Debugging Valgrind Options

There are also some options for debugging Valgrind itself. You shouldn't need to use them in the normal run of things. If you wish to see the list, use the `--help-debug` option.

2.6.7. Setting default Options

Note that Valgrind also reads options from three places:

1. The file `~/.valgrindrc`
2. The environment variable `$VALGRIND_OPTS`
3. The file `./.valgrindrc`

These are processed in the given order, before the command-line options. Options processed later override those processed earlier; for example, options in `./.valgrindrc` will take precedence over those in `~/.valgrindrc`. The first two are particularly useful for setting the default tool to use.

Please note that the `./.valgrindrc` file is ignored if it is marked as world writeable or not owned by the current user. This is because the `.valgrindrc` can contain options that are potentially harmful or can be used by a local attacker to execute code under your user account.

Any tool-specific options put in `$VALGRIND_OPTS` or the `.valgrindrc` files should be prefixed with the tool name and a colon. For example, if you want Memcheck to always do leak checking, you can put the following entry in `~/.valgrindrc`:

```
--memcheck:leak-check=yes
```

This will be ignored if any tool other than Memcheck is run. Without the `memcheck:` part, this will cause problems if you select other tools that don't understand `--leak-check=yes`.

2.7. Support for Threads

Valgrind supports programs which use POSIX pthreads. Getting this to work was technically challenging but it now works well enough for significant threaded applications to run.

The main thing to point out is that although Valgrind works with the standard Linux threads library (eg. NPTL or LinuxThreads), it serialises execution so that only one thread is running at a time. This approach avoids the horrible

implementation problems of implementing a truly multiprocessor version of Valgrind, but it does mean that threaded apps run only on one CPU, even if you have a multiprocessor machine.

Valgrind schedules your program's threads in a round-robin fashion, with all threads having equal priority. It switches threads every 100000 basic blocks (on x86, typically around 600000 instructions), which means you'll get a much finer interleaving of thread executions than when run natively. This in itself may cause your program to behave differently if you have some kind of concurrency, critical race, locking, or similar, bugs. In that case you might consider using Valgrind's Helgrind tool to track them down.

Your program will use the native `libpthread`, but not all of its facilities will work. In particular, synchronisation of processes via shared-memory segments will not work. This relies on special atomic instruction sequences which Valgrind does not emulate in a way which works between processes. Unfortunately there's no way for Valgrind to warn when this is happening, and such calls will mostly work. Only when there's a race will it fail.

Valgrind also supports direct use of the `clone()` system call, `futex()` and so on. `clone()` is supported where either everything is shared (a thread) or nothing is shared (fork-like); partial sharing will fail. Again, any use of atomic instruction sequences in shared memory between processes will not work reliably.

2.8. Handling of Signals

Valgrind has a fairly complete signal implementation. It should be able to cope with any POSIX-compliant use of signals.

If you're using signals in clever ways (for example, catching `SIGSEGV`, modifying page state and restarting the instruction), you're probably relying on precise exceptions. In this case, you will need to use `--vex-iropt-precise-memory-exns=yes`.

If your program dies as a result of a fatal core-dumping signal, Valgrind will generate its own core file (`vgcore.NNNNN`) containing your program's state. You may use this core file for post-mortem debugging with `gdb` or similar. (Note: it will not generate a core if your core dump size limit is 0.) At the time of writing the core dumps do not include all the floating point register information.

In the unlikely event that Valgrind itself crashes, the operating system will create a core dump in the usual way.

2.9. Building and Installing Valgrind

We use the standard Unix `./configure, make, make install` mechanism, and we have attempted to ensure that it works on machines with kernel 2.4 or 2.6 and `glibc 2.2.X` to `2.9.X`. Once you have completed `make install` you may then want to run the regression tests with `make retest`.

There are five options (in addition to the usual `--prefix=` which affect how Valgrind is built:

- `--enable-inner`

This builds Valgrind with some special magic hacks which make it possible to run it on a standard build of Valgrind (what the developers call "self-hosting"). Ordinarily you should not use this flag as various kinds of safety checks are disabled.

- `--enable-tls`

TLS (Thread Local Storage) is a relatively new mechanism which requires compiler, linker and kernel support. Valgrind tries to automatically test if TLS is supported and if so enables this option. Sometimes it cannot test for TLS, so this option allows you to override the automatic test.

- `--with-vex=`

Specifies the path to the underlying VEX dynamic-translation library. By default this is taken to be in the VEX directory off the root of the source tree.

- `--enable-only64bit`

`--enable-only32bit`

On 64-bit platforms (`amd64-linux`, `ppc64-linux`), Valgrind is by default built in such a way that both 32-bit and 64-bit executables can be run. Sometimes this cleverness is a problem for a variety of reasons. These two flags allow for single-target builds in this situation. If you issue both, the configure script will complain. Note they are ignored on 32-bit-only platforms (`x86-linux`, `ppc32-linux`).

The `configure` script tests the version of the X server currently indicated by the current `$DISPLAY`. This is a known bug. The intention was to detect the version of the current X client libraries, so that correct suppressions could be selected for them, but instead the test checks the server version. This is just plain wrong.

If you are building a binary package of Valgrind for distribution, please read `README_PACKAGERS` [Readme Packagers](#). It contains some important information.

Apart from that, there's not much excitement here. Let us know if you have build problems.

2.10. If You Have Problems

Contact us at <http://www.valgrind.org/>.

See [Limitations](#) for the known limitations of Valgrind, and for a list of programs which are known not to work on it.

All parts of the system make heavy use of assertions and internal self-checks. They are permanently enabled, and we have no plans to disable them. If one of them breaks, please mail us!

If you get an assertion failure in `m_mallocfree.c`, this may have happened because your program wrote off the end of a malloc'd block, or before its beginning. Valgrind hopefully will have emitted a proper message to that effect before dying in this way. This is a known problem which we should fix.

Read the [Valgrind FAQ](#) for more advice about common problems, crashes, etc.

2.11. Limitations

The following list of limitations seems long. However, most programs actually work fine.

Valgrind will run Linux ELF binaries, on a kernel 2.4.X or 2.6.X system, on the x86, amd64, ppc32 and ppc64 architectures, subject to the following constraints:

- On x86 and amd64, there is no support for 3DNow! instructions. If the translator encounters these, Valgrind will generate a SIGILL when the instruction is executed. Apart from that, on x86 and amd64, essentially all instructions are supported, up to and including SSE3.

On ppc32 and ppc64, almost all integer, floating point and AltiVec instructions are supported. Specifically: integer and FP insns that are mandatory for PowerPC, the "General-purpose optional" group (`fsqrt`, `fsqrts`, `stfiwx`), the "Graphics optional" group (`fre`, `fres`, `frsqrt`, `frsqrtes`), and the AltiVec (also known as VMX) SIMD instruction set, are supported.

- Atomic instruction sequences are not properly supported, in the sense that their atomicity is not preserved. This will affect any use of synchronization via memory shared between processes. They will appear to work, but fail sporadically.
- If your program does its own memory management, rather than using malloc/new/free/delete, it should still work, but Memcheck's error checking won't be so effective. If you describe your program's memory management scheme using "client requests" (see [The Client Request mechanism](#)), Memcheck can do better. Nevertheless, using malloc/new and free/delete is still the best approach.
- Valgrind's signal simulation is not as robust as it could be. Basic POSIX-compliant sigaction and sigprocmask functionality is supplied, but it's conceivable that things could go badly awry if you do weird things with signals. Workaround: don't. Programs that do non-POSIX signal tricks are in any case inherently unportable, so should be avoided if possible.
- Machine instructions, and system calls, have been implemented on demand. So it's possible, although unlikely, that a program will fall over with a message to that effect. If this happens, please report all the details printed out, so we can try and implement the missing feature.
- Memory consumption of your program is majorly increased whilst running under Valgrind. This is due to the large amount of administrative information maintained behind the scenes. Another cause is that Valgrind dynamically translates the original executable. Translated, instrumented code is 12-18 times larger than the original so you can easily end up with 50+ MB of translations when running (eg) a web browser.
- Valgrind can handle dynamically-generated code just fine. If you regenerate code over the top of old code (ie. at the same memory addresses), if the code is on the stack Valgrind will realise the code has changed, and work correctly. This is necessary to handle the trampolines GCC uses to implement nested functions. If you regenerate code somewhere other than the stack, you will need to use the `--smc-check=all` flag, and Valgrind will run more slowly than normal.
- As of version 3.0.0, Valgrind has the following limitations in its implementation of x86/AMD64 floating point relative to IEEE754.

Precision: There is no support for 80 bit arithmetic. Internally, Valgrind represents all such "long double" numbers in 64 bits, and so there may be some differences in results. Whether or not this is critical remains to be seen. Note, the x86/amd64 fldt/fstpt instructions (read/write 80-bit numbers) are correctly simulated, using conversions to/from 64 bits, so that in-memory images of 80-bit numbers look correct if anyone wants to see.

The impression observed from many FP regression tests is that the accuracy differences aren't significant. Generally speaking, if a program relies on 80-bit precision, there may be difficulties porting it to non x86/amd64 platforms which only support 64-bit FP precision. Even on x86/amd64, the program may get different results depending on whether it is compiled to use SSE2 instructions (64-bits only), or x87 instructions (80-bit). The net effect is to make FP programs behave as if they had been run on a machine with 64-bit IEEE floats, for example PowerPC. On amd64 FP arithmetic is done by default on SSE2, so amd64 looks more like PowerPC than x86 from an FP perspective, and there are far fewer noticeable accuracy differences than with x86.

Rounding: Valgrind does observe the 4 IEEE-mandated rounding modes (to nearest, to +infinity, to -infinity, to zero) for the following conversions: float to integer, integer to float where there is a possibility of loss of precision, and float-to-float rounding. For all other FP operations, only the IEEE default mode (round to nearest) is supported.

Numeric exceptions in FP code: IEEE754 defines five types of numeric exception that can happen: invalid operation (sqrt of negative number, etc), division by zero, overflow, underflow, inexact (loss of precision).

For each exception, two courses of action are defined by IEEE754: either (1) a user-defined exception handler may be called, or (2) a default action is defined, which "fixes things up" and allows the computation to proceed without throwing an exception.

Currently Valgrind only supports the default fixup actions. Again, feedback on the importance of exception support would be appreciated.

When Valgrind detects that the program is trying to exceed any of these limitations (setting exception handlers, rounding mode, or precision control), it can print a message giving a traceback of where this has happened, and continue execution. This behaviour used to be the default, but the messages are annoying and so showing them is now disabled by default. Use `--show-emwarns=yes` to see them.

The above limitations define precisely the IEEE754 'default' behaviour: default fixup on all exceptions, round-to-nearest operations, and 64-bit precision.

- As of version 3.0.0, Valgrind has the following limitations in its implementation of x86/AMD64 SSE2 FP arithmetic, relative to IEEE754.

Essentially the same: no exceptions, and limited observance of rounding mode. Also, SSE2 has control bits which make it treat denormalised numbers as zero (DAZ) and a related action, flush denormals to zero (FTZ). Both of these cause SSE2 arithmetic to be less accurate than IEEE requires. Valgrind detects, ignores, and can warn about, attempts to enable either mode.

- As of version 3.2.0, Valgrind has the following limitations in its implementation of PPC32 and PPC64 floating point arithmetic, relative to IEEE754.

Scalar (non-Altivec): Valgrind provides a bit-exact emulation of all floating point instructions, except for "fre" and "fres", which are done more precisely than required by the PowerPC architecture specification. All floating point operations observe the current rounding mode.

However, `fpSCR[PPRF]` is not set after each operation. That could be done but would give measurable performance overheads, and so far no need for it has been found.

As on x86/AMD64, IEEE754 exceptions are not supported: all floating point exceptions are handled using the default IEEE fixup actions. Valgrind detects, ignores, and can warn about, attempts to unmask the 5 IEEE FP exception kinds by writing to the floating-point status and control register (`fpSCR`).

Vector (Altivec, VMX): essentially as with x86/AMD64 SSE/SSE2: no exceptions, and limited observance of rounding mode. For Altivec, FP arithmetic is done in IEEE/Java mode, which is more accurate than the Linux default setting. "More accurate" means that denormals are handled properly, rather than simply being flushed to zero.

Programs which are known not to work are:

- emacs starts up but immediately concludes it is out of memory and aborts. It may be that Memcheck does not provide a good enough emulation of the `mallinfo` function. Emacs works fine if you build it to use the standard `malloc/free` routines.

2.12. An Example Run

This is the log for a run of a small program using Memcheck. The program is in fact correct, and the reported error is as the result of a potentially serious code generation bug in GNU g++ (snapshot 20010527).

```
sewardj@phoenix:~/newmat10$ ~/Valgrind-6/valgrind -v ./bogon
==25832== Valgrind 0.10, a memory error detector for x86 RedHat 7.1.
==25832== Copyright (C) 2000-2001, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward.
==25832== Startup, with flags:
==25832== --suppressions=/home/sewardj/Valgrind/redhat71.supp
==25832== reading syms from /lib/ld-linux.so.2
==25832== reading syms from /lib/libc.so.6
==25832== reading syms from /mnt/pima/jrs/Inst/lib/libgcc_s.so.0
==25832== reading syms from /lib/libm.so.6
==25832== reading syms from /mnt/pima/jrs/Inst/lib/libstdc++.so.3
==25832== reading syms from /home/sewardj/Valgrind/valgrind.so
==25832== reading syms from /proc/self/exe
==25832==
==25832== Invalid read of size 4
==25832==    at 0x8048724: BandMatrix::ReSize(int,int,int) (bogon.cpp:45)
==25832==    by 0x80487AF: main (bogon.cpp:66)
==25832== Address 0xBFFFFFF74C is not stack'd, malloc'd or free'd
==25832==
==25832== ERROR SUMMARY: 1 errors from 1 contexts (suppressed: 0 from 0)
==25832== malloc/free: in use at exit: 0 bytes in 0 blocks.
==25832== malloc/free: 0 allocs, 0 frees, 0 bytes allocated.
==25832== For a detailed leak analysis, rerun with: --leak-check=yes
```

The GCC folks fixed this about a week before gcc-3.0 shipped.

2.13. Warning Messages You Might See

Most of these only appear if you run in verbose mode (enabled by `-v`):

- More than 100 errors detected. Subsequent errors will still be recorded, but in less detail than before.

After 100 different errors have been shown, Valgrind becomes more conservative about collecting them. It then requires only the program counters in the top two stack frames to match when deciding whether or not two errors are really the same one. Prior to this point, the PCs in the top four frames are required to match. This hack has the effect of slowing down the appearance of new errors after the first 100. The 100 constant can be changed by recompiling Valgrind.

- More than 1000 errors detected. I'm not reporting any more. Final error counts may be inaccurate. Go fix your program!

After 1000 different errors have been detected, Valgrind ignores any more. It seems unlikely that collecting even more different ones would be of practical help to anybody, and it avoids the danger that Valgrind spends more and more of its time comparing new errors against an ever-growing collection. As above, the 1000 number is a compile-time constant.

- Warning: `client switching stacks?`

Valgrind spotted such a large change in the stack pointer that it guesses the client is switching to a different stack. At this point it makes a kludgey guess where the base of the new stack is, and sets memory permissions accordingly. You may get many bogus error messages following this, if Valgrind guesses wrong. At the moment "large change" is defined as a change of more than 2000000 in the value of the stack pointer register.

- Warning: `client attempted to close Valgrind's logfile fd <number>`

Valgrind doesn't allow the client to close the logfile, because you'd never see any diagnostic information after that point. If you see this message, you may want to use the `--log-fd=<number>` option to specify a different logfile file-descriptor number.

- Warning: `noted but unhandled ioctl <number>`

Valgrind observed a call to one of the vast family of `ioctl` system calls, but did not modify its memory status info (because nobody has yet written a suitable wrapper). The call will still have gone through, but you may get spurious errors after this as a result of the non-update of the memory info.

- Warning: `set address range perms: large range <number>`

Diagnostic message, mostly for benefit of the Valgrind developers, to do with memory permissions.

3. Using and understanding the Valgrind core: Advanced Topics

This chapter describes advanced aspects of the Valgrind core services, which are mostly of interest to power users who wish to customise and modify Valgrind's default behaviours in certain useful ways. The subjects covered are:

- The "Client Request" mechanism
- Function Wrapping

3.1. The Client Request mechanism

Valgrind has a trapdoor mechanism via which the client program can pass all manner of requests and queries to Valgrind and the current tool. Internally, this is used extensively to make malloc, free, etc, work, although you don't see that.

For your convenience, a subset of these so-called client requests is provided to allow you to tell Valgrind facts about the behaviour of your program, and also to make queries. In particular, your program can tell Valgrind about changes in memory range permissions that Valgrind would not otherwise know about, and so allows clients to get Valgrind to do arbitrary custom checks.

Clients need to include a header file to make this work. Which header file depends on which client requests you use. Some client requests are handled by the core, and are defined in the header file `valgrind/valgrind.h`. Tool-specific header files are named after the tool, e.g. `valgrind/memcheck.h`. All header files can be found in the `include/valgrind` directory of wherever Valgrind was installed.

The macros in these header files have the magical property that they generate code in-line which Valgrind can spot. However, the code does nothing when not run on Valgrind, so you are not forced to run your program under Valgrind just because you use the macros in this file. Also, you are not required to link your program with any extra supporting libraries.

The code added to your binary has negligible performance impact: on x86, amd64, ppc32 and ppc64, the overhead is 6 simple integer instructions and is probably undetectable except in tight loops. However, if you really wish to compile out the client requests, you can compile with `-DNVALGRIND` (analogous to `-DNDEBUG`'s effect on `assert()`).

You are encouraged to copy the `valgrind/*.h` headers into your project's include directory, so your program doesn't have a compile-time dependency on Valgrind being installed. The Valgrind headers, unlike most of the rest of the code, are under a BSD-style license so you may include them without worrying about license incompatibility.

Here is a brief description of the macros available in `valgrind.h`, which work with more than one tool (see the tool-specific documentation for explanations of the tool-specific macros).

RUNNING_ON_VALGRIND:

Returns 1 if running on Valgrind, 0 if running on the real CPU. If you are running Valgrind on itself, returns the number of layers of Valgrind emulation you're running on.

VALGRIND_DISCARD_TRANSLATIONS:

Discards translations of code in the specified address range. Useful if you are debugging a JIT compiler or some other dynamic code generation system. After this call, attempts to execute code in the invalidated address range will cause Valgrind to make new translations of that code, which is probably the semantics you want. Note that code invalidations are expensive because finding all the relevant translations quickly is very difficult. So try not to call it often. Note that you can be clever about this: you only need to call it when an area which previously contained code is overwritten with new code. You can choose to write code into fresh memory, and just call this occasionally to discard large chunks of old code all at once.

Alternatively, for transparent self-modifying-code support, use `--smc-check=all`, or run on ppc32/Linux or ppc64/Linux.

VALGRIND_COUNT_ERRORS:

Returns the number of errors found so far by Valgrind. Can be useful in test harness code when combined with the `--log-fd=-1` option; this runs Valgrind silently, but the client program can detect when errors occur. Only useful for tools that report errors, e.g. it's useful for Memcheck, but for Cachegrind it will always return zero because Cachegrind doesn't report errors.

VALGRIND_MALLOCLIKE_BLOCK:

If your program manages its own memory instead of using the standard `malloc()` / `new` / `new[]`, tools that track information about heap blocks will not do nearly as good a job. For example, Memcheck won't detect nearly as many errors, and the error messages won't be as informative. To improve this situation, use this macro just after your custom allocator allocates some new memory. See the comments in `valgrind.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_FREELIKE_BLOCK:

This should be used in conjunction with `VALGRIND_MALLOCLIKE_BLOCK`. Again, see `memcheck/memcheck.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_CREATE_MEMPOOL:

This is similar to `VALGRIND_MALLOCLIKE_BLOCK`, but is tailored towards code that uses memory pools. See the comments in `valgrind.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_DESTROY_MEMPOOL:

This should be used in conjunction with `VALGRIND_CREATE_MEMPOOL`. Again, see the comments in `valgrind.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_ALLOC:

This should be used in conjunction with `VALGRIND_CREATE_MEMPOOL`. Again, see the comments in `valgrind.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_FREE:

This should be used in conjunction with `VALGRIND_CREATE_MEMPOOL`. Again, see the comments in `valgrind.h` for information on how to use it.

VALGRIND_NON_SIMD_CALL[0123]:

Executes a function of 0, 1, 2 or 3 args in the client program on the *real* CPU, not the virtual CPU that Valgrind normally runs code on. These are used in various ways internally to Valgrind. They might be useful to client programs.

Warning: Only use these if you *really* know what you are doing. They aren't entirely reliable, and can cause Valgrind to crash. Generally, your prospects of these working are made higher if the called function does not refer to any global variables, and does not refer to any libc or other functions (`printf` et al). Any kind of entanglement with libc or dynamic linking is likely to have a bad outcome, for tricky reasons which we've grappled with a lot in the past.

VALGRIND_PRINTF(format, ...):

printf a message to the log file when running under Valgrind. Nothing is output if not running under Valgrind. Returns the number of characters output.

VALGRIND_PRINTF_BACKTRACE(format, ...):

printf a message to the log file along with a stack backtrace when running under Valgrind. Nothing is output if not running under Valgrind. Returns the number of characters output.

VALGRIND_STACK_REGISTER(start, end):

Registers a new stack. Informs Valgrind that the memory range between start and end is a unique stack. Returns a stack identifier that can be used with other VALGRIND_STACK_* calls.

Valgrind will use this information to determine if a change to the stack pointer is an item pushed onto the stack or a change over to a new stack. Use this if you're using a user-level thread package and are noticing spurious errors from Valgrind about uninitialized memory reads.

VALGRIND_STACK_DEREGISTER(id):

Deregisters a previously registered stack. Informs Valgrind that previously registered memory range with stack id id is no longer a stack.

VALGRIND_STACK_CHANGE(id, start, end):

Changes a previously registered stack. Informs Valgrind that the previously registered stack with stack id id has changed its start and end values. Use this if your user-level thread package implements stack growth.

Note that `valgrind.h` is included by all the tool-specific header files (such as `memcheck.h`), so you don't need to include it in your client if you include a tool-specific header.

3.2. Function wrapping

Valgrind versions 3.2.0 and above can do function wrapping on all supported targets. In function wrapping, calls to some specified function are intercepted and rerouted to a different, user-supplied function. This can do whatever it likes, typically examining the arguments, calling onwards to the original, and possibly examining the result. Any number of functions may be wrapped.

Function wrapping is useful for instrumenting an API in some way. For example, wrapping functions in the POSIX pthreads API makes it possible to notify Valgrind of thread status changes, and wrapping functions in the MPI (message-passing) API allows notifying Valgrind of memory status changes associated with message arrival/departure. Such information is usually passed to Valgrind by using client requests in the wrapper functions, although that is not of relevance here.

3.2.1. A Simple Example

Supposing we want to wrap some function

```
int foo ( int x, int y ) { return x + y; }
```

A wrapper is a function of identical type, but with a special name which identifies it as the wrapper for `foo`. Wrappers need to include supporting macros from `valgrind.h`. Here is a simple wrapper which prints the arguments and return value:

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include "valgrind.h"
int I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZU(NONE,foo)( int x, int y )
{
    int result;
    OrigFn fn;
    VALGRIND_GET_ORIG_FN(fn);
    printf("foo's wrapper: args %d %d\n", x, y);
    CALL_FN_W_WW(result, fn, x,y);
    printf("foo's wrapper: result %d\n", result);
    return result;
}

```

To become active, the wrapper merely needs to be present in a text section somewhere in the same process' address space as the function it wraps, and for its ELF symbol name to be visible to Valgrind. In practice, this means either compiling to a `.o` and linking it in, or compiling to a `.so` and `LD_PRELOADING` it in. The latter is more convenient in that it doesn't require relinking.

All wrappers have approximately the above form. There are three crucial macros:

`I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZU`: this generates the real name of the wrapper. This is an encoded name which Valgrind notices when reading symbol table information. What it says is: I am the wrapper for any function named `foo` which is found in an ELF shared object with an empty ("NONE") soname field. The specification mechanism is powerful in that wildcards are allowed for both sonames and function names. The details are discussed below.

`VALGRIND_GET_ORIG_FN`: once in the the wrapper, the first priority is to get hold of the address of the original (and any other supporting information needed). This is stored in a value of opaque type `OrigFn`. The information is acquired using `VALGRIND_GET_ORIG_FN`. It is crucial to make this macro call before calling any other wrapped function in the same thread.

`CALL_FN_W_WW`: eventually we will want to call the function being wrapped. Calling it directly does not work, since that just gets us back to the wrapper and tends to kill the program in short order by stack overflow. Instead, the result lvalue, `OrigFn` and arguments are handed to one of a family of macros of the form `CALL_FN_*`. These cause Valgrind to call the original and avoid recursion back to the wrapper.

3.2.2. Wrapping Specifications

This scheme has the advantage of being self-contained. A library of wrappers can be compiled to object code in the normal way, and does not rely on an external script telling Valgrind which wrappers pertain to which originals.

Each wrapper has a name which, in the most general case says: I am the wrapper for any function whose name matches `FNPATT` and whose ELF "soname" matches `SOPATT`. Both `FNPATT` and `SOPATT` may contain wildcards (asterisks) and other characters (spaces, dots, `@`, etc) which are not generally regarded as valid C identifier names.

This flexibility is needed to write robust wrappers for POSIX pthread functions, where typically we are not completely sure of either the function name or the soname, or alternatively we want to wrap a whole set of functions at once.

For example, `pthread_create` in GNU libpthread is usually a versioned symbol - one whose name ends in, eg, `@GLIBC_2.3`. Hence we are not sure what its real name is. We also want to cover any soname of the form `libpthread.so*`. So the header of the wrapper will be

```
int I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZZ (libpthreadZdsoZd0, pthreadZucreateZAZa)
  ( ... formals ... )
  { ... body ... }
```

In order to write unusual characters as valid C function names, a Z-encoding scheme is used. Names are written literally, except that a capital Z acts as an escape character, with the following encoding:

```
Za  encodes  *
Zp          +
Zc          :
Zd          .
Zu          _
Zh          -
Zs          (space)
ZA          @
ZZ          Z
ZL          (      # only in valgrind 3.3.0 and later
ZR          )      # only in valgrind 3.3.0 and later
```

Hence `libpthreadZdsoZd0` is an encoding of the soname `libpthread.so.0` and `pthreadZucreateZAZa` is an encoding of the function name `pthread_create@*`.

The macro `I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZZ` constructs a wrapper name in which both the soname (first component) and function name (second component) are Z-encoded. Encoding the function name can be tiresome and is often unnecessary, so a second macro, `I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZU`, can be used instead. The `_ZU` variant is also useful for writing wrappers for C++ functions, in which the function name is usually already mangled using some other convention in which Z plays an important role. Having to encode a second time quickly becomes confusing.

Since the function name field may contain wildcards, it can be anything, including just `*`. The same is true for the soname. However, some ELF objects - specifically, main executables - do not have sonames. Any object lacking a soname is treated as if its soname was `NONE`, which is why the original example above had a name `I_WRAP_SONAME_FNNAME_ZU(NONE,foo)`.

Note that the soname of an ELF object is not the same as its file name, although it is often similar. You can find the soname of an object `libfoo.so` using the command `readelf -a libfoo.so | grep soname`.

3.2.3. Wrapping Semantics

The ability for a wrapper to replace an infinite family of functions is powerful but brings complications in situations where ELF objects appear and disappear (are `dlopen'd` and `dlclose'd`) on the fly. Valgrind tries to maintain sensible behaviour in such situations.

For example, suppose a process has `dlopened` (an ELF object with soname) `object1.so`, which contains `function1`. It starts to use `function1` immediately.

After a while it `dlopens` `wrappers.so`, which contains a wrapper for `function1` in (soname) `object1.so`. All subsequent calls to `function1` are rerouted to the wrapper.

If `wrappers.so` is later `dlclose'd`, calls to `function1` are naturally routed back to the original.

Alternatively, if `object1.so` is `dlclose'd` but `wrappers.so` remains, then the wrapper exported by `wrapper.so` becomes inactive, since there is no way to get to it - there is no original to call any more. However, Valgrind remembers that the wrapper is still present. If `object1.so` is eventually `dlopen'd` again, the wrapper will become active again.

In short, valgrind inspects all code loading/unloading events to ensure that the set of currently active wrappers remains consistent.

A second possible problem is that of conflicting wrappers. It is easily possible to load two or more wrappers, both of which claim to be wrappers for some third function. In such cases Valgrind will complain about conflicting wrappers when the second one appears, and will honour only the first one.

3.2.4. Debugging

Figuring out what's going on given the dynamic nature of wrapping can be difficult. The `--trace-redirect=yes` flag makes this possible by showing the complete state of the redirection subsystem after every `mmap/munmap` event affecting code (text).

There are two central concepts:

- A "redirection specification" is a binding of a (soname pattern, filename pattern) pair to a code address. These bindings are created by writing functions with names made with the `I_WRAP_SONAME_FILENAME_{ZZ, _ZU}` macros.
- An "active redirection" is code-address to code-address binding currently in effect.

The state of the wrapping-and-redirection subsystem comprises a set of specifications and a set of active bindings. The specifications are acquired/discarded by watching all `mmap/munmap` events on code (text) sections. The active binding set is (conceptually) recomputed from the specifications, and all known symbol names, following any change to the specification set.

`--trace-redirect=yes` shows the contents of both sets following any such event.

`-v` prints a line of text each time an active specification is used for the first time.

Hence for maximum debugging effectiveness you will need to use both flags.

One final comment. The function-wrapping facility is closely tied to Valgrind's ability to replace (redirect) specified functions, for example to redirect calls to `malloc` to its own implementation. Indeed, a replacement function can be regarded as a wrapper function which does not call the original. However, to make the implementation more robust, the two kinds of interception (wrapping vs replacement) are treated differently.

`--trace-redirect=yes` shows specifications and bindings for both replacement and wrapper functions. To differentiate the two, replacement bindings are printed using `R->` whereas wraps are printed using `W->`.

3.2.5. Limitations - control flow

For the most part, the function wrapping implementation is robust. The only important caveat is: in a wrapper, get hold of the `OrigFn` information using `VALGRIND_GET_ORIG_FN` before calling any other wrapped function. Once you have the `OrigFn`, arbitrary calls between, recursion between, and longjumps out of wrappers should work correctly. There is never any interaction between wrapped functions and merely replaced functions (eg `malloc`), so you can call `malloc` etc safely from within wrappers.

The above comments are true for `{x86,amd64,ppc32}-linux`. On `ppc64-linux` function wrapping is more fragile due to the (arguably poorly designed) `ppc64-linux` ABI. This mandates the use of a shadow stack which tracks entries/exits of

both wrapper and replacement functions. This gives two limitations: firstly, longjumping out of wrappers will rapidly lead to disaster, since the shadow stack will not get correctly cleared. Secondly, since the shadow stack has finite size, recursion between wrapper/replacement functions is only possible to a limited depth, beyond which Valgrind has to abort the run. This depth is currently 16 calls.

For all platforms ({x86,amd64,ppc32,ppc64}-linux) all the above comments apply on a per-thread basis. In other words, wrapping is thread-safe: each thread must individually observe the above restrictions, but there is no need for any kind of inter-thread cooperation.

3.2.6. Limitations - original function signatures

As shown in the above example, to call the original you must use a macro of the form `CALL_FN_*`. For technical reasons it is impossible to create a single macro to deal with all argument types and numbers, so a family of macros covering the most common cases is supplied. In what follows, 'W' denotes a machine-word-typed value (a pointer or a C long), and 'v' denotes C's void type. The currently available macros are:

```
CALL_FN_v_v      -- call an original of type void fn ( void )
CALL_FN_W_v      -- call an original of type long fn ( void )

CALL_FN_v_W      -- void fn ( long )
CALL_FN_W_W      -- long fn ( long )

CALL_FN_v_WW     -- void fn ( long, long )
CALL_FN_W_WW     -- long fn ( long, long )

CALL_FN_v_WWW    -- void fn ( long, long, long )
CALL_FN_W_WWW    -- long fn ( long, long, long )

CALL_FN_W_WWWW   -- long fn ( long, long, long, long )
CALL_FN_W_W5W    -- long fn ( long, long, long, long, long )
CALL_FN_W_W6W    -- long fn ( long, long, long, long, long, long )
and so on, up to
CALL_FN_W_12W
```

The set of supported types can be expanded as needed. It is regrettable that this limitation exists. Function wrapping has proven difficult to implement, with a certain apparently unavoidable level of ickyness. After several implementation attempts, the present arrangement appears to be the least-worst tradeoff. At least it works reliably in the presence of dynamic linking and dynamic code loading/unloading.

You should not attempt to wrap a function of one type signature with a wrapper of a different type signature. Such trickery will surely lead to crashes or strange behaviour. This is not of course a limitation of the function wrapping implementation, merely a reflection of the fact that it gives you sweeping powers to shoot yourself in the foot if you are not careful. Imagine the instant havoc you could wreak by writing a wrapper which matched any function name in any soname - in effect, one which claimed to be a wrapper for all functions in the process.

3.2.7. Examples

In the source tree, `memcheck/tests/wrap[1-8].c` provide a series of examples, ranging from very simple to quite advanced.

`auxprogs/libmpwrap.c` is an example of wrapping a big, complex API (the MPI-2 interface). This file defines almost 300 different wrappers.

4. Memcheck: a heavyweight memory checker

To use this tool, you may specify `--tool=memcheck` on the Valgrind command line. You don't have to, though, since Memcheck is the default tool.

4.1. Kinds of bugs that Memcheck can find

Memcheck is Valgrind's heavyweight memory checking tool. All reads and writes of memory are checked, and calls to `malloc/new/free/delete` are intercepted. As a result, Memcheck can detect the following problems:

- Use of uninitialised memory
- Reading/writing memory after it has been free'd
- Reading/writing off the end of malloc'd blocks
- Reading/writing inappropriate areas on the stack
- Memory leaks - where pointers to malloc'd blocks are lost forever
- Mismatched use of `malloc/new/new []` vs `free/delete/delete []`
- Overlapping `src` and `dst` pointers in `memcpy()` and related functions

4.2. Command-line flags specific to Memcheck

`--undef-value-errors=<yes|no>` [default: yes]

Controls whether `memcheck` reports uses of undefined value errors. Set this to `no` if you don't want to see undefined value errors. It also has the side effect of speeding up `memcheck` somewhat.

```
--track-origins=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

Controls whether memcheck tracks the origin of uninitialised values. By default, it does not, which means that although it can tell you that an uninitialised value is being used in a dangerous way, it cannot tell you where the uninitialised value came from. This often makes it difficult to track down the root problem.

When set to `yes`, memcheck keeps track of the origins of all uninitialised values. Then, when an uninitialised value error is reported, memcheck will try to show the origin of the value. An origin can be one of the following four places: a heap block, a stack allocation, a client request, or miscellaneous other sources (eg, a call to `brk`).

For uninitialised values originating from a heap block, memcheck shows where the block was allocated. For uninitialised values originating from a stack allocation, memcheck can tell you which function allocated the value, but no more than that -- typically it shows you the source location of the opening brace of the function. So you should carefully check that all of the function's local variables are initialised properly.

Performance overhead: origin tracking is expensive. It halves memcheck's speed and increases memory use by a minimum of 100MB, and possibly more. Nevertheless it can drastically reduce the effort required to identify the root cause of uninitialised value errors, and so is often a programmer productivity win, despite running more slowly.

Accuracy: memcheck tracks origins quite accurately. To avoid very large space and time overheads, some approximations are made. It is possible, although unlikely, that memcheck will report an incorrect origin, or not be able to identify any origin.

Note that the combination `--track-origins=yes` and `--undef-value-errors=no` is nonsensical. memcheck checks for and rejects this combination at startup.

Origin tracking is a new feature, introduced in Valgrind version 3.4.0.

```
--leak-check=<no|summary|yes|full> [default: summary]
```

When enabled, search for memory leaks when the client program finishes. A memory leak means a malloc'd block, which has not yet been free'd, but to which no pointer can be found. Such a block can never be free'd by the program, since no pointer to it exists. If set to `summary`, it says how many leaks occurred. If set to `full` or `yes`, it gives details of each individual leak.

```
--show-reachable=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

When disabled, the memory leak detector only shows blocks for which it cannot find a pointer to at all, or it can only find a pointer to the middle of. These blocks are prime candidates for memory leaks. When enabled, the leak detector also reports on blocks which it could find a pointer to. Your program could, at least in principle, have freed such blocks before exit. Contrast this to blocks for which no pointer, or only an interior pointer could be found: they are more likely to indicate memory leaks, because you do not actually have a pointer to the start of the block which you can hand to `free`, even if you wanted to.

```
--leak-resolution=<low|med|high> [default: low]
```

When doing leak checking, determines how willing memcheck is to consider different backtraces to be the same. When set to `low`, only the first two entries need match. When `med`, four entries have to match. When `high`, all entries need to match.

For hardcore leak debugging, you probably want to use `--leak-resolution=high` together with `--num-callers=40` or some such large number. Note however that this can give an overwhelming amount of information, which is why the defaults are 4 callers and low-resolution matching.

Note that the `--leak-resolution=` setting does not affect memcheck's ability to find leaks. It only changes how the results are presented.

`--freelist-vol=<number> [default: 10000000]`

When the client program releases memory using `free` (in C) or `delete` (C++), that memory is not immediately made available for re-allocation. Instead, it is marked inaccessible and placed in a queue of freed blocks. The purpose is to defer as long as possible the point at which freed-up memory comes back into circulation. This increases the chance that `memcheck` will be able to detect invalid accesses to blocks for some significant period of time after they have been freed.

This flag specifies the maximum total size, in bytes, of the blocks in the queue. The default value is ten million bytes. Increasing this increases the total amount of memory used by `memcheck` but may detect invalid uses of freed blocks which would otherwise go undetected.

`--workaround-gcc296-bugs=<yes|no> [default: no]`

When enabled, assume that reads and writes some small distance below the stack pointer are due to bugs in gcc 2.96, and does not report them. The "small distance" is 256 bytes by default. Note that gcc 2.96 is the default compiler on some ancient Linux distributions (RedHat 7.X) and so you may need to use this flag. Do not use it if you do not have to, as it can cause real errors to be overlooked. A better alternative is to use a more recent gcc/g++ in which this bug is fixed.

You may also need to use this flag when working with gcc/g++ 3.X or 4.X on 32-bit PowerPC Linux. This is because gcc/g++ generates code which occasionally accesses below the stack pointer, particularly for floating-point to/from integer conversions. This is in violation of the 32-bit PowerPC ELF specification, which makes no provision for locations below the stack pointer to be accessible.

`--partial-loads-ok=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Controls how `memcheck` handles word-sized, word-aligned loads from addresses for which some bytes are addressable and others are not. When `yes`, such loads do not produce an address error. Instead, loaded bytes originating from illegal addresses are marked as uninitialised, and those corresponding to legal addresses are handled in the normal way.

When `no`, loads from partially invalid addresses are treated the same as loads from completely invalid addresses: an illegal-address error is issued, and the resulting bytes are marked as initialised.

Note that code that behaves in this way is in violation of the the ISO C/C++ standards, and should be considered broken. If at all possible, such code should be fixed. This flag should be used only as a last resort.

`--malloc-fill=<hexnumber>`

Fills blocks allocated by `malloc`, `new`, etc, but not by `calloc`, with the specified byte. This can be useful when trying to shake out obscure memory corruption problems. The allocated area is still regarded by Memcheck as undefined -- this flag only affects its contents.

```
--free-fill=<hexnumber>
```

Fills blocks freed by `free`, `delete`, etc, with the specified byte. This can be useful when trying to shake out obscure memory corruption problems. The freed area is still regarded by Memcheck as not valid for access -- this flag only affects its contents.

4.3. Explanation of error messages from Memcheck

Despite considerable sophistication under the hood, Memcheck can only really detect two kinds of errors: use of illegal addresses, and use of undefined values. Nevertheless, this is enough to help you discover all sorts of memory-management problems in your code. This section presents a quick summary of what error messages mean. The precise behaviour of the error-checking machinery is described in [Details of Memcheck's checking machinery](#).

4.3.1. Illegal read / Illegal write errors

For example:

```
Invalid read of size 4
  at 0x40F6BBCC: (within /usr/lib/libpng.so.2.1.0.9)
  by 0x40F6B804: (within /usr/lib/libpng.so.2.1.0.9)
  by 0x40B07FF4: read_png_image(QImageIO *) (kernel/qpngio.cpp:326)
  by 0x40AC751B: QImageIO::read() (kernel/qimage.cpp:3621)
Address 0xBFFFFFF0E0 is not stack'd, malloc'd or free'd
```

This happens when your program reads or writes memory at a place which Memcheck reckons it shouldn't. In this example, the program did a 4-byte read at address `0xBFFFFFF0E0`, somewhere within the system-supplied library `libpng.so.2.1.0.9`, which was called from somewhere else in the same library, called from line 326 of `qpngio.cpp`, and so on.

Memcheck tries to establish what the illegal address might relate to, since that's often useful. So, if it points into a block of memory which has already been freed, you'll be informed of this, and also where the block was free'd at. Likewise, if it should turn out to be just off the end of a malloc'd block, a common result of off-by-one-errors in array subscripting, you'll be informed of this fact, and also where the block was malloc'd.

In this example, Memcheck can't identify the address. Actually the address is on the stack, but, for some reason, this is not a valid stack address -- it is below the stack pointer and that isn't allowed. In this particular case it's probably caused by gcc generating invalid code, a known bug in some ancient versions of gcc.

Note that Memcheck only tells you that your program is about to access memory at an illegal address. It can't stop the access from happening. So, if your program makes an access which normally would result in a segmentation fault, your program will still suffer the same fate -- but you will get a message from Memcheck immediately prior to this. In this particular example, reading junk on the stack is non-fatal, and the program stays alive.

4.3.2. Use of uninitialised values

For example:

```
Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialised value(s)
  at 0x402DFA94: _IO_vfprintf (_itoa.h:49)
  by 0x402E8476: _IO_printf (printf.c:36)
  by 0x8048472: main (tests/manuell.c:8)
```

An uninitialised-value use error is reported when your program uses a value which hasn't been initialised -- in other words, is undefined. Here, the undefined value is used somewhere inside the `printf()` machinery of the C library. This error was reported when running the following small program:

```
int main()
{
  int x;
  printf ("x = %d\n", x);
}
```

It is important to understand that your program can copy around junk (uninitialised) data as much as it likes. Memcheck observes this and keeps track of the data, but does not complain. A complaint is issued only when your program attempts to make use of uninitialised data. In this example, `x` is uninitialised. Memcheck observes the value being passed to `_IO_printf` and thence to `_IO_vfprintf`, but makes no comment. However, `_IO_vfprintf` has to examine the value of `x` so it can turn it into the corresponding ASCII string, and it is at this point that Memcheck complains.

Sources of uninitialised data tend to be:

- Local variables in procedures which have not been initialised, as in the example above.
- The contents of `malloc`'d blocks, before you write something there. In C++, the `new` operator is a wrapper round `malloc`, so if you create an object with `new`, its fields will be uninitialised until you (or the constructor) fill them in.

To see information on the sources of uninitialised data in your program, use the `--track-origins=yes` flag. This makes Memcheck run more slowly, but can make it much easier to track down the root causes of uninitialised value errors.

4.3.3. Illegal frees

For example:

```
Invalid free()
  at 0x4004FFDF: free (vg_clientmalloc.c:577)
  by 0x80484C7: main (tests/doublefree.c:10)
Address 0x3807F7B4 is 0 bytes inside a block of size 177 free'd
  at 0x4004FFDF: free (vg_clientmalloc.c:577)
  by 0x80484C7: main (tests/doublefree.c:10)
```

Memcheck keeps track of the blocks allocated by your program with `malloc/new`, so it can know exactly whether or not the argument to `free/delete` is legitimate or not. Here, this test program has freed the same block twice. As with

the illegal read/write errors, Memcheck attempts to make sense of the address free'd. If, as here, the address is one which has previously been freed, you will be told that -- making duplicate frees of the same block easy to spot.

4.3.4. When a block is freed with an inappropriate deallocation function

In the following example, a block allocated with `new []` has wrongly been deallocated with `free`:

```
Mismatched free() / delete / delete []
  at 0x40043249: free (vg_clientfuncs.c:171)
  by 0x4102BB4E: QGArray::~QGArray(void) (tools/qgarray.cpp:149)
  by 0x4C261C41: PptDoc::~PptDoc(void) (include/qmemarray.h:60)
  by 0x4C261F0E: PptXml::~PptXml(void) (pptxml.cc:44)
Address 0x4BB292A8 is 0 bytes inside a block of size 64 alloc'd
  at 0x4004318C: operator new[](unsigned int) (vg_clientfuncs.c:152)
  by 0x4C21BC15: KLaola::readSBStream(int) const (klaola.cc:314)
  by 0x4C21C155: KLaola::stream(KLaola::OLENode const *) (klaola.cc:416)
  by 0x4C21788F: OLEFilter::convert(QCString const &) (olefilter.cc:272)
```

In C++ it's important to deallocate memory in a way compatible with how it was allocated. The deal is:

- If allocated with `malloc`, `calloc`, `realloc`, `valloc` or `memalign`, you must deallocate with `free`.
- If allocated with `new []`, you must deallocate with `delete []`.
- If allocated with `new`, you must deallocate with `delete`.

The worst thing is that on Linux apparently it doesn't matter if you do mix these up, but the same program may then crash on a different platform, Solaris for example. So it's best to fix it properly. According to the KDE folks "it's amazing how many C++ programmers don't know this".

The reason behind the requirement is as follows. In some C++ implementations, `delete []` must be used for objects allocated by `new []` because the compiler stores the size of the array and the pointer-to-member to the destructor of the array's content just before the pointer actually returned. This implies a variable-sized overhead in what's returned by `new` or `new []`.

4.3.5. Passing system call parameters with inadequate read/write permissions

Memcheck checks all parameters to system calls:

- It checks all the direct parameters themselves.
- Also, if a system call needs to read from a buffer provided by your program, Memcheck checks that the entire buffer is addressable and has valid data, ie, it is readable.
- Also, if the system call needs to write to a user-supplied buffer, Memcheck checks that the buffer is addressable.

After the system call, Memcheck updates its tracked information to precisely reflect any changes in memory permissions caused by the system call.

Here's an example of two system calls with invalid parameters:

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main( void )
{
    char* arr = malloc(10);
    int* arr2 = malloc(sizeof(int));
    write( 1 /* stdout */, arr, 10 );
    exit(arr2[0]);
}
```

You get these complaints ...

```
Syscall param write(buf) points to uninitialised byte(s)
  at 0x25A48723: __write_nocancel (in /lib/tls/libc-2.3.3.so)
  by 0x259AFAD3: __libc_start_main (in /lib/tls/libc-2.3.3.so)
  by 0x8048348: (within /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head4/a.out)
Address 0x25AB8028 is 0 bytes inside a block of size 10 alloc'd
  at 0x259852B0: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:130)
  by 0x80483F1: main (a.c:5)

Syscall param exit(error_code) contains uninitialised byte(s)
  at 0x25A21B44: __GI__exit (in /lib/tls/libc-2.3.3.so)
  by 0x8048426: main (a.c:8)
```

... because the program has (a) tried to write uninitialised junk from the malloc'd block to the standard output, and (b) passed an uninitialised value to `exit`. Note that the first error refers to the memory pointed to by `buf` (not `buf` itself), but the second error refers directly to `exit`'s argument `arr2[0]`.

4.3.6. Overlapping source and destination blocks

The following C library functions copy some data from one memory block to another (or something similar): `memcpy()`, `strcpy()`, `strncpy()`, `strcat()`, `strncat()`. The blocks pointed to by their `src` and `dst` pointers aren't allowed to overlap. Memcheck checks for this.

For example:

```
==27492== Source and destination overlap in memcpy(0xbffff294, 0xbffff280, 21)
==27492==   at 0x40026CDC: memcpy (mc_replace_strmem.c:71)
==27492==   by 0x804865A: main (overlap.c:40)
```

You don't want the two blocks to overlap because one of them could get partially overwritten by the copying.

You might think that Memcheck is being overly pedantic reporting this in the case where `dst` is less than `src`. For example, the obvious way to implement `memcpy()` is by copying from the first byte to the last. However, the optimisation guides of some architectures recommend copying from the last byte down to the first. Also, some implementations of `memcpy()` zero `dst` before copying, because zeroing the destination's cache line(s) can improve performance.

In addition, for many of these functions, the POSIX standards have wording along the lines "If copying takes place between objects that overlap, the behavior is undefined." Hence overlapping copies violate the standard.

The moral of the story is: if you want to write truly portable code, don't make any assumptions about the language implementation.

4.3.7. Memory leak detection

Memcheck keeps track of all memory blocks issued in response to calls to `malloc/calloc/realloc/new`. So when the program exits, it knows which blocks have not been freed.

If `--leak-check` is set appropriately, for each remaining block, Memcheck scans the entire address space of the process, looking for pointers to the block. Each block fits into one of the three following categories.

- **Still reachable:** A pointer to the start of the block is found. This usually indicates programming sloppiness. Since the block is still pointed at, the programmer could, at least in principle, free it before program exit. Because these are very common and arguably not a problem, Memcheck won't report such blocks unless `--show-reachable=yes` is specified.
- **Possibly lost, or "dubious":** A pointer to the interior of the block is found. The pointer might originally have pointed to the start and have been moved along, or it might be entirely unrelated. Memcheck deems such a block as "dubious", because it's unclear whether or not a pointer to it still exists.
- **Definitely lost, or "leaked":** The worst outcome is that no pointer to the block can be found. The block is classified as "leaked", because the programmer could not possibly have freed it at program exit, since no pointer to it exists. This is likely a symptom of having lost the pointer at some earlier point in the program.

For each block mentioned, Memcheck will also tell you where the block was allocated. It cannot tell you how or why the pointer to a leaked block has been lost; you have to work that out for yourself. In general, you should attempt to ensure your programs do not have any leaked or dubious blocks at exit.

For example:

```
8 bytes in 1 blocks are definitely lost in loss record 1 of 14
  at 0x.....: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:...)
  by 0x.....: mk (leak-tree.c:11)
  by 0x.....: main (leak-tree.c:39)

88 (8 direct, 80 indirect) bytes in 1 blocks are definitely lost
      in loss record 13 of 14
  at 0x.....: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:...)
  by 0x.....: mk (leak-tree.c:11)
  by 0x.....: main (leak-tree.c:25)
```

The first message describes a simple case of a single 8 byte block that has been definitely lost. The second case mentions both "direct" and "indirect" leaks. The distinction is that a direct leak is a block which has no pointers to it. An indirect leak is a block which is only pointed to by other leaked blocks. Both kinds of leak are bad.

The precise area of memory in which Memcheck searches for pointers is: all naturally-aligned machine-word-sized words found in memory that Memcheck's records indicate is both accessible and initialised.

4.4. Writing suppression files

The basic suppression format is described in [Suppressing errors](#).

The suppression-type (second) line should have the form:

```
Memcheck:suppression_type
```

The Memcheck suppression types are as follows:

- `Value1, Value2, Value4, Value8, Value16`, meaning an uninitialised-value error when using a value of 1, 2, 4, 8 or 16 bytes.
- `Cond` (or its old name, `Value0`), meaning use of an uninitialised CPU condition code.
- `Addr1, Addr2, Addr4, Addr8, Addr16`, meaning an invalid address during a memory access of 1, 2, 4, 8 or 16 bytes respectively.
- `Jump`, meaning an jump to an unaddressable location error.
- `Param`, meaning an invalid system call parameter error.
- `Free`, meaning an invalid or mismatching free.
- `Overlap`, meaning a `src / dst` overlap in `memcpy ()` or a similar function.
- `Leak`, meaning a memory leak.

Param errors have an extra information line at this point, which is the name of the offending system call parameter. No other error kinds have this extra line.

The first line of the calling context: for Value and Addr errors, it is either the name of the function in which the error occurred, or, failing that, the full path of the .so file or executable containing the error location. For Free errors, is the name of the function doing the freeing (eg, `free`, `__builtin_vec_delete`, etc). For Overlap errors, is the name of the function with the overlapping arguments (eg. `memcpy()`, `strcpy()`, etc).

Lastly, there's the rest of the calling context.

4.5. Details of Memcheck's checking machinery

Read this section if you want to know, in detail, exactly what and how Memcheck is checking.

4.5.1. Valid-value (V) bits

It is simplest to think of Memcheck implementing a synthetic CPU which is identical to a real CPU, except for one crucial detail. Every bit (literally) of data processed, stored and handled by the real CPU has, in the synthetic CPU, an associated "valid-value" bit, which says whether or not the accompanying bit has a legitimate value. In the discussions which follow, this bit is referred to as the V (valid-value) bit.

Each byte in the system therefore has a 8 V bits which follow it wherever it goes. For example, when the CPU loads a word-size item (4 bytes) from memory, it also loads the corresponding 32 V bits from a bitmap which stores the V bits for the process' entire address space. If the CPU should later write the whole or some part of that value to memory at a different address, the relevant V bits will be stored back in the V-bit bitmap.

In short, each bit in the system has an associated V bit, which follows it around everywhere, even inside the CPU. Yes, all the CPU's registers (integer, floating point, vector and condition registers) have their own V bit vectors.

Copying values around does not cause Memcheck to check for, or report on, errors. However, when a value is used in a way which might conceivably affect the outcome of your program's computation, the associated V bits are immediately checked. If any of these indicate that the value is undefined, an error is reported.

Here's an (admittedly nonsensical) example:

```
int i, j;
int a[10], b[10];
for ( i = 0; i < 10; i++ ) {
    j = a[i];
    b[i] = j;
}
```

Memcheck emits no complaints about this, since it merely copies uninitialised values from `a[]` into `b[]`, and doesn't use them in a way which could affect the behaviour of the program. However, if the loop is changed to:

```
for ( i = 0; i < 10; i++ ) {
    j += a[i];
}
if ( j == 77 )
    printf("hello there\n");
```

then Memcheck will complain, at the `if`, that the condition depends on uninitialised values. Note that it **doesn't** complain at the `j += a[i];`, since at that point the undefinedness is not "observable". It's only when a decision has to be made as to whether or not to do the `printf` -- an observable action of your program -- that Memcheck complains.

Most low level operations, such as adds, cause Memcheck to use the V bits for the operands to calculate the V bits for the result. Even if the result is partially or wholly undefined, it does not complain.

Checks on definedness only occur in three places: when a value is used to generate a memory address, when control flow decision needs to be made, and when a system call is detected, Memcheck checks definedness of parameters as required.

If a check should detect undefinedness, an error message is issued. The resulting value is subsequently regarded as well-defined. To do otherwise would give long chains of error messages. In other words, once Memcheck reports an undefined value error, it tries to avoid reporting further errors derived from that same undefined value.

This sounds overcomplicated. Why not just check all reads from memory, and complain if an undefined value is loaded into a CPU register? Well, that doesn't work well, because perfectly legitimate C programs routinely copy uninitialised values around in memory, and we don't want endless complaints about that. Here's the canonical example. Consider a struct like this:

```
struct S { int x; char c; };
struct S s1, s2;
s1.x = 42;
s1.c = 'z';
s2 = s1;
```

The question to ask is: how large is `struct S`, in bytes? An `int` is 4 bytes and a `char` one byte, so perhaps a `struct S` occupies 5 bytes? Wrong. All non-toy compilers we know of will round the size of `struct S` up to a whole number of words, in this case 8 bytes. Not doing this forces compilers to generate truly appalling code for accessing arrays of `struct S`'s on some architectures.

So `s1` occupies 8 bytes, yet only 5 of them will be initialised. For the assignment `s2 = s1`, `gcc` generates code to copy all 8 bytes wholesale into `s2` without regard for their meaning. If Memcheck simply checked values as they came out of memory, it would yelp every time a structure assignment like this happened. So the more complicated behaviour described above is necessary. This allows `gcc` to copy `s1` into `s2` any way it likes, and a warning will only be emitted if the uninitialised values are later used.

4.5.2. Valid-address (A) bits

Notice that the previous subsection describes how the validity of values is established and maintained without having to say whether the program does or does not have the right to access any particular memory location. We now consider the latter question.

As described above, every bit in memory or in the CPU has an associated valid-value (V) bit. In addition, all bytes in memory, but not in the CPU, have an associated valid-address (A) bit. This indicates whether or not the program can legitimately read or write that location. It does not give any indication of the validity or the data at that location -- that's the job of the V bits -- only whether or not the location may be accessed.

Every time your program reads or writes memory, Memcheck checks the A bits associated with the address. If any of them indicate an invalid address, an error is emitted. Note that the reads and writes themselves do not change the A bits, only consult them.

So how do the A bits get set/cleared? Like this:

- When the program starts, all the global data areas are marked as accessible.
- When the program does `malloc/new`, the A bits for exactly the area allocated, and not a byte more, are marked as accessible. Upon freeing the area the A bits are changed to indicate inaccessibility.
- When the stack pointer register (`SP`) moves up or down, A bits are set. The rule is that the area from `SP` up to the base of the stack is marked as accessible, and below `SP` is inaccessible. (If that sounds illogical, bear in mind that the stack grows down, not up, on almost all Unix systems, including GNU/Linux.) Tracking `SP` like this has the useful side-effect that the section of stack used by a function for local variables etc is automatically marked accessible on function entry and inaccessible on exit.
- When doing system calls, A bits are changed appropriately. For example, `mmap` magically makes files appear in the process' address space, so the A bits must be updated if `mmap` succeeds.
- Optionally, your program can tell Memcheck about such changes explicitly, using the client request mechanism described above.

4.5.3. Putting it all together

Memcheck's checking machinery can be summarised as follows:

- Each byte in memory has 8 associated V (valid-value) bits, saying whether or not the byte has a defined value, and a single A (valid-address) bit, saying whether or not the program currently has the right to read/write that address.
- When memory is read or written, the relevant A bits are consulted. If they indicate an invalid address, Memcheck emits an Invalid read or Invalid write error.
- When memory is read into the CPU's registers, the relevant V bits are fetched from memory and stored in the simulated CPU. They are not consulted.
- When a register is written out to memory, the V bits for that register are written back to memory too.
- When values in CPU registers are used to generate a memory address, or to determine the outcome of a conditional branch, the V bits for those values are checked, and an error emitted if any of them are undefined.
- When values in CPU registers are used for any other purpose, Memcheck computes the V bits for the result, but does not check them.
- Once the V bits for a value in the CPU have been checked, they are then set to indicate validity. This avoids long chains of errors.
- When values are loaded from memory, Memcheck checks the A bits for that location and issues an illegal-address warning if needed. In that case, the V bits loaded are forced to indicate Valid, despite the location being invalid.

This apparently strange choice reduces the amount of confusing information presented to the user. It avoids the unpleasant phenomenon in which memory is read from a place which is both unaddressable and contains invalid values, and, as a result, you get not only an invalid-address (read/write) error, but also a potentially large set of uninitialised-value errors, one for every time the value is used.

There is a hazy boundary case to do with multi-byte loads from addresses which are partially valid and partially invalid. See details of the flag `--partial-loads-ok` for details.

Memcheck intercepts calls to `malloc`, `calloc`, `realloc`, `valloc`, `memalign`, `free`, `new`, `new[]`, `delete` and `delete[]`. The behaviour you get is:

- `malloc/new/new[]`: the returned memory is marked as addressable but not having valid values. This means you have to write to it before you can read it.
- `calloc`: returned memory is marked both addressable and valid, since `calloc` clears the area to zero.
- `realloc`: if the new size is larger than the old, the new section is addressable but invalid, as with `malloc`.
- If the new size is smaller, the dropped-off section is marked as unaddressable. You may only pass to `realloc` a pointer previously issued to you by `malloc/calloc/realloc`.
- `free/delete/delete[]`: you may only pass to these functions a pointer previously issued to you by the corresponding allocation function. Otherwise, Memcheck complains. If the pointer is indeed valid, Memcheck marks the entire area it points at as unaddressable, and places the block in the freed-blocks-queue. The aim is to defer as long as possible reallocation of this block. Until that happens, all attempts to access it will elicit an invalid-address error, as you would hope.

4.6. Client Requests

The following client requests are defined in `memcheck.h`. See `memcheck.h` for exact details of their arguments.

- `VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_NOACCESS`, `VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_UNDEFINED` and `VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_DEFINED`. These mark address ranges as completely inaccessible, accessible but containing undefined data, and accessible and containing defined data, respectively. Subsequent errors may have their faulting addresses described in terms of these blocks. Returns a "block handle". Returns zero when not run on Valgrind.
- `VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_DEFINED_IF_ADDRESSABLE`. This is just like `VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_DEFINED` but only affects those bytes that are already addressable.
- `VALGRIND_DISCARD`: At some point you may want Valgrind to stop reporting errors in terms of the blocks defined by the previous three macros. To do this, the above macros return a small-integer "block handle". You can pass this block handle to `VALGRIND_DISCARD`. After doing so, Valgrind will no longer be able to relate addressing errors to the user-defined block associated with the handle. The permissions settings associated with the handle remain in place; this just affects how errors are reported, not whether they are reported. Returns 1 for an invalid handle and 0 for a valid handle (although passing invalid handles is harmless). Always returns 0 when not run on Valgrind.
- `VALGRIND_CHECK_MEM_IS_ADDRESSABLE` and `VALGRIND_CHECK_MEM_IS_DEFINED`: check immediately whether or not the given address range has the relevant property, and if not, print an error message. Also, for the convenience of the client, returns zero if the relevant property holds; otherwise, the returned value is the address of the first byte for which the property is not true. Always returns 0 when not run on Valgrind.
- `VALGRIND_CHECK_VALUE_IS_DEFINED`: a quick and easy way to find out whether Valgrind thinks a particular value (`lvalue`, to be precise) is addressable and defined. Prints an error message if not. Returns no value.
- `VALGRIND_DO_LEAK_CHECK`: runs the memory leak detector right now. Is useful for incrementally checking for leaks between arbitrary places in the program's execution. Returns no value.

- `VALGRIND_COUNT_LEAKS`: fills in the four arguments with the number of bytes of memory found by the previous leak check to be leaked, dubious, reachable and suppressed. Again, useful in test harness code, after calling `VALGRIND_DO_LEAK_CHECK`.
- `VALGRIND_GET_VBITS` and `VALGRIND_SET_VBITS`: allow you to get and set the V (validity) bits for an address range. You should probably only set V bits that you have got with `VALGRIND_GET_VBITS`. Only for those who really know what they are doing.

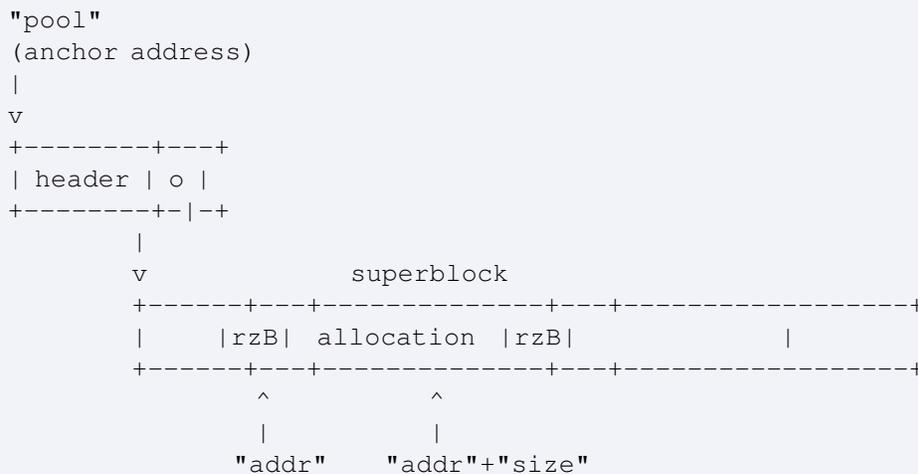
4.7. Memory Pools: describing and working with custom allocators

Some programs use custom memory allocators, often for performance reasons. Left to itself, Memcheck is unable to "understand" the behaviour of custom allocation schemes and so may miss errors and leaks in your program. What this section describes is a way to give Memcheck enough of a description of your custom allocator that it can make at least some sense of what is happening.

There are many different sorts of custom allocator, so Memcheck attempts to reason about them using a loose, abstract model. We use the following terminology when describing custom allocation systems:

- Custom allocation involves a set of independent "memory pools".
- Memcheck's notion of a memory pool consists of a single "anchor address" and a set of non-overlapping "chunks" associated with the anchor address.
- Typically a pool's anchor address is the address of a book-keeping "header" structure.
- Typically the pool's chunks are drawn from a contiguous "superblock" acquired through the system `malloc()` or `mmap()`.

Keep in mind that the last two points above say "typically": the Valgrind mempool client request API is intentionally vague about the exact structure of a mempool. There is no specific mention made of headers or superblocks. Nevertheless, the following picture may help elucidate the intention of the terms in the API:



Note that the header and the superblock may be contiguous or discontinuous, and there may be multiple superblocks associated with a single header; such variations are opaque to Memcheck. The API only requires that your allocation scheme can present sensible values of "pool", "addr" and "size".

Typically, before making client requests related to mempools, a client program will have allocated such a header and superblock for their mempool, and marked the superblock NOACCESS using the VALGRIND_MAKE_MEM_NOACCESS client request.

When dealing with mempools, the goal is to maintain a particular invariant condition: that Memcheck believes the unallocated portions of the pool's superblock (including redzones) are NOACCESS. To maintain this invariant, the client program must ensure that the superblock starts out in that state; Memcheck cannot make it so, since Memcheck never explicitly learns about the superblock of a pool, only the allocated chunks within the pool.

Once the header and superblock for a pool are established and properly marked, there are a number of client requests programs can use to inform Memcheck about changes to the state of a mempool:

- VALGRIND_CREATE_MEMPOOL(pool, rzB, is_zeroed): This request registers the address "pool" as the anchor address for a memory pool. It also provides a size "rzB", specifying how large the redzones placed around chunks allocated from the pool should be. Finally, it provides an "is_zeroed" flag that specifies whether the pool's chunks are zeroed (more precisely: defined) when allocated.

Upon completion of this request, no chunks are associated with the pool. The request simply tells Memcheck that the pool exists, so that subsequent calls can refer to it as a pool.

- VALGRIND_DESTROY_MEMPOOL(pool): This request tells Memcheck that a pool is being torn down. Memcheck then removes all records of chunks associated with the pool, as well as its record of the pool's existence. While destroying its records of a mempool, Memcheck resets the redzones of any live chunks in the pool to NOACCESS.
- VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_ALLOC(pool, addr, size): This request informs Memcheck that a "size"-byte chunk has been allocated at "addr", and associates the chunk with the specified "pool". If the pool was created with nonzero "rzB" redzones, Memcheck will mark the "rzB" bytes before and after the chunk as NOACCESS. If the pool was created with the "is_zeroed" flag set, Memcheck will mark the chunk as DEFINED, otherwise Memcheck will mark the chunk as UNDEFINED.
- VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_FREE(pool, addr): This request informs Memcheck that the chunk at "addr" should no longer be considered allocated. Memcheck will mark the chunk associated with "addr" as NOACCESS, and delete its record of the chunk's existence.
- VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_TRIM(pool, addr, size): This request "trims" the chunks associated with "pool". The request only operates on chunks associated with "pool". Trimming is formally defined as:
 - All chunks entirely inside the range [addr,addr+size) are preserved.
 - All chunks entirely outside the range [addr,addr+size) are discarded, as though VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_FREE was called on them.
 - All other chunks must intersect with the range [addr,addr+size); areas outside the intersection are marked as NOACCESS, as though they had been independently freed with VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_FREE.

This is a somewhat rare request, but can be useful in implementing the type of mass-free operations common in custom LIFO allocators.

- `VALGRIND_MOVE_MEMPOOL(poolA, poolB)`: This request informs Memcheck that the pool previously anchored at address "poolA" has moved to anchor address "poolB". This is a rare request, typically only needed if you `realloc()` the header of a mempool.

No memory-status bits are altered by this request.

- `VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_CHANGE(pool, addrA, addrB, size)`: This request informs Memcheck that the chunk previously allocated at address "addrA" within "pool" has been moved and/or resized, and should be changed to cover the region `[addrB, addrB+size)`. This is a rare request, typically only needed if you `realloc()` a superblock or wish to extend a chunk without changing its memory-status bits.

No memory-status bits are altered by this request.

- `VALGRIND_MEMPOOL_EXISTS(pool)`: This request informs the caller whether or not Memcheck is currently tracking a mempool at anchor address "pool". It evaluates to 1 when there is a mempool associated with that address, 0 otherwise. This is a rare request, only useful in circumstances when client code might have lost track of the set of active mempools.

4.8. Debugging MPI Parallel Programs with Valgrind

Valgrind supports debugging of distributed-memory applications which use the MPI message passing standard. This support consists of a library of wrapper functions for the `PMPI_*` interface. When incorporated into the application's address space, either by direct linking or by `LD_PRELOAD`, the wrappers intercept calls to `PMPI_Send`, `PMPI_Recv`, etc. They then use client requests to inform Valgrind of memory state changes caused by the function being wrapped. This reduces the number of false positives that Memcheck otherwise typically reports for MPI applications.

The wrappers also take the opportunity to carefully check size and definedness of buffers passed as arguments to MPI functions, hence detecting errors such as passing undefined data to `PMPI_Send`, or receiving data into a buffer which is too small.

Unlike most of the rest of Valgrind, the wrapper library is subject to a BSD-style license, so you can link it into any code base you like. See the top of `auxprogs/libmpiwrap.c` for license details.

4.8.1. Building and installing the wrappers

The wrapper library will be built automatically if possible. Valgrind's configure script will look for a suitable `mpicc` to build it with. This must be the same `mpicc` you use to build the MPI application you want to debug. By default, Valgrind tries `mpicc`, but you can specify a different one by using the configure-time flag `--with-mpicc=`. Currently the wrappers are only buildable with `mpiccs` which are based on GNU `gcc` or Intel's `icc`.

Check that the configure script prints a line like this:

```
checking for usable MPI2-compliant mpicc and mpi.h... yes, mpicc
```

If it says `... no`, your `mpicc` has failed to compile and link a test MPI2 program.

If the configure test succeeds, continue in the usual way with `make` and `make install`. The final install tree should then contain `libmpiwrap.so`.

Compile up a test MPI program (eg, MPI hello-world) and try this:

```
LD_PRELOAD=$prefix/lib/valgrind/<platform>/libmpiwrap.so \
    mpirun [args] $prefix/bin/valgrind ./hello
```

You should see something similar to the following

```
valgrind MPI wrappers 31901: Active for pid 31901
valgrind MPI wrappers 31901: Try MPIWRAP_DEBUG=help for possible options
```

repeated for every process in the group. If you do not see these, there is an build/installation problem of some kind.

The MPI functions to be wrapped are assumed to be in an ELF shared object with soname matching `libmpi.so*`. This is known to be correct at least for Open MPI and Quadrics MPI, and can easily be changed if required.

4.8.2. Getting started

Compile your MPI application as usual, taking care to link it using the same `mpicc` that your Valgrind build was configured with.

Use the following basic scheme to run your application on Valgrind with the wrappers engaged:

```
MPIWRAP_DEBUG=[wrapper-args] \
    LD_PRELOAD=$prefix/lib/valgrind/<platform>/libmpiwrap.so \
    mpirun [mpirun-args] \
    $prefix/bin/valgrind [valgrind-args] \
    [application] [app-args]
```

As an alternative to `LD_PRELOADing` `libmpiwrap.so`, you can simply link it to your application if desired. This should not disturb native behaviour of your application in any way.

4.8.3. Controlling the wrapper library

Environment variable `MPIWRAP_DEBUG` is consulted at startup. The default behaviour is to print a starting banner

```
valgrind MPI wrappers 16386: Active for pid 16386
valgrind MPI wrappers 16386: Try MPIWRAP_DEBUG=help for possible options
```

and then be relatively quiet.

You can give a list of comma-separated options in `MPIWRAP_DEBUG`. These are

- `verbose`: show entries/exits of all wrappers. Also show extra debugging info, such as the status of outstanding `MPI_Requests` resulting from uncompleted `MPI_Irecv`s.

- `quiet`: opposite of `verbose`, only print anything when the wrappers want to report a detected programming error, or in case of catastrophic failure of the wrappers.
- `warn`: by default, functions which lack proper wrappers are not commented on, just silently ignored. This causes a warning to be printed for each unwrapped function used, up to a maximum of three warnings per function.
- `strict`: print an error message and abort the program if a function lacking a wrapper is used.

If you want to use Valgrind's XML output facility (`--xml=yes`), you should pass `quiet` in `MPIWRAP_DEBUG` so as to get rid of any extraneous printing from the wrappers.

4.8.4. Abilities and limitations

4.8.4.1. Functions

All MPI2 functions except `MPI_Wtick`, `MPI_Wtime` and `MPI_Pcontrol` have wrappers. The first two are not wrapped because they return a `double`, and Valgrind's function-wrap mechanism cannot handle that (it could easily enough be extended to). `MPI_Pcontrol` cannot be wrapped as it has variable arity: `int MPI_Pcontrol(const int level, ...)`

Most functions are wrapped with a default wrapper which does nothing except complain or abort if it is called, depending on settings in `MPIWRAP_DEBUG` listed above. The following functions have "real", do-something-useful wrappers:

```
PMPI_Send PMPI_Bsend PMPI_Ssend PMPI_Rsend

PMPI_Recv PMPI_Get_count

PMPI_Isend PMPI_Ibsend PMPI_Issend PMPI_Irsend

PMPI_Irecv
PMPI_Wait PMPI_Waitall
PMPI_Test PMPI_Testall

PMPI_Iprobe PMPI_Probe

PMPI_Cancel

PMPI_Sendrecv

PMPI_Type_commit PMPI_Type_free

PMPI_Pack PMPI_Unpack

PMPI_Bcast PMPI_Gather PMPI_Scatter PMPI_Alltoall
PMPI_Reduce PMPI_Allreduce PMPI_Op_create

PMPI_Comm_create PMPI_Comm_dup PMPI_Comm_free PMPI_Comm_rank PMPI_Comm_size

PMPI_Error_string
PMPI_Init PMPI_Initialized PMPI_Finalize
```

A few functions such as `PMPI_Address` are listed as `HAS_NO_WRAPPER`. They have no wrapper at all as there is nothing worth checking, and giving a no-op wrapper would reduce performance for no reason.

Note that the wrapper library itself can itself generate large numbers of calls to the MPI implementation, especially when walking complex types. The most common functions called are `PMPI_Extent`, `PMPI_Type_get_envelope`, `PMPI_Type_get_contents`, and `PMPI_Type_free`.

4.8.4.2. Types

MPI-1.1 structured types are supported, and walked exactly. The currently supported combin-ers are `MPI_COMBINER_NAMED`, `MPI_COMBINER_CONTIGUOUS`, `MPI_COMBINER_VECTOR`, `MPI_COMBINER_HVECTOR`, `MPI_COMBINER_INDEXED`, `MPI_COMBINER_HINDEXED` and `MPI_COMBINER_STRUCT`. This should cover all MPI-1.1 types. The mechanism (function `walk_type`) should extend easily to cover MPI2 combiners.

MPI defines some named structured types (`MPI_FLOAT_INT`, `MPI_DOUBLE_INT`, `MPI_LONG_INT`, `MPI_2INT`, `MPI_SHORT_INT`, `MPI_LONG_DOUBLE_INT`) which are pairs of some basic type and a C `int`. Unfortunately the MPI specification makes it impossible to look inside these types and see where the fields are. Therefore these wrappers assume the types are laid out as `struct { float val; int loc; }` (for `MPI_FLOAT_INT`), etc, and act accordingly. This appears to be correct at least for Open MPI 1.0.2 and for Quadrics MPI.

If `strict` is an option specified in `MPIWRAP_DEBUG`, the application will abort if an unhandled type is encountered. Otherwise, the application will print a warning message and continue.

Some effort is made to mark/check memory ranges corresponding to arrays of values in a single pass. This is important for performance since asking Valgrind to mark/check any range, no matter how small, carries quite a large constant cost. This optimisation is applied to arrays of primitive types (`double`, `float`, `int`, `long`, `long long`, `short`, `char`, and `long double` on platforms where `sizeof(long double) == 8`). For arrays of all other types, the wrappers handle each element individually and so there can be a very large performance cost.

4.8.5. Writing new wrappers

For the most part the wrappers are straightforward. The only significant complexity arises with nonblocking receives.

The issue is that `MPI_Irecv` states the `recv` buffer and returns immediately, giving a handle (`MPI_Request`) for the transaction. Later the user will have to poll for completion with `MPI_Wait` etc, and when the transaction completes successfully, the wrappers have to paint the `recv` buffer. But the `recv` buffer details are not presented to `MPI_Wait` -- only the handle is. The library therefore maintains a shadow table which associates uncompleted `MPI_Requests` with the corresponding buffer address/count/type. When an operation completes, the table is searched for the associated address/count/type info, and memory is marked accordingly.

Access to the table is guarded by a (POSIX pthreads) lock, so as to make the library thread-safe.

The table is allocated with `malloc` and never `freed`, so it will show up in leak checks.

Writing new wrappers should be fairly easy. The source file is `auxprogs/libmpiwrap.c`. If possible, find an existing wrapper for a function of similar behaviour to the one you want to wrap, and use it as a starting point. The wrappers are organised in sections in the same order as the MPI 1.1 spec, to aid navigation. When adding a wrapper, remember to comment out the definition of the default wrapper in the long list of defaults at the bottom of the file (do not remove it, just comment it out).

4.8.6. What to expect when using the wrappers

The wrappers should reduce Memcheck's false-error rate on MPI applications. Because the wrapping is done at the MPI interface, there will still potentially be a large number of errors reported in the MPI implementation below the interface. The best you can do is try to suppress them.

You may also find that the input-side (buffer length/definedness) checks find errors in your MPI use, for example passing too short a buffer to `MPI_Recv`.

Functions which are not wrapped may increase the false error rate. A possible approach is to run with `MPI_DEBUG` containing `warn`. This will show you functions which lack proper wrappers but which are nevertheless used. You can then write wrappers for them.

A known source of potential false errors are the `PMPI_Reduce` family of functions, when using a custom (user-defined) reduction function. In a reduction operation, each node notionally sends data to a "central point" which uses the specified reduction function to merge the data items into a single item. Hence, in general, data is passed between nodes and fed to the reduction function, but the wrapper library cannot mark the transferred data as initialised before it is handed to the reduction function, because all that happens "inside" the `PMPI_Reduce` call. As a result you may see false positives reported in your reduction function.

5. Cachegrind: a cache and branch profiler

5.1. Cache and branch profiling

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=cachegrind` on the Valgrind command line.

Cachegrind is a tool for finding places where programs interact badly with typical modern superscalar processors and run slowly as a result. In particular, it will do a cache simulation of your program, and optionally a branch-predictor simulation, and can then annotate your source line-by-line with the number of cache misses and branch mispredictions. The following statistics are collected:

- L1 instruction cache reads and misses;
- L1 data cache reads and read misses, writes and write misses;
- L2 unified cache reads and read misses, writes and writes misses.
- Conditional branches and mispredicted conditional branches.
- Indirect branches and mispredicted indirect branches. An indirect branch is a jump or call to a destination only known at run time.

On a modern machine, an L1 miss will typically cost around 10 cycles, an L2 miss can cost as much as 200 cycles, and a mispredicted branch costs in the region of 10 to 30 cycles. Detailed cache and branch profiling can be very useful for improving the performance of your program.

Also, since one instruction cache read is performed per instruction executed, you can find out how many instructions are executed per line, which can be useful for traditional profiling and test coverage.

Branch profiling is not enabled by default. To use it, you must additionally specify `--branch-sim=yes` on the command line.

5.1.1. Overview

First off, as for normal Valgrind use, you probably want to compile with debugging info (the `-g` flag). But by contrast with normal Valgrind use, you probably **do** want to turn optimisation on, since you should profile your program as it will be normally run.

The two steps are:

1. Run your program with `valgrind --tool=cachegrind` in front of the normal command line invocation. When the program finishes, Cachegrind will print summary cache statistics. It also collects line-by-line information in a file `cachegrind.out.<pid>`, where `<pid>` is the program's process ID.

Branch prediction statistics are not collected by default. To do so, add the flag `--branch-sim=yes`.

This step should be done every time you want to collect information about a new program, a changed program, or about the same program with different input.

2. Generate a function-by-function summary, and possibly annotate source files, using the supplied `cg_annotate` program. Source files to annotate can be specified manually, or manually on the command line, or "interesting" source files can be annotated automatically with the `--auto=yes` option. You can annotate C/C++ files or assembly language files equally easily.

This step can be performed as many times as you like for each Step 2. You may want to do multiple annotations showing different information each time.

As an optional intermediate step, you can use the supplied `cg_merge` program to sum together the outputs of multiple Cachegrind runs, into a single file which you then use as the input for `cg_annotate`.

These steps are described in detail in the following sections.

5.1.2. Cache simulation specifics

Cachegrind simulates a machine with independent first level instruction and data caches (I1 and D1), backed by a unified second level cache (L2). This configuration is used by almost all modern machines. Some old Cyrix CPUs had a unified I and D L1 cache, but they are ancient history now.

Specific characteristics of the simulation are as follows:

- Write-allocate: when a write miss occurs, the block written to is brought into the D1 cache. Most modern caches have this property.
- Bit-selection hash function: the set of line(s) in the cache to which a memory block maps is chosen by the middle bits $M-(M+N-1)$ of the byte address, where:
 - line size = 2^M bytes
 - (cache size / line size / associativity) = 2^N bytes
- Inclusive L2 cache: the L2 cache typically replicates all the entries of the L1 caches, because fetching into L1 involves fetching into L2 first (this does not guarantee strict inclusiveness, as lines evicted from L2 still could reside in L1). This is standard on Pentium chips, but AMD Opterons, Athlons and Durons use an exclusive L2 cache that only holds blocks evicted from L1. Ditto most modern VIA CPUs.

The cache configuration simulated (cache size, associativity and line size) is determined automatically using the CPUID instruction. If you have an old machine that (a) doesn't support the CPUID instruction, or (b) supports it in an early incarnation that doesn't give any cache information, then Cachegrind will fall back to using a default configuration (that of a model 3/4 Athlon). Cachegrind will tell you if this happens. You can manually specify one, two or all three levels (I1/D1/L2) of the cache from the command line using the `--I1`, `--D1` and `--L2` options. For cache parameters to be valid for simulation, the number of sets (with associativity being the number of cache lines in each set) has to be a power of two.

On PowerPC platforms Cachegrind cannot automatically determine the cache configuration, so you will need to specify it with the `--I1`, `--D1` and `--L2` options.

Other noteworthy behaviour:

- References that straddle two cache lines are treated as follows:
 - If both blocks hit --> counted as one hit
 - If one block hits, the other misses --> counted as one miss.

- If both blocks miss --> counted as one miss (not two)
- Instructions that modify a memory location (eg. `inc` and `dec`) are counted as doing just a read, ie. a single data reference. This may seem strange, but since the write can never cause a miss (the read guarantees the block is in the cache) it's not very interesting.

Thus it measures not the number of times the data cache is accessed, but the number of times a data cache miss could occur.

If you are interested in simulating a cache with different properties, it is not particularly hard to write your own cache simulator, or to modify the existing ones in `cg_sim.c`. We'd be interested to hear from anyone who does.

5.1.3. Branch simulation specifics

Cachegrind simulates branch predictors intended to be typical of mainstream desktop/server processors of around 2004.

Conditional branches are predicted using an array of 16384 2-bit saturating counters. The array index used for a branch instruction is computed partly from the low-order bits of the branch instruction's address and partly using the taken/not-taken behaviour of the last few conditional branches. As a result the predictions for any specific branch depend both on its own history and the behaviour of previous branches. This is a standard technique for improving prediction accuracy.

For indirect branches (that is, jumps to unknown destinations) Cachegrind uses a simple branch target address predictor. Targets are predicted using an array of 512 entries indexed by the low order 9 bits of the branch instruction's address. Each branch is predicted to jump to the same address it did last time. Any other behaviour causes a mispredict.

More recent processors have better branch predictors, in particular better indirect branch predictors. Cachegrind's predictor design is deliberately conservative so as to be representative of the large installed base of processors which pre-date widespread deployment of more sophisticated indirect branch predictors. In particular, late model Pentium 4s (Prescott), Pentium M, Core and Core 2 have more sophisticated indirect branch predictors than modelled by Cachegrind.

Cachegrind does not simulate a return stack predictor. It assumes that processors perfectly predict function return addresses, an assumption which is probably close to being true.

See Hennessy and Patterson's classic text "Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach", 4th edition (2007), Section 2.3 (pages 80-89) for background on modern branch predictors.

5.2. Profiling programs

To gather cache profiling information about the program `ls -l`, invoke Cachegrind like this:

```
valgrind --tool=cachegrind ls -l
```

The program will execute (slowly). Upon completion, summary statistics that look like this will be printed:

```

==31751== I  refs:      27,742,716
==31751== I1 misses:      276
==31751== L2 misses:      275
==31751== I1 miss rate:    0.0%
==31751== L2i miss rate:  0.0%
==31751==
==31751== D  refs:      15,430,290 (10,955,517 rd + 4,474,773 wr)
==31751== D1 misses:      41,185 ( 21,905 rd + 19,280 wr)
==31751== L2 misses:      23,085 ( 3,987 rd + 19,098 wr)
==31751== D1 miss rate:    0.2% ( 0.1% + 0.4%)
==31751== L2d miss rate:  0.1% ( 0.0% + 0.4%)
==31751==
==31751== L2 misses:      23,360 ( 4,262 rd + 19,098 wr)
==31751== L2 miss rate:    0.0% ( 0.0% + 0.4%)

```

Cache accesses for instruction fetches are summarised first, giving the number of fetches made (this is the number of instructions executed, which can be useful to know in its own right), the number of I1 misses, and the number of L2 instruction (L2i) misses.

Cache accesses for data follow. The information is similar to that of the instruction fetches, except that the values are also shown split between reads and writes (note each row's `rd` and `wr` values add up to the row's total).

Combined instruction and data figures for the L2 cache follow that.

5.2.1. Output file

As well as printing summary information, Cachegrind also writes line-by-line cache profiling information to a user-specified file. By default this file is named `cachegrind.out.<pid>`. This file is human-readable, but is intended to be interpreted by the accompanying program `cg_annotate`, described in the next section.

Things to note about the `cachegrind.out.<pid>` file:

- It is written every time Cachegrind is run, and will overwrite any existing `cachegrind.out.<pid>` in the current directory (but that won't happen very often because it takes some time for process ids to be recycled).
- To use an output file name other than the default `cachegrind.out`, use the `--cachegrind-out-file` switch.
- It can be big: `ls -l` generates a file of about 350KB. Browsing a few files and web pages with a Konqueror built with full debugging information generates a file of around 15 MB.

The default `.<pid>` suffix on the output file name serves two purposes. Firstly, it means you don't have to rename old log files that you don't want to overwrite. Secondly, and more importantly, it allows correct profiling with the `--trace-children=yes` option of programs that spawn child processes.

5.2.2. Cachegrind options

Using command line options, you can manually specify the I1/D1/L2 cache configuration to simulate. For each cache, you can specify the size, associativity and line size. The size and line size are measured in bytes. The three items must be comma-separated, but with no spaces, eg:

```
valgrind --tool=cachegrind --I1=65535,2,64
```

You can specify one, two or three of the I1/D1/L2 caches. Any level not manually specified will be simulated using the configuration found in the normal way (via the CPUID instruction for automagic cache configuration, or failing that, via defaults).

Cache-simulation specific options are:

```
--I1=<size>,<associativity>,<line size>
```

Specify the size, associativity and line size of the level 1 instruction cache.

```
--D1=<size>,<associativity>,<line size>
```

Specify the size, associativity and line size of the level 1 data cache.

```
--L2=<size>,<associativity>,<line size>
```

Specify the size, associativity and line size of the level 2 cache.

```
--cachegrind-out-file=<file>
```

Write the profile data to `file` rather than to the default output file, `cachegrind.out.<pid>`. The `%p` and `%q` format specifiers can be used to embed the process ID and/or the contents of an environment variable in the name, as is the case for the core option `--log-file`. See [here](#) for details.

```
--cache-sim=no|yes [yes]
```

Enables or disables collection of cache access and miss counts.

`--branch-sim=no|yes [no]`

Enables or disables collection of branch instruction and misprediction counts. By default this is disabled as it slows Cachegrind down by approximately 25%. Note that you cannot specify `--cache-sim=no` and `--branch-sim=no` together, as that would leave Cachegrind with no information to collect.

5.2.3. Annotating C/C++ programs

Before using `cg_annotate`, it is worth widening your window to be at least 120-characters wide if possible, as the output lines can be quite long.

To get a function-by-function summary, run `cg_annotate <filename>` on a Cachegrind output file.

The output looks like this:

```

-----
I1 cache:          65536 B, 64 B, 2-way associative
D1 cache:          65536 B, 64 B, 2-way associative
L2 cache:          262144 B, 64 B, 8-way associative
Command:           concord vg_to_ucose.c
Events recorded:   Ir I1mr I2mr Dr D1mr D2mr Dw D1mw D2mw
Events shown:     Ir I1mr I2mr Dr D1mr D2mr Dw D1mw D2mw
Event sort order: Ir I1mr I2mr Dr D1mr D2mr Dw D1mw D2mw
Threshold:        99%
Chosen for annotation:
Auto-annotation:  on
-----

```

```

-----
Ir      I1mr I2mr Dr      D1mr  D2mr  Dw      D1mw  D2mw
-----
27,742,716  276  275 10,955,517 21,905 3,987 4,474,773 19,280 19,098 PROGRAM TOTALS
-----

```

```

-----
Ir      I1mr I2mr Dr      D1mr  D2mr  Dw      D1mw  D2mw  file:function
-----
8,821,482  5  5 2,242,702 1,621  73 1,794,230  0  0  getc.c:_IO_getc
5,222,023  4  4 2,276,334  16  12  875,959  1  1  concord.c:get_word
2,649,248  2  2 1,344,810 7,326 1,385  .  .  .  vg_main.c:strcmp
2,521,927  2  2  591,215  0  0  179,398  0  0  concord.c:hash
2,242,740  2  2 1,046,612  568  22  448,548  0  0  ctype.c:tolower
1,496,937  4  4  630,874 9,000 1,400  279,388  0  0  concord.c:insert
 897,991 51 51  897,831  95  30  62  1  1  ????:???
 598,068  1  1  299,034  0  0  149,517  0  0  ../sysdeps/generic/lockfile.c:__flo
 598,068  0  0  299,034  0  0  149,517  0  0  ../sysdeps/generic/lockfile.c:__fun
 598,024  4  4  213,580  35  16  149,506  0  0  vg_clientmalloc.c:malloc
446,587  1  1  215,973 2,167  430  129,948 14,057 13,957  concord.c:add_existing
341,760  2  2  128,160  0  0  128,160  0  0  vg_clientmalloc.c:vg_trap_here_WRAP
320,782  4  4  150,711  276  0  56,027  53  53  concord.c:init_hash_table
298,998  1  1  106,785  0  0  64,071  1  1  concord.c:create
149,518  0  0  149,516  0  0  1  0  0  ????:tolower@@GLIBC_2.0
149,518  0  0  149,516  0  0  1  0  0  ????:fgetc@@GLIBC_2.0
 95,983  4  4  38,031  0  0  34,409 3,152 3,150  concord.c:new_word_node
 85,440  0  0  42,720  0  0  21,360  0  0  vg_clientmalloc.c:vg_bogus_epilogue
-----

```

First up is a summary of the annotation options:

- **I1** cache, **D1** cache, **L2** cache: cache configuration. So you know the configuration with which these results were obtained.
- **Command**: the command line invocation of the program under examination.
- **Events recorded**: event abbreviations are:
 - **I_r**: I cache reads (ie. instructions executed)
 - **I_{1mr}**: I1 cache read misses
 - **I_{2mr}**: L2 cache instruction read misses
 - **D_r**: D cache reads (ie. memory reads)
 - **D_{1mr}**: D1 cache read misses
 - **D_{2mr}**: L2 cache data read misses
 - **D_w**: D cache writes (ie. memory writes)
 - **D_{1mw}**: D1 cache write misses
 - **D_{2mw}**: L2 cache data write misses
 - **B_c**: Conditional branches executed
 - **B_{cm}**: Conditional branches mispredicted
 - **B_i**: Indirect branches executed
 - **B_{im}**: Conditional branches mispredicted

Note that **D1** total accesses is given by $D_{1mr} + D_{1mw}$, and that **L2** total accesses is given by $I_{2mr} + D_{2mr} + D_{2mw}$.

- **Events shown**: the events shown, which is a subset of the events gathered. This can be adjusted with the `--show` option.
- **Event sort order**: the sort order in which functions are shown. For example, in this case the functions are sorted from highest **I_r** counts to lowest. If two functions have identical **I_r** counts, they will then be sorted by **I_{1mr}** counts, and so on. This order can be adjusted with the `--sort` option.

Note that this dictates the order the functions appear. It is **not** the order in which the columns appear; that is dictated by the "events shown" line (and can be changed with the `--show` option).

- **Threshold**: `cg_annotate` by default omits functions that cause very low counts to avoid drowning you in information. In this case, `cg_annotate` shows summaries the functions that account for 99% of the **I_r** counts; **I_r** is chosen as the threshold event since it is the primary sort event. The threshold can be adjusted with the `--threshold` option.
- **Chosen for annotation**: names of files specified manually for annotation; in this case none.
- **Auto-annotation**: whether auto-annotation was requested via the `--auto=yes` option. In this case no.

Then follows summary statistics for the whole program. These are similar to the summary provided when running `valgrind --tool=cachegrind`.

Then follows function-by-function statistics. Each function is identified by a `file_name: function_name` pair. If a column contains only a dot it means the function never performs that event (eg. the third row shows that `strcmp()` contains no instructions that write to memory). The name `???` is used if the file name and/or function name could not be determined from debugging information. If most of the entries have the form `???: ???` the program probably wasn't compiled with `-g`. If any code was invalidated (either due to self-modifying code or unloading of shared objects) its counts are aggregated into a single cost centre written as `(discarded): (discarded)`.

It is worth noting that functions will come both from the profiled program (eg. `concord.c`) and from libraries (eg. `getc.c`)

There are two ways to annotate source files -- by choosing them manually, or with the `--auto=yes` option. To do it manually, just specify the filenames as additional arguments to `cg_annotate`. For example, the output from running `cg_annotate <filename> concord.c` for our example produces the same output as above followed by an annotated version of `concord.c`, a section of which looks like:

```

-----
-- User-annotated source: concord.c
-----

```

Ir	I1mr	I2mr	Dr	D1mr	D2mr	Dw	D1mw	D2mw	
[snip]									
.	void init_hash_table(char *file_name, Word_N
3	1	1	.	.	.	1	0	0	{
.	FILE *file_ptr;
.	Word_Info *data;
1	0	0	.	.	.	1	1	1	int line = 1, i;
.	
5	0	0	.	.	.	3	0	0	data = (Word_Info *) create(sizeof(Word_I
.	
4,991	0	0	1,995	0	0	998	0	0	for (i = 0; i < TABLE_SIZE; i++)
3,988	1	1	1,994	0	0	997	53	52	table[i] = NULL;
.	/* Open file, check it. */
6	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	file_ptr = fopen(file_name, "r");
.	
2	0	0	1	0	0	.	.	.	if (!(file_ptr)) {
.	fprintf(stderr, "Couldn't open '%s'.\n
1	1	1	exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
.	}
.	
165,062	1	1	73,360	0	0	91,700	0	0	while ((line = get_word(data, line, f
146,712	0	0	73,356	0	0	73,356	0	0	insert(data->word, data->line, t
.	
4	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	free(data);
4	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	fclose(file_ptr);
3	0	0	2	0	0	.	.	.	}

(Although column widths are automatically minimised, a wide terminal is clearly useful.)

Each source file is clearly marked (`User-annotated source`) as having been chosen manually for annotation. If the file was found in one of the directories specified with the `-I / --include` option, the directory and file are both given.

Each line is annotated with its event counts. Events not applicable for a line are represented by a dot. This is useful for distinguishing between an event which cannot happen, and one which can but did not.

Sometimes only a small section of a source file is executed. To minimise uninteresting output, Cachegrind only shows annotated lines and lines within a small distance of annotated lines. Gaps are marked with the line numbers so you know which part of a file the shown code comes from, eg:

```
(figures and code for line 704)
-- line 704 -----
-- line 878 -----
(figures and code for line 878)
```

The amount of context to show around annotated lines is controlled by the `--context` option.

To get automatic annotation, run `cg_annotate <filename> --auto=yes`. `cg_annotate` will automatically annotate every source file it can find that is mentioned in the function-by-function summary. Therefore, the files chosen for auto-annotation are affected by the `--sort` and `--threshold` options. Each source file is clearly marked (Auto-annotated source) as being chosen automatically. Any files that could not be found are mentioned at the end of the output, eg:

```
-----
The following files chosen for auto-annotation could not be found:
-----
getc.c
ctype.c
../sysdeps/generic/lockfile.c
```

This is quite common for library files, since libraries are usually compiled with debugging information, but the source files are often not present on a system. If a file is chosen for annotation **both** manually and automatically, it is marked as `User-annotated source`. Use the `-I / --include` option to tell Valgrind where to look for source files if the filenames found from the debugging information aren't specific enough.

Beware that `cg_annotate` can take some time to digest large `cachegrind.out.<pid>` files, e.g. 30 seconds or more. Also beware that auto-annotation can produce a lot of output if your program is large!

5.2.4. Annotating assembly code programs

Valgrind can annotate assembly code programs too, or annotate the assembly code generated for your C program. Sometimes this is useful for understanding what is really happening when an interesting line of C code is translated into multiple instructions.

To do this, you just need to assemble your `.s` files with assembly-level debug information. You can use `gcc -S` to compile C/C++ programs to assembly code, and then `gcc -g` on the assembly code files to achieve this. You can then profile and annotate the assembly code source files in the same way as C/C++ source files.

5.2.5. Forking Programs

If your program forks, the child will inherit all the profiling data that has been gathered for the parent.

If the output file format string (controlled by `--cachegrind-out-file`) does not contain `%p`, then the outputs from the parent and child will be intermingled in a single output file, which will almost certainly make it unreadable by `cg_annotate`.

5.3. cg_annotate options

- `-h, --help`
- `-v, --version`

Help and version, as usual.

- `--sort=A,B,C` [default: order in `cachegrind.out.<pid>`]

Specifies the events upon which the sorting of the function-by-function entries will be based. Useful if you want to concentrate on eg. I cache misses (`--sort=I1mr,I2mr`), or D cache misses (`--sort=D1mr,D2mr`), or L2 misses (`--sort=D2mr,I2mr`).

- `--show=A,B,C` [default: all, using order in `cachegrind.out.<pid>`]

Specifies which events to show (and the column order). Default is to use all present in the `cachegrind.out.<pid>` file (and use the order in the file).

- `--threshold=X` [default: 99%]

Sets the threshold for the function-by-function summary. Functions are shown that account for more than X% of the primary sort event. If auto-annotating, also affects which files are annotated.

Note: thresholds can be set for more than one of the events by appending any events for the `--sort` option with a colon and a number (no spaces, though). E.g. if you want to see the functions that cover 99% of L2 read misses and 99% of L2 write misses, use this option:

```
--sort=D2mr:99,D2mw:99
```

- `--auto=no` [default]

```
--auto=yes
```

When enabled, automatically annotates every file that is mentioned in the function-by-function summary that can be found. Also gives a list of those that couldn't be found.

- `--context=N` [default: 8]

Print N lines of context before and after each annotated line. Avoids printing large sections of source files that were not executed. Use a large number (eg. 10,000) to show all source lines.

- `-I<dir>, --include=<dir>` [default: empty string]

Adds a directory to the list in which to search for files. Multiple `-I/--include` options can be given to add multiple directories.

5.3.1. Warnings

There are a couple of situations in which `cg_annotate` issues warnings.

- If a source file is more recent than the `cachegrind.out.<pid>` file. This is because the information in `cachegrind.out.<pid>` is only recorded with line numbers, so if the line numbers change at all in the source (eg. lines added, deleted, swapped), any annotations will be incorrect.
- If information is recorded about line numbers past the end of a file. This can be caused by the above problem, ie. shortening the source file while using an old `cachegrind.out.<pid>` file. If this happens, the figures for the bogus lines are printed anyway (clearly marked as bogus) in case they are important.

- If you compile some files with `-g` and some without, some events that take place in a file without debug info could be attributed to the last line of a file with debug info (whichever one gets placed before the non-debug-info file in the executable).

This list looks long, but these cases should be fairly rare.

5.3.3. Accuracy

Valgrind's cache profiling has a number of shortcomings:

- It doesn't account for kernel activity -- the effect of system calls on the cache contents is ignored.
- It doesn't account for other process activity. This is probably desirable when considering a single program.
- It doesn't account for virtual-to-physical address mappings. Hence the simulation is not a true representation of what's happening in the cache. Most caches are physically indexed, but Cachegrind simulates caches using virtual addresses.
- It doesn't account for cache misses not visible at the instruction level, eg. those arising from TLB misses, or speculative execution.
- Valgrind will schedule threads differently from how they would be when running natively. This could warp the results for threaded programs.
- The x86/amd64 instructions `bts`, `btr` and `btc` will incorrectly be counted as doing a data read if both the arguments are registers, eg:

```
btsl %eax, %edx
```

This should only happen rarely.

- x86/amd64 FPU instructions with data sizes of 28 and 108 bytes (e.g. `fsave`) are treated as though they only access 16 bytes. These instructions seem to be rare so hopefully this won't affect accuracy much.

Another thing worth noting is that results are very sensitive. Changing the size of the the executable being profiled, or the sizes of any of the shared libraries it uses, or even the length of their file names, can perturb the results. Variations will be small, but don't expect perfectly repeatable results if your program changes at all.

More recent GNU/Linux distributions do address space randomisation, in which identical runs of the same program have their shared libraries loaded at different locations, as a security measure. This also perturbs the results.

While these factors mean you shouldn't trust the results to be super-accurate, hopefully they should be close enough to be useful.

5.4. Merging profiles with `cg_merge`

`cg_merge` is a simple program which reads multiple profile files, as created by `cachegrind`, merges them together, and writes the results into another file in the same format. You can then examine the merged results using `cg_annotate <filename>`, as described above. The merging functionality might be useful if you want to aggregate costs over multiple runs of the same program, or from a single parallel run with multiple instances of the same program.

`cg_merge` is invoked as follows:

```
cg_merge -o outputfile file1 file2 file3 ...
```

It reads and checks `file1`, then read and checks `file2` and merges it into the running totals, then the same with `file3`, etc. The final results are written to `outputfile`, or to standard out if no output file is specified.

Costs are summed on a per-function, per-line and per-instruction basis. Because of this, the order in which the input files does not matter, although you should take care to only mention each file once, since any file mentioned twice will be added in twice.

`cg_merge` does not attempt to check that the input files come from runs of the same executable. It will happily merge together profile files from completely unrelated programs. It does however check that the `Events:` lines of all the inputs are identical, so as to ensure that the addition of costs makes sense. For example, it would be nonsensical for it to add a number indicating D1 read references to a number from a different file indicating L2 write misses.

A number of other syntax and sanity checks are done whilst reading the inputs. `cg_merge` will stop and attempt to print a helpful error message if any of the input files fail these checks.

5.5. Acting on Cachegrind's information

So, you've managed to profile your program with Cachegrind. Now what? What's the best way to actually act on the information it provides to speed up your program? Here are some rules of thumb that we have found to be useful.

First of all, the global hit/miss rate numbers are not that useful. If you have multiple programs or multiple runs of a program, comparing the numbers might identify if any are outliers and worthy of closer investigation. Otherwise, they're not enough to act on.

The line-by-line source code annotations are much more useful. In our experience, the best place to start is by looking at the `Ir` numbers. They simply measure how many instructions were executed for each line, and don't include any cache information, but they can still be very useful for identifying bottlenecks.

After that, we have found that L2 misses are typically a much bigger source of slow-downs than L1 misses. So it's worth looking for any snippets of code that cause a high proportion of the L2 misses. If you find any, it's still not always easy to work out how to improve things. You need to have a reasonable understanding of how caches work, the principles of locality, and your program's data access patterns. Improving things may require redesigning a data structure, for example.

In short, Cachegrind can tell you where some of the bottlenecks in your code are, but it can't tell you how to fix them. You have to work that out for yourself. But at least you have the information!

5.6. Implementation details

This section talks about details you don't need to know about in order to use Cachegrind, but may be of interest to some people.

5.6.1. How Cachegrind works

The best reference for understanding how Cachegrind works is chapter 3 of "Dynamic Binary Analysis and Instrumentation", by Nicholas Nethercote. It is available on the Valgrind publications page.

5.6.2. Cachegrind output file format

The file format is fairly straightforward, basically giving the cost centre for every line, grouped by files and functions. Total counts (eg. total cache accesses, total L1 misses) are calculated when traversing this structure rather than during execution, to save time; the cache simulation functions are called so often that even one or two extra adds can make a sizeable difference.

The file format:

```
file      ::= desc_line* cmd_line events_line data_line+ summary_line
desc_line ::= "desc:" ws? non_nl_string
cmd_line  ::= "cmd:" ws? cmd
events_line ::= "events:" ws? (event ws)+
data_line ::= file_line | fn_line | count_line
file_line  ::= "fl=" filename
fn_line    ::= "fn=" fn_name
count_line ::= line_num ws? (count ws)+
summary_line ::= "summary:" ws? (count ws)+
count      ::= num | "."
```

Where:

- `non_nl_string` is any string not containing a newline.
- `cmd` is a string holding the command line of the profiled program.
- `event` is a string containing no whitespace.
- `filename` and `fn_name` are strings.
- `num` and `line_num` are decimal numbers.
- `ws` is whitespace.

The contents of the "desc:" lines are printed out at the top of the summary. This is a generic way of providing simulation specific information, eg. for giving the cache configuration for cache simulation.

More than one line of info can be presented for each file/fn/line number. In such cases, the counts for the named events will be accumulated.

Counts can be "." to represent zero. This makes the files easier for humans to read.

The number of counts in each line and the `summary_line` should not exceed the number of events in the `event_line`. If the number in each line is less, `cg_annotate` treats those missing as though they were a "." entry. This saves space.

A `file_line` changes the current file name. A `fn_line` changes the current function name. A `count_line` contains counts that pertain to the current filename/fn_name. A "fn=" `file_line` and a `fn_line` must appear before any `count_lines` to give the context of the first `count_lines`.

Each `file_line` will normally be immediately followed by a `fn_line`. But it doesn't have to be.

6. Callgrind: a call graph profiler

6.1. Overview

Callgrind is a profiling tool that can construct a call graph for a program's run. By default, the collected data consists of the number of instructions executed, their relationship to source lines, the caller/callee relationship between functions, and the numbers of such calls. Optionally, a cache simulator (similar to cachegrind) can produce further information about the memory access behavior of the application.

The profile data is written out to a file at program termination. For presentation of the data, and interactive control of the profiling, two command line tools are provided:

callgrind_annotate

This command reads in the profile data, and prints a sorted lists of functions, optionally with source annotation.

For graphical visualization of the data, try KCachegrind, which is a KDE/Qt based GUI that makes it easy to navigate the large amount of data that Callgrind produces.

callgrind_control

This command enables you to interactively observe and control the status of currently running applications, without stopping the application. You can get statistics information as well as the current stack trace, and you can request zeroing of counters or dumping of profile data.

To use Callgrind, you must specify `--tool=callgrind` on the Valgrind command line.

6.1.1. Functionality

Cachegrind collects flat profile data: event counts (data reads, cache misses, etc.) are attributed directly to the function they occurred in. This cost attribution mechanism is called *self* or *exclusive* attribution.

Callgrind extends this functionality by propagating costs across function call boundaries. If function `foo` calls `bar`, the costs from `bar` are added into `foo`'s costs. When applied to the program as a whole, this builds up a picture of so called *inclusive* costs, that is, where the cost of each function includes the costs of all functions it called, directly or indirectly.

As an example, the inclusive cost of `main` should be almost 100 percent of the total program cost. Because of costs arising before `main` is run, such as initialization of the run time linker and construction of global C++ objects, the inclusive cost of `main` is not exactly 100 percent of the total program cost.

Together with the call graph, this allows you to find the specific call chains starting from `main` in which the majority of the program's costs occur. Caller/callee cost attribution is also useful for profiling functions called from multiple call sites, and where optimization opportunities depend on changing code in the callers, in particular by reducing the call count.

Callgrind's cache simulation is based on the Cachegrind tool. Read Cachegrind's documentation first. The material below describes the features supported in addition to Cachegrind's features.

Callgrind's ability to detect function calls and returns depends on the instruction set of the platform it is run on. It works best on x86 and amd64, and unfortunately currently does not work so well on PowerPC code. This is because there are no explicit call or return instructions in the PowerPC instruction set, so Callgrind has to rely on heuristics to detect calls and returns.

6.1.2. Basic Usage

As with Cachegrind, you probably want to compile with debugging info (the `-g` flag), but with optimization turned on.

To start a profile run for a program, execute:

```
valgrind --tool=callgrind [callgrind options] your-program [program options]
```

While the simulation is running, you can observe execution with

```
callgrind_control -b
```

This will print out the current backtrace. To annotate the backtrace with event counts, run

```
callgrind_control -e -b
```

After program termination, a profile data file named `callgrind.out.<pid>` is generated, where *pid* is the process ID of the program being profiled. The data file contains information about the calls made in the program among the functions executed, together with events of type **Instruction Read Accesses** (Ir).

To generate a function-by-function summary from the profile data file, use

```
callgrind_annotate [options] callgrind.out.<pid>
```

This summary is similar to the output you get from a Cachegrind run with `cg_annotate`: the list of functions is ordered by exclusive cost of functions, which also are the ones that are shown. Important for the additional features of Callgrind are the following two options:

- `--inclusive=yes`: Instead of using exclusive cost of functions as sorting order, use and show inclusive cost.
- `--tree=both`: Interleave into the top level list of functions, information on the callers and the callees of each function. In these lines, which represents executed calls, the cost gives the number of events spent in the call. Indented, above each function, there is the list of callers, and below, the list of callees. The sum of events in calls to a given function (caller lines), as well as the sum of events in calls from the function (callee lines) together with the self cost, gives the total inclusive cost of the function.

Use `--auto=yes` to get annotated source code for all relevant functions for which the source can be found. In addition to source annotation as produced by `cg_annotate`, you will see the annotated call sites with call counts. For all other options, consult the (Cachegrind) documentation for `cg_annotate`.

For better call graph browsing experience, it is highly recommended to use KCachegrind. If your code has a significant fraction of its cost in *cycles* (sets of functions calling each other in a recursive manner), you have to use KCachegrind, as `callgrind_annotate` currently does not do any cycle detection, which is important to get correct results in this case.

If you are additionally interested in measuring the cache behavior of your program, use Callgrind with the option `--simulate-cache=yes`. However, expect a further slow down approximately by a factor of 2.

If the program section you want to profile is somewhere in the middle of the run, it is beneficial to *fast forward* to this section without any profiling, and then switch on profiling. This is achieved by using the command line option `--instr-atstart=no` and running, in a shell, `callgrind_control -i on` just before the interesting code section is executed. To exactly specify the code position where profiling should start, use the client request `CALLGRIND_START_INSTRUMENTATION`.

If you want to be able to see assembly code level annotation, specify `--dump-instr=yes`. This will produce profile data at instruction granularity. Note that the resulting profile data can only be viewed with KCachegrind. For assembly annotation, it also is interesting to see more details of the control flow inside of functions, ie. (conditional) jumps. This will be collected by further specifying `--collect-jumps=yes`.

6.2. Advanced Usage

6.2.1. Multiple profiling dumps from one program run

Sometimes you are not interested in characteristics of a full program run, but only of a small part of it, for example execution of one algorithm. If there are multiple algorithms, or one algorithm running with different input data, it may even be useful to get different profile information for different parts of a single program run.

Profile data files have names of the form

```
callgrind.out.pid.part-threadID
```

where *pid* is the PID of the running program, *part* is a number incremented on each dump (".part" is skipped for the dump at program termination), and *threadID* is a thread identification ("-threadID" is only used if you request dumps of individual threads with `--separate-threads=yes`).

There are different ways to generate multiple profile dumps while a program is running under Callgrind's supervision. Nevertheless, all methods trigger the same action, which is "dump all profile information since the last dump or program start, and zero cost counters afterwards". To allow for zeroing cost counters without dumping, there is a second action "zero all cost counters now". The different methods are:

- **Dump on program termination.** This method is the standard way and doesn't need any special action on your part.

- **Spontaneous, interactive dumping.** Use

```
callgrind_control -d [hint [PID/Name]]
```

to request the dumping of profile information of the supervised application with PID or Name. *hint* is an arbitrary string you can optionally specify to later be able to distinguish profile dumps. The control program will not terminate before the dump is completely written. Note that the application must be actively running for detection of the dump command. So, for a GUI application, resize the window, or for a server, send a request.

If you are using KCachegrind for browsing of profile information, you can use the toolbar button **Force dump**. This will request a dump and trigger a reload after the dump is written.

- **Periodic dumping after execution of a specified number of basic blocks.** For this, use the command line option `--dump-every-bb=count`.
- **Dumping at enter/leave of specified functions.** Use the option `--dump-before=function` and `--dump-after=function`. To zero cost counters before entering a function, use `--zero-before=function`.

You can specify these options multiple times for different functions. Function specifications support wildcards: eg. use `--dump-before='foo*'` to generate dumps before entering any function starting with *foo*.

- **Program controlled dumping.** Insert `CALLGRIND_DUMP_STATS`; at the position in your code where you want a profile dump to happen. Use `CALLGRIND_ZERO_STATS`; to only zero profile counters. See [Client request reference](#) for more information on Callgrind specific client requests.

If you are running a multi-threaded application and specify the command line option `--separate-threads=yes`, every thread will be profiled on its own and will create its own profile dump. Thus, the last two methods will only generate one dump of the currently running thread. With the other methods, you will get multiple dumps (one for each thread) on a dump request.

6.2.2. Limiting the range of collected events

For aggregating events (function enter/leave, instruction execution, memory access) into event numbers, first, the events must be recognizable by Callgrind, and second, the collection state must be switched on.

Event collection is only possible if *instrumentation* for program code is switched on. This is the default, but for faster execution (identical to `valgrind --tool=none`), it can be switched off until the program reaches a state in which you want to start collecting profiling data. Callgrind can start without instrumentation by specifying option `--instr-atstart=no`. Instrumentation can be switched on interactively with

```
callgrind_control -i on
```

and off by specifying "off" instead of "on". Furthermore, instrumentation state can be programatically changed with the macros `CALLGRIND_START_INSTRUMENTATION`; and `CALLGRIND_STOP_INSTRUMENTATION`;

In addition to enabling instrumentation, you must also enable event collection for the parts of your program you are interested in. By default, event collection is enabled everywhere. You can limit collection to a specific function by using `--toggle-collect=function`. This will toggle the collection state on entering and leaving the specified functions. When this option is in effect, the default collection state at program start is "off". Only events happening while running inside of the given function will be collected. Recursive calls of the given function do not trigger any action.

It is important to note that with instrumentation switched off, the cache simulator cannot see any memory access events, and thus, any simulated cache state will be frozen and wrong without instrumentation. Therefore, to get useful cache events (hits/misses) after switching on instrumentation, the cache first must warm up, probably leading to many

cold misses which would not have happened in reality. If you do not want to see these, start event collection a few million instructions after you have switched on instrumentation.

6.2.3. Avoiding cycles

Informally speaking, a cycle is a group of functions which call each other in a recursive way.

Formally speaking, a cycle is a nonempty set S of functions, such that for every pair of functions F and G in S , it is possible to call from F to G (possibly via intermediate functions) and also from G to F . Furthermore, S must be maximal -- that is, be the largest set of functions satisfying this property. For example, if a third function H is called from inside S and calls back into S , then H is also part of the cycle and should be included in S .

Recursion is quite usual in programs, and therefore, cycles sometimes appear in the call graph output of Callgrind. However, the title of this chapter should raise two questions: What is bad about cycles which makes you want to avoid them? And: How can cycles be avoided without changing program code?

Cycles are not bad in itself, but tend to make performance analysis of your code harder. This is because inclusive costs for calls inside of a cycle are meaningless. The definition of inclusive cost, ie. self cost of a function plus inclusive cost of its callees, needs a topological order among functions. For cycles, this does not hold true: callees of a function in a cycle include the function itself. Therefore, KCachegrind does cycle detection and skips visualization of any inclusive cost for calls inside of cycles. Further, all functions in a cycle are collapsed into artificial functions called like `Cycle 1`.

Now, when a program exposes really big cycles (as is true for some GUI code, or in general code using event or callback based programming style), you loose the nice property to let you pinpoint the bottlenecks by following call chains from `main()`, guided via inclusive cost. In addition, KCachegrind looses its ability to show interesting parts of the call graph, as it uses inclusive costs to cut off uninteresting areas.

Despite the meaningless of inclusive costs in cycles, the big drawback for visualization motivates the possibility to temporarily switch off cycle detection in KCachegrind, which can lead to misleading visualization. However, often cycles appear because of unlucky superposition of independent call chains in a way that the profile result will see a cycle. Neglecting uninteresting calls with very small measured inclusive cost would break these cycles. In such cases, incorrect handling of cycles by not detecting them still gives meaningful profiling visualization.

It has to be noted that currently, `callgrind_annotate` does not do any cycle detection at all. For program executions with function recursion, it e.g. can print nonsense inclusive costs way above 100%.

After describing why cycles are bad for profiling, it is worth talking about cycle avoidance. The key insight here is that symbols in the profile data do not have to exactly match the symbols found in the program. Instead, the symbol name could encode additional information from the current execution context such as recursion level of the current function, or even some part of the call chain leading to the function. While encoding of additional information into symbols is quite capable of avoiding cycles, it has to be used carefully to not cause symbol explosion. The latter imposes large memory requirement for Callgrind with possible out-of-memory conditions, and big profile data files.

A further possibility to avoid cycles in Callgrind's profile data output is to simply leave out given functions in the call graph. Of course, this also skips any call information from and to an ignored function, and thus can break a cycle. Candidates for this typically are dispatcher functions in event driven code. The option to ignore calls to a function is `--fn-skip=function`. Aside from possibly breaking cycles, this is used in Callgrind to skip trampoline functions in the PLT sections for calls to functions in shared libraries. You can see the difference if you profile with `--skip-plt=no`. If a call is ignored, its cost events will be propagated to the enclosing function.

If you have a recursive function, you can distinguish the first 10 recursion levels by specifying `--separate-recs10=function`. Or for all functions with `--separate-recs=10`, but this will give you much bigger profile data files. In the profile data, you will see the recursion levels of "func" as the different functions with names "func", "func'2", "func'3" and so on.

If you have call chains "A > B > C" and "A > C > B" in your program, you usually get a "false" cycle "B <> C". Use `--separate-callers2=B` `--separate-callers2=C`, and functions "B" and "C" will be treated as different functions depending on the direct caller. Using the apostrophe for appending this "context" to the function name, you get "A > B'A > C'B" and "A > C'A > B'C", and there will be no cycle. Use `--separate-callers=2` to get a 2-caller dependency for all functions. Note that doing this will increase the size of profile data files.

6.2.4. Forking Programs

If your program forks, the child will inherit all the profiling data that has been gathered for the parent. To start with empty profile counter values in the child, the client request `CALLGRIND_ZERO_STATS`; can be inserted into code to be executed by the child, directly after `fork()`.

However, you will have to make sure that the output file format string (controlled by `--callgrind-out-file`) does contain `%p` (which is true by default). Otherwise, the outputs from the parent and child will overwrite each other or will be intermingled, which almost certainly is not what you want.

You will be able to control the new child independently from the parent via `callgrind_control`.

6.3. Command line option reference

In the following, options are grouped into classes, in the same order as the output of `callgrind --help`.

Some options allow the specification of a function/symbol name, such as `--dump-before=function`, or `--fn-skip=function`. All these options can be specified multiple times for different functions. In addition, the function specifications actually are patterns by supporting the use of wildcards `*` (zero or more arbitrary characters) and `?` (exactly one arbitrary character), similar to file name globbing in the shell. This feature is important especially for C++, as without wildcard usage, the function would have to be specified in full extent, including parameter signature.

6.3.1. Miscellaneous options

`--help`

Show summary of options. This is a short version of this manual section.

`--version`

Show version of callgrind.

6.3.2. Dump creation options

These options influence the name and format of the profile data files.

`--callgrind-out-file=<file>`

Write the profile data to `file` rather than to the default output file, `callgrind.out.<pid>`. The `%p` and `%q` format specifiers can be used to embed the process ID and/or the contents of an environment variable in the name, as is the case for the core option `--log-file`. See [here](#) for details. When multiple dumps are made, the file name is modified further; see below.

`--dump-instr=<no|yes> [default: no]`

This specifies that event counting should be performed at per-instruction granularity. This allows for assembly code annotation. Currently the results can only be displayed by `KCachegrind`.

```
--dump-line=<no|yes> [default: yes]
```

This specifies that event counting should be performed at source line granularity. This allows source annotation for sources which are compiled with debug information ("-g").

```
--compress-strings=<no|yes> [default: yes]
```

This option influences the output format of the profile data. It specifies whether strings (file and function names) should be identified by numbers. This shrinks the file, but makes it more difficult for humans to read (which is not recommended in any case).

```
--compress-pos=<no|yes> [default: yes]
```

This option influences the output format of the profile data. It specifies whether numerical positions are always specified as absolute values or are allowed to be relative to previous numbers. This shrinks the file size,

```
--combine-dumps=<no|yes> [default: no]
```

When multiple profile data parts are to be generated, these parts are appended to the same output file if this option is set to "yes". Not recommended.

6.3.3. Activity options

These options specify when actions relating to event counts are to be executed. For interactive control use `callgrind_control`.

```
--dump-every-bb=<count> [default: 0, never]
```

Dump profile data every <count> basic blocks. Whether a dump is needed is only checked when Valgrind's internal scheduler is run. Therefore, the minimum setting useful is about 100000. The count is a 64-bit value to make long dump periods possible.

```
--dump-before=<function>
```

Dump when entering <function>

```
--zero-before=<function>
```

Zero all costs when entering <function>

```
--dump-after=<function>
```

Dump when leaving <function>

6.3.4. Data collection options

These options specify when events are to be aggregated into event counts. Also see [Limiting range of event collection](#).

```
--instr-atstart=<yes|no> [default: yes]
```

Specify if you want Callgrind to start simulation and profiling from the beginning of the program. When set to `no`, Callgrind will not be able to collect any information, including calls, but it will have at most a slowdown of around 4, which is the minimum Valgrind overhead. Instrumentation can be interactively switched on via `callgrind_control -i on`.

Note that the resulting call graph will most probably not contain `main`, but will contain all the functions executed after instrumentation was switched on. Instrumentation can also programatically switched on/off. See the Callgrind include file `<callgrind.h>` for the macro you have to use in your source code.

For cache simulation, results will be less accurate when switching on instrumentation later in the program run, as the simulator starts with an empty cache at that moment. Switch on event collection later to cope with this error.

`--collect-atstart=<yes|no> [default: yes]`
Specify whether event collection is switched on at beginning of the profile run.

To only look at parts of your program, you have two possibilities:

1. Zero event counters before entering the program part you want to profile, and dump the event counters to a file after leaving that program part.
2. Switch on/off collection state as needed to only see event counters happening while inside of the program part you want to profile.

The second option can be used if the program part you want to profile is called many times. Option 1, i.e. creating a lot of dumps is not practical here.

Collection state can be toggled at entry and exit of a given function with the option `--toggle-collect`. If you use this flag, collection state should be switched off at the beginning. Note that the specification of `--toggle-collect` implicitly sets `--collect-state=no`.

Collection state can be toggled also by inserting the client request `CALLGRIND_TOGGLE_COLLECT`; at the needed code positions.

`--toggle-collect=<function>`
Toggle collection on entry/exit of `<function>`.

`--collect-jumps=<no|yes> [default: no]`
This specifies whether information for (conditional) jumps should be collected. As above, `callgrind_annotate` currently is not able to show you the data. You have to use `KCachegrind` to get jump arrows in the annotated code.

6.3.5. Cost entity separation options

These options specify how event counts should be attributed to execution contexts. For example, they specify whether the recursion level or the call chain leading to a function should be taken into account, and whether the thread ID should be considered. Also see [Avoiding cycles](#).

`--separate-threads=<no|yes> [default: no]`
This option specifies whether profile data should be generated separately for every thread. If yes, the file names get `"-threadID"` appended.

`--separate-recs=<level> [default: 2]`
Separate function recursions by at most `<level>` levels. See [Avoiding cycles](#).

`--separate-callers=<callers> [default: 0]`
Separate contexts by at most `<callers>` functions in the call chain. See [Avoiding cycles](#).

`--skip-plt=<no|yes> [default: yes]`
Ignore calls to/from PLT sections.

`--fn-skip=<function>`
Ignore calls to/from a given function. E.g. if you have a call chain `A > B > C`, and you specify function `B` to be ignored, you will only see `A > C`.

This is very convenient to skip functions handling callback behaviour. For example, with the signal/slot mechanism in the Qt graphics library, you only want to see the function emitting a signal to call the slots connected to that signal. First, determine the real call chain to see the functions needed to be skipped, then use this option.

```
--fn-group<number>=<function>
```

Put a function into a separate group. This influences the context name for cycle avoidance. All functions inside such a group are treated as being the same for context name building, which resembles the call chain leading to a context. By specifying function groups with this option, you can shorten the context name, as functions in the same group will not appear in sequence in the name.

```
--separate-recs<number>=<function>
```

Separate <number> recursions for <function>. See [Avoiding cycles](#).

```
--separate-callers<number>=<function>
```

Separate <number> callers for <function>. See [Avoiding cycles](#).

6.3.6. Cache simulation options

```
--simulate-cache=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

Specify if you want to do full cache simulation. By default, only instruction read accesses will be profiled.

```
--simulate-hwpref=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

Specify whether simulation of a hardware prefetcher should be added which is able to detect stream access in the second level cache by comparing accesses to separate to each page. As the simulation can not decide about any timing issues of prefetching, it is assumed that any hardware prefetch triggered succeeds before a real access is done. Thus, this gives a best-case scenario by covering all possible stream accesses.

6.4. Callgrind specific client requests

In Valgrind terminology, a client request is a C macro which can be inserted into your code to request specific functionality when run under Valgrind. For this, special instruction patterns resulting in NOPs are used, but which can be detected by Valgrind.

Callgrind provides the following specific client requests. To use them, add the line

```
#include <valgrind/callgrind.h>
```

into your code for the macro definitions. .

```
CALLGRIND_DUMP_STATS
```

Force generation of a profile dump at specified position in code, for the current thread only. Written counters will be reset to zero.

```
CALLGRIND_DUMP_STATS_AT(string)
```

Same as `CALLGRIND_DUMP_STATS`, but allows to specify a string to be able to distinguish profile dumps.

```
CALLGRIND_ZERO_STATS
```

Reset the profile counters for the current thread to zero.

```
CALLGRIND_TOGGLE_COLLECT
```

Toggle the collection state. This allows to ignore events with regard to profile counters. See also options `--collect-atstart` and `--toggle-collect`.

`CALLGRIND_START_INSTRUMENTATION`

Start full Callgrind instrumentation if not already switched on. When cache simulation is done, this will flush the simulated cache and lead to an artificial cache warmup phase afterwards with cache misses which would not have happened in reality. See also option `--instr-atstart`.

`CALLGRIND_STOP_INSTRUMENTATION`

Stop full Callgrind instrumentation if not already switched off. This flushes Valgrinds translation cache, and does no additional instrumentation afterwards: it effectively will run at the same speed as the "none" tool, ie. at minimal slowdown. Use this to speed up the Callgrind run for uninteresting code parts. Use `CALLGRIND_START_INSTRUMENTATION` to switch on instrumentation again. See also option `--instr-atstart`.

7. Helgrind: a thread error detector

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=helgrind` on the Valgrind command line.

7.1. Overview

Helgrind is a Valgrind tool for detecting synchronisation errors in C, C++ and Fortran programs that use the POSIX pthreads threading primitives.

The main abstractions in POSIX pthreads are: a set of threads sharing a common address space, thread creation, thread joining, thread exit, mutexes (locks), condition variables (inter-thread event notifications), reader-writer locks, semaphores and barriers.

Helgrind is aware of all these abstractions and tracks their effects as accurately as it can. Currently it does not correctly handle pthread spinlocks, although it will not object if you use them. Adding support for spinlocks would be easy enough if the demand arises. On x86 and amd64 platforms, it understands and partially handles implicit locking arising from the use of the LOCK instruction prefix.

Helgrind can detect three classes of errors, which are discussed in detail in the next three sections:

1. [Misuses of the POSIX pthreads API](#).
2. [Potential deadlocks arising from lock ordering problems](#).
3. [Data races -- accessing memory without adequate locking or synchronisation](#). Note that race detection in versions 3.4.0 and later uses a different algorithm than in 3.3.x. Hence, if you have been using Helgrind in 3.3.x, you may want to re-read this section.

Following those is a section containing [hints and tips on how to get the best out of Helgrind](#).

Then there is a [summary of command-line options](#).

Finally, there is [a brief summary of areas in which Helgrind could be improved](#).

7.2. Detected errors: Misuses of the POSIX pthreads API

Helgrind intercepts calls to many POSIX pthreads functions, and is therefore able to report on various common problems. Although these are unglamorous errors, their presence can lead to undefined program behaviour and hard-to-find bugs later on. The detected errors are:

- unlocking an invalid mutex
- unlocking a not-locked mutex
- unlocking a mutex held by a different thread
- destroying an invalid or a locked mutex
- recursively locking a non-recursive mutex

- deallocation of memory that contains a locked mutex
- passing mutex arguments to functions expecting reader-writer lock arguments, and vice versa
- when a POSIX pthread function fails with an error code that must be handled
- when a thread exits whilst still holding locked locks
- calling `pthread_cond_wait` with a not-locked mutex, an invalid mutex, or one locked by a different thread
- invalid or duplicate initialisation of a pthread barrier
- initialisation of a pthread barrier on which threads are still waiting
- destruction of a pthread barrier object which was never initialised, or on which threads are still waiting
- waiting on an uninitialised pthread barrier
- for all of the pthread_ functions that Helgrind intercepts, an error is reported, along with a stack trace, if the system threading library routine returns an error code, even if Helgrind itself detected no error

Checks pertaining to the validity of mutexes are generally also performed for reader-writer locks.

Various kinds of this-can't-possibly-happen events are also reported. These usually indicate bugs in the system threading library.

Reported errors always contain a primary stack trace indicating where the error was detected. They may also contain auxiliary stack traces giving additional information. In particular, most errors relating to mutexes will also tell you where that mutex first came to Helgrind's attention (the "was first observed at" part), so you have a chance of figuring out which mutex it is referring to. For example:

```
Thread #1 unlocked a not-locked lock at 0x7FEFFFA90
  at 0x4C2408D: pthread_mutex_unlock (hg_intercepts.c:492)
  by 0x40073A: nearly_main (tc09_bad_unlock.c:27)
  by 0x40079B: main (tc09_bad_unlock.c:50)
Lock at 0x7FEFFFA90 was first observed
  at 0x4C25D01: pthread_mutex_init (hg_intercepts.c:326)
  by 0x40071F: nearly_main (tc09_bad_unlock.c:23)
  by 0x40079B: main (tc09_bad_unlock.c:50)
```

Helgrind has a way of summarising thread identities, as you see here with the text "Thread #1". This is so that it can speak about threads and sets of threads without overwhelming you with details. See [below](#) for more information on interpreting error messages.

7.3. Detected errors: Inconsistent Lock Orderings

In this section, and in general, to "acquire" a lock simply means to lock that lock, and to "release" a lock means to unlock it.

Helgrind monitors the order in which threads acquire locks. This allows it to detect potential deadlocks which could arise from the formation of cycles of locks. Detecting such inconsistencies is useful because, whilst actual deadlocks

are fairly obvious, potential deadlocks may never be discovered during testing and could later lead to hard-to-diagnose in-service failures.

The simplest example of such a problem is as follows.

- Imagine some shared resource R, which, for whatever reason, is guarded by two locks, L1 and L2, which must both be held when R is accessed.
- Suppose a thread acquires L1, then L2, and proceeds to access R. The implication of this is that all threads in the program must acquire the two locks in the order first L1 then L2. Not doing so risks deadlock.
- The deadlock could happen if two threads -- call them T1 and T2 -- both want to access R. Suppose T1 acquires L1 first, and T2 acquires L2 first. Then T1 tries to acquire L2, and T2 tries to acquire L1, but those locks are both already held. So T1 and T2 become deadlocked.

Helgrind builds a directed graph indicating the order in which locks have been acquired in the past. When a thread acquires a new lock, the graph is updated, and then checked to see if it now contains a cycle. The presence of a cycle indicates a potential deadlock involving the locks in the cycle.

In simple situations, where the cycle only contains two locks, Helgrind will show where the required order was established:

```
Thread #1: lock order "0x7FEFFFA80 before 0x7FEFFFA80" violated
  at 0x4C23C91: pthread_mutex_lock (hg_intercepts.c:388)
  by 0x40081F: main (tc13_laog1.c:24)
Required order was established by acquisition of lock at 0x7FEFFFA80
  at 0x4C23C91: pthread_mutex_lock (hg_intercepts.c:388)
  by 0x400748: main (tc13_laog1.c:17)
followed by a later acquisition of lock at 0x7FEFFFA80
  at 0x4C23C91: pthread_mutex_lock (hg_intercepts.c:388)
  by 0x400773: main (tc13_laog1.c:18)
```

When there are more than two locks in the cycle, the error is equally serious. However, at present Helgrind does not show the locks involved, so as to avoid flooding you with information. That could be fixed in future. For example, here is an example involving a cycle of five locks from a naive implementation the famous Dining Philosophers problem (see `helgrind/tests/tc14_laog_dinphils.c`). In this case Helgrind has detected that all 5 philosophers could simultaneously pick up their left fork and then deadlock whilst waiting to pick up their right forks.

```
Thread #6: lock order "0x6010C0 before 0x601160" violated
  at 0x4C23C91: pthread_mutex_lock (hg_intercepts.c:388)
  by 0x4007C0: dine (tc14_laog_dinphils.c:19)
  by 0x4C25DF7: mythread_wrapper (hg_intercepts.c:178)
  by 0x4E2F09D: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.5.so)
  by 0x51054CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.5.so)
```

7.4. Detected errors: Data Races

A data race happens, or could happen, when two threads access a shared memory location without using suitable locks or other synchronisation to ensure single-threaded access. Such missing locking can cause obscure timing dependent bugs. Ensuring programs are race-free is one of the central difficulties of threaded programming.

Reliably detecting races is a difficult problem, and most of Helgrind's internals are devoted to do dealing with it. We begin with a simple example.

7.4.1. A Simple Data Race

About the simplest possible example of a race is as follows. In this program, it is impossible to know what the value of `var` is at the end of the program. Is it 2 ? Or 1 ?

```
#include <pthread.h>

int var = 0;

void* child_fn ( void* arg ) {
    var++; /* Unprotected relative to parent */ /* this is line 6 */
    return NULL;
}

int main ( void ) {
    pthread_t child;
    pthread_create(&child, NULL, child_fn, NULL);
    var++; /* Unprotected relative to child */ /* this is line 13 */
    pthread_join(child, NULL);
    return 0;
}
```

The problem is there is nothing to stop `var` being updated simultaneously by both threads. A correct program would protect `var` with a lock of type `pthread_mutex_t`, which is acquired before each access and released afterwards. Helgrind's output for this program is:

```

Thread #1 is the program's root thread

Thread #2 was created
  at 0x511C08E: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E333A4: do_clone (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E33A30: pthread_create@@GLIBC_2.2.5 (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4C299D4: pthread_create@* (hg_intercepts.c:214)
  by 0x400605: main (simple_race.c:12)

Possible data race during read of size 4 at 0x601038 by thread #1
  at 0x400606: main (simple_race.c:13)
This conflicts with a previous write of size 4 by thread #2
  at 0x4005DC: child_fn (simple_race.c:6)
  by 0x4C29AFF: mythread_wrapper (hg_intercepts.c:194)
  by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x511C0CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
Location 0x601038 is 0 bytes inside global var "var"
declared at simple_race.c:3

```

This is quite a lot of detail for an apparently simple error. The last clause is the main error message. It says there is a race as a result of a read of size 4 (bytes), at 0x601038, which is the address of `var`, happening in function `main` at line 13 in the program.

Two important parts of the message are:

- Helgrind shows two stack traces for the error, not one. By definition, a race involves two different threads accessing the same location in such a way that the result depends on the relative speeds of the two threads.

The first stack trace follows the text "Possible data race during read of size 4 ..." and the second trace follows the text "This conflicts with a previous write of size 4 ...". Helgrind is usually able to show both accesses involved in a race. At least one of these will be a write (since two concurrent, unsynchronised reads are harmless), and they will of course be from different threads.

By examining your program at the two locations, you should be able to get at least some idea of what the root cause of the problem is.

- For races which occur on global or stack variables, Helgrind tries to identify the name and defining point of the variable. Hence the text "Location 0x601038 is 0 bytes inside global var "var" declared at simple_race.c:3".

Showing names of stack and global variables carries no run-time overhead once Helgrind has your program up and running. However, it does require Helgrind to spend considerable extra time and memory at program startup to read the relevant debug info. Hence this facility is disabled by default. To enable it, you need to give the `--read-var-info=yes` flag to Helgrind.

The following section explains Helgrind's race detection algorithm in more detail.

7.4.2. Helgrind's Race Detection Algorithm

Most programmers think about threaded programming in terms of the basic functionality provided by the threading library (POSIX Pthreads): thread creation, thread joining, locks, condition variables, semaphores and barriers.

The effect of using these functions is to impose on a threaded program, constraints upon the order in which memory accesses can happen. This implied ordering is generally known as the "happens-before relation". Once you understand the happens-before relation, it is easy to see how Helgrind finds races in your code. Fortunately, the happens-before relation is itself easy to understand, and is by itself a useful tool for reasoning about the behaviour of parallel programs. We now introduce it using a simple example.

Consider first the following buggy program:

```
Parent thread:                Child thread:

int var;

// create child thread
pthread_create(...)
var = 20;                      var = 10;
                                exit

// wait for child
pthread_join(...)
printf("%d\n", var);
```

The parent thread creates a child. Both then write different values to some variable `var`, and the parent then waits for the child to exit.

What is the value of `var` at the end of the program, 10 or 20? We don't know. The program is considered buggy (it has a race) because the final value of `var` depends on the relative rates of progress of the parent and child threads. If the parent is fast and the child is slow, then the child's assignment may happen later, so the final value will be 10; and vice versa if the child is faster than the parent.

The relative rates of progress of parent vs child is not something the programmer can control, and will often change from run to run. It depends on factors such as the load on the machine, what else is running, the kernel's scheduling strategy, and many other factors.

The obvious fix is to use a lock to protect `var`. It is however instructive to consider a somewhat more abstract solution, which is to send a message from one thread to the other:

```

Parent thread:                Child thread:

int var;

// create child thread
pthread_create(...)
var = 20;
// send message to child

                                // wait for message to arrive
                                var = 10;
                                exit

// wait for child
pthread_join(...)
printf("%d\n", var);

```

Now the program reliably prints "10", regardless of the speed of the threads. Why? Because the child's assignment cannot happen until after it receives the message. And the message is not sent until after the parent's assignment is done.

The message transmission creates a "happens-before" dependency between the two assignments: `var = 20;` must now happen-before `var = 10;`. And so there is no longer a race on `var`.

Note that it's not significant that the parent sends a message to the child. Sending a message from the child (after its assignment) to the parent (before its assignment) would also fix the problem, causing the program to reliably print "20".

Helgrind's algorithm is (conceptually) very simple. It monitors all accesses to memory locations. If a location -- in this example, `var`, is accessed by two different threads, Helgrind checks to see if the two accesses are ordered by the happens-before relation. If so, that's fine; if not, it reports a race.

It is important to understand the the happens-before relation creates only a partial ordering, not a total ordering. An example of a total ordering is comparison of numbers: for any two numbers x and y , either x is less than, equal to, or greater than y . A partial ordering is like a total ordering, but it can also express the concept that two elements are neither equal, less or greater, but merely unordered with respect to each other.

In the fixed example above, we say that `var = 20;` "happens-before" `var = 10;`. But in the original version, they are unordered: we cannot say that either happens-before the other.

What does it mean to say that two accesses from different threads are ordered by the happens-before relation? It means that there is some chain of inter-thread synchronisation operations which cause those accesses to happen in a particular order, irrespective of the actual rates of progress of the individual threads. This is a required property for a reliable threaded program, which is why Helgrind checks for it.

The happens-before relations created by standard threading primitives are as follows:

- When a mutex is unlocked by thread T1 and later (or immediately) locked by thread T2, then the memory accesses in T1 prior to the unlock must happen-before those in T2 after it acquires the lock.
- The same idea applies to reader-writer locks, although with some complication so as to allow correct handling of reads vs writes.

- When a condition variable (CV) is signalled on by thread T1 and some other thread T2 is thereby released from a wait on the same CV, then the memory accesses in T1 prior to the signalling must happen-before those in T2 after it returns from the wait. If no thread was waiting on the CV then there is no effect.
- If instead T1 broadcasts on a CV, then all of the waiting threads, rather than just one of them, acquire a happens-before dependency on the broadcasting thread at the point it did the broadcast.
- A thread T2 that continues after completing `sem_wait` on a semaphore that thread T1 posts on, acquires a happens-before dependence on the posting thread, a bit like dependencies caused mutex unlock-lock pairs. However, since a semaphore can be posted on many times, it is unspecified from which of the post calls the wait call gets its happens-before dependency.
- For a group of threads T1 .. Tn which arrive at a barrier and then move on, each thread after the call has a happens-after dependency from all threads before the barrier.
- A newly-created child thread acquires an initial happens-after dependency on the point where its parent created it. That is, all memory accesses performed by the parent prior to creating the child are regarded as happening-before all the accesses of the child.
- Similarly, when an exiting thread is reaped via a call to `pthread_join`, once the call returns, the reaping thread acquires a happens-after dependency relative to all memory accesses made by the exiting thread.

In summary: Helgrind intercepts the above listed events, and builds a directed acyclic graph representing the collective happens-before dependencies. It also monitors all memory accesses.

If a location is accessed by two different threads, but Helgrind cannot find any path through the happens-before graph from one access to the other, then it reports a race.

There are a couple of caveats:

- Helgrind doesn't check for a race in the case where both accesses are reads. That would be silly, since concurrent reads are harmless.
- Two accesses are considered to be ordered by the happens-before dependency even through arbitrarily long chains of synchronisation events. For example, if T1 accesses some location L, and then `pthread_cond_signal` T2, which later `pthread_cond_signal` T3, which then accesses L, then a suitable happens-before dependency exists between the first and second accesses, even though it involves two different inter-thread synchronisation events.

7.4.3. Interpreting Race Error Messages

Helgrind's race detection algorithm collects a lot of information, and tries to present it in a helpful way when a race is detected. Here's an example:

```

Thread #2 was created
  at 0x511C08E: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E333A4: do_clone (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E33A30: pthread_create@@GLIBC_2.2.5 (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4C299D4: pthread_create@* (hg_intercepts.c:214)
  by 0x4008F2: main (tc21_pthonce.c:86)

Thread #3 was created
  at 0x511C08E: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E333A4: do_clone (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4E33A30: pthread_create@@GLIBC_2.2.5 (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x4C299D4: pthread_create@* (hg_intercepts.c:214)
  by 0x4008F2: main (tc21_pthonce.c:86)

Possible data race during read of size 4 at 0x601070 by thread #3
  at 0x40087A: child (tc21_pthonce.c:74)
  by 0x4C29AFF: mythread_wrapper (hg_intercepts.c:194)
  by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x511C0CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
This conflicts with a previous write of size 4 by thread #2
  at 0x400883: child (tc21_pthonce.c:74)
  by 0x4C29AFF: mythread_wrapper (hg_intercepts.c:194)
  by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
  by 0x511C0CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
Location 0x601070 is 0 bytes inside local var "unprotected2"
declared at tc21_pthonce.c:51, in frame #0 of thread 3

```

Helgrind first announces the creation points of any threads referenced in the error message. This is so it can speak concisely about threads without repeatedly printing their creation point call stacks. Each thread is only ever announced once, the first time it appears in any Helgrind error message.

The main error message begins at the text "Possible data race during read". At the start is information you would expect to see -- address and size of the racing access, whether a read or a write, and the call stack at the point it was detected.

A second call stack is presented starting at the text "This conflicts with a previous write". This shows a previous access which also accessed the stated address, and which is believed to be racing against the access in the first call stack.

Finally, Helgrind may attempt to give a description of the raced-on address in source level terms. In this example, it identifies it as a local variable, shows its name, declaration point, and in which frame (of the first call stack) it lives. Note that this information is only shown when `--read-var-info=yes` is specified on the command line. That's because reading the DWARF3 debug information in enough detail to capture variable type and location information makes Helgrind much slower at startup, and also requires considerable amounts of memory, for large programs.

Once you have your two call stacks, how do you find the root cause of the race?

The first thing to do is examine the source locations referred to by each call stack. They should both show an access to the same location, or variable.

Now figure out how that location should have been made thread-safe:

- Perhaps the location was intended to be protected by a mutex? If so, you need to lock and unlock the mutex at both access points, even if one of the accesses is reported to be a read. Did you perhaps forget the locking at one or other of the accesses?
- Alternatively, perhaps you intended to use some other scheme to make it safe, such as signalling on a condition variable. In all such cases, try to find a synchronisation event (or a chain thereof) which separates the earlier-observed access (as shown in the second call stack) from the later-observed access (as shown in the first call stack). In other words, try to find evidence that the earlier access "happens-before" the later access. See the previous subsection for an explanation of the happens-before relation.

The fact that Helgrind is reporting a race means it did not observe any happens-before relation between the two accesses. If Helgrind is working correctly, it should also be the case that you also cannot find any such relation, even on detailed inspection of the source code. Hopefully, though, your inspection of the code will show where the missing synchronisation operation(s) should have been.

7.5. Hints and Tips for Effective Use of Helgrind

Helgrind can be very helpful in finding and resolving threading-related problems. Like all sophisticated tools, it is most effective when you understand how to play to its strengths.

Helgrind will be less effective when you merely throw an existing threaded program at it and try to make sense of any reported errors. It will be more effective if you design threaded programs from the start in a way that helps Helgrind verify correctness. The same is true for finding memory errors with Memcheck, but applies more here, because thread checking is a harder problem. Consequently it is much easier to write a correct program for which Helgrind falsely reports (threading) errors than it is to write a correct program for which Memcheck falsely reports (memory) errors.

With that in mind, here are some tips, listed most important first, for getting reliable results and avoiding false errors. The first two are critical. Any violations of them will swamp you with huge numbers of false data-race errors.

1. Make sure your application, and all the libraries it uses, use the POSIX threading primitives. Helgrind needs to be able to see all events pertaining to thread creation, exit, locking and other synchronisation events. To do so it intercepts many POSIX pthread_ functions.

Do not roll your own threading primitives (mutexes, etc) from combinations of the Linux futex syscall, atomic counters and wotnot. These throw Helgrind's internal what's-going-on models way off course and will give bogus results.

Also, do not reimplement existing POSIX abstractions using other POSIX abstractions. For example, don't build your own semaphore routines or reader-writer locks from POSIX mutexes and condition variables. Instead use POSIX reader-writer locks and semaphores directly, since Helgrind supports them directly.

Helgrind directly supports the following POSIX threading abstractions: mutexes, reader-writer locks, condition variables (but see below), semaphores and barriers. Currently spinlocks are not supported, although they could be in future.

At the time of writing, the following popular Linux packages are known to implement their own threading primitives:

- Qt version 4.X. Qt 3.X is harmless in that it only uses POSIX pthreads primitives. Unfortunately Qt 4.X has its own implementation of mutexes (QMutex) and thread reaping. Helgrind 3.4.x contains direct support for Qt 4.X threading, which is experimental but is believed to work fairly well. A side effect of supporting Qt 4 directly is that Helgrind can be used to debug KDE4 applications. As this is an experimental feature, we would particularly appreciate feedback from folks who have used Helgrind to successfully debug Qt 4 and/or KDE4 applications.
- Runtime support library for GNU OpenMP (part of GCC), at least GCC versions 4.2 and 4.3. The GNU OpenMP runtime library (libgomp.so) constructs its own synchronisation primitives using combinations of atomic memory instructions and the futex syscall, which causes total chaos since in Helgrind since it cannot "see" those.

Fortunately, this can be solved using a configuration-time flag (for gcc). Rebuild gcc from source, and configure using `--disable-linux-futex`. This makes libgomp.so use the standard POSIX threading primitives instead. Note that this was tested using gcc-4.2.3 and has not been re-tested using more recent gcc versions. We would appreciate hearing about any successes or failures with more recent versions.

2. Avoid memory recycling. If you can't avoid it, you must use tell Helgrind what is going on via the `VALGRIND_HG_CLEAN_MEMORY` client request (in `helgrind.h`).

Helgrind is aware of standard memory allocation and deallocation that occurs via `malloc/free/new/delete` and from entry and exit of stack frames. In particular, when memory is deallocated via `free`, `delete`, or function exit, Helgrind considers that memory clean, so when it is eventually reallocated, its history is irrelevant.

However, it is common practice to implement memory recycling schemes. In these, memory to be freed is not handed to `malloc/delete`, but instead put into a pool of free buffers to be handed out again as required. The problem is that Helgrind has no way to know that such memory is logically no longer in use, and its history is irrelevant. Hence you must make that explicit, using the `VALGRIND_HG_CLEAN_MEMORY` client request to specify the relevant address ranges. It's easiest to put these requests into the pool manager code, and use them either when memory is returned to the pool, or is allocated from it.

3. Avoid POSIX condition variables. If you can, use POSIX semaphores (`sem_t`, `sem_post`, `sem_wait`) to do inter-thread event signalling. Semaphores with an initial value of zero are particularly useful for this.

Helgrind only partially correctly handles POSIX condition variables. This is because Helgrind can see inter-thread dependencies between a `pthread_cond_wait` call and a `pthread_cond_signal/broadcast` call only if the waiting thread actually gets to the rendezvous first (so that it actually calls `pthread_cond_wait`). It can't see dependencies between the threads if the signaller arrives first. In the latter case, POSIX guidelines imply that the associated boolean condition still provides an inter-thread synchronisation event, but one which is invisible to Helgrind.

The result of Helgrind missing some inter-thread synchronisation events is to cause it to report false positives.

The root cause of this synchronisation lossage is particularly hard to understand, so an example is helpful. It was discussed at length by Arndt Muehlenfeld ("Runtime Race Detection in Multi-Threaded Programs", Dissertation, TU Graz, Austria). The canonical POSIX-recommended usage scheme for condition variables is as follows:

```
b is a Boolean condition, which is False most of the time
cv is a condition variable
mx is its associated mutex
```

```
Signaller:                               Waiter:

lock(mx)                                  lock(mx)
b = True                                   while (b == False)
```

```

signal (cv)                wait (cv, mx)
unlock (mx)                unlock (mx)

```

Assume `b` is `False` most of the time. If the waiter arrives at the rendezvous first, it enters its while-loop, waits for the signaller to signal, and eventually proceeds. Helgrind sees the signal, notes the dependency, and all is well.

If the signaller arrives first, `b` is set to `true`, and the signal disappears into nowhere. When the waiter later arrives, it does not enter its while-loop and simply carries on. But even in this case, the waiter code following the while-loop cannot execute until the signaller sets `b` to `True`. Hence there is still the same inter-thread dependency, but this time it is through an arbitrary in-memory condition, and Helgrind cannot see it.

By comparison, Helgrind's detection of inter-thread dependencies caused by semaphore operations is believed to be exactly correct.

As far as I know, a solution to this problem that does not require source-level annotation of condition-variable wait loops is beyond the current state of the art.

4. Make sure you are using a supported Linux distribution. At present, Helgrind only properly supports glibc-2.3 or later. This in turn means we only support glibc's NPTL threading implementation. The old LinuxThreads implementation is not supported.
5. Round up all finished threads using `pthread_join`. Avoid detaching threads: don't create threads in the detached state, and don't call `pthread_detach` on existing threads.

Using `pthread_join` to round up finished threads provides a clear synchronisation point that both Helgrind and programmers can see. If you don't call `pthread_join` on a thread, Helgrind has no way to know when it finishes, relative to any significant synchronisation points for other threads in the program. So it assumes that the thread lingers indefinitely and can potentially interfere indefinitely with the memory state of the program. It has every right to assume that -- after all, it might really be the case that, for scheduling reasons, the exiting thread did run very slowly in the last stages of its life.

6. Perform thread debugging (with Helgrind) and memory debugging (with Memcheck) together.

Helgrind tracks the state of memory in detail, and memory management bugs in the application are liable to cause confusion. In extreme cases, applications which do many invalid reads and writes (particularly to freed memory) have been known to crash Helgrind. So, ideally, you should make your application Memcheck-clean before using Helgrind.

It may be impossible to make your application Memcheck-clean unless you first remove threading bugs. In particular, it may be difficult to remove all reads and writes to freed memory in multithreaded C++ destructor sequences at program termination. So, ideally, you should make your application Helgrind-clean before using Memcheck.

Since this circularity is obviously unresolvable, at least bear in mind that Memcheck and Helgrind are to some extent complementary, and you may need to use them together.

7. POSIX requires that implementations of standard I/O (`printf`, `fprintf`, `fwrite`, `fread`, etc) are thread safe. Unfortunately GNU libc implements this by using internal locking primitives that Helgrind is unable to intercept. Consequently Helgrind generates many false race reports when you use these functions.

Helgrind attempts to hide these errors using the standard Valgrind error-suppression mechanism. So, at least for simple test cases, you don't see any. Nevertheless, some may slip through. Just something to be aware of.

8. Helgrind's error checks do not work properly inside the system threading library itself (`libpthread.so`), and it usually observes large numbers of (false) errors in there. Valgrind's suppression system then filters these out, so you should not see them.

If you see any race errors reported where `libpthread.so` or `ld.so` is the object associated with the innermost stack frame, please file a bug report at <http://www.valgrind.org>.

7.6. Helgrind Options

The following end-user options are available:

```
--track-lockorders=no|yes [default: yes]
```

When enabled (the default), Helgrind performs lock order consistency checking. For some buggy programs, the large number of lock order errors reported can become annoying, particularly if you're only interested in race errors. You may therefore find it helpful to disable lock order checking.

```
--show-conflicts=no|yes [default: yes]
```

When enabled (the default), Helgrind collects enough information about "old" accesses that it can produce two stack traces in a race report -- both the stack trace for the current access, and the trace for the older, conflicting access.

Collecting such information is expensive in both speed and memory. This flag disables collection of such information. Helgrind will run significantly faster and use less memory, but without the conflicting access stacks, it will be very much more difficult to track down the root causes of races. However, this option may be useful in situations where you just want to check for the presence or absence of races, for example, when doing regression testing of a previously race-free program.

```
--conflict-cache-size=N [default: 1000000]
```

Information about "old" conflicting accesses is stored in a cache of limited size, with LRU-style management. This is necessary because it isn't practical to store a stack trace for every single memory access made by the program. Historical information on not recently accessed locations is periodically discarded, to free up space in the cache.

This flag controls the size of the cache, in terms of the number of different memory addresses for which conflicting access information is stored. If you find that Helgrind is showing race errors with only one stack instead of the expected two stacks, try increasing this value.

The minimum value is 10,000 and the maximum is 10,000,000 (ten times the default value). Increasing the value by 1 increases Helgrind's memory requirement by very roughly 100 bytes, so the maximum value will easily eat up an extra gigabyte or so of memory.

In addition, the following debugging options are available for Helgrind:

```
--trace-malloc=no|yes [no]
```

Show all client malloc (etc) and free (etc) requests.

```
--cmp-race-err-addr=no|yes [no]
```

Controls whether or not race (data) addresses should be taken into account when removing duplicates of race errors. With `--cmp-race-err-addr=no`, two otherwise identical race errors will be considered to be the same if their race addresses differ. With `--cmp-race-err-addr=yes` they will be considered different. This is provided to help make certain regression tests work reliably.

```
--hg-sanity-flags=<XXXXXX> (X = 0|1) [000000]
```

Run extensive sanity checks on Helgrind's internal data structures at events defined by the bitstring, as follows:

010000 after changes to the lock order acquisition graph

001000 after every client memory access (NB: not currently used)

000100 after every client memory range permission setting of 256 bytes or greater

000010 after every client lock or unlock event

000001 after every client thread creation or joinage event

Note these will make Helgrind run very slowly, often to the point of being completely unusable.

7.7. A To-Do List for Helgrind

The following is a list of loose ends which should be tidied up some time.

- Track which mutexes are associated with which condition variables, and emit a warning if this becomes inconsistent.
- For lock order errors, print the complete lock cycle, rather than only doing for size-2 cycles as at present.
- Document the VALGRIND_HG_CLEAN_MEMORY client request.
- The conflicting access mechanism sometimes mysteriously fails to show the conflicting access' stack, even when provided with unbounded storage for conflicting access info. This should be investigated.
- Document races caused by gcc's thread-unsafe code generation for speculative stores. In the interim see <http://gcc.gnu.org/ml/gcc/2007-10/msg00266.html> and <http://lkml.org/lkml/2007/10/24/673>.
- Don't update the lock-order graph, and don't check for errors, when a "try"-style lock operation happens (eg `pthread_mutex_trylock`). Such calls do not add any real restrictions to the locking order, since they can always fail to acquire the lock, resulting in the caller going off and doing Plan B (presumably it will have a Plan B). Doing such checks could generate false lock-order errors and confuse users.
- Performance can be very poor. Slowdowns on the order of 100:1 are not unusual. There is limited scope for performance improvements.

8. DRD: a thread error detector

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=drd` on the Valgrind command line.

8.1. Background

DRD is a Valgrind tool for detecting errors in multithreaded C and C++ shared-memory programs. The tool works for any program that uses the POSIX threading primitives or that uses threading concepts built on top of the POSIX threading primitives.

8.1.1. Multithreaded Programming Paradigms

For many applications multithreading is a necessity. There are two reasons why the use of threads may be required:

- To model concurrent activities. Managing the state of one activity per thread can be a great simplification compared to multiplexing the states of multiple activities in a single thread. This is why most server and embedded software is multithreaded.
- To let computations run on multiple CPU cores simultaneously. This is why many High Performance Computing (HPC) applications are multithreaded.

Multithreaded programs can use one or more of the following paradigms. Which paradigm is appropriate a.o. depends on the application type -- modeling concurrent activities versus HPC. Some examples of multithreaded programming paradigms are:

- Locking. Data that is shared between threads may only be accessed after a lock has been obtained on the mutex associated with the shared data item. A.o. the POSIX threads library, the Qt library and the Boost.Thread library support this paradigm directly.
- Message passing. No data is shared between threads, but threads exchange data by passing messages to each other. Well known implementations of the message passing paradigm are MPI and CORBA.
- Automatic parallelization. A compiler converts a sequential program into a multithreaded program. The original program may or may not contain parallelization hints. As an example, `gcc` supports the OpenMP standard from `gcc` version 4.3.0 on. OpenMP is a set of compiler directives which tell a compiler how to parallelize a C, C++ or Fortran program.
- Software Transactional Memory (STM). Data is shared between threads, and shared data is updated via transactions. After each transaction it is verified whether there were conflicting transactions. If there were conflicts, the transaction is aborted, otherwise it is committed. This is a so-called optimistic approach. There is a prototype of the Intel C Compiler (`icc`) available that supports STM. Research is ongoing about the addition of STM support to `gcc`.

DRD supports any combination of multithreaded programming paradigms as long as the implementation of these paradigms is based on the POSIX threads primitives. DRD however does not support programs that use e.g. Linux' futexes directly. Attempts to analyze such programs with DRD will cause DRD to report many false positives.

8.1.2. POSIX Threads Programming Model

POSIX threads, also known as Pthreads, is the most widely available threading library on Unix systems.

The POSIX threads programming model is based on the following abstractions:

- A shared address space. All threads running within the same process share the same address space. All data, whether shared or not, is identified by its address.
- Regular load and store operations, which allow to read values from or to write values to the memory shared by all threads running in the same process.
- Atomic store and load-modify-store operations. While these are not mentioned in the POSIX threads standard, most microprocessors support atomic memory operations. And some compilers provide direct support for atomic memory operations through built-in functions like e.g. `__sync_fetch_and_add()` which is supported by both `gcc` and `icc`.
- Threads. Each thread represents a concurrent activity.
- Synchronization objects and operations on these synchronization objects. The following types of synchronization objects are defined in the POSIX threads standard: mutexes, condition variables, semaphores, reader-writer locks, barriers and spinlocks.

Which source code statements generate which memory accesses depends on the *memory model* of the programming language being used. There is not yet a definitive memory model for the C and C++ languages. For a draft memory model, see also document WG21/N2338.

For more information about POSIX threads, see also the Single UNIX Specification version 3, also known as IEEE Std 1003.1.

8.1.3. Multithreaded Programming Problems

Depending on which multithreading paradigm is being used in a program, one or more of the following problems can occur:

- Data races. One or more threads access the same memory location without sufficient locking.
- Lock contention. One thread blocks the progress of one or more other threads by holding a lock too long.
- Improper use of the POSIX threads API. The most popular POSIX threads implementation, NPTL, is optimized for speed. The NPTL will not complain on certain errors, e.g. when a mutex is locked in one thread and unlocked in another thread.
- Deadlock. A deadlock occurs when two or more threads wait for each other indefinitely.
- False sharing. If threads that run on different processor cores access different variables located in the same cache line frequently, this will slow down the involved threads a lot due to frequent exchange of cache lines.

Although the likelihood of the occurrence of data races can be reduced through a disciplined programming style, a tool for automatic detection of data races is a necessity when developing multithreaded software. DRD can detect these, as well as lock contention and improper use of the POSIX threads API.

8.1.4. Data Race Detection

Synchronization operations impose an order on interthread memory accesses. This order is also known as the happens-before relationship.

A multithreaded program is data-race free if all interthread memory accesses are ordered by synchronization operations.

A well known way to ensure that a multithreaded program is data-race free is to ensure that a locking discipline is followed. It is e.g. possible to associate a mutex with each shared data item, and to hold a lock on the associated mutex while the shared data is accessed.

All programs that follow a locking discipline are data-race free, but not all data-race free programs follow a locking discipline. There exist multithreaded programs where access to shared data is arbitrated via condition variables, semaphores or barriers. As an example, a certain class of HPC applications consists of a sequence of computation steps separated in time by barriers, and where these barriers are the only means of synchronization.

There exist two different algorithms for verifying the correctness of multithreaded programs at runtime. The so-called Eraser algorithm verifies whether all shared memory accesses follow a consistent locking strategy. And the happens-before data race detectors verify directly whether all interthread memory accesses are ordered by synchronization operations. While the happens-before data race detection algorithm is more complex to implement, and while it is more sensitive to OS scheduling, it is a general approach that works for all classes of multithreaded programs. Furthermore, the happens-before data race detection algorithm does not report any false positives.

DRD is based on the happens-before algorithm.

8.2. Using DRD

8.2.1. Command Line Options

The following command-line options are available for controlling the behavior of the DRD tool itself:

```
--check-stack-var=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

Controls whether DRD reports data races for stack variables. This is disabled by default in order to accelerate data race detection. Most programs do not share stack variables over threads.

```
--exclusive-threshold=<n> [default: off]
```

Print an error message if any mutex or writer lock has been held longer than the specified time (in milliseconds). This option enables detecting lock contention.

```
--report-signal-unlocked=<yes|no> [default: yes]
```

Whether to report calls to `pthread_cond_signal()` and `pthread_cond_broadcast()` where the mutex associated with the signal through `pthread_cond_wait()` or `pthread_cond_timedwait()` is not locked at the time the signal is sent. Sending a signal without holding a lock on the associated mutex is a common programming error which can cause subtle race conditions and unpredictable behavior. There exist some uncommon synchronization patterns however where it is safe to send a signal without holding a lock on the associated mutex.

`--segment-merging=<yes|no> [default: yes]`

Controls segment merging. Segment merging is an algorithm to limit memory usage of the data race detection algorithm. Disabling segment merging may improve the accuracy of the so-called 'other segments' displayed in race reports but can also trigger an out of memory error.

`--shared-threshold=<n> [default: off]`

Print an error message if a reader lock has been held longer than the specified time (in milliseconds). This option enables detection of lock contention.

`--show-conf1-seg=<yes|no> [default: yes]`

Show conflicting segments in race reports. Since this information can help to find the cause of a data race, this option is enabled by default. Disabling this option makes the output of DRD more compact.

`--show-stack-usage=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Print stack usage at thread exit time. When a program creates a large number of threads it becomes important to limit the amount of virtual memory allocated for thread stacks. This option makes it possible to observe how much stack memory has been used by each thread of the the client program. Note: the DRD tool allocates some temporary data on the client thread stack itself. The space necessary for this temporary data must be allocated by the client program, but is not included in the reported stack usage.

`--var-info=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Display the names of global, static and stack variables when a data race is reported. While this information can be very helpful, it is not loaded into memory by default. This is because for big programs reading in all debug information at once may cause an out of memory error.

The following options are available for monitoring the behavior of the client program:

`--trace-addr=<address> [default: none]`

Trace all load and store activity for the specified address. This option may be specified more than once.

`--trace-barrier=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Trace all barrier activity.

`--trace-cond=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Trace all condition variable activity.

`--trace-fork-join=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Trace all thread creation and all thread termination events.

`--trace-mutex=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Trace all mutex activity.

`--trace-rwlock=<yes|no> [default: no]`

Trace all reader-writer lock activity.

```
--trace-semaphore=<yes|no> [default: no]
Trace all semaphore activity.
```

8.2.2. Detected Errors: Data Races

DRD prints a message every time it detects a data race. Please keep the following in mind when interpreting DRD's output:

- Every thread is assigned two *thread ID*'s: one thread ID is assigned by the Valgrind core and one thread ID is assigned by DRD. Both thread ID's start at one. Valgrind thread ID's are reused when one thread finishes and another thread is created. DRD does not reuse thread ID's. Thread ID's are displayed e.g. as follows: 2/3, where the first number is Valgrind's thread ID and the second number is the thread ID assigned by DRD.
- The term *segment* refers to a consecutive sequence of load, store and synchronization operations, all issued by the same thread. A segment always starts and ends at a synchronization operation. Data race analysis is performed between segments instead of between individual load and store operations because of performance reasons.
- There are always at least two memory accesses involved in a data race. Memory accesses involved in a data race are called *conflicting memory accesses*. DRD prints a report for each memory access that conflicts with a past memory access.

Below you can find an example of a message printed by DRD when it detects a data race:

```
$ valgrind --tool=drd --var-info=yes drd/tests/rwlock_race
...
==9466== Thread 3:
==9466== Conflicting load by thread 3/3 at 0x006020b8 size 4
==9466==   at 0x400B6C: thread_func (rwlock_race.c:29)
==9466==   by 0x4C291DF: vg_thread_wrapper (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:186)
==9466==   by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
==9466==   by 0x53250CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
==9466== Location 0x6020b8 is 0 bytes inside local var "s_racy"
==9466== declared at rwlock_race.c:18, in frame #0 of thread 3
==9466== Other segment start (thread 2/2)
==9466==   at 0x4C2847D: pthread_rwlock_rdlock* (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:813)
==9466==   by 0x400B6B: thread_func (rwlock_race.c:28)
==9466==   by 0x4C291DF: vg_thread_wrapper (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:186)
==9466==   by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
==9466==   by 0x53250CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
==9466== Other segment end (thread 2/2)
==9466==   at 0x4C28B54: pthread_rwlock_unlock* (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:912)
==9466==   by 0x400B84: thread_func (rwlock_race.c:30)
==9466==   by 0x4C291DF: vg_thread_wrapper (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:186)
==9466==   by 0x4E3403F: start_thread (in /lib64/libpthread-2.8.so)
==9466==   by 0x53250CC: clone (in /lib64/libc-2.8.so)
...

```

The above report has the following meaning:

- The number in the column on the left is the process ID of the process being analyzed by DRD.
- The first line ("Thread 3") tells you Valgrind's thread ID for the thread in which context the data race was detected.
- The next line tells which kind of operation was performed (load or store) and by which thread. Both Valgrind's and DRD's thread ID's are displayed. On the same line the start address and the number of bytes involved in the conflicting access are also displayed.
- Next, the call stack of the conflicting access is displayed. If your program has been compiled with debug information (-g), this call stack will include file names and line numbers. The two bottommost frames in this call stack (clone and start_thread) show how the NPTL starts a thread. The third frame (vg_thread_wrapper) is added by DRD. The fourth frame (thread_func) is the first interesting line because it shows the thread entry point, that is the function that has been passed as the third argument to pthread_create().
- Next, the allocation context for the conflicting address is displayed. For dynamically allocated data the allocation call stack is shown. For static variables and stack variables the allocation context is only shown when the option --var-info=yes has been specified. Otherwise DRD will print Allocation context: unknown.
- A conflicting access involves at least two memory accesses. For one of these accesses an exact call stack is displayed, and for the other accesses an approximate call stack is displayed, namely the start and the end of the segments of the other accesses. This information can be interpreted as follows:
 1. Start at the bottom of both call stacks, and count the number stack frames with identical function name, file name and line number. In the above example the three bottommost frames are identical (clone, start_thread and vg_thread_wrapper).
 2. The next higher stack frame in both call stacks now tells you between in which source code region the other memory access happened. The above output tells that the other memory access involved in the data race happened between source code lines 28 and 30 in file rwlock_race.c.

8.2.3. Detected Errors: Lock Contention

Threads must be able to make progress without being blocked for too long by other threads. Sometimes a thread has to wait until a mutex or reader-writer lock is unlocked by another thread. This is called *lock contention*.

Lock contention causes delays. Such delays should be as short as possible. The two command line options --exclusive-threshold=<n> and --shared-threshold=<n> make it possible to detect excessive lock contention by making DRD report any lock that has been held longer than the specified threshold. An example:

```
$ valgrind --tool=drd --exclusive-threshold=10 drd/tests/hold_lock -i 500
...
==10668== Acquired at:
==10668==   at 0x4C267C8: pthread_mutex_lock (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:395)
==10668==   by 0x400D92: main (hold_lock.c:51)
==10668== Lock on mutex 0x7feffd50 was held during 503 ms (threshold: 10 ms).
==10668==   at 0x4C26ADA: pthread_mutex_unlock (drd_pthread_intercepts.c:441)
==10668==   by 0x400DB5: main (hold_lock.c:55)
...
```

The `hold_lock` test program holds a lock as long as specified by the `-i` (interval) argument. The DRD output reports that the lock acquired at line 51 in source file `hold_lock.c` and released at line 55 was held during 503 ms, while a threshold of 10 ms was specified to DRD.

8.2.4. Detected Errors: Misuse of the POSIX threads API

DRD is able to detect and report the following misuses of the POSIX threads API:

- Passing the address of one type of synchronization object (e.g. a mutex) to a POSIX API call that expects a pointer to another type of synchronization object (e.g. a condition variable).
- Attempts to unlock a mutex that has not been locked.
- Attempts to unlock a mutex that was locked by another thread.
- Attempts to lock a mutex of type `PTHREAD_MUTEX_NORMAL` or a spinlock recursively.
- Destruction or deallocation of a locked mutex.
- Sending a signal to a condition variable while no lock is held on the mutex associated with the signal.
- Calling `pthread_cond_wait()` on a mutex that is not locked, that is locked by another thread or that has been locked recursively.
- Associating two different mutexes with a condition variable through `pthread_cond_wait()`.
- Destruction or deallocation of a condition variable that is being waited upon.
- Destruction or deallocation of a locked reader-writer lock.
- Attempts to unlock a reader-writer lock that was not locked by the calling thread.
- Attempts to recursively lock a reader-writer lock exclusively.
- Reinitialization of a mutex, condition variable, reader-writer lock, semaphore or barrier.
- Destruction or deallocation of a semaphore or barrier that is being waited upon.
- Exiting a thread without first unlocking the spinlocks, mutexes or reader-writer locks that were locked by that thread.

8.2.5. Client Requests

Just as for other Valgrind tools it is possible to let a client program interact with the DRD tool.

The interface between client programs and the DRD tool is defined in the header file `<valgrind/drd.h>`. The available client requests are:

- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_GET_VALGRIND_THREAD_ID`. Query the thread ID that was assigned by the Valgrind core to the thread executing this client request. Valgrind's thread ID's start at one and are recycled in case a thread stops.

- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_GET_DRD_THREAD_ID`. Query the thread ID that was assigned by DRD to the thread executing this client request. DRD's thread ID's start at one and are never recycled.
- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_START_SUPPRESSION`. Some applications contain intentional races. There exist e.g. applications where the same value is assigned to a shared variable from two different threads. It may be more convenient to suppress such races than to solve these. This client request allows to suppress such races. See also the macro `DRD_IGNORE_VAR(x)` defined in `<valgrind/drd.h>`.
- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_FINISH_SUPPRESSION`. Tell DRD to no longer ignore data races in the address range that was suppressed via `VG_USERREQ__DRD_START_SUPPRESSION`.
- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_START_TRACE_ADDR`. Trace all load and store activity on the specified address range. When DRD reports a data race on a specified variable, and it's not immediately clear which source code statements triggered the conflicting accesses, it can be helpful to trace all activity on the offending memory location. See also the macro `DRD_TRACE_VAR(x)` defined in `<valgrind/drd.h>`.
- `VG_USERREQ__DRD_STOP_TRACE_ADDR`. Do no longer trace load and store activity for the specified address range.

Note: if you compiled Valgrind yourself, the header file `<valgrind/drd.h>` will have been installed in the directory `/usr/include` by the command `make install`. If you obtained Valgrind by installing it as a package however, you will probably have to install another package with a name like `valgrind-devel` before Valgrind's header files are present.

8.2.6. Debugging GNOME Programs

GNOME applications use the threading primitives provided by the `glib` and `gthread` libraries. These libraries are built on top of POSIX threads, and hence are directly supported by DRD. Please keep in mind that you have to call `g_thread_init()` before creating any threads, or DRD will report several data races on `glib` functions. See also the GLib Reference Manual for more information about `g_thread_init()`.

One of the many facilities provided by the `glib` library is a block allocator, called `g_slice`. You have to disable this block allocator when using DRD by adding the following to the shell environment variables: `G_SLICE=always-malloc`. See also the GLib Reference Manual for more information.

8.2.7. Debugging Qt Programs

The Qt library is the GUI library used by the KDE project. Currently there are two versions of the Qt library in use: Qt3 by KDE 3 and Qt4 by KDE 4. If possible, use Qt4 instead of Qt3. Qt3 is no longer supported, and there are known problems with multithreading support in Qt3. As an example, using `QString` objects in more than one thread will trigger race reports (this has been confirmed by Trolltech -- see also Trolltech task #206152).

Qt4 applications are supported by DRD, but only if the `libqt4-debuginfo` package has been installed. Some of the synchronization and threading primitives in Qt4 bypass the POSIX threads library, and DRD can only intercept these if symbol information for the Qt4 library is available. DRD won't tell you if it has not been able to load the Qt4 debug information, but a huge number of data races will be reported on data protected via `QMutex` objects.

8.2.8. Debugging Boost.Thread Programs

The Boost.Thread library is the threading library included with the cross-platform Boost Libraries. This threading library is an early implementation of the upcoming C++0x threading library.

Applications that use the Boost.Thread library should run fine under DRD.

More information about Boost.Thread can be found here:

- Anthony Williams, Boost.Thread Library Documentation, Boost website, 2007.
- Anthony Williams, What's New in Boost Threads?, Recent changes to the Boost Thread library, Dr. Dobbs Magazine, October 2008.

8.2.9. Debugging OpenMP Programs

OpenMP stands for *Open Multi-Processing*. The OpenMP standard consists of a set of compiler directives for C, C++ and Fortran programs that allows a compiler to transform a sequential program into a parallel program. OpenMP is well suited for HPC applications and allows to work at a higher level compared to direct use of the POSIX threads API. While OpenMP ensures that the POSIX API is used correctly, OpenMP programs can still contain data races. So it makes sense to verify OpenMP programs with a thread checking tool.

DRD supports OpenMP shared-memory programs generated by gcc. The gcc compiler supports OpenMP since version 4.2.0. Gcc's runtime support for OpenMP programs is provided by a library called `libgomp`. The synchronization primitives implemented in this library use Linux' `futex` system call directly, unless the library has been configured with the `--disable-linux-futex` flag. DRD only supports `libgomp` libraries that have been configured with this flag and in which symbol information is present. For most Linux distributions this means that you will have to recompile gcc. See also the script `drd/scripts/download-and-build-gcc` in the Valgrind source tree for an example of how to compile gcc. You will also have to make sure that the newly compiled `libgomp.so` library is loaded when OpenMP programs are started. This is possible by adding a line similar to the following to your shell startup script:

```
export LD_LIBRARY_PATH=~/.gcc-4.3.2/lib64:~/.gcc-4.3.2/lib:
```

As an example, the test OpenMP test program `drd/tests/omp_matinv` triggers a data race when the option `-r` has been specified on the command line. The data race is triggered by the following code:

```
#pragma omp parallel for private(j)
for (j = 0; j < rows; j++)
{
  if (i != j)
  {
    const elem_t factor = a[j * cols + i];
    for (k = 0; k < cols; k++)
    {
      a[j * cols + k] -= a[i * cols + k] * factor;
    }
  }
}
```

The above code is racy because the variable `k` has not been declared private. DRD will print the following error message for the above code:

```
$ valgrind --check-stack-var=yes --var-info=yes --tool=drd drd/tests/omp_matinv 3 -t 2 -r
...
Conflicting store by thread 1/1 at 0x7feffffbc4 size 4
  at 0x4014A0: gj.omp_fn.0 (omp_matinv.c:203)
  by 0x401211: gj (omp_matinv.c:159)
  by 0x40166A: invert_matrix (omp_matinv.c:238)
  by 0x4019B4: main (omp_matinv.c:316)
Allocation context: unknown.
...
```

In the above output the function name `gj.omp_fn.0` has been generated by `gcc` from the function name `gj`. Unfortunately the variable name `k` is not shown as the allocation context -- it is not clear to me whether this is caused by Valgrind or whether this is caused by `gcc`. The most usable information in the above output is the source file name and the line number where the data race has been detected (`omp_matinv.c:203`).

Note: DRD reports errors on the `libgomp` library included with `gcc` 4.2.0 up to and including 4.3.2. This might indicate a race condition in the POSIX version of `libgomp`.

For more information about OpenMP, see also openmp.org.

8.2.10. DRD and Custom Memory Allocators

DRD tracks all memory allocation events that happen via either the standard memory allocation and deallocation functions (`malloc`, `free`, `new` and `delete`) or via entry and exit of stack frames. DRD uses memory allocation and deallocation information for two purposes:

- To know where the scope ends of POSIX objects that have not been destroyed explicitly. It is e.g. not required by the POSIX threads standard to call `pthread_mutex_destroy()` before freeing the memory in which a mutex object resides.
- To know where the scope of variables ends. If e.g. heap memory has been used by one thread, that thread frees that memory, and another thread allocates and starts using that memory, no data races must be reported for that memory.

It is essential for correct operation of DRD that the tool knows about memory allocation and deallocation events. DRD does not yet support custom memory allocators, so you will have to make sure that any program which runs under DRD uses the standard memory allocation functions. As an example, the GNU `libstdc++` library can be configured to use standard memory allocation functions instead of memory pools by setting the environment variable `GLIBCXX_FORCE_NEW`. For more information, see also the `libstdc++` manual.

8.2.11. DRD Versus Memcheck

It is essential for correct operation of DRD that there are no memory errors such as dangling pointers in the client program. Which means that it is a good idea to make sure that your program is `memcheck`-clean before you analyze it with DRD. It is possible however that some of the `memcheck` reports are caused by data races. In this case it makes sense to run DRD before `memcheck`.

So which tool should be run first ? In case both DRD and memcheck complain about a program, a possible approach is to run both tools alternately and to fix as many errors as possible after each run of each tool until none of the two tools prints any more error messages.

8.2.12. Resource Requirements

The requirements of DRD with regard to heap and stack memory and the effect on the execution time of client programs are as follows:

- When running a program under DRD with default DRD options, between 1.1 and 3.6 times more memory will be needed compared to a native run of the client program. More memory will be needed if loading debug information has been enabled (`--var-info=yes`).
- DRD allocates some of its temporary data structures on the stack of the client program threads. This amount of data is limited to 1 - 2 KB. Make sure that thread stacks are sufficiently large.
- Most applications will run between 20 and 50 times slower under DRD than a native single-threaded run. Applications such as Firefox which perform very much mutex lock / unlock operations however will run too slow to be usable under DRD. This issue will be addressed in a future DRD version.

8.2.13. Hints and Tips for Effective Use of DRD

The following information may be helpful when using DRD:

- Make sure that debug information is present in the executable being analysed, such that DRD can print function name and line number information in stack traces. Most compilers can be told to include debug information via compiler option `-g`.
- Compile with flag `-O1` instead of `-O0`. This will reduce the amount of generated code, may reduce the amount of debug info and will speed up DRD's processing of the client program. For more information, see also [Getting started](#).
- If DRD reports any errors on libraries that are part of your Linux distribution like e.g. `libc.so` or `libstdc++.so`, installing the debug packages for these libraries will make the output of DRD a lot more detailed.
- When using C++, do not send output from more than one thread to `std::cout`. Doing so would not only generate multiple data race reports, it could also result in output from several threads getting mixed up. Either use `printf()` or do the following:
 1. Derive a class from `std::ostreambuf` and let that class send output line by line to `stdout`. This will avoid that individual lines of text produced by different threads get mixed up.
 2. Create one instance of `std::ostream` for each thread. This makes stream formatting settings thread-local. Pass a per-thread instance of the class derived from `std::ostreambuf` to the constructor of each instance.
 3. Let each thread send its output to its own instance of `std::ostream` instead of `std::cout`.

8.3. Using the POSIX Threads API Effectively

8.3.1. Mutex types

The Single UNIX Specification version two defines the following four mutex types (see also the documentation of `pthread_mutexattr_settype()`):

- *normal*, which means that no error checking is performed, and that the mutex is non-recursive.
- *error checking*, which means that the mutex is non-recursive and that error checking is performed.
- *recursive*, which means that a mutex may be locked recursively.
- *default*, which means that error checking behavior is undefined, and that the behavior for recursive locking is also undefined. Or: portable code must neither trigger error conditions through the Pthreads API nor attempt to lock a mutex of default type recursively.

In complex applications it is not always clear from beforehand which mutex will be locked recursively and which mutex will not be locked recursively. Attempts lock a non-recursive mutex recursively will result in race conditions that are very hard to find without a thread checking tool. So either use the error checking mutex type and consistently check the return value of Pthread API mutex calls, or use the recursive mutex type.

8.3.2. Condition variables

A condition variable allows one thread to wake up one or more other threads. Condition variables are often used to notify one or more threads about state changes of shared data. Unfortunately it is very easy to introduce race conditions by using condition variables as the only means of state information propagation. A better approach is to let threads poll for changes of a state variable that is protected by a mutex, and to use condition variables only as a thread wakeup mechanism. See also the source file `drd/tests/monitor_example.cpp` for an example of how to implement this concept in C++. The monitor concept used in this example is a well known and very useful concept -- see also Wikipedia for more information about the monitor concept.

8.3.3. `pthread_cond_timedwait()` and timeouts

Historically the function `pthread_cond_timedwait()` only allowed the specification of an absolute timeout, that is a timeout independent of the time when this function was called. However, almost every call to this function expresses a relative timeout. This typically happens by passing the sum of `clock_gettime(CLOCK_REALTIME)` and a relative timeout as the third argument. This approach is incorrect since forward or backward clock adjustments by e.g. ntpd will affect the timeout. A more reliable approach is as follows:

- When initializing a condition variable through `pthread_cond_init()`, specify that the timeout of `pthread_cond_timedwait()` will use the clock `CLOCK_MONOTONIC` instead of `CLOCK_REALTIME`. You can do this via `pthread_condattr_setclock(..., CLOCK_MONOTONIC)`.
- When calling `pthread_cond_timedwait()`, pass the sum of `clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC)` and a relative timeout as the third argument.

See also `drd/tests/monitor_example.cpp` for an example.

8.3.4. Assigning names to threads

Many applications log information about changes in internal or external state to a file. When analyzing log files of a multithreaded application it can be very convenient to know which thread logged which information. One possible approach is to identify threads in logging output by including the result of `pthread_self()` in every log line. However, this approach has two disadvantages: there is no direct relationship between these values and the source code and these values can be different in each run. A better approach is to assign a brief name to each thread and to include the assigned thread name in each log line. One possible approach for managing thread names is as follows:

- Allocate a key for the pointer to the thread name through `pthread_key_create()`.
- Just after thread creation, set the thread name through `pthread_setspecific()`.
- In the code that generates the logging information, query the thread name by calling `pthread_getspecific()`.

8.4. Limitations

DRD currently has the following limitations:

- DRD has only been tested on the Linux operating system, and not on any of the other operating systems supported by Valgrind.
- Of the two POSIX threads implementations for Linux, only the NPTL (Native POSIX Thread Library) is supported. The older LinuxThreads library is not supported.
- DRD, just like memcheck, will refuse to start on Linux distributions where all symbol information has been removed from `ld.so`. This is a.o. the case for the PPC editions of openSUSE and Gentoo. You will have to install the `glibc debuginfo` package on these platforms before you can use DRD. See also openSUSE bug 396197 and Gentoo bug 214065.
- When DRD prints a report about a data race detected on a stack variable in a parallel section of an OpenMP program, the report will contain no information about the context of the data race location (`Allocation context: unknown`). It's not yet clear whether this behavior is caused by Valgrind or by gcc.
- When address tracing is enabled, no information on atomic stores will be displayed. This functionality is easy to add however. Please contact the Valgrind authors if you would like to see this functionality enabled.
- If you compile the DRD source code yourself, you need gcc 3.0 or later. Gcc 2.95 is not supported.

8.5. Feedback

If you have any comments, suggestions, feedback or bug reports about DRD, feel free to either post a message on the Valgrind users mailing list or to file a bug report. See also <http://www.valgrind.org/> for more information.

9. Massif: a heap profiler

Please note that this documentation describes Massif version 3.3.0 and later. Massif was significantly overhauled for 3.3.0; versions 3.2.3 and earlier presented the profiling information in a quite different manner, and so this documentation only pertains to the later versions.

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=massif` on the Valgrind command line.

9.1. Heap profiling

Massif is a heap profiler. It measures how much heap memory your program uses. This includes both the useful space, and the extra bytes allocated for book-keeping purposes and alignment purposes. It can also measure the size of your program's stack(s), although it does not do so by default.

Heap profiling can help you reduce the amount of memory your program uses. On modern machines with virtual memory, this provides the following benefits:

- It can speed up your program -- a smaller program will interact better with your machine's caches and avoid paging.
- If your program uses lots of memory, it will reduce the chance that it exhausts your machine's swap space.

Also, there are certain space leaks that aren't detected by traditional leak-checkers, such as Memcheck's. That's because the memory isn't ever actually lost -- a pointer remains to it -- but it's not in use. Programs that have leaks like this can unnecessarily increase the amount of memory they are using over time. Massif can help identify these leaks.

Importantly, Massif tells you not only how much heap memory your program is using, it also gives very detailed information that indicates which parts of your program are responsible for allocating the heap memory.

9.2. Using Massif

First off, as for the other Valgrind tools, you should compile with debugging info (the `-g` flag). It shouldn't matter much what optimisation level you compile your program with, as this is unlikely to affect the heap memory usage.

Then, to gather heap profiling information about the program `prog`, type:

```
% valgrind --tool=massif prog
```

The program will execute (slowly). Upon completion, no summary statistics are printed to Valgrind's commentary; all of Massif's profiling data is written to a file. By default, this file is called `massif.out.<pid>`, where `<pid>` is the process ID.

To see the information gathered by Massif in an easy-to-read form, use the `ms_print` script. If the output file's name is `massif.out.12345`, type:

```
% ms_print massif.out.12345
```

`ms_print` will produce (a) a graph showing the memory consumption over the program's execution, and (b) detailed information about the responsible allocation sites at various points in the program, including the point of peak memory

allocation. The use of a separate script for presenting the results is deliberate: it separates the data gathering from its presentation, and means that new methods of presenting the data can be added in the future.

9.2.1. An Example Program

An example will make things clear. Consider the following C program (annotated with line numbers) which allocates a number of different blocks on the heap.

```
1  #include <stdlib.h>
2
3  void g(void)
4  {
5      malloc(4000);
6  }
7
8  void f(void)
9  {
10     malloc(2000);
11     g();
12 }
13
14 int main(void)
15 {
16     int i;
17     int* a[10];
18
19     for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
20         a[i] = malloc(1000);
21     }
22
23     f();
24
25     g();
26
27     for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
28         free(a[i]);
29     }
30
31     return 0;
32 }
```

9.2.2. The Output Preamble

After running this program under Massif, the first part of `ms_print`'s output contains a preamble which just states how the program, Massif and `ms_print` were each invoked:

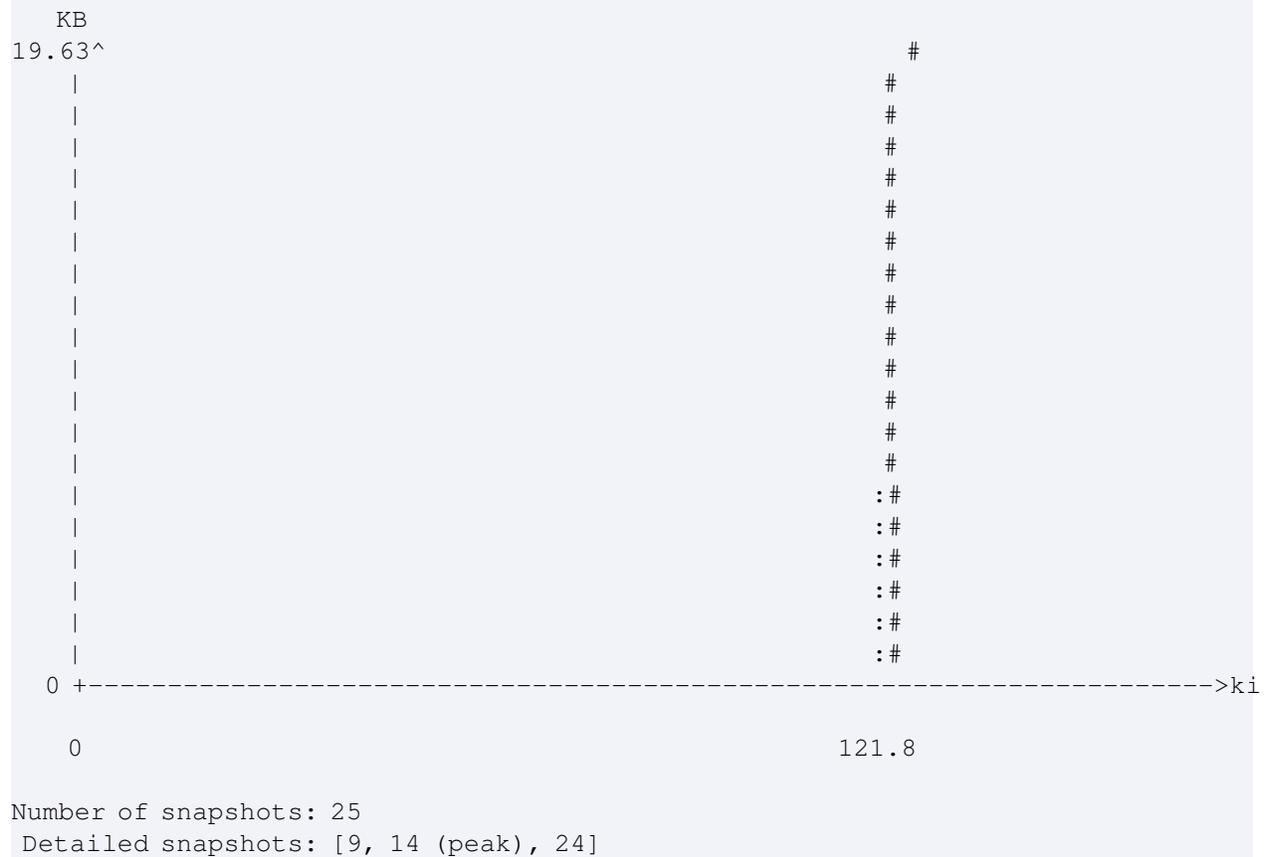
```

Command:          example
Massif arguments: (none)
ms_print arguments: massif.out.12797

```

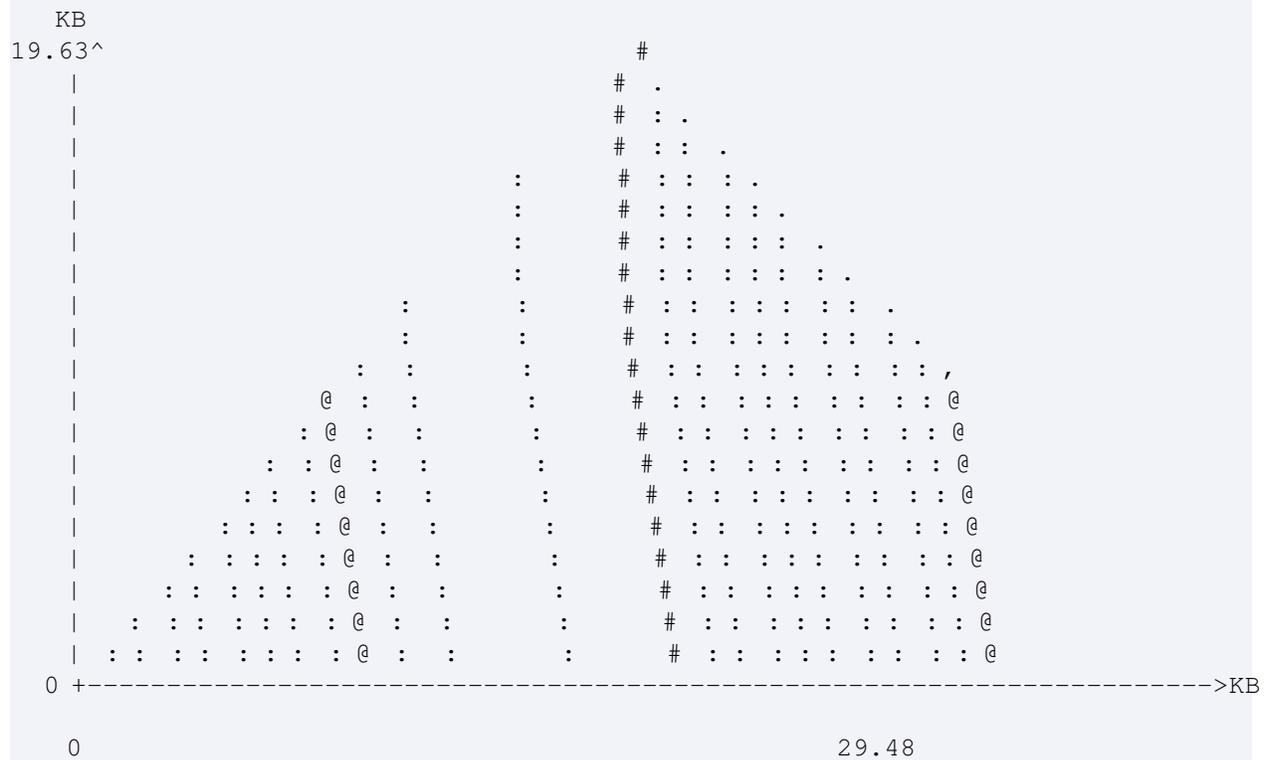
9.2.3. The Output Graph

The next part is the graph that shows how memory consumption occurred as the program executed:



Why is most of the graph empty, with only a couple of bars at the very end? By default, Massif uses "instructions executed" as the unit of time. For very short-run programs such as the example, most of the executed instructions involve the loading and dynamic linking of the program. The execution of `main` (and thus the heap allocations) only occur at the very end. For a short-running program like this, we can use the `--time-unit=B` option to specify that we want the time unit to instead be the number of bytes allocated/deallocated on the heap and stack(s).

If we re-run the program under Massif with this option, and then re-run `ms_print`, we get this more useful graph:



```
Number of snapshots: 25
Detailed snapshots: [9, 14 (peak), 24]
```

Each vertical bar represents a snapshot, i.e. a measurement of the memory usage at a certain point in time. The text at the bottom show that 25 snapshots were taken for this program, which is one per heap allocation/deallocation, plus a couple of extras. Massif starts by taking snapshots for every heap allocation/deallocation, but as a program runs for longer, it takes snapshots less frequently. It also discards older snapshots as the program goes on; when it reaches the maximum number of snapshots (100 by default, although changeable with the `--max-snapshots` option) half of them are deleted. This means that a reasonable number of snapshots are always maintained.

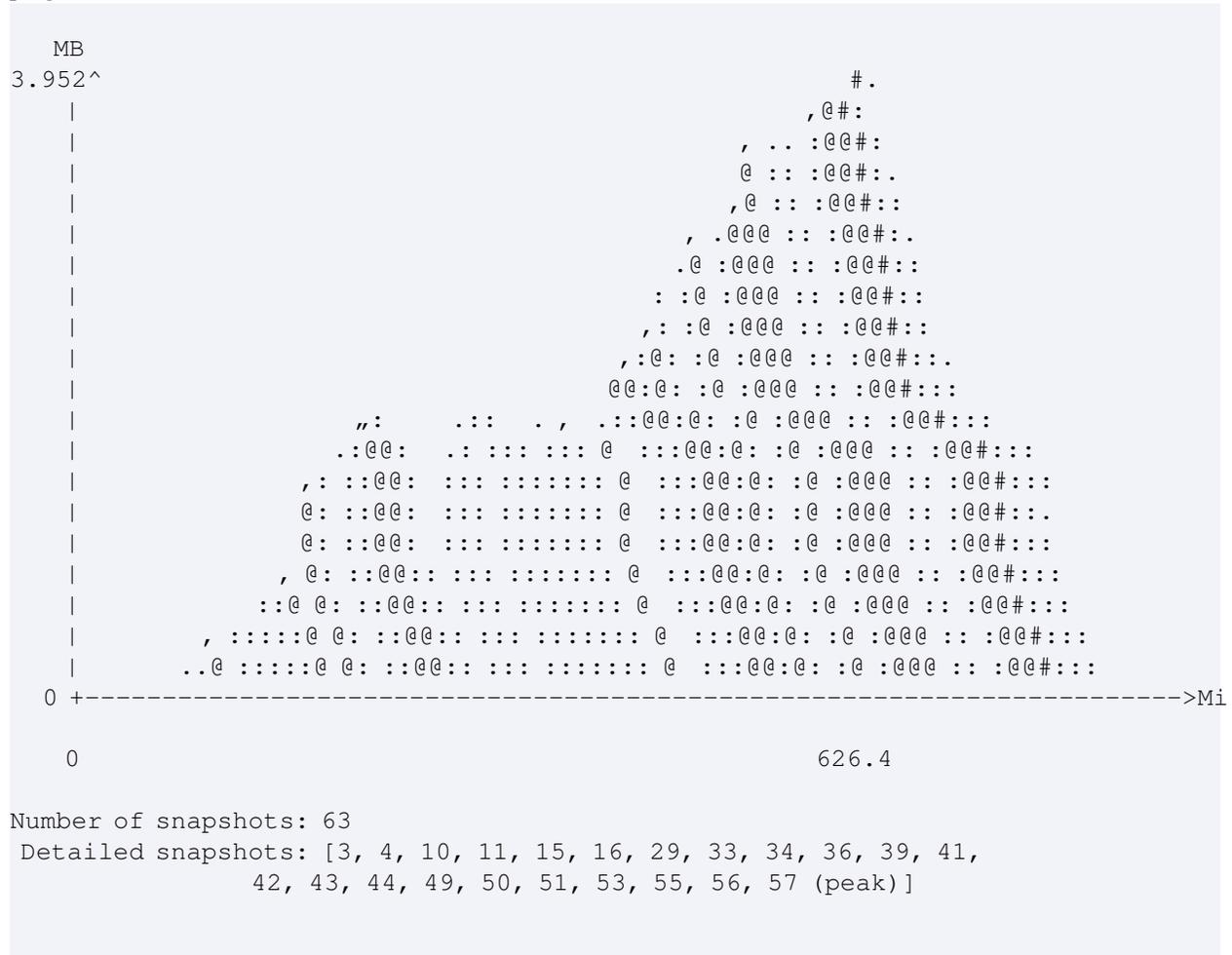
Most snapshots are *normal*, and only basic information is recorded for them. Normal snapshots are represented in the graph by bars consisting of ':' and '.' characters.

Some snapshots are *detailed*. Information about where allocations happened are recorded for these snapshots, as we will see shortly. Detailed snapshots are represented in the graph by bars consisting of '@' and ',' characters. The text at the bottom show that 3 detailed snapshots were taken for this program (snapshots 9, 14 and 24). By default, every 10th snapshot is detailed, although this can be changed via the `--detailed-freq` option.

Finally, there is at most one *peak* snapshot. The peak snapshot is a detailed snapshot, and records the point where memory consumption was greatest. The peak snapshot is represented in the graph by a bar consisting of '#' and ',' characters. The text at the bottom shows that snapshot 14 was the peak. Note that for tiny programs that never deallocate heap memory, Massif will not record a peak snapshot.

Some more details about the peak: the peak is determined by looking at every allocation, i.e. it is *not* just the peak among the regular snapshots. However, recording the true peak is expensive, and so by default Massif records a peak whose size is within 1% of the size of the true peak. See the description of the `--peak-inaccuracy` option below for more details.

The following graph is from an execution of Konqueror, the KDE web browser. It shows what graphs for larger programs look like.



Note that the larger size units are KB, MB, GB, etc. As is typical for memory measurements, these are based on a multiplier of 1024, rather than the standard SI multiplier of 1000. Strictly speaking, they should be written KiB, MiB, GiB, etc.

9.2.4. The Snapshot Details

Returning to our example, the graph is followed by the detailed information for each snapshot. The first nine snapshots are normal, so only a small amount of information is recorded for each one:

n	time (B)	total (B)	useful-heap (B)	extra-heap (B)	stacks (B)
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1,008	1,008	1,000	8	0
2	2,016	2,016	2,000	16	0
3	3,024	3,024	3,000	24	0
4	4,032	4,032	4,000	32	0
5	5,040	5,040	5,000	40	0
6	6,048	6,048	6,000	48	0
7	7,056	7,056	7,000	56	0
8	8,064	8,064	8,000	64	0

Each normal snapshot records several things.

- Its number.
- The time it was taken. In this case, the time unit is bytes, due to the use of `--time-unit=B`.
- The total memory consumption at that point.
- The number of useful heap bytes allocated at that point. This reflects the number of bytes asked for by the program.
- The number of extra heap bytes allocated at that point. This reflects the number of bytes allocated in excess of what the program asked for. There are two sources of extra heap bytes.

First, every heap block has administrative bytes associated with it. The exact number of administrative bytes depends on the details of the allocator. By default Massif assumes 8 bytes per block, as can be seen from the example, but this number can be changed via the `--heap-admin` option.

Second, allocators often round up the number of bytes asked for to a larger number. By default, if N bytes are asked for, Massif rounds N up to the nearest multiple of 8 that is equal to or greater than N. This is typical behaviour for allocators, and is required to ensure that elements within the block are suitably aligned. The rounding size can be changed with the `--alignment` option, although it cannot be less than 8, and must be a power of two.

- The size of the stack(s). By default, stack profiling is off as it slows Massif down greatly. Therefore, the stack column is zero in the example.

The next snapshot is detailed. As well as the basic counts, it gives an allocation tree which indicates exactly which pieces of code were responsible for allocating heap memory:

```

  9          9,072          9,072          9,000          72          0
99.21% (9,000B) (heap allocation functions) malloc/new/new[], --alloc-fns, etc.
->99.21% (9,000B) 0x804841A: main (example.c:20)

```

The allocation tree can be read from the top down. The first line indicates all heap allocation functions such as `malloc` and C++ `new`. All heap allocations go through these functions, and so all 9,000 useful bytes (which is 99.21% of all allocated bytes) go through them. But how were `malloc` and `new` called? At this point, every allocation so far has been due to line 21 inside `main`, hence the second line in the tree. The `->` indicates that `main` (line 20) called `malloc`.

Let's see what the subsequent output shows happened next:

```

-----
  n      time (B)      total (B)  useful-heap (B)  extra-heap (B)  stacks (B)
-----
 10      10,080        10,080        10,000           80              0
 11      12,088        12,088        12,000           88              0
 12      16,096        16,096        16,000           96              0
 13      20,104        20,104        20,000          104              0
 14      20,104        20,104        20,000          104              0
99.48% (20,000B) (heap allocation functions) malloc/new/new[], --alloc-fns, etc.
->49.74% (10,000B) 0x804841A: main (example.c:20)
|
->39.79% (8,000B) 0x80483C2: g (example.c:5)
| ->19.90% (4,000B) 0x80483E2: f (example.c:11)
| | ->19.90% (4,000B) 0x8048431: main (example.c:23)
| |
| ->19.90% (4,000B) 0x8048436: main (example.c:25)
|
->09.95% (2,000B) 0x80483DA: f (example.c:10)
  ->09.95% (2,000B) 0x8048431: main (example.c:23)

```

The first four snapshots are similar to the previous ones. But then the global allocation peak is reached, and a detailed snapshot is taken. Its allocation tree shows that 20,000B of useful heap memory has been allocated, and the lines and arrows indicate that this is from three different code locations: line 20, which is responsible for 10,000B (49.74%); line 5, which is responsible for 8,000B (39.79%); and line 10, which is responsible for 2,000B (9.95%).

We can then drill down further in the allocation tree. For example, of the 8,000B asked for by line 5, half of it was due to a call from line 11, and half was due to a call from line 25.

In short, Massif collates the stack trace of every single allocation point in the program into a single tree, which gives a complete picture of how and why all heap memory was allocated.

Note that the tree entries correspond not to functions, but to individual code locations. For example, if function A calls `malloc`, and function B calls A twice, once on line 10 and once on line 11, then the two calls will result in two

distinct stack traces in the tree. In contrast, if B calls A repeatedly from line 15 (e.g. due to a loop), then each of those calls will be represented by the same stack trace in the tree.

Note also that tree entry with children in the example satisfies an invariant: the entry's size is equal to the sum of its children's sizes. For example, the first entry has size 20,000B, and its children have sizes 10,000B, 8,000B, and 2,000B. In general, this invariant almost always holds. However, in rare circumstances stack traces can be malformed, in which case a stack trace can be a sub-trace of another stack trace. This means that some entries in the tree may not satisfy the invariant -- the entry's size will be greater than the sum of its children's sizes. Massif can sometimes detect when this happens; if it does, it issues a warning:

```
Warning: Malformed stack trace detected. In Massif's output,
the size of an entry's child entries may not sum up
to the entry's size as they normally do.
```

However, Massif does not detect and warn about every such occurrence. Fortunately, malformed stack traces are rare in practice.

Returning now to `ms_print`'s output, the final part is similar:

```
-----
n          time (B)          total (B)  useful-heap (B)  extra-heap (B)  stacks (B)
-----
15         21,112             19,096      19,000           96              0
16         22,120             18,088      18,000           88              0
17         23,128             17,080      17,000           80              0
18         24,136             16,072      16,000           72              0
19         25,144             15,064      15,000           64              0
20         26,152             14,056      14,000           56              0
21         27,160             13,048      13,000           48              0
22         28,168             12,040      12,000           40              0
23         29,176             11,032      11,000           32              0
24         30,184             10,024      10,000           24              0
```

```
99.76% (10,000B) (heap allocation functions) malloc/new/new[], --alloc-fns, etc.
->79.81% (8,000B) 0x80483C2: g (example.c:5)
| ->39.90% (4,000B) 0x80483E2: f (example.c:11)
| | ->39.90% (4,000B) 0x8048431: main (example.c:23)
| |
| ->39.90% (4,000B) 0x8048436: main (example.c:25)
|
->19.95% (2,000B) 0x80483DA: f (example.c:10)
| ->19.95% (2,000B) 0x8048431: main (example.c:23)
|
->00.00% (0B) in 1+ places, all below ms_print's threshold (01.00%)
```

The final detailed snapshot shows how the heap looked at termination. The 00.00% entry represents the code locations for which memory was allocated and then freed (line 20 in this case, the memory for which was freed on line 28). However, no code location details are given for this entry; by default, Massif only records the details for code locations responsible for more than 1% of useful memory bytes, and `ms_print` likewise only prints the details for code locations

responsible for more than 1%. The entries that do not meet this threshold are aggregated. This avoids filling up the output with large numbers of unimportant entries. The thresholds can be changed with the `--threshold` option that both Massif and `ms_print` support.

9.2.5. Forking Programs

If your program forks, the child will inherit all the profiling data that has been gathered for the parent.

If the output file format string (controlled by `--massif-out-file`) does not contain `%p`, then the outputs from the parent and child will be intermingled in a single output file, which will almost certainly make it unreadable by `ms_print`.

9.3. Massif Options

Massif-specific options are:

`--heap=<yes|no> [default: yes]`
Specifies whether heap profiling should be done.

`--heap-admin=<number> [default: 8]`
If heap profiling is enabled, gives the number of administrative bytes per block to use. This should be an estimate of the average, since it may vary. For example, the allocator used by `glibc` requires somewhere between 4 to 15 bytes per block, depending on various factors. It also requires admin space for freed blocks, although Massif does not account for this.

`--stacks=<yes|no> [default: yes]`
Specifies whether stack profiling should be done. This option slows Massif down greatly, and so is off by default. Note that Massif assumes that the main stack has size zero at start-up. This is not true, but measuring the actual stack size is not easy, and it reflects the size of the part of the main stack that a user program actually has control over.

`--depth=<number> [default: 30]`
Maximum depth of the allocation trees recorded for detailed snapshots. Increasing it will make Massif run somewhat more slowly, use more memory, and produce bigger output files.

```
--alloc-fn=<name>
```

Functions specified with this option will be treated as though they were a heap allocation function such as `malloc`. This is useful for functions that are wrappers to `malloc` or `new`, which can fill up the allocation trees with uninteresting information. This option can be specified multiple times on the command line, to name multiple functions.

Note that overloaded C++ names must be written in full. Single quotes may be necessary to prevent the shell from breaking them up. For example:

```
--alloc-fn='operator new(unsigned, std::nothrow_t const&);'
```

The full list of functions and operators that are by default considered allocation functions is as follows.

```
malloc
calloc
realloc
memalign
__builtin_new
__builtin_vec_new
operator new(unsigned)
operator new(unsigned long)
operator new[](unsigned)
operator new[](unsigned long)
operator new(unsigned, std::nothrow_t const&)
operator new[](unsigned, std::nothrow_t const&)
operator new(unsigned long, std::nothrow_t const&)
operator new[](unsigned long, std::nothrow_t const&)
```

```
--threshold=<m.n> [default: 1.0]
```

The significance threshold for heap allocations, as a percentage. Allocation tree entries that account for less than this will be aggregated. Note that this should be specified in tandem with `ms_print`'s option of the same name.

```
--peak-inaccuracy=<m.n> [default: 1.0]
```

Massif does not necessarily record the actual global memory allocation peak; by default it records a peak only when the global memory allocation size exceeds the previous peak by at least 1.0%. This is because there can be many local allocation peaks along the way, and doing a detailed snapshot for every one would be expensive and wasteful, as all but one of them will be later discarded. This inaccuracy can be changed (even to 0.0%) via this option, but Massif will run drastically slower as the number approaches zero.

```
--time-unit=i|ms|B [default: i]
```

The time unit used for the profiling. There are three possibilities: instructions executed (i), which is good for most cases; real (wallclock) time (ms, i.e. milliseconds), which is sometimes useful; and bytes allocated/deallocated on the heap and/or stack (B), which is useful for very short-run programs, and for testing purposes, because it is the most reproducible across different machines.

```
--detailed-freq=<n> [default: 10]
```

Frequency of detailed snapshots. With `--detailed-freq=1`, every snapshot is detailed.

`--max-snapshots=<n>` [default: 100]

The maximum number of snapshots recorded. If set to *N*, for all programs except very short-running ones, the final number of snapshots will be between *N*/2 and *N*.

`--massif-out-file=<file>` [default: `massif.out.%p`]

Write the profile data to *file* rather than to the default output file, `massif.out.<pid>`. The `%p` and `%q` format specifiers can be used to embed the process ID and/or the contents of an environment variable in the name, as is the case for the core option `--log-file`. See [Basic Options](#) for details.

`--alignment=<n>` [default: 1.0]

The minimum alignment (and thus size) of heap blocks.

9.4. ms_print Options

`ms_print`'s options are:

- `-h, --help`

- `-v, --version`

Help and version, as usual.

- `--threshold=<m.n>` [default: 1.0]

Same as Massif's `--threshold`, but applied after profiling rather than during.

- `--x=<m.n>` [default: 72]

Width of the graph, in columns.

- `--y=<n>` [default: 20]

Height of the graph, in rows.

9.5. Massif's output file format

Massif's file format is plain text (i.e. not binary) and deliberately easy to read for both humans and machines. Nonetheless, the exact format is not described here. This is because the format is currently very Massif-specific. We plan to make the format more general, and thus suitable for possible use with other tools. Once this has been done, the format will be documented here.

10. Ptrcheck: an (experimental) pointer checking tool

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=exp-ptrcheck` on the Valgrind command line.

10.1. Overview

Ptrcheck is a Valgrind tool for finding overruns of heap, stack and global arrays. Its functionality overlaps somewhat with Memcheck's, but it is able to catch invalid accesses in a number of cases that Memcheck would miss. A detailed comparison against Memcheck is presented below.

Ptrcheck is composed of two almost completely independent tools that have been glued together. One part, in `h_main.[ch]`, checks accesses through heap-derived pointers. The other part, in `sg_main.[ch]`, checks accesses to stack and global arrays. The remaining files `pc_{common,main}.[ch]`, provide common error-management and coordination functions, so as to make it appear as a single tool.

The heap-check part is an extensively-hacked (largely rewritten) version of the experimental "Annelid" tool developed and described by Nicholas Nethercote and Jeremy Fitzhardinge. The stack- and global- check part uses a heuristic approach derived from an observation about the likely forms of stack and global array accesses, and, as far as is known, is entirely novel.

10.2. Ptrcheck Options

The following end-user options are available:

```
--enable-sg-checks=no|yes [default: yes]
```

By default, Ptrcheck checks for overruns of stack, global and heap arrays. With `--enable-sg-checks=no`, the stack and global array checks are omitted, and only heap checking is performed. This can be useful because the stack and global checks are quite expensive, so omitting them speeds Ptrcheck up a lot.

```
--partial-loads-ok=<yes|no> [default: no]
```

This option has the same meaning as it does for Memcheck.

Controls how Ptrcheck handles word-sized, word-aligned loads which partially overlap the end of heap blocks -- that is, some of the bytes in the word are validly addressable, but others are not. When `yes`, such loads do not produce an address error. When `no` (the default), loads from partially invalid addresses are treated the same as loads from completely invalid addresses: an illegal heap access error is issued.

Note that code that behaves in this way is in violation of the the ISO C/C++ standards, and should be considered broken. If at all possible, such code should be fixed. This flag should be used only as a last resort.

In addition, the following debugging options are available for Ptrcheck:

```
--trace-malloc=no|yes [no]
Show all client malloc (etc) and free (etc) requests.
```

10.3. How Ptrcheck Works: Heap Checks

Ptrcheck can check for invalid uses of heap pointers, including out of range accesses and accesses to freed memory. The mechanism is however completely different from Memcheck's, and the checking is more powerful.

For each pointer in the program, Ptrcheck keeps track of which heap block (if any) it was derived from. Then, when an access is made through that pointer, Ptrcheck compares the access address with the bounds of the associated block, and reports an error if the address is out of bounds, or if the block has been freed.

Of course it is rarely the case that one wants to access a block only at the exact address returned by malloc (et al). Ptrcheck understands that adding or subtracting offsets from a pointer to a block results in a pointer to the same block.

At a fundamental level, this scheme works because a correct program cannot make assumptions about the addresses returned by malloc. In particular it cannot make any assumptions about the differences in addresses returned by subsequent calls to malloc. Hence there are very few ways to take an address returned by malloc, modify it, and still have a valid address. In short, the only allowable operations are adding and subtracting other non-pointer values. Almost all other operations produce a value which cannot possibly be a valid pointer.

10.4. How Ptrcheck Works: Stack and Global Checks

When a source file is compiled with `-g`, the compiler attaches DWARF3 debugging information which describes the location of all stack and global arrays in the file.

Checking of accesses to such arrays would then be relatively simple, if the compiler could also tell us which array (if any) each memory referencing instruction was supposed to access. Unfortunately the DWARF3 debugging format does not provide a way to represent such information, so we have to resort to a heuristic technique to approximate the same information. The key observation is that

if a memory referencing instruction accesses inside a stack or global array once, then it is highly likely to always access that same array

To see how this might be useful, consider the following buggy fragment:

```
{ int i, a[10]; // both are auto vars
  for (i = 0; i <= 10; i++)
    a[i] = 42;
}
```

At run time we will know the precise address of `a[]` on the stack, and so we can observe that the first store resulting from `a[i] = 42` writes `a[]`, and we will (correctly) assume that that instruction is intended always to access `a[]`. Then, on the 11th iteration, it accesses somewhere else, possibly a different local, possibly an un-accounted for area of the stack (eg, spill slot), so Ptrcheck reports an error.

There is an important caveat.

Imagine a function such as `memcpy`, which is used to read and write many different areas of memory over the lifetime of the program. If we insist that the read and write instructions in its memory copying loop only ever access one particular stack or global variable, we will be flooded with errors resulting from calls to `memcpy`.

To avoid this problem, Ptrcheck instantiates fresh likely-target records for each entry to a function, and discards them on exit. This allows detection of cases where (eg) `memcpy` overflows its source or destination buffers for any specific call, but does not carry any restriction from one call to the next. Indeed, multiple threads may be multiple simultaneous calls to (eg) `memcpy` without mutual interference.

10.5. Comparison with Memcheck

Memcheck does not do any access checks for stack or global arrays, so the presence of those in Ptrcheck is a straight win. (But see "Limitations" below).

Memcheck and Ptrcheck use different approaches for checking heap accesses. Memcheck maintains bitmaps telling it which areas of memory are accessible and which are not. If a memory access falls in an unaccessible area, it reports an error. By marking the 16 bytes before and after an allocated block unaccessible, Memcheck is able to detect small over- and underruns of the block. Similarly, by marking freed memory as unaccessible, Memcheck can detect all accesses to freed memory.

Memcheck's approach is simple. But it's also weak. It can't catch block overruns beyond 16 bytes. And, more generally, because it focusses only on the question "is the target address accessible", it fails to detect invalid accesses which just happen to fall within some other valid area. This is not improbable, especially in crowded areas of the process' address space.

Ptrcheck's approach is to keep track of pointers derived from heap blocks. It tracks pointers which are derived directly from calls to `malloc` et al, but also ones derived indirectly, by adding or subtracting offsets from the directly-derived pointers. When a pointer is finally used to access memory, Ptrcheck compares the access address with that of the block it was originally derived from, and reports an error if the access address is not within the block bounds.

Consequently Ptrcheck can detect any out of bounds access through a heap-derived pointer, no matter how far from the original block it is.

A second advantage is that Ptrcheck is better at detecting accesses to blocks freed very far in the past. Memcheck can detect these too, but only for blocks freed relatively recently. To detect accesses to a freed block, Memcheck must make it inaccessible, hence requiring a space overhead proportional to the size of the block. If the blocks are large, Memcheck will have to make them available for re-allocation relatively quickly, thereby losing the ability to detect invalid accesses to them.

By contrast, Ptrcheck has a constant per-block space requirement of four machine words, for detection of accesses to freed blocks. A freed block can be reallocated immediately, yet Ptrcheck can still detect all invalid accesses through any pointers derived from the old allocation, providing only that the four-word descriptor for the old allocation is stored. For example, on a 64-bit machine, to detect accesses in any of the most recently freed 10 million blocks, Ptrcheck will require only 320MB of extra storage. Achieving the same level of detection with Memcheck is close to impossible and would likely involve several gigabytes of extra storage.

In defense of Memcheck ...

Remember that Memcheck performs uninitialised value checking, which Ptrcheck does not. Memcheck has also benefitted from years of refinement, tuning, and experience with production-level usage, and so is much faster than Ptrcheck as it currently stands, as of October 2008.

Consequently it is recommended to first make your programs run Memcheck clean. Once that's done, try Ptrcheck to see if you can shake out any further heap, global or stack errors.

10.6. Limitations

This is an experimental tool, which relies rather too heavily on some not-as-robust-as-I-would-like assumptions on the behaviour of correct programs. There are a number of limitations which you should be aware of.

- **Heap checks:** Ptrcheck can occasionally lose track of, or become confused about, which heap block a given pointer has been derived from. This can cause it to falsely report errors, or to miss some errors. This is not believed to be a serious problem.
- **Heap checks:** Ptrcheck only tracks pointers that are stored properly aligned in memory. If a pointer is stored at a misaligned address, and then later read again, Ptrcheck will lose track of what it points at. Similar problem if a pointer is split into pieces and later reconstituted.
- **Heap checks:** Ptrcheck needs to "understand" which system calls return pointers and which don't. Many, but not all system calls are handled. If an unhandled one is encountered, Ptrcheck will abort.
- **Stack checks:** It follows from the description above (How Ptrcheck Works: Stack and Global Checks) that the first access by a memory referencing instruction to a stack or global array creates an association between that instruction and the array, which is checked on subsequent accesses by that instruction, until the containing function exits. Hence, the first access by an instruction to an array (in any given function instantiation) is not checked for overrun, since Ptrcheck uses that as the "example" of how subsequent accesses should behave.
- **Stack checks:** Similarly, and more serious, it is clearly possible to write legitimate pieces of code which break the basic assumption upon which the stack/global checking rests. For example:

```
{ int a[10], b[10], *p, i;
  for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    p = /* arbitrary condition */ ? &a[i] : &b[i];
    *p = 42;
  }
}
```

In this case the store sometimes accesses `a[]` and sometimes `b[]`, but in no cases is the addressed array overrun. Nevertheless the change in target will cause an error to be reported.

It is hard to see how to get around this problem. The only mitigating factor is that such constructions appear very rare, at least judging from the results using the tool so far. Such a construction appears only once in the Valgrind sources (running Valgrind on Valgrind) and perhaps two or three times for a start and exit of Firefox. The best that can be done is to suppress the errors.

- **Performance:** the stack/global checks require reading all of the DWARF3 type and variable information on the executable and its shared objects. This is computationally expensive and makes startup quite slow. You can expect debuginfo reading time to be in the region of a minute for an OpenOffice sized application, on a 2.4 GHz Core 2 machine. Reading this information also requires a lot of memory. To make it viable, Ptrcheck goes to considerable trouble to compress the in-memory representation of the DWARF3 data, which is why the process of reading it appears slow.
- **Performance:** Ptrcheck runs slower than Memcheck. This is partly due to a lack of tuning, but partly due to algorithmic difficulties. The heap-check side is potentially quite fast. The stack and global checks can sometimes require a number of range checks per memory access, and these are difficult to short-circuit (despite considerable efforts having been made).

- Coverage: the heap checking is relatively robust, requiring only that Ptrcheck can see calls to malloc/free et al. In that sense it has debug-info requirements comparable with Memcheck, and is able to heap-check programs even with no debugging information attached.

Stack/global checking is much more fragile. If a shared object does not have debug information attached, then Ptrcheck will not be able to determine the bounds of any stack or global arrays defined within that shared object, and so will not be able to check accesses to them. This is true even when those arrays are accessed from some other shared object which was compiled with debug info.

At the moment Ptrcheck accepts objects lacking debuginfo without comment. This is dangerous as it causes Ptrcheck to silently skip stack and global checking for such objects. It would be better to print a warning in such circumstances.

- Coverage: Ptrcheck checks that the areas read or written by system calls do not overrun heap blocks. But it doesn't currently check them for overruns stack and global arrays. This would be easy to add.
- Platforms: the stack/global checks won't work properly on any PowerPC platforms, only on x86 and amd64 targets. That's because the stack and global checking requires tracking function calls and exits reliably, and there's no obvious way to do it with the PPC ABIs. (cf with the x86 and amd64 ABIs this is relatively straightforward.)
- Robustness: related to the previous point. Function call/exit tracking for x86/amd64 is believed to work properly even in the presence of longjumps within the same stack (although this has not been tested). However, code which switches stacks is likely to cause breakage/chaos.

10.7. Still To Do: User Visible Functionality

- Extend system call checking to work on stack and global arrays.
- Print a warning if a shared object does not have debug info attached, or if, for whatever reason, debug info could not be found, or read.

10.8. Still To Do: Implementation Tidying

Items marked CRITICAL are considered important for correctness: non-fixage of them is liable to lead to crashes or assertion failures in real use.

- h_main.c: make N_FREED_SEGS command-line configurable.
- sg_main.c: Improve the performance of the stack / global checks by doing some up-front filtering to ignore references in areas which "obviously" can't be stack or globals. This will require using information that m_aspacemgr knows about the address space layout.
- h_main.c: get rid of the last_seg_added hack; add suitable plumbing to the core/tool interface to do this cleanly.
- h_main.c: move vast amounts of arch-dependent ugliness (get_IntRegInfo et al) to its own source file, a la mc_machine.c.
- h_main.c: make the lossage-check stuff work again, as a way of doing quality assurance on the implementation.
- h_main.c: schemeEw_Atom: don't generate a call to nonptr_or_unknown, this is really stupid, since it could be done at translation time instead.

- **CRITICAL:** `h_main.c`: `h_instrument` (main instrumentation fn): generate shadows for word-sized temps defined in the block's preamble. (Why does this work at all, as it stands?)
- `sg_main.c`: fix `compute_II_hash` to make it a bit more sensible for `ppc32/64` targets (except that `sg_` doesn't work on `ppc32/64` targets, so this is a bit academic at the mo).

11. Nulgrind: the "null" tool

A tool that does not very much at all

Nulgrind is the minimal tool for Valgrind. It does no initialisation or finalisation, and adds no instrumentation to the program's code. It is mainly of use for Valgrind's developers for debugging and regression testing.

Nonetheless you can run programs with Nulgrind. They will run roughly 5 times more slowly than normal, for no useful effect. Note that you need to use the option `--tool=none` to run Nulgrind (ie. not `--tool=nulgrind`).

12. Lackey: a simple profiler and memory tracer

To use this tool, you must specify `--tool=lackey` on the Valgrind command line.

12.1. Overview

Lackey is a simple valgrind tool that does some basic program measurement. It adds quite a lot of simple instrumentation to the program's code. It is primarily intended to be of use as an example tool, and consequently emphasises clarity of implementation over performance.

It measures and reports various things.

1. When command line option `--basic-counts=yes` is specified, it prints the following statistics and information about the execution of the client program:

a. The number of calls to `_dl_runtime_resolve()`, the function in glibc's dynamic linker that resolves function references to shared objects.

You can change the name of the function tracked with command line option `--fname=<name>`.

b. The number of conditional branches encountered and the number and proportion of those taken.

c. The number of superblocks entered and completed by the program. Note that due to optimisations done by the JIT, this is not at all an accurate value.

d. The number of guest (x86, amd64, ppc, etc.) instructions and IR statements executed. IR is Valgrind's RISC-like intermediate representation via which all instrumentation is done.

e. Ratios between some of these counts.

f. The exit code of the client program.

2. When command line option `--detailed-counts=yes` is specified, a table is printed with counts of loads, stores and ALU operations for various types of operands.

The types are identified by their IR name ("I1" ... "I128", "F32", "F64", and "V128").

3. When command line option `--trace-mem=yes` is specified, it prints out the size and address of almost every load and store made by the program. See the comments at the top of the file `lackey/lk_main.c` for details about the output format, how it works, and inaccuracies in the address trace.

4. When command line option `--trace-superblocks=yes` is specified, it prints out the address of every superblock (extended basic block) executed by the program. This is primarily of interest to Valgrind developers. See the comments at the top of the file `lackey/lk_main.c` for details about the output format.

Note that Lackey runs quite slowly, especially when `--detailed-counts=yes` is specified. It could be made to run a lot faster by doing a slightly more sophisticated job of the instrumentation, but that would undermine its role as a simple example tool. Hence we have chosen not to do so.

Note also that `--trace-mem=yes` and `--trace-superblocks=yes` create immense amounts of output. If you are saving the output in a file, you can eat up tens of gigabytes of disk space very quickly. As a result of printing out so much stuff, they also cause the program to run absolutely utterly unbelievably slowly.

12.2. Lackey Options

Lackey-specific options are:

`--basic-counts=<no|yes>` [default: yes]

Count basic events, as described above.

`--detailed-counts=<no|yes>` [default: no]

Count loads, stores and alu ops, differentiated by their IR types.

`--fname=<name>` [default: `_dl_runtime_resolve()`]

Count calls to the function `<name>`.

`--trace-mem=<no|yes>` [default: no]

Produce a log of all memory references, as described above.

`--trace-superblocks=<no|yes>` [default: no]

Print a line of text giving the address of each superblock (single entry, multiple exit chunk of code) executed by the program.

13. Writing a New Valgrind Tool

13.1. Introduction

So you want to write a Valgrind tool? Here are some instructions that may help. They were last updated for Valgrind 3.2.2.

13.1.1. Tools

The key idea behind Valgrind's architecture is the division between its "core" and "tool plug-ins".

The core provides the common low-level infrastructure to support program instrumentation, including the JIT compiler, low-level memory manager, signal handling and a scheduler (for pthreads). It also provides certain services that are useful to some but not all tools, such as support for error recording and suppression.

But the core leaves certain operations undefined, which must be filled by tools. Most notably, tools define how program code should be instrumented. They can also call certain functions to indicate to the core that they would like to use certain services, or be notified when certain interesting events occur. But the core takes care of all the hard work.

13.2. Writing a Tool

13.2.1. How tools work

Tool plug-ins must define various functions for instrumenting programs that are called by Valgrind's core. They are then linked against Valgrind's core to define a complete Valgrind tool which will be used when the `--tool` option is used to select it.

13.2.2. Getting the code

To write your own tool, you'll need the Valgrind source code. You'll need a check-out of the Subversion repository for the automake/autoconf build instructions to work. See the information about how to do check-out from the repository at the Valgrind website.

13.2.3. Getting started

Valgrind uses GNU `automake` and `autoconf` for the creation of Makefiles and configuration. But don't worry, these instructions should be enough to get you started even if you know nothing about those tools.

In what follows, all filenames are relative to Valgrind's top-level directory `valgrind/`.

1. Choose a name for the tool, and a two-letter abbreviation that can be used as a short prefix. We'll use `foobar` and `fb` as an example.
2. Make three new directories `foobar/`, `foobar/docs/` and `foobar/tests/`.
3. Create empty files `foobar/docs/Makefile.am` and `foobar/tests/Makefile.am`.
4. Copy `none/Makefile.am` into `foobar/`. Edit it by replacing all occurrences of the string `"none"` with `"foobar"`, and all occurrences of the string `"nl_"` with `"fb_"`.

5. Copy `none/nl_main.c` into `foobar/`, renaming it as `fb_main.c`. Edit it by changing the details lines in `nl_pre_clo_init()` to something appropriate for the tool. These fields are used in the startup message, except for `bug_reports_to` which is used if a tool assertion fails. Also replace the string `"nl_"` with `"fb_"` again.
6. Edit `Makefile.am`, adding the new directory `foobar` to the `TOOLS` or `EXP_TOOLS` variables.
7. Edit `configure.in`, adding `foobar/Makefile`, `foobar/docs/Makefile` and `foobar/tests/Makefile` to the `AC_OUTPUT` list.
8. Run:

```
autogen.sh
./configure --prefix=`pwd`/inst
make install
```

It should automake, configure and compile without errors, putting copies of the tool in `foobar/` and `inst/lib/valgrind/`.

9. You can test it with a command like:

```
inst/bin/valgrind --tool=foobar date
```

(almost any program should work; `date` is just an example). The output should be something like this:

```
==738== foobar-0.0.1, a foobarring tool for x86-linux.
==738== Copyright (C) 2002-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.
==738== Using LibVEX rev 1791, a library for dynamic binary translation.
==738== Copyright (C) 2004-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by OpenWorks LLP.
==738== Using valgrind-3.3.0, a dynamic binary instrumentation framework.
==738== Copyright (C) 2000-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.
==738== For more details, rerun with: -v
==738==
Tue Nov 27 12:40:49 EST 2007
==738==
```

The tool does nothing except run the program uninstrumented.

These steps don't have to be followed exactly - you can choose different names for your source files, and use a different `--prefix` for `./configure`.

Now that we've setup, built and tested the simplest possible tool, onto the interesting stuff...

13.2.4. Writing the code

A tool must define at least these four functions:

```
pre_clo_init()
post_clo_init()
instrument()
fini()
```

The names can be different to the above, but these are the usual names. The first one is registered using the macro `VG_DETERMINE_INTERFACE_VERSION` (which also checks that the core/tool interface of the tool matches that of the core). The last three are registered using the `VG_(basic_tool_funcs)` function.

In addition, if a tool wants to use some of the optional services provided by the core, it may have to define other functions and tell the core about them.

13.2.5. Initialisation

Most of the initialisation should be done in `pre_clo_init()`. Only use `post_clo_init()` if a tool provides command line options and must do some initialisation after option processing takes place ("`clo`" stands for "command line options").

First of all, various "details" need to be set for a tool, using the functions `VG_(details_*)()`. Some are all compulsory, some aren't. Some are used when constructing the startup message, `detail_bug_reports_to` is used if `VG_(tool_panic)()` is ever called, or a tool assertion fails. Others have other uses.

Second, various "needs" can be set for a tool, using the functions `VG_(needs_*)()`. They are mostly booleans, and can be left untouched (they default to `False`). They determine whether a tool can do various things such as: record, report and suppress errors; process command line options; wrap system calls; record extra information about malloc'd blocks, etc.

For example, if a tool wants the core's help in recording and reporting errors, it must call `VG_(needs_tool_errors)` and provide definitions of eight functions for comparing errors, printing out errors, reading suppressions from a suppressions file, etc. While writing these functions requires some work, it's much less than doing error handling from scratch because the core is doing most of the work. See the function `VG_(needs_tool_errors)` in `include/pub_tool_tooliface.h` for full details of all the needs.

Third, the tool can indicate which events in core it wants to be notified about, using the functions `VG_(track_*)()`. These include things such as blocks of memory being malloc'd, the stack pointer changing, a mutex being locked, etc. If a tool wants to know about this, it should provide a pointer to a function, which will be called when that event happens.

For example, if the tool want to be notified when a new block of memory is malloc'd, it should call `VG_(track_new_mem_heap)()` with an appropriate function pointer, and the assigned function will be called each time this happens.

More information about "details", "needs" and "trackable events" can be found in `include/pub_tool_tooliface.h`.

13.2.6. Instrumentation

`instrument()` is the interesting one. It allows you to instrument *VEX IR*, which is Valgrind's RISC-like intermediate language. *VEX IR* is described fairly well in the comments of the header file `VEX/pub/libvex_ir.h`.

The easiest way to instrument *VEX IR* is to insert calls to C functions when interesting things happen. See the tool "Lackey" (`lackey/lk_main.c`) for a simple example of this, or *Cachegrind* (`cachegrind/cg_main.c`) for a more complex example.

13.2.7. Finalisation

This is where you can present the final results, such as a summary of the information collected. Any log files should be written out at this point.

13.2.8. Other Important Information

Please note that the core/tool split infrastructure is quite complex and not brilliantly documented. Here are some important points, but there are undoubtedly many others that I should note but haven't thought of.

The files `include/pub_tool_*.h` contain all the types, macros, functions, etc. that a tool should (hopefully) need, and are the only `.h` files a tool should need to `#include`. They have a reasonable amount of documentation in it that should hopefully be enough to get you going.

Note that you can't use anything from the C library (there are deep reasons for this, trust us). Valgrind provides an implementation of a reasonable subset of the C library, details of which are in `pub_tool_libc*.h`.

When writing a tool, you shouldn't need to look at any of the code in Valgrind's core. Although it might be useful sometimes to help understand something.

The `include/pub_tool_basics.h` and `VEX/pub/libvex_basictypes.h` files file have some basic types that are widely used.

Ultimately, the tools distributed (Memcheck, Cachegrind, Lackey, etc.) are probably the best documentation of all, for the moment.

Note that the `VG_` macro is used heavily. This just prepends a longer string in front of names to avoid potential namespace clashes. It is defined in `include/pub_tool_basics_asm.h`.

There are some assorted notes about various aspects of the implementation in `docs/internals/`. Much of it isn't that relevant to tool-writers, however.

13.2.9. Words of Advice

Writing and debugging tools is not trivial. Here are some suggestions for solving common problems.

13.2.9.1. Segmentation Faults

If you are getting segmentation faults in C functions used by your tool, the usual GDB command:

```
gdb <prog> core
```

usually gives the location of the segmentation fault.

13.2.9.2. Debugging C functions

If you want to debug C functions used by your tool, you can achieve this by following these steps:

1. Set `VALGRIND_LAUNCHER` to `<prefix>/bin/valgrind`:

```
export VALGRIND_LAUNCHER=/usr/local/bin/valgrind
```

2. Then run `gdb <prefix>/lib/valgrind/<platform>/<tool>`:

```
gdb /usr/local/lib/valgrind/ppc32-linux/lackey
```

3. Do `handle SIGSEGV SIGILL nostop noprint` in GDB to prevent GDB from stopping on a SIGSEGV or SIGILL:

```
(gdb) handle SIGILL SIGSEGV nostop noprint
```

4. Set any breakpoints you want and proceed as normal for GDB:

```
(gdb) b vgPlain_do_exec
```

The macro `VG_(FUNC)` is expanded to `vgPlain_FUNC`, so If you want to set a breakpoint `VG_(do_exec)`, you could do like this in GDB.

5. Run the tool with required options:

```
(gdb) run `pwd`
```

GDB may be able to give you useful information. Note that by default most of the system is built with `-fomit-frame-pointer`, and you'll need to get rid of this to extract useful tracebacks from GDB.

13.2.9.3. IR Instrumentation Problems

If you are having problems with your VEX IR instrumentation, it's likely that GDB won't be able to help at all. In this case, Valgrind's `--trace-flags` option is invaluable for observing the results of instrumentation.

13.2.9.4. Miscellaneous

If you just want to know whether a program point has been reached, using the `OINK` macro (in `include/pub_tool_libcprint.h`) can be easier than using GDB.

The other debugging command line options can be useful too (run `valgrind --help-debug` for the list).

13.3. Advanced Topics

Once a tool becomes more complicated, there are some extra things you may want/need to do.

13.3.1. Suppressions

If your tool reports errors and you want to suppress some common ones, you can add suppressions to the suppression files. The relevant files are `valgrind/*.supp`; the final suppression file is aggregated from these files by combining the relevant `.supp` files depending on the versions of linux, X and glibc on a system.

Suppression types have the form `tool_name:suppression_name`. The `tool_name` here is the name you specify for the tool during initialisation with `VG_(details_name)()`.

13.3.2. Documentation

As of version 3.0.0, Valgrind documentation has been converted to XML. Why? See The XML FAQ.

13.3.2.1. The XML Toolchain

If you are feeling conscientious and want to write some documentation for your tool, please use XML. The Valgrind Docs use the following toolchain and versions:

```
xmllint:  using libxml version 20607
xsltproc: using libxml 20607, libxslt 10102 and libexslt 802
pdfxsltex: pdfTeX (Web2C 7.4.5) 3.14159-1.10b
pdftops:  version 3.00
DocBook:  version 4.2
```

Latency: you should note that latency is a big problem: DocBook is constantly being updated, but the tools tend to lag behind somewhat. It is important that the versions get on with each other, so if you decide to upgrade something, then you need to ascertain whether things still work nicely - this *cannot* be assumed.

Stylesheets: The Valgrind docs use various custom stylesheet layers, all of which are in `valgrind/docs/lib/`. You shouldn't need to modify these in any way.

Catalogs: Catalogs provide a mapping from generic addresses to specific local directories on a given machine. Most recent Linux distributions have adopted a common place for storing catalogs (`/etc/xml/`). Assuming that you have the various tools listed above installed, you probably won't need to modify your catalogs. But if you do, then just add another `group` to this file, reflecting your local installation.

13.3.2.2. Writing the Documentation

Follow these steps (using `foobar` as the example tool name again):

1. The docs go in `valgrind/foobar/docs/`, which you will have created when you started writing the tool.
2. Write `foobar/docs/Makefile.am`. Use `memcheck/docs/Makefile.am` as an example.
3. Copy the XML documentation file for the tool Nulgrind from `valgrind/none/docs/nl-manual.xml` to `foobar/docs/`, and rename it to `foobar/docs/fb-manual.xml`.

Note: there is a *really stupid* tetex bug with underscores in filenames, so don't use `'_'`.

4. Write the documentation. There are some helpful bits and pieces on using xml markup in `valgrind/docs/xml/xml_help.txt`.
5. Include it in the User Manual by adding the relevant entry to `valgrind/docs/xml/manual.xml`. Copy and edit an existing entry.

6. Validate `foobar/docs/fb-manual.xml` using the following command from within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make valid
```

You will probably get errors that look like this:

```
./xml/index.xml:5: element chapter: validity error : No declaration for
attribute base of element chapter
```

Ignore (only) these -- they're not important.

Because the xml toolchain is fragile, it is important to ensure that `fb-manual.xml` won't break the documentation set build. Note that just because an xml file happily transforms to html does not necessarily mean the same holds true for pdf/ps.

7. You can (re-)generate the HTML docs while you are writing `fb-manual.xml` to help you see how it's looking. The generated files end up in `valgrind/docs/html/`. Use the following command, within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make html-docs
```

8. When you have finished, also generate pdf and ps output to check all is well, from within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make print-docs
```

Check the output `.pdf` and `.ps` files in `valgrind/docs/print/`.

13.3.3. Regression Tests

Valgrind has some support for regression tests. If you want to write regression tests for your tool:

1. The tests go in `foobar/tests/`, which you will have created when you started writing the tool.
2. Write `foobar/tests/Makefile.am`. Use `memcheck/tests/Makefile.am` as an example.
3. Write the tests, `.vgtest` test description files, `.stdout.exp` and `.stderr.exp` expected output files. (Note that Valgrind's output goes to `stderr`.) Some details on writing and running tests are given in the comments at the top of the testing script `tests/vg_regtest`.
4. Write a filter for `stderr` results `foobar/tests/filter_stderr`. It can call the existing filters in `tests/`. See `memcheck/tests/filter_stderr` for an example; in particular note the `$dir` trick that ensures the filter works correctly from any directory.

13.3.4. Profiling

To profile a tool, use Cachegrind on it. Read `README_DEVELOPERS` for details on running Valgrind under Valgrind.

Alternatively, you can use OProfile. In most cases, it is better than Cachegrind because it's much faster, and gives real times, as opposed to instruction and cache hit/miss counts.

13.3.5. Other Makefile Hackery

If you add any directories under `valgrind/foobar/`, you will need to add an appropriate `Makefile.am` to it, and add a corresponding entry to the `AC_OUTPUT` list in `valgrind/configure.in`.

If you add any scripts to your tool (see Cachegrind for an example) you need to add them to the `bin_SCRIPTS` variable in `valgrind/foobar/Makefile.am`.

13.3.6. Core/tool Interface Versions

In order to allow for the core/tool interface to evolve over time, Valgrind uses a basic interface versioning system. All a tool has to do is use the `VG_DETERMINE_INTERFACE_VERSION` macro exactly once in its code. If not, a link error will occur when the tool is built.

The interface version number is changed when binary incompatible changes are made to the interface. If the core and tool has the same major version number `X` they should work together. If `X` doesn't match, Valgrind will abort execution with an explanation of the problem.

This approach was chosen so that if the interface changes in the future, old tools won't work and the reason will be clearly explained, instead of possibly crashing mysteriously. We have attempted to minimise the potential for binary incompatible changes by means such as minimising the use of naked structs in the interface.

13.4. Final Words

The core/tool interface is not fixed. It's pretty stable these days, but it does change. We deliberately do not provide backward compatibility with old interfaces, because it is too difficult and too restrictive. The interface checking should catch any incompatibilities. We view this as a good thing -- if we had to be backward compatible with earlier versions, many improvements now in the system could not have been added.

Happy programming.

Valgrind FAQ

Release 3.4.0 2 January 2009

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Valgrind Frequently Asked Questions

1. Background

1.1. How do you pronounce "Valgrind"?

The "Val" as in the word "value". The "grind" is pronounced with a short 'i' -- ie. "grinned" (rhymes with "tinned") rather than "grined" (rhymes with "find").

Don't feel bad: almost everyone gets it wrong at first.

1.2. Where does the name "Valgrind" come from?

From Nordic mythology. Originally (before release) the project was named Heimdall, after the watchman of the Nordic gods. He could "see a hundred miles by day or night, hear the grass growing, see the wool growing on a sheep's back" (etc). This would have been a great name, but it was already taken by a security package "Heimdall".

Keeping with the Nordic theme, Valgrind was chosen. Valgrind is the name of the main entrance to Valhalla (the Hall of the Chosen Slain in Asgard). Over this entrance there resides a wolf and over it there is the head of a boar and on it perches a huge eagle, whose eyes can see to the far regions of the nine worlds. Only those judged worthy by the guardians are allowed to pass through Valgrind. All others are refused entrance.

It's not short for "value grinder", although that's not a bad guess.

2. Compiling, installing and configuring

2.1. When I trying building Valgrind, 'make' dies partway with an assertion failure, something like this:

```
% make: expand.c:489: allocated_variable_append:
  Assertion 'current_variable_set_list->next != 0' failed.
```

It's probably a bug in 'make'. Some, but not all, instances of version 3.79.1 have this bug, see www.mail-archive.com/bug-make@gnu.org/msg01658.html. Try upgrading to a more recent version of 'make'. Alternatively, we have heard that unsetting the CFLAGS environment variable avoids the problem.

2.2. When I try to build Valgrind, 'make' fails with

```
/usr/bin/ld: cannot find -lc
collect2: ld returned 1 exit status
```

You need to install the glibc-static-devel package.

3. Valgrind aborts unexpectedly

- 3.1. Programs run OK on Valgrind, but at exit produce a bunch of errors involving `__libc_freeres()` and then die with a segmentation fault.

When the program exits, Valgrind runs the procedure `__libc_freeres()` in glibc. This is a hook for memory debuggers, so they can ask glibc to free up any memory it has used. Doing that is needed to ensure that Valgrind doesn't incorrectly report space leaks in glibc.

Problem is that running `__libc_freeres()` in older glibc versions causes this crash.

Workaround for 1.1.X and later versions of Valgrind: use the `--run-libc-freeres=no` flag. You may then get space leak reports for glibc allocations (please don't report these to the glibc people, since they are not real leaks), but at least the program runs.

- 3.2. My (buggy) program dies like this:

```
valgrind: m_mallocfree.c:442 (bszW_to_pszW): Assertion 'pszW >= 0' failed.
```

If Memcheck (the memory checker) shows any invalid reads, invalid writes or invalid frees in your program, the above may happen. Reason is that your program may trash Valgrind's low-level memory manager, which then dies with the above assertion, or something similar. The cure is to fix your program so that it doesn't do any illegal memory accesses. The above failure will hopefully go away after that.

- 3.3. My program dies, printing a message like this along the way:

```
vex x86->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0x66 0xF 0x2E 0x5
```

Older versions did not support some x86 and amd64 instructions, particularly SSE/SSE2/SSE3 instructions. Try a newer Valgrind; we now support almost all instructions. If it still breaks, file a bug report.

Another possibility is that your program has a bug and erroneously jumps to a non-code address, in which case you'll get a SIGILL signal. Memcheck may issue a warning just before this happens, but it might not if the jump happens to land in addressable memory.

- 3.4. I tried running a Java program (or another program that uses a just-in-time compiler) under Valgrind but something went wrong. Does Valgrind handle such programs?

Valgrind can handle dynamically generated code, so long as none of the generated code is later overwritten by other generated code. If this happens, though, things will go wrong as Valgrind will continue running its translations of the old code (this is true on x86 and amd64, on PowerPC there are explicit cache flush instructions which Valgrind detects and honours). You should try running with `--smc-check=all` in this case. Valgrind will run much more slowly, but should detect the use of the out-of-date code.

Alternatively, if you have the source code to the JIT compiler you can insert calls to the `VALGRIND_DISCARD_TRANSLATIONS` client request to mark out-of-date code, saving you from using `--smc-check=all`.

Apart from this, in theory Valgrind can run any Java program just fine, even those that use JNI and are partially implemented in other languages like C and C++. In practice, Java implementations tend to do nasty things that most programs do not, and Valgrind sometimes falls over these corner cases.

If your Java programs do not run under Valgrind, even with `--smc-check=all`, please file a bug report and hopefully we'll be able to fix the problem.

4. Valgrind behaves unexpectedly

4.1. My program uses the C++ STL and string classes. Valgrind reports 'still reachable' memory leaks involving these classes at the exit of the program, but there should be none.

First of all: relax, it's probably not a bug, but a feature. Many implementations of the C++ standard libraries use their own memory pool allocators. Memory for quite a number of destructed objects is not immediately freed and given back to the OS, but kept in the pool(s) for later re-use. The fact that the pools are not freed at the exit() of the program cause Valgrind to report this memory as still reachable. The behaviour not to free pools at the exit() could be called a bug of the library though.

Using gcc, you can force the STL to use malloc and to free memory as soon as possible by globally disabling memory caching. Beware! Doing so will probably slow down your program, sometimes drastically.

- With gcc 2.91, 2.95, 3.0 and 3.1, compile all source using the STL with `-D__USE_MALLOC`. Beware! This was removed from gcc starting with version 3.3.
- With gcc 3.2.2 and later, you should export the environment variable `GLIBCPP_FORCE_NEW` before running your program.
- With gcc 3.4 and later, that variable has changed name to `GLIBCXX_FORCE_NEW`.

There are other ways to disable memory pooling: using the `malloc_alloc` template with your objects (not portable, but should work for gcc) or even writing your own memory allocators. But all this goes beyond the scope of this FAQ. Start by reading http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/libstdc++/faq/index.html#4_4_leak if you absolutely want to do that. But beware: allocators belong to the more messy parts of the STL and people went to great lengths to make the STL portable across platforms. Chances are good that your solution will work on your platform, but not on others.

4.2. The stack traces given by Memcheck (or another tool) aren't helpful. How can I improve them?

If they're not long enough, use `--num-callers` to make them longer.

If they're not detailed enough, make sure you are compiling with `-g` to add debug information. And don't strip symbol tables (programs should be unstripped unless you run 'strip' on them; some libraries ship stripped).

Also, for leak reports involving shared objects, if the shared object is unloaded before the program terminates, Valgrind will discard the debug information and the error message will be full of ??? entries. The workaround here is to avoid calling `dlclose()` on these shared objects.

Also, `-fomit-frame-pointer` and `-fstack-check` can make stack traces worse.

Some example sub-traces:

- With debug information and unstripped (best):

```
Invalid write of size 1
  at 0x80483BF: really (malloc1.c:20)
  by 0x8048370: main (malloc1.c:9)
```

- With no debug information, unstripped:

```
Invalid write of size 1
  at 0x80483BF: really (in /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head5/a.out)
  by 0x8048370: main (in /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head5/a.out)
```

- With no debug information, stripped:

```
Invalid write of size 1
  at 0x80483BF: (within /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head5/a.out)
  by 0x8048370: (within /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head5/a.out)
  by 0x42015703: __libc_start_main (in /lib/tls/libc-2.3.2.so)
  by 0x80482CC: (within /auto/homes/njn25/grind/head5/a.out)
```

- With debug information and -fomit-frame-pointer:

```
Invalid write of size 1
  at 0x80483C4: really (malloc1.c:20)
  by 0x42015703: __libc_start_main (in /lib/tls/libc-2.3.2.so)
  by 0x80482CC: ??? (start.S:81)
```

- A leak error message involving an unloaded shared object:

```
84 bytes in 1 blocks are possibly lost in loss record 488 of 713
  at 0x1B9036DA: operator new(unsigned) (vg_replace_malloc.c:132)
  by 0x1DB63EEB: ???
  by 0x1DB4B800: ???
  by 0x1D65E007: ???
  by 0x8049EE6: main (main.cpp:24)
```

- 4.3. The stack traces given by Memcheck (or another tool) seem to have the wrong function name in them. What's happening?

Occasionally Valgrind stack traces get the wrong function names. This is caused by glibc using aliases to effectively give one function two names. Most of the time Valgrind chooses a suitable name, but very occasionally it gets it wrong. Examples we know of are printing 'bcmp' instead of 'memcmp', 'index' instead of 'strchr', and 'rindex' instead of 'strchr'.

- 4.4. My program crashes normally, but doesn't under Valgrind, or vice versa. What's happening?

When a program runs under Valgrind, its environment is slightly different to when it runs natively. For example, the memory layout is different, and the way that threads are scheduled is different.

Most of the time this doesn't make any difference, but it can, particularly if your program is buggy. For example, if your program crashes because it erroneously accesses memory that is unaddressable, it's possible that this memory will not be unaddressable when run under Valgrind. Alternatively, if your program has data races, these may not manifest under Valgrind.

There isn't anything you can do to change this, it's just the nature of the way Valgrind works that it cannot exactly replicate a native execution environment. In the case where your program crashes due to a memory error when run natively but not when run under Valgrind, in most cases Memcheck should identify the bad memory operation.

5. Memcheck doesn't find my bug

5.1. I try running "valgrind --tool=memcheck my_program" and get Valgrind's startup message, but I don't get any errors and I know my program has errors.

There are two possible causes of this.

First, by default, Valgrind only traces the top-level process. So if your program spawns children, they won't be traced by Valgrind by default. Also, if your program is started by a shell script, Perl script, or something similar, Valgrind will trace the shell, or the Perl interpreter, or equivalent.

To trace child processes, use the `--trace-children=yes` option.

If you are tracing large trees of processes, it can be less disruptive to have the output sent over the network. Give Valgrind the flag `--log-socket=127.0.0.1:12345` (if you want logging output sent to port 12345 on localhost). You can use the `valgrind-listener` program to listen on that port:

```
valgrind-listener 12345
```

Obviously you have to start the listener process first. See the manual for more details.

Second, if your program is statically linked, most Valgrind tools won't work as well, because they won't be able to replace certain functions, such as `malloc()`, with their own versions. A key indicator of this is if Memcheck says:

```
All heap blocks were freed -- no leaks are possible
```

when you know your program calls `malloc()`. The workaround is to avoid statically linking your program.

5.2. Why doesn't Memcheck find the array overruns in this program?

```
int static[5];

int main(void)
{
    int stack[5];

    static[5] = 0;
    stack [5] = 0;

    return 0;
}
```

Unfortunately, Memcheck doesn't do bounds checking on static or stack arrays. We'd like to, but it's just not possible to do in a reasonable way that fits with how Memcheck works. Sorry.

6. Miscellaneous

6.1. I tried writing a suppression but it didn't work. Can you write my suppression for me?

Yes! Use the `--gen-suppressions=yes` feature to spit out suppressions automatically for you. You can then edit them if you like, eg. combining similar automatically generated suppressions using wildcards like `'*'`.

If you really want to write suppressions by hand, read the manual carefully. Note particularly that C++ function names must be mangled (that is, not demangled).

6.2. With Memcheck's memory leak detector, what's the difference between "definitely lost", "possibly lost", "still reachable", and "suppressed"?

The details are in the Memcheck section of the user manual.

In short:

- "definitely lost" means your program is leaking memory -- fix it!
- "possibly lost" means your program is probably leaking memory, unless you're doing funny things with pointers.
- "still reachable" means your program is probably ok -- it didn't free some memory it could have. This is quite common and often reasonable. Don't use `--show-reachable=yes` if you don't want to see these reports.
- "suppressed" means that a leak error has been suppressed. There are some suppressions in the default suppression files. You can ignore suppressed errors.

6.3. Memcheck's uninitialised value errors are hard to track down, because they are often reported some time after they are caused. Could Memcheck record a trail of operations to better link the cause to the effect? Or maybe just eagerly report any copies of uninitialised memory values?

Prior to version 3.4.0, the answer was "we don't know how to do it without huge performance penalties". As of 3.4.0, try using the `--track-origins=yes` flag. It will run slower than usual, but will give you extra information about the origin of uninitialised values.

Or if you want to do it the old fashioned way, you can use the client request `VALGRIND_CHECK_VALUE_IS_DEFINED` to help track these errors down -- work backwards from the point where the uninitialised error occurs, checking suspect values until you find the cause. This requires editing, compiling and re-running your program multiple times, which is a pain, but still easier than debugging the problem without Memcheck's help.

As for eager reporting of copies of uninitialised memory values, this has been suggested multiple times. Unfortunately, almost all programs legitimately copy uninitialised memory values around (because compilers pad structs to preserve alignment) and eager checking leads to hundreds of false positives. Therefore Memcheck does not support eager checking at this time.

7. How To Get Further Assistance

Please read all of this section before posting.

If you think an answer is incomplete or inaccurate, please e-mail valgrind@valgrind.org.

Read the appropriate section(s) of the Valgrind Documentation.

Read the Distribution Documents.

Search the valgrind-users mailing list archives, using the group name `gmane.comp.debugging.valgrind`.

Only when you have tried all of these things and are still stuck, should you post to the valgrind-users mailing list. In which case, please read the following carefully. Making a complete posting will greatly increase the chances that an expert or fellow user reading it will have enough information and motivation to reply.

Make sure you give full details of the problem, including the full output of `valgrind -v <your-prog>`, if applicable. Also which Linux distribution you're using (Red Hat, Debian, etc) and its version number.

You are in little danger of making your posting too long unless you include large chunks of Valgrind's (unsuppressed) output, so err on the side of giving too much information.

Clearly written subject lines and message bodies are appreciated, too.

Finally, remember that, despite the fact that most of the community are very helpful and responsive to emailed questions, you are probably requesting help from unpaid volunteers, so you have no guarantee of receiving an answer.

Valgrind Technical Documentation

Release 3.4.0 2 January 2009
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1. The Design and Implementation of Valgrind

A number of academic publications nicely describe many aspects of Valgrind's design and implementation. Online copies of all of them, and others, are available at <http://valgrind.org/docs/pubs.html>.

A good top-level overview of Valgrind is given in:

"Valgrind: A Framework for Heavyweight Dynamic Binary Instrumentation." Nicholas Nethercote and Julian Seward. Proceedings of ACM SIGPLAN 2007 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI 2007), San Diego, California, USA, June 2007. This paper describes how Valgrind works, and how it differs from other DBI frameworks such as Pin and DynamoRIO.

The following two papers together give a comprehensive description of how Memcheck works:

"Using Valgrind to detect undefined value errors with bit-precision." Julian Seward and Nicholas Nethercote. Proceedings of the USENIX'05 Annual Technical Conference, Anaheim, California, USA, April 2005. This paper describes in detail how Memcheck's undefined value error detection (a.k.a. V bits) works.

"How to Shadow Every Byte of Memory Used by a Program." Nicholas Nethercote and Julian Seward. Proceedings of the Third International ACM SIGPLAN/SIGOPS Conference on Virtual Execution Environments (VEE 2007), San Diego, California, USA, June 2007. This paper describes in detail how Memcheck's shadow memory is implemented, and compares it to other alternative approaches.

The following paper describes Callgrind:

"A Tool Suite for Simulation Based Analysis of Memory Access Behavior." Josef Weidendorfer, Markus Kowarschik and Carsten Trinitis. Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Computational Science (ICCS 2004), Krakow, Poland, June 2004. This paper describes Callgrind.

The following dissertation describes Valgrind in some detail (some of these details are now out-of-date) as well as Cachegrind, Annelid and Redux. It also covers some underlying theory about dynamic binary analysis in general and what all these tools have in common:

"Dynamic Binary Analysis and Instrumentation." Nicholas Nethercote. PhD Dissertation, University of Cambridge, November 2004.

2. Writing a New Valgrind Tool

2.1. Introduction

So you want to write a Valgrind tool? Here are some instructions that may help. They were last updated for Valgrind 3.2.2.

2.1.1. Tools

The key idea behind Valgrind's architecture is the division between its "core" and "tool plug-ins".

The core provides the common low-level infrastructure to support program instrumentation, including the JIT compiler, low-level memory manager, signal handling and a scheduler (for pthreads). It also provides certain services that are useful to some but not all tools, such as support for error recording and suppression.

But the core leaves certain operations undefined, which must be filled by tools. Most notably, tools define how program code should be instrumented. They can also call certain functions to indicate to the core that they would like to use certain services, or be notified when certain interesting events occur. But the core takes care of all the hard work.

2.2. Writing a Tool

2.2.1. How tools work

Tool plug-ins must define various functions for instrumenting programs that are called by Valgrind's core. They are then linked against Valgrind's core to define a complete Valgrind tool which will be used when the `--tool` option is used to select it.

2.2.2. Getting the code

To write your own tool, you'll need the Valgrind source code. You'll need a check-out of the Subversion repository for the automake/autoconf build instructions to work. See the information about how to do check-out from the repository at the Valgrind website.

2.2.3. Getting started

Valgrind uses GNU `automake` and `autoconf` for the creation of Makefiles and configuration. But don't worry, these instructions should be enough to get you started even if you know nothing about those tools.

In what follows, all filenames are relative to Valgrind's top-level directory `valgrind/`.

1. Choose a name for the tool, and a two-letter abbreviation that can be used as a short prefix. We'll use `foobar` and `fb` as an example.
2. Make three new directories `foobar/`, `foobar/docs/` and `foobar/tests/`.
3. Create empty files `foobar/docs/Makefile.am` and `foobar/tests/Makefile.am`.
4. Copy `none/Makefile.am` into `foobar/`. Edit it by replacing all occurrences of the string `"none"` with `"foobar"`, and all occurrences of the string `"nl_"` with `"fb_"`.

5. Copy `none/nl_main.c` into `foobar/`, renaming it as `fb_main.c`. Edit it by changing the details lines in `nl_pre_clo_init()` to something appropriate for the tool. These fields are used in the startup message, except for `bug_reports_to` which is used if a tool assertion fails. Also replace the string `"nl_"` with `"fb_"` again.
6. Edit `Makefile.am`, adding the new directory `foobar` to the `TOOLS` or `EXP_TOOLS` variables.
7. Edit `configure.in`, adding `foobar/Makefile`, `foobar/docs/Makefile` and `foobar/tests/Makefile` to the `AC_OUTPUT` list.
8. Run:

```
autogen.sh
./configure --prefix=`pwd`/inst
make install
```

It should automake, configure and compile without errors, putting copies of the tool in `foobar/` and `inst/lib/valgrind/`.

9. You can test it with a command like:

```
inst/bin/valgrind --tool=foobar date
```

(almost any program should work; `date` is just an example). The output should be something like this:

```
==738== foobar-0.0.1, a foobarring tool for x86-linux.
==738== Copyright (C) 2002-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.
==738== Using LibVEX rev 1791, a library for dynamic binary translation.
==738== Copyright (C) 2004-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by OpenWorks LLP.
==738== Using valgrind-3.3.0, a dynamic binary instrumentation framework.
==738== Copyright (C) 2000-2007, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.
==738== For more details, rerun with: -v
==738==
Tue Nov 27 12:40:49 EST 2007
==738==
```

The tool does nothing except run the program uninstrumented.

These steps don't have to be followed exactly - you can choose different names for your source files, and use a different `--prefix` for `./configure`.

Now that we've setup, built and tested the simplest possible tool, onto the interesting stuff...

2.2.4. Writing the code

A tool must define at least these four functions:

```
pre_clo_init()
post_clo_init()
instrument()
fini()
```

The names can be different to the above, but these are the usual names. The first one is registered using the macro `VG_DETERMINE_INTERFACE_VERSION` (which also checks that the core/tool interface of the tool matches that of the core). The last three are registered using the `VG_(basic_tool_funcs)` function.

In addition, if a tool wants to use some of the optional services provided by the core, it may have to define other functions and tell the core about them.

2.2.5. Initialisation

Most of the initialisation should be done in `pre_clo_init()`. Only use `post_clo_init()` if a tool provides command line options and must do some initialisation after option processing takes place ("`clo`" stands for "command line options").

First of all, various "details" need to be set for a tool, using the functions `VG_(details_*)()`. Some are all compulsory, some aren't. Some are used when constructing the startup message, `detail_bug_reports_to` is used if `VG_(tool_panic)()` is ever called, or a tool assertion fails. Others have other uses.

Second, various "needs" can be set for a tool, using the functions `VG_(needs_*)()`. They are mostly booleans, and can be left untouched (they default to `False`). They determine whether a tool can do various things such as: record, report and suppress errors; process command line options; wrap system calls; record extra information about malloc'd blocks, etc.

For example, if a tool wants the core's help in recording and reporting errors, it must call `VG_(needs_tool_errors)` and provide definitions of eight functions for comparing errors, printing out errors, reading suppressions from a suppressions file, etc. While writing these functions requires some work, it's much less than doing error handling from scratch because the core is doing most of the work. See the function `VG_(needs_tool_errors)` in `include/pub_tool_tooliface.h` for full details of all the needs.

Third, the tool can indicate which events in core it wants to be notified about, using the functions `VG_(track_*)()`. These include things such as blocks of memory being malloc'd, the stack pointer changing, a mutex being locked, etc. If a tool wants to know about this, it should provide a pointer to a function, which will be called when that event happens.

For example, if the tool want to be notified when a new block of memory is malloc'd, it should call `VG_(track_new_mem_heap)()` with an appropriate function pointer, and the assigned function will be called each time this happens.

More information about "details", "needs" and "trackable events" can be found in `include/pub_tool_tooliface.h`.

2.2.6. Instrumentation

`instrument()` is the interesting one. It allows you to instrument *VEX IR*, which is Valgrind's RISC-like intermediate language. *VEX IR* is described fairly well in the comments of the header file `VEX/pub/libvex_ir.h`.

The easiest way to instrument *VEX IR* is to insert calls to C functions when interesting things happen. See the tool "Lackey" (`lackey/lk_main.c`) for a simple example of this, or Cachegrind (`cachegrind/cg_main.c`) for a more complex example.

2.2.7. Finalisation

This is where you can present the final results, such as a summary of the information collected. Any log files should be written out at this point.

2.2.8. Other Important Information

Please note that the core/tool split infrastructure is quite complex and not brilliantly documented. Here are some important points, but there are undoubtedly many others that I should note but haven't thought of.

The files `include/pub_tool_*.h` contain all the types, macros, functions, etc. that a tool should (hopefully) need, and are the only `.h` files a tool should need to `#include`. They have a reasonable amount of documentation in it that should hopefully be enough to get you going.

Note that you can't use anything from the C library (there are deep reasons for this, trust us). Valgrind provides an implementation of a reasonable subset of the C library, details of which are in `pub_tool_libc*.h`.

When writing a tool, you shouldn't need to look at any of the code in Valgrind's core. Although it might be useful sometimes to help understand something.

The `include/pub_tool_basics.h` and `VEX/pub/libvex_basictypes.h` files file have some basic types that are widely used.

Ultimately, the tools distributed (Memcheck, Cachegrind, Lackey, etc.) are probably the best documentation of all, for the moment.

Note that the `VG_` macro is used heavily. This just prepends a longer string in front of names to avoid potential namespace clashes. It is defined in `include/pub_tool_basics_asm.h`.

There are some assorted notes about various aspects of the implementation in `docs/internals/`. Much of it isn't that relevant to tool-writers, however.

2.2.9. Words of Advice

Writing and debugging tools is not trivial. Here are some suggestions for solving common problems.

2.2.9.1. Segmentation Faults

If you are getting segmentation faults in C functions used by your tool, the usual GDB command:

```
gdb <prog> core
```

usually gives the location of the segmentation fault.

2.2.9.2. Debugging C functions

If you want to debug C functions used by your tool, you can achieve this by following these steps:

1. Set `VALGRIND_LAUNCHER` to `<prefix>/bin/valgrind`:

```
export VALGRIND_LAUNCHER=/usr/local/bin/valgrind
```

2. Then run `gdb <prefix>/lib/valgrind/<platform>/<tool>`:

```
gdb /usr/local/lib/valgrind/ppc32-linux/lackey
```

3. Do `handle SIGSEGV SIGILL nostop noprint` in GDB to prevent GDB from stopping on a SIGSEGV or SIGILL:

```
(gdb) handle SIGILL SIGSEGV nostop noprint
```

4. Set any breakpoints you want and proceed as normal for GDB:

```
(gdb) b vgPlain_do_exec
```

The macro `VG_(FUNC)` is expanded to `vgPlain_FUNC`, so If you want to set a breakpoint `VG_(do_exec)`, you could do like this in GDB.

5. Run the tool with required options:

```
(gdb) run `pwd`
```

GDB may be able to give you useful information. Note that by default most of the system is built with `-fomit-frame-pointer`, and you'll need to get rid of this to extract useful tracebacks from GDB.

2.2.9.3. IR Instrumentation Problems

If you are having problems with your VEX IR instrumentation, it's likely that GDB won't be able to help at all. In this case, Valgrind's `--trace-flags` option is invaluable for observing the results of instrumentation.

2.2.9.4. Miscellaneous

If you just want to know whether a program point has been reached, using the `OINK` macro (in `include/pub_tool_libcprint.h`) can be easier than using GDB.

The other debugging command line options can be useful too (run `valgrind --help-debug` for the list).

2.3. Advanced Topics

Once a tool becomes more complicated, there are some extra things you may want/need to do.

2.3.1. Suppressions

If your tool reports errors and you want to suppress some common ones, you can add suppressions to the suppression files. The relevant files are `valgrind/*.supp`; the final suppression file is aggregated from these files by combining the relevant `.supp` files depending on the versions of linux, X and glibc on a system.

Suppression types have the form `tool_name:suppression_name`. The `tool_name` here is the name you specify for the tool during initialisation with `VG_(details_name)()`.

2.3.2. Documentation

As of version 3.0.0, Valgrind documentation has been converted to XML. Why? See The XML FAQ.

2.3.2.1. The XML Toolchain

If you are feeling conscientious and want to write some documentation for your tool, please use XML. The Valgrind Docs use the following toolchain and versions:

```
xmllint: using libxml version 20607
xsltproc: using libxml 20607, libxslt 10102 and libexslt 802
pdfxsltex: pdfTeX (Web2C 7.4.5) 3.14159-1.10b
pdftops: version 3.00
DocBook: version 4.2
```

Latency: you should note that latency is a big problem: DocBook is constantly being updated, but the tools tend to lag behind somewhat. It is important that the versions get on with each other, so if you decide to upgrade something, then you need to ascertain whether things still work nicely - this *cannot* be assumed.

Stylesheets: The Valgrind docs use various custom stylesheet layers, all of which are in `valgrind/docs/lib/`. You shouldn't need to modify these in any way.

Catalogs: Catalogs provide a mapping from generic addresses to specific local directories on a given machine. Most recent Linux distributions have adopted a common place for storing catalogs (`/etc/xml/`). Assuming that you have the various tools listed above installed, you probably won't need to modify your catalogs. But if you do, then just add another `group` to this file, reflecting your local installation.

2.3.2.2. Writing the Documentation

Follow these steps (using `foobar` as the example tool name again):

1. The docs go in `valgrind/foobar/docs/`, which you will have created when you started writing the tool.
2. Write `foobar/docs/Makefile.am`. Use `memcheck/docs/Makefile.am` as an example.
3. Copy the XML documentation file for the tool Nulgrind from `valgrind/none/docs/nl-manual.xml` to `foobar/docs/`, and rename it to `foobar/docs/fb-manual.xml`.

Note: there is a *really stupid* tetex bug with underscores in filenames, so don't use `'_'`.

4. Write the documentation. There are some helpful bits and pieces on using xml markup in `valgrind/docs/xml/xml_help.txt`.
5. Include it in the User Manual by adding the relevant entry to `valgrind/docs/xml/manual.xml`. Copy and edit an existing entry.

6. Validate `foobar/docs/fb-manual.xml` using the following command from within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make valid
```

You will probably get errors that look like this:

```
./xml/index.xml:5: element chapter: validity error : No declaration for
attribute base of element chapter
```

Ignore (only) these -- they're not important.

Because the xml toolchain is fragile, it is important to ensure that `fb-manual.xml` won't break the documentation set build. Note that just because an xml file happily transforms to html does not necessarily mean the same holds true for pdf/ps.

7. You can (re-)generate the HTML docs while you are writing `fb-manual.xml` to help you see how it's looking. The generated files end up in `valgrind/docs/html/`. Use the following command, within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make html-docs
```

8. When you have finished, also generate pdf and ps output to check all is well, from within `valgrind/docs/`:

```
% make print-docs
```

Check the output `.pdf` and `.ps` files in `valgrind/docs/print/`.

2.3.3. Regression Tests

Valgrind has some support for regression tests. If you want to write regression tests for your tool:

1. The tests go in `foobar/tests/`, which you will have created when you started writing the tool.
2. Write `foobar/tests/Makefile.am`. Use `memcheck/tests/Makefile.am` as an example.
3. Write the tests, `.vgtest` test description files, `.stdout.exp` and `.stderr.exp` expected output files. (Note that Valgrind's output goes to `stderr`.) Some details on writing and running tests are given in the comments at the top of the testing script `tests/vg_regtest`.
4. Write a filter for `stderr` results `foobar/tests/filter_stderr`. It can call the existing filters in `tests/`. See `memcheck/tests/filter_stderr` for an example; in particular note the `$dir` trick that ensures the filter works correctly from any directory.

2.3.4. Profiling

To profile a tool, use Cachegrind on it. Read `README_DEVELOPERS` for details on running Valgrind under Valgrind.

Alternatively, you can use OProfile. In most cases, it is better than Cachegrind because it's much faster, and gives real times, as opposed to instruction and cache hit/miss counts.

2.3.5. Other Makefile Hackery

If you add any directories under `valgrind/foobar/`, you will need to add an appropriate `Makefile.am` to it, and add a corresponding entry to the `AC_OUTPUT` list in `valgrind/configure.in`.

If you add any scripts to your tool (see Cachegrind for an example) you need to add them to the `bin_SCRIPTS` variable in `valgrind/foobar/Makefile.am`.

2.3.6. Core/tool Interface Versions

In order to allow for the core/tool interface to evolve over time, Valgrind uses a basic interface versioning system. All a tool has to do is use the `VG_DETERMINE_INTERFACE_VERSION` macro exactly once in its code. If not, a link error will occur when the tool is built.

The interface version number is changed when binary incompatible changes are made to the interface. If the core and tool has the same major version number `X` they should work together. If `X` doesn't match, Valgrind will abort execution with an explanation of the problem.

This approach was chosen so that if the interface changes in the future, old tools won't work and the reason will be clearly explained, instead of possibly crashing mysteriously. We have attempted to minimise the potential for binary incompatible changes by means such as minimising the use of naked structs in the interface.

2.4. Final Words

The core/tool interface is not fixed. It's pretty stable these days, but it does change. We deliberately do not provide backward compatibility with old interfaces, because it is too difficult and too restrictive. The interface checking should catch any incompatibilities. We view this as a good thing -- if we had to be backward compatible with earlier versions, many improvements now in the system could not have been added.

Happy programming.

3. Callgrind Format Specification

This chapter describes the Callgrind Profile Format, Version 1.

A synonymous name is "Calltree Profile Format". These names actually mean the same since Callgrind was previously named Calltree.

The format description is meant for the user to be able to understand the file contents; but more important, it is given for authors of measurement or visualization tools to be able to write and read this format.

3.1. Overview

The profile data format is ASCII based. It is written by Callgrind, and it is upwards compatible to the format used by Cachegrind (ie. Cachegrind uses a subset). It can be read by `callgrind_annotate` and `KCachegrind`.

This chapter gives an overview of format features and examples. For detailed syntax, look at the format reference.

3.1.1. Basic Structure

Each file has a header part of an arbitrary number of lines of the format "key: value". The lines with key "positions" and "events" define the meaning of cost lines in the second part of the file: the value of "positions" is a list of subpositions, and the value of "events" is a list of event type names. Cost lines consist of subpositions followed by 64-bit counters for the events, in the order specified by the "positions" and "events" header line.

The "events" header line is always required in contrast to the optional line for "positions", which defaults to "line", i.e. a line number of some source file. In addition, the second part of the file contains position specifications of the form "spec=name". "spec" can be e.g. "fn" for a function name or "fl" for a file name. Cost lines are always related to the function/file specifications given directly before.

3.1.2. Simple Example

The event names in the following example are quite arbitrary, and are not related to event names used by Callgrind. Especially, cycle counts matching real processors probably will never be generated by any Valgrind tools, as these are bound to simulations of simple machine models for acceptable slowdown. However, any profiling tool could use the format described in this chapter.

```
events: Cycles Instructions Flops
fl=file.f
fn=main
15 90 14 2
16 20 12
```

The above example gives profile information for event types "Cycles", "Instructions", and "Flops". Thus, cost lines give the number of CPU cycles passed by, number of executed instructions, and number of floating point operations executed while running code corresponding to some source position. As there is no line specifying the value of "positions", it defaults to "line", which means that the first number of a cost line is always a line number.

Thus, the first cost line specifies that in line 15 of source file "file.f" there is code belonging to function "main". While running, 90 CPU cycles passed by, and 2 of the 14 instructions executed were floating point operations. Similarly, the next line specifies that there were 12 instructions executed in the context of function "main" which can be related to

line 16 in file "file.f", taking 20 CPU cycles. If a cost line specifies less event counts than given in the "events" line, the rest is assumed to be zero. I.e., there was no floating point instruction executed relating to line 16.

Note that regular cost lines always give self (also called exclusive) cost of code at a given position. If you specify multiple cost lines for the same position, these will be summed up. On the other hand, in the example above there is no specification of how many times function "main" actually was called: profile data only contains sums.

3.1.3. Associations

The most important extension to the original format of Cachegrind is the ability to specify call relationship among functions. More generally, you specify associations among positions. For this, the second part of the file also can contain association specifications. These look similar to position specifications, but consist of 2 lines. For calls, the format looks like

```
calls=(Call Count) (Destination position)
      (Source position) (Inclusive cost of call)
```

The destination only specifies subpositions like line number. Therefore, to be able to specify a call to another function in another source file, you have to precede the above lines with a "cfn=" specification for the name of the called function, and a "cfl=" specification if the function is in another source file. The 2nd line looks like a regular cost line with the difference that inclusive cost spent inside of the function call has to be specified.

Other associations which or for example (conditional) jumps. See the reference below for details.

3.1.4. Extended Example

The following example shows 3 functions, "main", "func1", and "func2". Function "main" calls "func1" once and "func2" 3 times. "func1" calls "func2" 2 times.

events: Instructions

```
f1=file1.c
fn=main
16 20
cfn=func1
calls=1 50
16 400
cfl=file2.c
cfn=func2
calls=3 20
16 400

fn=func1
51 100
cfl=file2.c
cfn=func2
calls=2 20
51 300

f1=file2.c
fn=func2
20 700
```

One can see that in "main" only code from line 16 is executed where also the other functions are called. Inclusive cost of "main" is 820, which is the sum of self cost 20 and costs spent in the calls: 400 for the single call to "func1" and 400 as sum for the three calls to "func2".

Function "func1" is located in "file1.c", the same as "main". Therefore, a "cfl=" specification for the call to "func1" is not needed. The function "func1" only consists of code at line 51 of "file1.c", where "func2" is called.

3.1.5. Name Compression

With the introduction of association specifications like calls it is needed to specify the same function or same file name multiple times. As absolute filenames or symbol names in C++ can be quite long, it is advantageous to be able to specify integer IDs for position specifications. Here, the term "position" corresponds to a file name (source or object file) or function name.

To support name compression, a position specification can be not only of the format "spec=name", but also "spec=(ID) name" to specify a mapping of an integer ID to a name, and "spec=(ID)" to reference a previously defined ID mapping. There is a separate ID mapping for each position specification, i.e. you can use ID 1 for both a file name and a symbol name.

With string compression, the example from 1.4 looks like this:

events: Instructions

```

fl=(1) file1.c
fn=(1) main
16 20
cfn=(2) func1
calls=1 50
16 400
cfl=(2) file2.c
cfn=(3) func2
calls=3 20
16 400

fn=(2)
51 100
cfl=(2)
cfn=(3)
calls=2 20
51 300

fl=(2)
fn=(3)
20 700

```

As position specifications carry no information themselves, but only change the meaning of subsequent cost lines or associations, they can appear everywhere in the file without any negative consequence. Especially, you can define name compression mappings directly after the header, and before any cost lines. Thus, the above example can also be written as

```

events: Instructions

# define file ID mapping
fl=(1) file1.c
fl=(2) file2.c
# define function ID mapping
fn=(1) main
fn=(2) func1
fn=(3) func2

fl=(1)
fn=(1)
16 20
...

```

3.1.6. Subposition Compression

If a Callgrind data file should hold costs for each assembler instruction of a program, you specify subposition "instr" in the "positions:" header line, and each cost line has to include the address of some instruction. Addresses are allowed to have a size of 64bit to support 64bit architectures. Thus, repeating similar, long addresses for almost every line in the data file can enlarge the file size quite significantly, and motivates for subposition compression: instead of every cost line starting with a 16 character long address, one is allowed to specify relative addresses. This relative specification is not only allowed for instruction addresses, but also for line numbers; both addresses and line numbers are called "subpositions".

A relative subposition always is based on the corresponding subposition of the last cost line, and starts with a "+" to specify a positive difference, a "-" to specify a negative difference, or consists of "*" to specify the same subposition. Because absolute subpositions always are positive (ie. never prefixed by "-"), any relative specification is non-ambiguous; additionally, absolute and relative subposition specifications can be mixed freely. Assume the following example (subpositions can always be specified as hexadecimal numbers, beginning with "0x"):

```

positions: instr line
events: ticks

fn=func
0x80001234 90 1
0x80001237 90 5
0x80001238 91 6

```

With subposition compression, this looks like

```

positions: instr line
events: ticks

fn=func
0x80001234 90 1
+3 * 5
+1 +1 6

```

Remark: For assembler annotation to work, instruction addresses have to be corrected to correspond to addresses found in the original binary. I.e. for relocatable shared objects, often a load offset has to be subtracted.

3.1.7. Miscellaneous

3.1.7.1. Cost Summary Information

For the visualization to be able to show cost percentage, a sum of the cost of the full run has to be known. Usually, it is assumed that this is the sum of all cost lines in a file. But sometimes, this is not correct. Thus, you can specify a "summary:" line in the header giving the full cost for the profile run. This has another effect: a import filter can show a progress bar while loading a large data file if he knows to cost sum in advance.

3.1.7.2. Long Names for Event Types and inherited Types

Event types for cost lines are specified in the "events:" line with an abbreviated name. For visualization, it makes sense to be able to specify some longer, more descriptive name. For an event type "Ir" which means "Instruction Fetches", this can be specified the header line

```
event: Ir : Instruction Fetches
events: Ir Dr
```

In this example, "Dr" itself has no long name associated. The order of "event:" lines and the "events:" line is of no importance. Additionally, inherited event types can be introduced for which no raw data is available, but which are calculated from given types. Suppose the last example, you could add

```
event: Sum = Ir + Dr
```

to specify an additional event type "Sum", which is calculated by adding costs for "Ir and "Dr".

3.2. Reference

3.2.1. Grammar

```
ProfileDataFile := FormatVersion? Creator? PartData*
```

```
FormatVersion := "version:" Space* Number "\n"
```

```
Creator := "creator:" NoNewLineChar* "\n"
```

```
PartData := (HeaderLine "\n")+ (BodyLine "\n")+
```

```
HeaderLine := (empty line)
| ('#' NoNewLineChar*)
| PartDetail
| Description
| EventSpecification
| CostLineDef
```

```
PartDetail := TargetCommand | TargetID
```

```
TargetCommand := "cmd:" Space* NoNewLineChar*
```

```
TargetID := ("pid"|"thread"|"part") ":" Space* Number
```

```
Description := "desc:" Space* Name Space* ":" NoNewLineChar*
```

```
EventSpecification := "event:" Space* Name InheritedDef? LongNameDef?
```

```
InheritedDef := "=" InheritedExpr
```

```
InheritedExpr := Name
| Number Space* ("*" Space*)? Name
| InheritedExpr Space* "+" Space* InheritedExpr
```

```
LongNameDef := ":" NoNewLineChar*
```

```
CostLineDef := "events:" Space* Name (Space+ Name)*
| "positions:" "instr"? (Space+ "line")?
```

```
BodyLine := (empty line)
| ('#' NoNewLineChar*)
| CostLine
| PositionSpecification
| AssociationSpecification
```

```
CostLine := SubPositionList Costs?
```

```
SubPositionList := (SubPosition+ Space+)+
```

```
SubPosition := Number | "+" Number | "-" Number | "*" "
```

```
Costs := (Number Space+)+
```

```
PositionSpecification := Position "=" Space* PositionName
```

```
Position := CostPosition | CalledPosition
```

```
CostPosition := "ob" | "fl" | "fi" | "fe" | "fn"
```

```
CalledPosition := "cob" | "cfl" | "cfn"
```

```
PositionName := ( "(" Number ")" )? (Space* NoNewLineChar* )?
```

```
AssociationSpecification := CallSpecification  
| JumpSpecification
```

```
CallSpecification := CallLine "\n" CostLine
```

```
CallLine := "calls=" Space* Number Space+ SubPositionList
```

```
JumpSpecification := ...
```

```
Space := " " | "\t"
```

```
Number := HexNumber | (Digit)+
```

```
Digit := "0" | ... | "9"
```

```
HexNumber := "0x" (Digit | HexChar)+
```

```
HexChar := "a" | ... | "f" | "A" | ... | "F"
```

```
Name = Alpha (Digit | Alpha)*
```

```
Alpha = "a" | ... | "z" | "A" | ... | "Z"
```

```
NoNewLineChar := all characters without "\n"
```

3.2.2. Description of Header Lines

The header has an arbitrary number of lines of the format "key: value". Possible *key* values for the header are:

- `version: number` [Callgrind]

This is used to distinguish future profile data formats. A major version of 0 or 1 is supposed to be upwards compatible with Cachegrind's format. It is optional; if not appearing, version 1 is supposed. Otherwise, this has to be the first header line.

- `pid: process id` [Callgrind]

This specifies the process ID of the supervised application for which this profile was generated.

- `cmd: program name + args` [Cachegrind]

This specifies the full command line of the supervised application for which this profile was generated.

- `part: number` [Callgrind]

This specifies a sequentially incremented number for each dump generated, starting at 1.

- `desc: type: value` [Cachegrind]

This specifies various information for this dump. For some types, the semantic is defined, but any description type is allowed. Unknown types should be ignored.

There are the types "I1 cache", "D1 cache", "L2 cache", which specify parameters used for the cache simulator. These are the only types originally used by Cachegrind. Additionally, Callgrind uses the following types: "Timerange" gives a rough range of the basic block counter, for which the cost of this dump was collected. Type "Trigger" states the reason of why this trace was generated. E.g. program termination or forced interactive dump.

- `positions: [instr] [line]` [Callgrind]

For cost lines, this defines the semantic of the first numbers. Any combination of "instr", "bb" and "line" is allowed, but has to be in this order which corresponds to position numbers at the start of the cost lines later in the file.

If "instr" is specified, the position is the address of an instruction whose execution raised the events given later on the line. This address is relative to the offset of the binary/shared library file to not have to specify relocation info. For "line", the position is the line number of a source file, which is responsible for the events raised. Note that the mapping of "instr" and "line" positions are given by the debugging line information produced by the compiler.

This field is optional. If not specified, "line" is supposed only.

- `events: event type abbreviations` [Cachegrind]

A list of short names of the event types logged in this file. The order is the same as in cost lines. The first event type is the second or third number in a cost line, depending on the value of "positions". Callgrind does not add additional cost types. Specify exactly once.

Cost types from original Cachegrind are:

- **Ir**: Instruction read access
- **I1mr**: Instruction Level 1 read cache miss
- **I2mr**: Instruction Level 2 read cache miss
- ...

- `summary: costs` [Callgrind]
- `totals: costs` [Cachegrind]

The value or the total number of events covered by this trace file. Both keys have the same meaning, but the "totals:" line happens to be at the end of the file, while "summary:" appears in the header. This was added to allow postprocessing tools to know in advance to total cost. The two lines always give the same cost counts.

3.2.3. Description of Body Lines

There exist lines `spec=position`. The values for position specifications are arbitrary strings. When starting with "(" and a digit, it's a string in compressed format. Otherwise it's the real position string. This allows for file and symbol names as position strings, as these never start with "(" + *digit*. The compressed format is either "(" *number* ")" *space position* or only "(" *number* ")". The first relates *position* to *number* in the context of the given format specification from this line to the end of the file; it makes the (*number*) an alias for *position*. Compressed format is always optional.

Position specifications allowed:

- `ob=` [Callgrind]

The ELF object where the cost of next cost lines happens.

- `fl=` [Cachegrind]
- `fi=` [Cachegrind]
- `fe=` [Cachegrind]

The source file including the code which is responsible for the cost of next cost lines. "fi="/"fe=" is used when the source file changes inside of a function, i.e. for inlined code.

- `fn=` [Cachegrind]

The name of the function where the cost of next cost lines happens.

- `cob=` [Callgrind]

The ELF object of the target of the next call cost lines.

- `cfl=` [Callgrind]

The source file including the code of the target of the next call cost lines.

- `cfn=` [Callgrind]

The name of the target function of the next call cost lines.

- `calls=` [Callgrind]

The number of nonrecursive calls which are responsible for the cost specified by the next call cost line. This is the cost spent inside of the called function.

After "calls=" there MUST be a cost line. This is the cost spent in the called function. The first number is the source line from where the call happened.

- `jump=count target position [Callgrind]`

Unconditional jump, executed count times, to the given target position.

- `jcnd=exe.count jumpcount target position [Callgrind]`

Conditional jump, executed exe.count times with jumpcount jumps to the given target position.

Valgrind Distribution Documents

Release 3.4.0 2 January 2009
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1. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Jeremy wrote Helgrind (in the 2.X line) and totally overhauled low-level syscall/signal and address space layout stuff, among many other improvements.

Tom Hughes, tom@valgrind.org

Tom did a vast number of bug fixes, and helped out with support for more recent Linux/glibc versions, and set up the present build system.

Nicholas Nethercote, njn@valgrind.org

Nick did the core/tool generalisation, wrote Cachegrind and Massif, and tons of other stuff.

Paul Mackerras

Paul did a lot of the initial per-architecture factoring that forms the basis of the 3.0 line and is also to be seen in 2.4.0. He also did UCode-based dynamic translation support for PowerPC, and created a set of ppc-linux derivatives of the 2.X release line.

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Omega was written by Bryan Meredith and is maintained by Rich Coe.
DRD was written by and is maintained by Bart Van Assche.

Frederic Gobry helped with autoconf and automake. Daniel Berlin modified readelf's dwarf2 source line reader, written by Nick Clifton, for use in Valgrind. Michael Matz and Simon Hausmann modified the GNU binutils demangler(s) for use in Valgrind.

David Woodhouse and Tom Hughes have helped out with test and build machines over the course of many releases.

Many, many people sent bug reports, patches, and helpful feedback.

Development of Valgrind was supported in part by the Tri-Lab Partners (Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Los Alamos National Laboratory, and Sandia National Laboratories) of the U.S. Department of Energy's Advanced Simulation & Computing (ASC) Program.

2. AUTHORS

Cerion Armour-Brown worked on PowerPC instruction set support using the Vex dynamic-translation framework.

Jeremy Fitzhardinge wrote Helgrind (in the 2.X line) and totally overhauled low-level syscall/signal and address space layout stuff, among many other things.

Tom Hughes did a vast number of bug fixes, and helped out with support for more recent Linux/glibc versions.

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And lots and lots of other people sent bug reports, patches, and very helpful feedback. Thank you all.

3. INSTALL

Basic Installation

=====

These are generic installation instructions.

The 'configure' shell script attempts to guess correct values for various system-dependent variables used during compilation. It uses those values to create a 'Makefile' in each directory of the package. It may also create one or more '.h' files containing system-dependent definitions. Finally, it creates a shell script 'config.status' that you can run in the future to recreate the current configuration, a file 'config.cache' that saves the results of its tests to speed up reconfiguring, and a file 'config.log' containing compiler output (useful mainly for debugging 'configure').

If you need to do unusual things to compile the package, please try to figure out how 'configure' could check whether to do them, and mail diffs or instructions to the address given in the 'README' so they can be considered for the next release. If at some point 'config.cache' contains results you don't want to keep, you may remove or edit it.

The file 'configure.in' is used to create 'configure' by a program called 'autoconf'. You only need 'configure.in' if you want to change it or regenerate 'configure' using a newer version of 'autoconf'.

The simplest way to compile this package is:

1. 'cd' to the directory containing the package's source code and type './configure' to configure the package for your system. If you're using 'csh' on an old version of System V, you might need to type 'sh ./configure' instead to prevent 'csh' from trying to execute 'configure' itself.

Running 'configure' takes awhile. While running, it prints some messages telling which features it is checking for.

2. Type 'make' to compile the package.
3. Optionally, type 'make check' to run any self-tests that come with the package.
4. Type 'make install' to install the programs and any data files and documentation.
5. You can remove the program binaries and object files from the source code directory by typing 'make clean'. To also remove the files that 'configure' created (so you can compile the package for a different kind of computer), type 'make distclean'. There is also a 'make maintainer-clean' target, but that is intended mainly for the package's developers. If you use it, you may have to get

all sorts of other programs in order to regenerate files that came with the distribution.

Compilers and Options

=====

Some systems require unusual options for compilation or linking that the 'configure' script does not know about. You can give 'configure' initial values for variables by setting them in the environment. Using a Bourne-compatible shell, you can do that on the command line like this:

```
CC=c89 CFLAGS=-O2 LIBS=-lposix ./configure
```

Or on systems that have the 'env' program, you can do it like this:

```
env CPPFLAGS=-I/usr/local/include LDFLAGS=-s ./configure
```

Compiling For Multiple Architectures

=====

You can compile the package for more than one kind of computer at the same time, by placing the object files for each architecture in their own directory. To do this, you must use a version of 'make' that supports the 'VPATH' variable, such as GNU 'make'. 'cd' to the directory where you want the object files and executables to go and run the 'configure' script. 'configure' automatically checks for the source code in the directory that 'configure' is in and in '..'.

If you have to use a 'make' that does not support the 'VPATH' variable, you have to compile the package for one architecture at a time in the source code directory. After you have installed the package for one architecture, use 'make distclean' before reconfiguring for another architecture.

Installation Names

=====

By default, 'make install' will install the package's files in '/usr/local/bin', '/usr/local/man', etc. You can specify an installation prefix other than '/usr/local' by giving 'configure' the option '--prefix=PATH'.

You can specify separate installation prefixes for architecture-specific files and architecture-independent files. If you give 'configure' the option '--exec-prefix=PATH', the package will use PATH as the prefix for installing programs and libraries. Documentation and other data files will still use the regular prefix.

In addition, if you use an unusual directory layout you can give options like '--bindir=PATH' to specify different values for particular kinds of files. Run 'configure --help' for a list of the directories you can set and what kinds of files go in them.

If the package supports it, you can cause programs to be installed with an extra prefix or suffix on their names by giving 'configure' the

option ‘--program-prefix=PREFIX’ or ‘--program-suffix=SUFFIX’.

Optional Features

=====

Some packages pay attention to ‘--enable-FEATURE’ options to ‘configure’, where FEATURE indicates an optional part of the package. They may also pay attention to ‘--with-PACKAGE’ options, where PACKAGE is something like ‘gnu-as’ or ‘x’ (for the X Window System). The ‘README’ should mention any ‘--enable-’ and ‘--with-’ options that the package recognizes.

For packages that use the X Window System, ‘configure’ can usually find the X include and library files automatically, but if it doesn’t, you can use the ‘configure’ options ‘--x-includes=DIR’ and ‘--x-libraries=DIR’ to specify their locations.

Specifying the System Type

=====

There may be some features ‘configure’ can not figure out automatically, but needs to determine by the type of host the package will run on. Usually ‘configure’ can figure that out, but if it prints a message saying it can not guess the host type, give it the ‘--host=TYPE’ option. TYPE can either be a short name for the system type, such as ‘sun4’, or a canonical name with three fields:

CPU-COMPANY-SYSTEM

See the file ‘config.sub’ for the possible values of each field. If ‘config.sub’ isn’t included in this package, then this package doesn’t need to know the host type.

If you are building compiler tools for cross-compiling, you can also use the ‘--target=TYPE’ option to select the type of system they will produce code for and the ‘--build=TYPE’ option to select the type of system on which you are compiling the package.

Sharing Defaults

=====

If you want to set default values for ‘configure’ scripts to share, you can create a site shell script called ‘config.site’ that gives default values for variables like ‘CC’, ‘cache_file’, and ‘prefix’. ‘configure’ looks for ‘PREFIX/share/config.site’ if it exists, then ‘PREFIX/etc/config.site’ if it exists. Or, you can set the ‘CONFIG_SITE’ environment variable to the location of the site script. A warning: not all ‘configure’ scripts look for a site script.

Operation Controls

=====

‘configure’ recognizes the following options to control how it operates.

'--cache-file=FILE'

Use and save the results of the tests in FILE instead of './config.cache'. Set FILE to '/dev/null' to disable caching, for debugging 'configure'.

'--help'

Print a summary of the options to 'configure', and exit.

'--quiet'

'--silent'

'-q'

Do not print messages saying which checks are being made. To suppress all normal output, redirect it to '/dev/null' (any error messages will still be shown).

'--srcdir=DIR'

Look for the package's source code in directory DIR. Usually 'configure' can determine that directory automatically.

'--version'

Print the version of Autoconf used to generate the 'configure' script, and exit.

'configure' also accepts some other, not widely useful, options.

4. NEWS

Release 3.4.1 (28 February 2009)

~~~~~  
3.4.1 is a bug-fix release that fixes some regressions and assertion failures in debug info reading in 3.4.0, most notably incorrect stack traces on amd64-linux on older (glibc-2.3 based) systems. Various other debug info problems are also fixed. A number of bugs in the exp-Ptrcheck tool introduced in 3.4.0 have been fixed.

In view of the fact that 3.4.0 contains user-visible regressions relative to 3.3.x, upgrading to 3.4.1 is recommended. Packagers are encouraged to ship 3.4.1 in preference to 3.4.0.

The fixed bugs are as follows. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry. We encourage you to file bugs in bugzilla ([http://bugs.kde.org/enter\\_valgrind\\_bug.cgi](http://bugs.kde.org/enter_valgrind_bug.cgi)) rather than mailing the developers (or mailing lists) directly -- bugs that are not entered into bugzilla tend to get forgotten about or ignored.

n-i-bz Fix various bugs reading icc-11 generated debug info  
n-i-bz Fix various bugs reading gcc-4.4 generated debug info  
n-i-bz Preliminary support for glibc-2.10 / Fedora 11  
n-i-bz Cachegrind and Callgrind: handle non-power-of-two cache sizes, so as to support (eg) 24k Atom D1 and Core2 with 3/6/12MB L2.  
179618 exp-Ptrcheck crashed / exit prematurely  
179624 helgrind: false positive races with pthread\_create and recv/open/close/read  
134207 pkg-config output contains @VG\_PLATFORM@  
176926 floating point exception at valgrind startup with PPC 440EPX  
181594 Bogus warning for empty text segment  
173751 amd64->IR: 0x48 0xF 0x6F 0x45 (even more redundant rex prefixes)  
181707 Dwarf3 doesn't require enumerations to have name  
185038 exp-Ptrcheck: "unhandled syscall: 285" (fallocate) on x86\_64  
185050 exp-Ptrcheck: sg\_main.c:727 (add\_block\_to\_GlobalTree): Assertion '!already\_present' failed.  
185359 exp-Ptrcheck unhandled syscall getresuid()

(3.4.1.RC1: 24 Feb 2008, vex r1884, valgrind r9253).

(3.4.1: 28 Feb 2008, vex r1884, valgrind r9293).

Release 3.4.0 (2 January 2009)

~~~~~  
3.4.0 is a feature release with many significant improvements and the usual collection of bug fixes. This release supports X86/Linux, AMD64/Linux, PPC32/Linux and PPC64/Linux. Support for recent distros (using gcc 4.4, glibc 2.8 and 2.9) has been added.

3.4.0 brings some significant tool improvements. Memcheck can now report the origin of uninitialised values, the thread checkers Helgrind and DRD are much improved, and we have a new experimental tool, exp-Ptrcheck, which is able to detect overruns of stack and global arrays. In detail:

- * Memcheck is now able to track the origin of uninitialised values. When it reports an uninitialised value error, it will try to show the origin of the value, as either a heap or stack allocation. Origin tracking is expensive and so is not enabled by default. To use it, specify `--track-origins=yes`. Memcheck's speed will be essentially halved, and memory usage will be significantly increased. Nevertheless it can drastically reduce the effort required to identify the root cause of uninitialised value errors, and so is often a programmer productivity win, despite running more slowly.
- * A version (1.4.0) of the Valkyrie GUI, that works with Memcheck in 3.4.0, will be released shortly.
- * Helgrind's race detection algorithm has been completely redesigned and reimplemented, to address usability and scalability concerns:
 - The new algorithm has a lower false-error rate: it is much less likely to report races that do not really exist.
 - Helgrind will display full call stacks for both accesses involved in a race. This makes it easier to identify the root causes of races.
 - Limitations on the size of program that can run have been removed.
 - Performance has been modestly improved, although that is very workload-dependent.
 - Direct support for Qt4 threading has been added.
 - `pthread_barriers` are now directly supported.
 - Helgrind works well on all supported Linux targets.
- * The DRD thread debugging tool has seen major improvements:
 - Greatly improved performance and significantly reduced memory usage.
 - Support for several major threading libraries (Boost.Thread, Qt4, glib, OpenMP) has been added.
 - Support for atomic instructions, POSIX semaphores, barriers and reader-writer locks has been added.
 - Works now on PowerPC CPUs too.

-
- Added support for printing thread stack usage at thread exit time.
 - Added support for debugging lock contention.
 - Added a manual for Drd.
 - * A new experimental tool, exp-Ptrcheck, has been added. Ptrcheck checks for misuses of pointers. In that sense it is a bit like Memcheck. However, Ptrcheck can do things Memcheck can't: it can detect overruns of stack and global arrays, it can detect arbitrarily far out-of-bounds accesses to heap blocks, and it can detect accesses heap blocks that have been freed a very long time ago (millions of blocks in the past).

Ptrcheck currently works only on x86-linux and amd64-linux. To use it, use `--tool=exp-ptrcheck`. A simple manual is provided, as part of the main Valgrind documentation. As this is an experimental tool, we would be particularly interested in hearing about your experiences with it.
 - * exp-Omega, an experimental instantaneous leak-detecting tool, is no longer built by default, although the code remains in the repository and the tarball. This is due to three factors: a perceived lack of users, a lack of maintenance, and concerns that it may not be possible to achieve reliable operation using the existing design.
 - * As usual, support for the latest Linux distros and toolchain components has been added. It should work well on Fedora Core 10, OpenSUSE 11.1 and Ubuntu 8.10. gcc-4.4 (in its current pre-release state) is supported, as is glibc-2.9. The C++ demangler has been updated so as to work well with C++ compiled by even the most recent g++'s.
 - * You can now use frame-level wildcards in suppressions. This was a frequently-requested enhancement. A line "..." in a suppression now matches zero or more frames. This makes it easier to write suppressions which are precise yet insensitive to changes in inlining behaviour.
 - * 3.4.0 adds support on x86/amd64 for the SSSE3 instruction set.
 - * Very basic support for IBM Power6 has been added (64-bit processes only).
 - * Valgrind is now cross-compilable. For example, it is possible to cross compile Valgrind on an x86/amd64-linux host, so that it runs on a ppc32/64-linux target.
 - * You can set the main thread's stack size at startup using the new `--main-stacksize=` flag (subject of course to ulimit settings). This is useful for running apps that need a lot of stack space.
 - * The limitation that you can't use `--trace-children=yes` together with `--db-attach=yes` has been removed.

* The following bugs have been fixed. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry. We encourage you to file bugs in bugzilla (http://bugs.kde.org/enter_valgrind_bug.cgi) rather than mailing the developers (or mailing lists) directly.

n-i-bz Make return types for some client requests 64-bit clean
 n-i-bz glibc 2.9 support
 n-i-bz ignore unsafe .valgrindrc's (CVE-2008-4865)
 n-i-bz MPI_Init(0,0) is valid but libmpiwrap.c segfaults
 n-i-bz Building in an env without gdb gives bogus gdb attach
 92456 Tracing the origin of uninitialised memory
 106497 Valgrind does not demangle some C++ template symbols
 162222 ==106497
 151612 Suppression with "..." (frame-level wildcards in .supp files)
 156404 Unable to start oocalc under memcheck on openSUSE 10.3 (64-bit)
 159285 unhandled syscall:25 (stime, on x86-linux)
 159452 unhandled ioctl 0x8B01 on "valgrind iwconfig"
 160954 ppc build of valgrind crashes with illegal instruction (isel)
 160956 mallinfo implementation, w/ patch
 162092 Valgrind fails to start gnome-system-monitor
 162819 malloc_free_fill test doesn't pass on glibc2.8 x86
 163794 assertion failure with "--track-origins=yes"
 163933 sigcontext.err and .trapno must be set together
 163955 remove constraint !(--db-attach=yes && --trace-children=yes)
 164476 Missing kernel module loading system calls
 164669 SVN regression: mmap() drops posix file locks
 166581 Callgrind output corruption when program forks
 167288 Patch file for missing system calls on Cell BE
 168943 unsupported scas instruction pentium
 171645 Unrecognised instruction (MOVSD, non-binutils encoding)
 172417 x86->IR: 0x82 ...
 172563 amd64->IR: 0xD9 0xF5 - fprem1
 173099 .lds linker script generation error
 173177 [x86_64] syscalls: 125/126/179 (capget/capset/quotactl)
 173751 amd64->IR: 0x48 0xF 0x6F 0x45 (even more redundant prefixes)
 174532 == 173751
 174908 --log-file value not expanded correctly for core file
 175044 Add lookup_dcookie for amd64
 175150 x86->IR: 0xF2 0xF 0x11 0xC1 (movss non-binutils encoding)

Developer-visible changes:

* Valgrind's debug-info reading machinery has been majorly overhauled. It can now correctly establish the addresses for ELF data symbols, which is something that has never worked properly before now.

Also, Valgrind can now read DWARF3 type and location information for stack and global variables. This makes it possible to use the framework to build tools that rely on knowing the type and locations of stack and global variables, for example exp-Ptrcheck.

Reading of such information is disabled by default, because most tools don't need it, and because it is expensive in space and time.

However, you can force Valgrind to read it, using the `--read-var-info=yes` flag. Memcheck, Helgrind and DRD are able to make use of such information, if present, to provide source-level descriptions of data addresses in the error messages they create.

(3.4.0.RC1: 24 Dec 2008, vex r1878, valgrind r8882).

(3.4.0: 3 Jan 2009, vex r1878, valgrind r8899).

Release 3.3.1 (4 June 2008)

~~~~~  
 3.3.1 fixes a bunch of bugs in 3.3.0, adds support for glibc-2.8 based systems (openSUSE 11, Fedora Core 9), improves the existing glibc-2.7 support, and adds support for the SSSE3 (Core 2) instruction set.

3.3.1 will likely be the last release that supports some very old systems. In particular, the next major release, 3.4.0, will drop support for the old LinuxThreads threading library, and for gcc versions prior to 3.0.

The fixed bugs are as follows. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry. We encourage you to file bugs in bugzilla ([http://bugs.kde.org/enter\\_valgrind\\_bug.cgi](http://bugs.kde.org/enter_valgrind_bug.cgi)) rather than mailing the developers (or mailing lists) directly -- bugs that are not entered into bugzilla tend to get forgotten about or ignored.

n-i-bz Massif segfaults at exit  
 n-i-bz Memcheck asserts on Altivec code  
 n-i-bz fix sizeof bug in Helgrind  
 n-i-bz check fd on sys\_llseek  
 n-i-bz update syscall lists to kernel 2.6.23.1  
 n-i-bz support sys\_sync\_file\_range  
 n-i-bz handle sys\_sysinfo, sys\_getresuid, sys\_getresgid on ppc64-linux  
 n-i-bz intercept memcpy in 64-bit ld.so's  
 n-i-bz Fix wrappers for sys\_{futimesat,utimensat}  
 n-i-bz Minor false-error avoidance fixes for Memcheck  
 n-i-bz libmpiwrap.c: add a wrapper for MPI\_Waitany  
 n-i-bz helgrind support for glibc-2.8  
 n-i-bz partial fix for mc\_leakcheck.c:698 assert:  
   'lc\_shadows[i]->data + lc\_shadows[i] ...  
 n-i-bz Massif/Cachegrind output corruption when programs fork  
 n-i-bz register allocator fix: handle spill stores correctly  
 n-i-bz add support for PA6T PowerPC CPUs  
 126389 vex x86->IR: 0xF 0xAE (FXRSTOR)  
 158525 ==126389  
 152818 vex x86->IR: 0xF3 0xAC (repz ldsb)  
 153196 vex x86->IR: 0xF2 0xA6 (repnz cmpsb)  
 155011 vex x86->IR: 0xCF (iret)  
 155091 Warning [...] unhandled DW\_OP\_ opcode 0x23  
 156960 ==155901  
 155528 support Core2/SSSE3 insns on x86/amd64  
 155929 ms\_print fails on massif outputs containing long lines

157665 valgrind fails on shmdt(0) after shmat to 0  
 157748 support x86 PUSHFW/POPFW  
 158212 helgrind: handle pthread\_rwlock\_try{rd,wr}lock.  
 158425 sys\_poll incorrectly emulated when RES==0  
 158744 vex amd64->IR: 0xF0 0x41 0xF 0xC0 (xaddb)  
 160907 Support for a couple of recent Linux syscalls  
 161285 Patch -- support for eventfd() syscall  
 161378 illegal opcode in debug libm (FUCOMPP)  
 160136 ==161378  
 161487 number of suppressions files is limited to 10  
 162386 ms\_print typo in milliseconds time unit for massif  
 161036 exp-drd: client allocated memory was never freed  
 162663 signalfd\_wrapper fails on 64bit linux

(3.3.1.RC1: 2 June 2008, vex r1854, valgrind r8169).

(3.3.1: 4 June 2008, vex r1854, valgrind r8180).

### Release 3.3.0 (7 December 2007)

~~~~~  
 3.3.0 is a feature release with many significant improvements and the usual collection of bug fixes. This release supports X86/Linux, AMD64/Linux, PPC32/Linux and PPC64/Linux. Support for recent distros (using gcc 4.3, glibc 2.6 and 2.7) has been added.

The main excitement in 3.3.0 is new and improved tools. Helgrind works again, Massif has been completely overhauled and much improved, Cachegrind now does branch-misprediction profiling, and a new category of experimental tools has been created, containing two new tools: Omega and DRD. There are many other smaller improvements. In detail:

- Helgrind has been completely overhauled and works for the first time since Valgrind 2.2.0. Supported functionality is: detection of misuses of the POSIX PThreads API, detection of potential deadlocks resulting from cyclic lock dependencies, and detection of data races. Compared to the 2.2.0 Helgrind, the race detection algorithm has some significant improvements aimed at reducing the false error rate. Handling of various kinds of corner cases has been improved. Efforts have been made to make the error messages easier to understand. Extensive documentation is provided.
- Massif has been completely overhauled. Instead of measuring space-time usage -- which wasn't always useful and many people found confusing -- it now measures space usage at various points in the execution, including the point of peak memory allocation. Its output format has also changed: instead of producing PostScript graphs and HTML text, it produces a single text output (via the new 'ms_print' script) that contains both a graph and the old textual information, but in a more compact and readable form. Finally, the new version should be more reliable than the old one, as it has been tested more thoroughly.
- Cachegrind has been extended to do branch-misprediction profiling.

Both conditional and indirect branches are profiled. The default behaviour of Cachegrind is unchanged. To use the new functionality, give the option `--branch-sim=yes`.

- A new category of "experimental tools" has been created. Such tools may not work as well as the standard tools, but are included because some people will find them useful, and because exposure to a wider user group provides tool authors with more end-user feedback. These tools have a "exp-" prefix attached to their names to indicate their experimental nature. Currently there are two experimental tools:
 - * `exp-Omega`: an instantaneous leak detector. See `exp-omega/docs/omega_introduction.txt`.
 - * `exp-DRD`: a data race detector based on the happens-before relation. See `exp-drd/docs/README.txt`.
- Scalability improvements for very large programs, particularly those which have a million or more malloc'd blocks in use at once. These improvements mostly affect Memcheck. Memcheck is also up to 10% faster for all programs, with x86-linux seeing the largest improvement.
- Works well on the latest Linux distros. Has been tested on Fedora Core 8 (x86, amd64, ppc32, ppc64) and openSUSE 10.3. glibc 2.6 and 2.7 are supported. gcc-4.3 (in its current pre-release state) is supported. At the same time, 3.3.0 retains support for older distros.
- The documentation has been modestly reorganised with the aim of making it easier to find information on common-usage scenarios. Some advanced material has been moved into a new chapter in the main manual, so as to unclutter the main flow, and other tidying up has been done.
- There is experimental support for AIX 5.3, both 32-bit and 64-bit processes. You need to be running a 64-bit kernel to use Valgrind on a 64-bit executable.
- There have been some changes to command line options, which may affect you:
 - * `--log-file-exactly` and `--log-file-qualifier` options have been removed.

To make up for this `--log-file` option has been made more powerful. It now accepts a `%p` format specifier, which is replaced with the process ID, and a `%q{FOO}` format specifier, which is replaced with the contents of the environment variable FOO.

- * `--child-silent-after-fork=yes|no` [no]

Causes Valgrind to not show any debugging or logging output for the child process resulting from a `fork()` call. This can make the

output less confusing (although more misleading) when dealing with processes that create children.

* `--cachegrind-out-file`, `--callgrind-out-file` and `--massif-out-file`

These control the names of the output files produced by Cachegrind, Callgrind and Massif. They accept the same `%p` and `%q` format specifiers that `--log-file` accepts. `--callgrind-out-file` replaces Callgrind's old `--base` option.

* Cachegrind's `'cg_annotate'` script no longer uses the `--<pid>` option to specify the output file. Instead, the first non-option argument is taken to be the name of the output file, and any subsequent non-option arguments are taken to be the names of source files to be annotated.

* Cachegrind and Callgrind now use directory names where possible in their output files. This means that the `-I` option to `'cg_annotate'` and `'callgrind_annotate'` should not be needed in most cases. It also means they can correctly handle the case where two source files in different directories have the same name.

- Memcheck offers a new suppression kind: "Jump". This is for suppressing jump-to-invalid-address errors. Previously you had to use an "Addr1" suppression, which didn't make much sense.
- Memcheck has new flags `--malloc-fill=<hexnum>` and `--free-fill=<hexnum>` which free malloc'd / free'd areas with the specified byte. This can help shake out obscure memory corruption problems. The definedness and addressability of these areas is unchanged -- only the contents are affected.
- The behaviour of Memcheck's client requests `VALGRIND_GET_VBITS` and `VALGRIND_SET_VBITS` have changed slightly. They no longer issue addressability errors -- if either array is partially unaddressable, they just return 3 (as before). Also, `SET_VBITS` doesn't report definedness errors if any of the V bits are undefined.
- The following Memcheck client requests have been removed:
 - `VALGRIND_MAKE_NOACCESS`
 - `VALGRIND_MAKE_WRITABLE`
 - `VALGRIND_MAKE_READABLE`
 - `VALGRIND_CHECK_WRITABLE`
 - `VALGRIND_CHECK_READABLE`
 - `VALGRIND_CHECK_DEFINED`They were deprecated in 3.2.0, when equivalent but better-named client requests were added. See the 3.2.0 release notes for more details.
- The behaviour of the tool Lackey has changed slightly. First, the output from `--trace-mem` has been made more compact, to reduce the size of the traces. Second, a new option `--trace-superblocks` has been added, which shows the addresses of superblocks (code blocks) as they are executed.

- The following bugs have been fixed. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry. We encourage you to file bugs in bugzilla (http://bugs.kde.org/enter_valgrind_bug.cgi) rather than mailing the developers (or mailing lists) directly.

```

n-i-bz x86_linux_REDIR_FOR_index() broken
n-i-bz guest-amd64/toIR.c:2512 (dis_op2_E_G): Assertion '0' failed.
n-i-bz Support x86 INT insn (INT (0xCD) 0x40 - 0x43)
n-i-bz Add sys_utimensat system call for Linux x86 platform
79844 Helgrind complains about race condition which does not exist
82871 Massif output function names too short
89061 Massif: ms_main.c:485 (get_XCon): Assertion 'xpt->max_chi...'
92615 Write output from Massif at crash
95483 massif feature request: include peak allocation in report
112163 MASSIF crashed with signal 7 (SIGBUS) after running 2 days
119404 problems running setuid executables (partial fix)
121629 add instruction-counting mode for timing
127371 java vm giving unhandled instruction bytes: 0x26 0x2E 0x64 0x65
129937 ==150380
129576 Massif loses track of memory, incorrect graphs
132132 massif --format=html output does not do html entity escaping
132950 Heap alloc/usage summary
133962 unhandled instruction bytes: 0xF2 0x4C 0xF 0x10
134990 use -fno-stack-protector if possible
136382 ==134990
137396 I would really like helgrind to work again...
137714 x86/amd64->IR: 0x66 0xF 0xF7 0xC6 (maskmovq, maskmovdq)
141631 Massif: percentages don't add up correctly
142706 massif numbers don't seem to add up
143062 massif crashes on app exit with signal 8 SIGFPE
144453 (get_XCon): Assertion 'xpt->max_children != 0' failed.
145559 valgrind aborts when malloc_stats is called
145609 valgrind aborts all runs with 'repeated section!'
145622 --db-attach broken again on x86-64
145837 ==149519
145887 PPC32: getitimer() system call is not supported
146252 ==150678
146456 (update_XCon): Assertion 'xpt->curr_space >= -space_delta'...
146701 ==134990
146781 Adding support for private futexes
147325 valgrind internal error on syscall (SYS_io_destroy, 0)
147498 amd64->IR: 0xF0 0xF 0xB0 0xF (lock cmpxchg %cl,(%rdi))
147545 Memcheck: mc_main.c:817 (get_sec_vbits8): Assertion 'n' failed.
147628 SALC opcode 0xd6 unimplemented
147825 crash on amd64-linux with gcc 4.2 and glibc 2.6 (CFI)
148174 Incorrect type of freed_list_volume causes assertion [...]
148447 x86_64 : new NOP codes: 66 66 66 66 2e 0f 1f
149182 PPC Trap instructions not implemented in valgrind
149504 Assertion hit on alloc_xpt->curr_space >= -space_delta
149519 ppc32: V aborts with SIGSEGV on execution of a signal handler
149892 ==137714
150044 SEGV during stack deregister
150380 dwarf/gcc interoperation (dwarf3 read problems)

```

```

150408 ==148447
150678 guest-amd64/toIR.c:3741 (dis_Grp5): Assertion 'sz == 4' failed
151209 V unable to execute programs for users with UID > 2^16
151938 help on --db-command= misleading
152022 subw $0x28, %%sp causes assertion failure in memcheck
152357 inb and outb not recognized in 64-bit mode
152501 vex x86->IR: 0x27 0x66 0x89 0x45 (daa)
152818 vex x86->IR: 0xF3 0xAC 0xFC 0x9C (rep lodsb)

```

Developer-visible changes:

- The names of some functions and types within the Vex IR have changed. Run 'svn log -r1689 VEX/pub/libvex_ir.h' for full details. Any existing standalone tools will have to be updated to reflect these changes. The new names should be clearer. The file VEX/pub/libvex_ir.h is also much better commented.

- A number of new debugging command line options have been added. These are mostly of use for debugging the symbol table and line number readers:

```

--trace-symtab-patt=<patt> limit debuginfo tracing to obj name <patt>
--trace-cfi=nolyes      show call-frame-info details? [no]
--debug-dump=syms      mimic /usr/bin/readelf --syms
--debug-dump=line      mimic /usr/bin/readelf --debug-dump=line
--debug-dump=frames    mimic /usr/bin/readelf --debug-dump=frames
--sym-offsets=yes|no  show syms in form 'name+offset' ? [no]

```

- Internally, the code base has been further factorised and abstractified, particularly with respect to support for non-Linux OSs.

```

(3.3.0.RC1:  2 Dec 2007, vex r1803, valgrind r7268).
(3.3.0.RC2:  5 Dec 2007, vex r1804, valgrind r7282).
(3.3.0.RC3:  9 Dec 2007, vex r1804, valgrind r7288).
(3.3.0:      10 Dec 2007, vex r1804, valgrind r7290).

```

Release 3.2.3 (29 Jan 2007)

~~~~~  
Unfortunately 3.2.2 introduced a regression which can cause an assertion failure ("vex: the 'impossible' happened: eqIRConst") when running obscure pieces of SSE code. 3.2.3 fixes this and adds one more glibc-2.5 intercept. In all other respects it is identical to 3.2.2. Please do not use (or package) 3.2.2; instead use 3.2.3.

```

n-i-bz  vex: the 'impossible' happened: eqIRConst
n-i-bz  Add an intercept for glibc-2.5 __stpcpy_chk

```

```

(3.2.3: 29 Jan 2007, vex r1732, valgrind r6560).

```

#### Release 3.2.2 (22 Jan 2007)

~~~~~  
 3.2.2 fixes a bunch of bugs in 3.2.1, adds support for glibc-2.5 based systems (openSUSE 10.2, Fedora Core 6), improves support for icc-9.X compiled code, and brings modest performance improvements in some areas, including amd64 floating point, powerpc support, and startup responsiveness on all targets.

The fixed bugs are as follows. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry. We encourage you to file bugs in bugzilla (http://bugs.kde.org/enter_valgrind_bug.cgi) rather than mailing the developers (or mailing lists) directly.

129390 ppc?->IR: some kind of VMX prefetch (dstt)
 129968 amd64->IR: 0xF 0xAE 0x0 (fxsave)
 134319 ==129968
 133054 'make install' fails with syntax errors
 118903 ==133054
 132998 startup fails in when running on UML
 134207 pkg-config output contains @VG_PLATFORM@
 134727 valgrind exits with "Value too large for defined data type"
 n-i-bz ppc32/64: support mcrfs
 n-i-bz Cachegrind/Callgrind: Update cache parameter detection
 135012 x86->IR: 0xD7 0x8A 0xE0 0xD0 (xlat)
 125959 ==135012
 126147 x86->IR: 0xF2 0xA5 0xF 0x77 (repne movsw)
 136650 amd64->IR: 0xC2 0x8 0x0
 135421 x86->IR: unhandled Grp5(R) case 6
 n-i-bz Improved documentation of the IR intermediate representation
 n-i-bz jcxz (x86) (users list, 8 Nov)
 n-i-bz ExeContext hashing fix
 n-i-bz fix CFI reading failures ("Dwarf CFI 0:24 0:32 0:48 0:7")
 n-i-bz fix Cachegrind/Callgrind simulation bug
 n-i-bz libmpiwrap.c: fix handling of MPI_LONG_DOUBLE
 n-i-bz make User errors suppressible
 136844 corrupted malloc line when using --gen-suppressions=yes
 138507 ==136844
 n-i-bz Speed up the JIT's register allocator
 n-i-bz Fix confusing leak-checker flag hints
 n-i-bz Support recent autoswamp versions
 n-i-bz ppc32/64 dispatcher speedups
 n-i-bz ppc64 front end rld/rlw improvements
 n-i-bz ppc64 back end imm64 improvements
 136300 support 64K pages on ppc64-linux
 139124 == 136300
 n-i-bz fix ppc insn set tests for gcc >= 4.1
 137493 x86->IR: recent binutils no-ops
 137714 x86->IR: 0x66 0xF 0xF7 0xC6 (maskmovdqu)
 138424 "failed in UME with error 22" (produce a better error msg)
 138856 ==138424
 138627 Enhancement support for prctl ioctls
 138896 Add support for usb ioctls
 136059 ==138896
 139050 ppc32->IR: mfspr 268/269 instructions not handled

n-i-bz ppc32->IR: lvx/stvxl
n-i-bz glibc-2.5 support
n-i-bz memcheck: provide replacement for mempcpy
n-i-bz memcheck: replace bcmp in ld.so
n-i-bz Use 'ifndef' in VEX's Makefile correctly
n-i-bz Suppressions for MVL 4.0.1 on ppc32-linux
n-i-bz libmpiwrap.c: Fixes for MPICH
n-i-bz More robust handling of hinted client mmap
139776 Invalid read in unaligned mempcpy with Intel compiler v9
n-i-bz Generate valid XML even for very long fn names
n-i-bz Don't prompt about suppressions for unshown reachable leaks
139910 amd64 rcl is not supported
n-i-bz DWARF CFI reader: handle DW_CFA_undefined
n-i-bz DWARF CFI reader: handle icc9 generated CFI info better
n-i-bz fix false uninit-value errs in icc9 generated FP code
n-i-bz reduce extraneous frames in libmpiwrap.c
n-i-bz support pselect6 on amd64-linux

(3.2.2: 22 Jan 2007, vex r1729, valgrind r6545).

Release 3.2.1 (16 Sept 2006)

~~~~~  
3.2.1 adds x86/amd64 support for all SSE3 instructions except monitor and mwait, further reduces memcheck's false error rate on all platforms, adds support for recent binutils (in OpenSUSE 10.2 and Fedora Rawhide) and fixes a bunch of bugs in 3.2.0. Some of the fixed bugs were causing large programs to segfault with --tool=callgrind and --tool=cachegrind, so an upgrade is recommended.

In view of the fact that any 3.3.0 release is unlikely to happen until well into 1Q07, we intend to keep the 3.2.X line alive for a while yet, and so we tentatively plan a 3.2.2 release sometime in December 06.

The fixed bugs are as follows. Note that "n-i-bz" stands for "not in bugzilla" -- that is, a bug that was reported to us but never got a bugzilla entry.

n-i-bz Expanding brk() into last available page asserts  
n-i-bz ppc64-linux stack RZ fast-case snafu  
n-i-bz 'c' in --gen-supps=yes doesn't work  
n-i-bz VG\_N\_SEGMENTS too low (users, 28 June)  
n-i-bz VG\_N\_SEGNAMEs too low (Stu Robinson)  
106852 x86->IR: fisttp (SSE3)  
117172 FUTEX\_WAKE does not use uaddr2  
124039 Lacks support for VKI\_[GP]IO\_UNIMAP\*  
127521 amd64->IR: 0xF0 0x48 0xF 0xC7 (cmpxchg8b)  
128917 amd64->IR: 0x66 0xF 0xF6 0xC4 (psadbw,SSE2)  
129246 JJ: ppc32/ppc64 syscalls, w/ patch  
129358 x86->IR: fisttpl (SSE3)  
129866 cachegrind/callgrind causes executable to die  
130020 Can't stat .so/.exe error while reading symbols  
130388 Valgrind aborts when process calls malloc\_trim()

130638 PATCH: ppc32 missing system calls  
 130785 amd64->IR: unhandled instruction "pushfq"  
 131481: (HINT\_NOP) vex x86->IR: 0xF 0x1F 0x0 0xF  
 131298 ==131481  
 132146 Programs with long sequences of bswap[l,q]s  
 132918 vex amd64->IR: 0xD9 0xF8 (fprem)  
 132813 Assertion at priv/guest-x86/toIR.c:652 fails  
 133051 'cfsi->len > 0 && cfsi->len < 2000000' failed  
 132722 valgrind header files are not standard C  
 n-i-bz Livelocks entire machine (users list, Timothy Terribery)  
 n-i-bz Alex Bennee mmap problem (9 Aug)  
 n-i-bz BartV: Don't print more lines of a stack-trace than were obtained.  
 n-i-bz ppc32 SuSE 10.1 redirection  
 n-i-bz amd64 padding suppressions  
 n-i-bz amd64 insn printing fix.  
 n-i-bz ppc cmp reg,reg fix  
 n-i-bz x86/amd64 iropt e/rflag reduction rules  
 n-i-bz SuSE 10.1 (ppc32) minor fixes  
 133678 amd64->IR: 0x48 0xF 0xC5 0xC0 (pextrw?)  
 133694 aspacem assertion: aspacem\_minAddr <= holeStart  
 n-i-bz callgrind: fix warning about malformed creator line  
 n-i-bz callgrind: fix annotate script for data produced with  
     --dump-instr=yes  
 n-i-bz callgrind: fix failed assertion when toggling  
     instrumentation mode  
 n-i-bz callgrind: fix annotate script fix warnings with  
     --collect-jumps=yes  
 n-i-bz docs path hardwired (Dennis Lubert)

The following bugs were not fixed, due primarily to lack of developer time, and also because bug reporters did not answer requests for feedback in time for the release:

129390 ppc?->IR: some kind of VMX prefetch (dstt)  
 129968 amd64->IR: 0xF 0xAE 0x0 (fxsave)  
 133054 'make install' fails with syntax errors  
 n-i-bz Signal race condition (users list, 13 June, Johannes Berg)  
 n-i-bz Unrecognised instruction at address 0x70198EC2 (users list,  
     19 July, Bennee)  
 132998 startup fails in when running on UML

The following bug was tentatively fixed on the mainline but the fix was considered too risky to push into 3.2.X:

133154 crash when using client requests to register/deregister stack

(3.2.1: 16 Sept 2006, vex r1658, valgrind r6070).

Release 3.2.0 (7 June 2006)

~~~~~  
 3.2.0 is a feature release with many significant improvements and the usual collection of bug fixes. This release supports X86/Linux, AMD64/Linux, PPC32/Linux and PPC64/Linux.

Performance, especially of Memcheck, is improved, Addrcheck has been removed, Callgrind has been added, PPC64/Linux support has been added, Lackey has been improved, and MPI support has been added. In detail:

- Memcheck has improved speed and reduced memory use. Run times are typically reduced by 15-30%, averaging about 24% for SPEC CPU2000. The other tools have smaller but noticeable speed improvements. We are interested to hear what improvements users get.

Memcheck uses less memory due to the introduction of a compressed representation for shadow memory. The space overhead has been reduced by a factor of up to four, depending on program behaviour. This means you should be able to run programs that use more memory than before without hitting problems.

- Addrcheck has been removed. It has not worked since version 2.4.0, and the speed and memory improvements to Memcheck make it redundant. If you liked using Addrcheck because it didn't give undefined value errors, you can use the new Memcheck option `--undef-value-errors=no` to get the same behaviour.
- The number of undefined-value errors incorrectly reported by Memcheck has been reduced (such false reports were already very rare). In particular, efforts have been made to ensure Memcheck works really well with gcc 4.0/4.1-generated code on X86/Linux and AMD64/Linux.
- Josef Weidendorfer's popular Callgrind tool has been added. Folding it in was a logical step given its popularity and usefulness, and makes it easier for us to ensure it works "out of the box" on all supported targets. The associated KDE KCachegrind GUI remains a separate project.
- A new release of the Valkyrie GUI for Memcheck, version 1.2.0, accompanies this release. Improvements over previous releases include improved robustness, many refinements to the user interface, and use of a standard autoconf/automake build system. You can get it from <http://www.valgrind.org/downloads/guis.html>.
- Valgrind now works on PPC64/Linux. As with the AMD64/Linux port, this supports programs using to 32G of address space. On 64-bit capable PPC64/Linux setups, you get a dual architecture build so that both 32-bit and 64-bit executables can be run. Linux on POWER5 is supported, and POWER4 is also believed to work. Both 32-bit and 64-bit DWARF2 is supported. This port is known to work well with both gcc-compiled and xlc/xlf-compiled code.
- Floating point accuracy has been improved for PPC32/Linux. Specifically, the floating point rounding mode is observed on all FP arithmetic operations, and multiply-accumulate instructions are preserved by the compilation pipeline. This means you should get FP results which are bit-for-bit identical to a native run. These improvements are also present in the PPC64/Linux port.

- Lackey, the example tool, has been improved:
 - * It has a new option `--detailed-counts` (off by default) which causes it to print out a count of loads, stores and ALU operations done, and their sizes.
 - * It has a new option `--trace-mem` (off by default) which causes it to print out a trace of all memory accesses performed by a program. It's a good starting point for building Valgrind tools that need to track memory accesses. Read the comments at the top of the file `lackey/lk_main.c` for details.
 - * The original instrumentation (counting numbers of instructions, jumps, etc) is now controlled by a new option `--basic-counts`. It is on by default.
- MPI support: partial support for debugging distributed applications using the MPI library specification has been added. Valgrind is aware of the memory state changes caused by a subset of the MPI functions, and will carefully check data passed to the (P)MPI_ interface.
- A new flag, `--error-exitcode=`, has been added. This allows changing the exit code in runs where Valgrind reported errors, which is useful when using Valgrind as part of an automated test suite.
- Various segfaults when reading old-style "stabs" debug information have been fixed.
- A simple performance evaluation suite has been added. See `perf/README` and `README_DEVELOPERS` for details. There are various bells and whistles.
- New configuration flags:
 - `--enable-only32bit`
 - `--enable-only64bit`By default, on 64 bit platforms (`ppc64-linux`, `amd64-linux`) the build system will attempt to build a Valgrind which supports both 32-bit and 64-bit executables. This may not be what you want, and you can override the default behaviour using these flags.

Please note that Helgrind is still not working. We have made an important step towards making it work again, however, with the addition of function wrapping (see below).

Other user-visible changes:

- Valgrind now has the ability to intercept and wrap arbitrary functions. This is a preliminary step towards making Helgrind work again, and was required for MPI support.
- There are some changes to Memcheck's client requests. Some of them have changed names:

```
MAKE_NOACCESS --> MAKE_MEM_NOACCESS
MAKE_WRITABLE --> MAKE_MEM_UNDEFINED
MAKE_READABLE --> MAKE_MEM_DEFINED
```

```
CHECK_WRITABLE --> CHECK_MEM_IS_ADDRESSABLE
CHECK_READABLE --> CHECK_MEM_IS_DEFINED
CHECK_DEFINED --> CHECK_VALUE_IS_DEFINED
```

The reason for the change is that the old names are subtly misleading. The old names will still work, but they are deprecated and may be removed in a future release.

We also added a new client request:

```
MAKE_MEM_DEFINED_IF_ADDRESSABLE(a, len)
```

which is like `MAKE_MEM_DEFINED` but only affects a byte if the byte is already addressable.

- The way client requests are encoded in the instruction stream has changed. Unfortunately, this means 3.2.0 will not honour client requests compiled into binaries using headers from earlier versions of Valgrind. We will try to keep the client request encodings more stable in future.

BUGS FIXED:

```
108258 NPTL pthread cleanup handlers not called
117290 valgrind is sigKILL'd on startup
117295 == 117290
118703 m_signals.c:1427 Assertion 'tst->status == VgTs_WaitSys'
118466 add %reg, %reg generates incorrect validity for bit 0
123210 New: strlen from ld-linux on amd64
123244 DWARF2 CFI reader: unhandled CFI instruction 0:18
123248 syscalls in glibc-2.4: openat, fstatat, symlinkat
123258 socketcall.recvmsg(msg.msg_iov[i] points to uninit
123535 mmap(new_addr) requires MREMAP_FIXED in 4th arg
123836 small typo in the doc
124029 ppc compile failed: 'vor' gcc 3.3.5
124222 Segfault: @@don't know what type ':' is
124475 ppc32: crash (syscall?) timer_settime()
124499 amd64->IR: 0xF 0xE 0x48 0x85 (femms)
124528 FATAL: aspacem assertion failed: segment_is_sane
124697 vex x86->IR: 0xF 0x70 0xC9 0x0 (pshufw)
124892 vex x86->IR: 0xF3 0xAE (REPx SCASB)
126216 == 124892
124808 ppc32: sys_sched_getaffinity() not handled
n-i-bz Very long stabs strings crash m_debuginfo
n-i-bz amd64->IR: 0x66 0xF 0xF5 (pmaddwd)
125492 ppc32: support a bunch more syscalls
121617 ppc32/64: coredumping gives assertion failure
121814 Coregrind return error as exitcode patch
126517 == 121814
```

125607 amd64->IR: 0x66 0xF 0xA3 0x2 (btw etc)
 125651 amd64->IR: 0xF8 0x49 0xFF 0xE3 (clc?)
 126253 x86 movx is wrong
 126451 3.2 SVN doesn't work on ppc32 CPU's without FPU
 126217 increase # threads
 126243 vex x86->IR: popw mem
 126583 amd64->IR: 0x48 0xF 0xA4 0xC2 (shld \$1,%rax,%rdx)
 126668 amd64->IR: 0x1C 0xFF (sbb \$0xff,%al)
 126696 support for CDROMREADRAW ioctl and CDROMREADTOCENTRY fix
 126722 assertion: segment_is_sane at m_aspacemgr/aspacemgr.c:1624
 126938 bad checking for syscalls linkat, renameat, symlinkat

(3.2.0RC1: 27 May 2006, vex r1626, valgrind r5947).

(3.2.0: 7 June 2006, vex r1628, valgrind r5957).

Release 3.1.1 (15 March 2006)

~~~~~  
 3.1.1 fixes a bunch of bugs reported in 3.1.0. There is no new functionality. The fixed bugs are:

(note: "n-i-bz" means "not in bugzilla" -- this bug does not have a bugzilla entry).

n-i-bz ppc32: fsub 3,3,3 in dispatcher doesn't clear NaNs  
 n-i-bz ppc32: \_\_NR\_{set,get}priority  
 117332 x86: missing line info with icc 8.1  
 117366 amd64: 0xDD 0x7C fnstsw  
 118274 == 117366  
 117367 amd64: 0xD9 0xF4 fextract  
 117369 amd64: \_\_NR\_getpriority (140)  
 117419 ppc32: lfsu f5, -4(r11)  
 117419 ppc32: fsqrt  
 117936 more stabs problems (segfaults while reading debug info)  
 119914 == 117936  
 120345 == 117936  
 118239 amd64: 0xF 0xAE 0x3F (clflush)  
 118939 vm86old system call  
 n-i-bz memcheck/tests/mempool reads freed memory  
 n-i-bz AshleyP's custom-allocator assertion  
 n-i-bz Dirk strict-aliasing stuff  
 n-i-bz More space for debugger cmd line (Dan Thaler)  
 n-i-bz Clarified leak checker output message  
 n-i-bz AshleyP's --gen-suppressions output fix  
 n-i-bz cg\_annotate's --sort option broken  
 n-i-bz OSet 64-bit fastcmp bug  
 n-i-bz VG\_(getgroups) fix (Shinichi Noda)  
 n-i-bz ppc32: allocate from callee-saved FP/VMX regs  
 n-i-bz misaligned path word-size bug in mc\_main.c  
 119297 Incorrect error message for sse code  
 120410 x86: prefetchw (0xF 0xD 0x48 0x4)  
 120728 TIOCSETLSR, TIOCGICOUNT, HDIO\_GET\_DMA ioctls  
 120658 Build fixes for gcc 2.96  
 120734 x86: Support for changing EIP in signal handler

n-i-bz memcheck/tests/zeropage de-looping fix  
 n-i-bz x86: fxtract doesn't work reliably  
 121662 x86: lock xadd (0xF0 0xF 0xC0 0x2)  
 121893 calloc does not always return zeroed memory  
 121901 no support for syscall tkill  
 n-i-bz Suppression update for Debian unstable  
 122067 amd64: fcmovnu (0xDB 0xD9)  
 n-i-bz ppc32: broken signal handling in cpu feature detection  
 n-i-bz ppc32: rounding mode problems (improved, partial fix only)  
 119482 ppc32: mtfsb1  
 n-i-bz ppc32: mtocrf/mfocrf

(3.1.1: 15 March 2006, vex r1597, valgrind r5771).

Release 3.1.0 (25 November 2005)

~~~~~  
 3.1.0 is a feature release with a number of significant improvements: AMD64 support is much improved, PPC32 support is good enough to be usable, and the handling of memory management and address space is much more robust. In detail:

- AMD64 support is much improved. The 64-bit vs. 32-bit issues in 3.0.X have been resolved, and it should "just work" now in all cases. On AMD64 machines both 64-bit and 32-bit versions of Valgrind are built. The right version will be invoked automatically, even when using --trace-children and mixing execution between 64-bit and 32-bit executables. Also, many more instructions are supported.
- PPC32 support is now good enough to be usable. It should work with all tools, but please let us know if you have problems. Three classes of CPUs are supported: integer only (no FP, no AltiVec), which covers embedded PPC uses, integer and FP but no AltiVec (G3-ish), and CPUs capable of AltiVec too (G4, G5).
- Valgrind's address space management has been overhauled. As a result, Valgrind should be much more robust with programs that use large amounts of memory. There should be many fewer "memory exhausted" messages, and debug symbols should be read correctly on large (eg. 300MB+) executables. On 32-bit machines the full address space available to user programs (usually 3GB or 4GB) can be fully utilised. On 64-bit machines up to 32GB of space is usable; when using Memcheck that means your program can use up to about 14GB.

A side effect of this change is that Valgrind is no longer protected against wild writes by the client. This feature was nice but relied on the x86 segment registers and so wasn't portable.

- Most users should not notice, but as part of the address space manager change, the way Valgrind is built has been changed. Each tool is now built as a statically linked stand-alone executable, rather than as a shared object that is dynamically linked with the core. The "valgrind" program invokes the appropriate tool depending

on the `--tool` option. This slightly increases the amount of disk space used by Valgrind, but it greatly simplified many things and removed Valgrind's dependence on glibc.

Please note that Addrcheck and Helgrind are still not working. Work is underway to reinstate them (or equivalents). We apologise for the inconvenience.

Other user-visible changes:

- The `--weird-hacks` option has been renamed `--sim-hints`.
- The `--time-stamp` option no longer gives an absolute date and time. It now prints the time elapsed since the program began.
- It should build with `gcc-2.96`.
- Valgrind can now run itself (see `README_DEVELOPERS` for how). This is not much use to you, but it means the developers can now profile Valgrind using Cachegrind. As a result a couple of performance bad cases have been fixed.
- The XML output format has changed slightly. See `docs/internals/xml-output.txt`.
- Core dumping has been reinstated (it was disabled in 3.0.0 and 3.0.1). If your program crashes while running under Valgrind, a core file with the name `"vgcore.<pid>"` will be created (if your settings allow core file creation). Note that the floating point information is not all there. If Valgrind itself crashes, the OS will create a normal core file.

The following are some user-visible changes that occurred in earlier versions that may not have been announced, or were announced but not widely noticed. So we're mentioning them now.

- The `--tool` flag is optional once again; if you omit it, Memcheck is run by default.
- The `--num-callers` flag now has a default value of 12. It was previously 4.
- The `--xml=yes` flag causes Valgrind's output to be produced in XML format. This is designed to make it easy for other programs to consume Valgrind's output. The format is described in the file `docs/internals/xml-format.txt`.
- The `--gen-suppressions` flag supports an "all" value that causes every suppression to be printed without asking.
- The `--log-file` option no longer puts "pid" in the filename, eg. the old name `"foo.pid12345"` is now `"foo.12345"`.
- There are several graphical front-ends for Valgrind, such as Valkyrie,

Alleyoop and Valgui. See <http://www.valgrind.org/downloads/guis.html> for a list.

BUGS FIXED:

109861 amd64 hangs at startup
 110301 ditto
 111554 valgrind crashes with Cannot allocate memory
 111809 Memcheck tool doesn't start java
 111901 cross-platform run of cachegrind fails on opteron
 113468 (vgPlain_mprotect_range): Assertion 'r != -1' failed.
 92071 Reading debugging info uses too much memory
 109744 memcheck loses track of mmap from direct ld-linux.so.2
 110183 tail of page with _end
 82301 FV memory layout too rigid
 98278 Infinite recursion possible when allocating memory
 108994 Valgrind runs out of memory due to 133x overhead
 115643 valgrind cannot allocate memory
 105974 vg_hashtable.c static hash table
 109323 ppc32: dispatch.S uses AltiVec insn, which doesn't work on POWER.
 109345 ptrace_setregs not yet implemented for ppc
 110831 Would like to be able to run against both 32 and 64 bit binaries on AMD64
 110829 == 110831
 111781 compile of valgrind-3.0.0 fails on my linux (gcc 2.X prob)
 112670 Cachegrind: cg_main.c:486 (handleOneStatement ...
 112941 vex x86: 0xD9 0xF4 (fextract)
 110201 == 112941
 113015 vex amd64->IR: 0xE3 0x14 0x48 0x83 (jrcxz)
 113126 Crash with binaries built with -gstabs+/-ggdb
 104065 == 113126
 115741 == 113126
 113403 Partial SSE3 support on x86
 113541 vex: Grp5(x86) (alt encoding inc/dec) case 1
 113642 valgrind crashes when trying to read debug information
 113810 vex x86->IR: 66 0F F6 (66 + PSADBW == SSE PSADBW)
 113796 read() and write() do not work if buffer is in shared memory
 113851 vex x86->IR: (pmaddwd): 0x66 0xF 0xF5 0xC7
 114366 vex amd64 cannot handle __asm__("fninit")
 114412 vex amd64->IR: 0xF 0xAD 0xC2 0xD3 (128-bit shift, shrdq?)
 114455 vex amd64->IR: 0xF 0xAC 0xD0 0x1 (also shrdq)
 115590: amd64->IR: 0x67 0xE3 0x9 0xEB (address size override)
 115953 valgrind svn r5042 does not build with parallel make (-j3)
 116057 maximum instruction size - VG_MAX_INSTR_SZB too small?
 116483 shmat failes with invalid argument
 102202 valgrind crashes when realloc'ing until out of memory
 109487 == 102202
 110536 == 102202
 112687 == 102202
 111724 vex amd64->IR: 0x41 0xF 0xAB (more BT{,S,R,C} fun n games)
 111748 vex amd64->IR: 0xDD 0xE2 (fucom)
 111785 make fails if CC contains spaces
 111829 vex x86->IR: sbb AL, Ib
 111851 vex x86->IR: 0x9F 0x89 (lahf/sahf)

112031 iopl on AMD64 and README_MISSING_SYSCALL_OR_IOCTL update
 112152 code generation for Xin_MFence on x86 with SSE0 subarch
 112167 == 112152
 112789 == 112152
 112199 naked ar tool is used in vex makefile
 112501 vex x86->IR: movq (0xF 0x7F 0xC1 0xF) (mmx MOVQ)
 113583 == 112501
 112538 memalign crash
 113190 Broken links in docs/html/
 113230 Valgrind sys_pipe on x86-64 wrongly thinks file descriptors
 should be 64bit
 113996 vex amd64->IR: fucomp (0xDD 0xE9)
 114196 vex x86->IR: out %eax,(%dx) (0xEF 0xC9 0xC3 0x90)
 114289 Memcheck fails to intercept malloc when used in an uclibc environment
 114756 mbind syscall support
 114757 Valgrind dies with assertion: Assertion 'noLargerThan > 0' failed
 114563 stack tracking module not informed when valgrind switches threads
 114564 clone() and stacks
 114565 == 114564
 115496 glibc crashes trying to use sysinfo page
 116200 enable fsetxattr, fgetxattr, and fremovexattr for amd64

(3.1.0RC1: 20 November 2005, vex r1466, valgrind r5224).

(3.1.0: 26 November 2005, vex r1471, valgrind r5235).

Release 3.0.1 (29 August 2005)

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 3.0.1 fixes a bunch of bugs reported in 3.0.0. There is no new  
 functionality. Some of the fixed bugs are critical, so if you  
 use/distribute 3.0.0, an upgrade to 3.0.1 is recommended. The fixed  
 bugs are:

(note: "n-i-bz" means "not in bugzilla" -- this bug does not have  
 a bugzilla entry).

109313 (== 110505) x86 cmpxchg8b  
 n-i-bz x86: track but ignore changes to %eflags.AC (alignment check)  
 110102 dis\_op2\_E\_G(amd64)  
 110202 x86 sys\_waitpid(#286)  
 110203 clock\_getres(,0)  
 110208 execve fail wrong retval  
 110274 SSE1 now mandatory for x86  
 110388 amd64 0xDD 0xD1  
 110464 amd64 0xDC 0x1D FCOMP  
 110478 amd64 0xF 0xD PREFETCH  
 n-i-bz XML <unique> printing wrong  
 n-i-bz Dirk r4359 (amd64 syscalls from trunk)  
 110591 amd64 and x86: rdtsc not implemented properly  
 n-i-bz Nick r4384 (stub implementations of Addrcheck and Helgrind)  
 110652 AMD64 valgrind crashes on cwtid instruction  
 110653 AMD64 valgrind crashes on sarb \$0x4,foo(%rip) instruction  
 110656 PATH=/usr/bin:./bin valgrind foobar stats ./fooba  
 110657 Small test fixes

110671 vex x86->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0xF3 0xC3 (rep ret)  
n-i-bz Nick (Cachegrind should not assert when it encounters a client request.)  
110685 amd64->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0xE1 0x56 (loope Jb)  
110830 configuring with --host fails to build 32 bit on 64 bit target  
110875 Assertion when execve fails  
n-i-bz Updates to Memcheck manual  
n-i-bz Fixed broken malloc\_usable\_size()  
110898 opteron instructions missing: btq btsq btrq bsfq  
110954 x86->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0xE2 0xF6 (loop Jb)  
n-i-bz Make suppressions work for "???" lines in stacktraces.  
111006 bogus warnings from linuxthreads  
111092 x86: dis\_Grp2(Reg): unhandled case(x86)  
111231 sctp\_getladdr() and sctp\_getpaddr() returns uninitialized memory  
111102 (comment #4) Fixed 64-bit unclean "silly arg" message  
n-i-bz vex x86->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0x14 0x0  
n-i-bz minor umount/fcntl wrapper fixes  
111090 Internal Error running Massif  
101204 noisy warning  
111513 Illegal opcode for SSE instruction (x86 movups)  
111555 VEX/Makefile: CC is set to gcc  
n-i-bz Fix XML bugs in FAQ

(3.0.1: 29 August 05,  
vex/branches/VEX\_3\_0\_BRANCH r1367,  
valgrind/branches/VALGRIND\_3\_0\_BRANCH r4574).

Release 3.0.0 (3 August 2005)

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3.0.0 is a major overhaul of Valgrind. The most significant user visible change is that Valgrind now supports architectures other than x86. The new architectures it supports are AMD64 and PPC32, and the infrastructure is present for other architectures to be added later.

AMD64 support works well, but has some shortcomings:

- It generally won't be as solid as the x86 version. For example, support for more obscure instructions and system calls may be missing. We will fix these as they arise.
- Address space may be limited; see the point about position-independent executables below.
- If Valgrind is built on an AMD64 machine, it will only run 64-bit executables. If you want to run 32-bit x86 executables under Valgrind on an AMD64, you will need to build Valgrind on an x86 machine and copy it to the AMD64 machine. And it probably won't work if you do something tricky like exec'ing a 32-bit program from a 64-bit program while using --trace-children=yes. We hope to improve this situation in the future.

The PPC32 support is very basic. It may not work reliably even for small programs, but it's a start. Many thanks to Paul Mackerras for his great work that enabled this support. We are working to make PPC32 usable as soon as possible.

Other user-visible changes:

- Valgrind is no longer built by default as a position-independent executable (PIE), as this caused too many problems.

Without PIE enabled, AMD64 programs will only be able to access 2GB of address space. We will fix this eventually, but not for the moment.

Use `--enable-pie` at configure-time to turn this on.

- Support for programs that use stack-switching has been improved. Use the `--max-stackframe` flag for simple cases, and the `VALGRIND_STACK_REGISTER`, `VALGRIND_STACK_DEREGISTER` and `VALGRIND_STACK_CHANGE` client requests for trickier cases.
- Support for programs that use self-modifying code has been improved, in particular programs that put temporary code fragments on the stack. This helps for C programs compiled with GCC that use nested functions, and also Ada programs. This is controlled with the `--smc-check` flag, although the default setting should work in most cases.
- Output can now be printed in XML format. This should make it easier for tools such as GUI front-ends and automated error-processing schemes to use Valgrind output as input. The `--xml` flag controls this. As part of this change, ELF directory information is read from executables, so absolute source file paths are available if needed.
- Programs that allocate many heap blocks may run faster, due to improvements in certain data structures.
- Addrcheck is currently not working. We hope to get it working again soon. Helgrind is still not working, as was the case for the 2.4.0 release.
- The JITter has been completely rewritten, and is now in a separate library, called Vex. This enabled a lot of the user-visible changes, such as new architecture support. The new JIT unfortunately translates more slowly than the old one, so programs may take longer to start. We believe the code quality it produces is about the same, so once started, programs should run at about the same speed. Feedback about this would be useful.

On the plus side, Vex and hence Memcheck tracks value flow properly through floating point and vector registers, something the 2.X line could not do. That means that Memcheck is much more likely to be useably accurate on vectorised code.

- There is a subtle change to the way exiting of threaded programs is handled. In 3.0, Valgrind's final diagnostic output (leak check,

etc) is not printed until the last thread exits. If the last thread to exit was not the original thread which started the program, any other process wait()-ing on this one to exit may conclude it has finished before the diagnostic output is printed. This may not be what you expect. 2.X had a different scheme which avoided this problem, but caused deadlocks under obscure circumstances, so we are trying something different for 3.0.

- Small changes in control log file naming which make it easier to use valgrind for debugging MPI-based programs. The relevant new flags are `--log-file-exactly=` and `--log-file-qualifier=`.
- As part of adding AMD64 support, DWARF2 CFI-based stack unwinding support was added. In principle this means Valgrind can produce meaningful backtraces on x86 code compiled with `-fomit-frame-pointer` providing you also compile your code with `-fasynchronous-unwind-tables`.
- The documentation build system has been completely redone. The documentation masters are now in XML format, and from that HTML, PostScript and PDF documentation is generated. As a result the manual is now available in book form. Note that the documentation in the source tarballs is pre-built, so you don't need any XML processing tools to build Valgrind from a tarball.

Changes that are not user-visible:

- The code has been massively overhauled in order to modularise it. As a result we hope it is easier to navigate and understand.
- Lots of code has been rewritten.

BUGS FIXED:

```

110046 sz == 4 assertion failed
109810 vex amd64->IR: unhandled instruction bytes: 0xA3 0x4C 0x70 0xD7
109802 Add a plausible_stack_size command-line parameter ?
109783 unhandled ioctl TIOCMGET (running hw detection tool discover)
109780 unhandled ioctl BLKSSZGET (running fdisk -l /dev/hda)
109718 vex x86->IR: unhandled instruction: ffreep
109429 AMD64 unhandled syscall: 127 (sigpending)
109401 false positive uninit in strchr from ld-linux.so.2
109385 "stabs" parse failure
109378 amd64: unhandled instruction REP NOP
109376 amd64: unhandled instruction LOOP Jb
109363 AMD64 unhandled instruction bytes
109362 AMD64 unhandled syscall: 24 (sched_yield)
109358 fork() won't work with valgrind-3.0 SVN
109332 amd64 unhandled instruction: ADC Ev, Gv
109314 Bogus memcheck report on amd64
108883 Crash; vg_memory.c:905 (vgPlain_init_shadow_range):
    Assertion 'vgPlain_defined_init_shadow_page()' failed.
108349 mincore syscall parameter checked incorrectly
108059 build infrastructure: small update
107524 epoll_ctl event parameter checked on EPOLL_CTL_DEL

```

107123 Vex dies with unhandled instructions: 0xD9 0x31 0xF 0xAE
 106841 auxmap & OpenGL problems
 106713 SDL_Init causes valgrind to exit
 106352 setcontext and makecontext not handled correctly
 106293 addresses beyond initial client stack allocation
 not checked in VALGRIND_DO_LEAK_CHECK
 106283 PIE client programs are loaded at address 0
 105831 Assertion 'vgPlain_defined_init_shadow_page()' failed.
 105039 long run-times probably due to memory manager
 104797 valgrind needs to be aware of BLKGETSIZE64
 103594 unhandled instruction: FICOM
 103320 Valgrind 2.4.0 fails to compile with gcc 3.4.3 and -O0
 103168 potentially memory leak in coregrind/ume.c
 102039 bad permissions for mapped region at address 0xB7C73680
 101881 weird assertion problem
 101543 Support fadvise64 syscalls
 75247 x86_64/amd64 support (the biggest "bug" we have ever fixed)

(3.0RC1: 27 July 05, vex r1303, valgrind r4283).

(3.0.0: 3 August 05, vex r1313, valgrind r4316).

Stable release 2.4.0 (March 2005) -- CHANGES RELATIVE TO 2.2.0

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 2.4.0 brings many significant changes and bug fixes. The most significant user-visible change is that we no longer supply our own pthread implementation. Instead, Valgrind is finally capable of running the native thread library, either LinuxThreads or NPTL.

This means our libpthread has gone, along with the bugs associated with it. Valgrind now supports the kernel's threading syscalls, and lets you use your standard system libpthread. As a result:

- \* There are many fewer system dependencies and strange library-related bugs. There is a small performance improvement, and a large stability improvement.
- \* On the downside, Valgrind can no longer report misuses of the POSIX PThreads API. It also means that Helgrind currently does not work. We hope to fix these problems in a future release.

Note that running the native thread libraries does not mean Valgrind is able to provide genuine concurrent execution on SMPs. We still impose the restriction that only one thread is running at any given time.

There are many other significant changes too:

- \* Memcheck is (once again) the default tool.
- \* The default stack backtrace is now 12 call frames, rather than 4.
- \* Suppressions can have up to 25 call frame matches, rather than 4.

- \* Memcheck and Addrcheck use less memory. Under some circumstances, they no longer allocate shadow memory if there are large regions of memory with the same A/V states - such as an mmaped file.
- \* The memory-leak detector in Memcheck and Addrcheck has been improved. It now reports more types of memory leak, including leaked cycles. When reporting leaked memory, it can distinguish between directly leaked memory (memory with no references), and indirectly leaked memory (memory only referred to by other leaked memory).
- \* Memcheck's confusion over the effect of mprotect() has been fixed: previously mprotect could erroneously mark undefined data as defined.
- \* Signal handling is much improved and should be very close to what you get when running natively.

One result of this is that Valgrind observes changes to sigcontexts passed to signal handlers. Such modifications will take effect when the signal returns. You will need to run with `--single-step=yes` to make this useful.

- \* Valgrind is built in Position Independent Executable (PIE) format if your toolchain supports it. This allows it to take advantage of all the available address space on systems with 4Gbyte user address spaces.
- \* Valgrind can now run itself (requires PIE support).
- \* Syscall arguments are now checked for validity. Previously all memory used by syscalls was checked, but now the actual values passed are also checked.
- \* Syscall wrappers are more robust against bad addresses being passed to syscalls: they will fail with EFAULT rather than killing Valgrind with SIGSEGV.
- \* Because clone() is directly supported, some non-pthread uses of it will work. Partial sharing (where some resources are shared, and some are not) is not supported.
- \* open() and readlink() on /proc/self/exe are supported.

#### BUGS FIXED:

```

88520 pipe+fork+dup2 kills the main program
88604 Valgrind Aborts when using $VALGRIND_OPTS and user progra...
88614 valgrind: vg_libpthread.c:2323 (read): Assertion 'read_pt...
88703 Stabs parser fails to handle ";"
88886 ioctl wrappers for TIOCMBIS and TIOCMBIC
89032 valgrind pthread_cond_timedwait fails
89106 the 'impossible' happened

```

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89139 Missing sched\_setaffinity & sched\_getaffinity  
89198 valgrind lacks support for SIOCSPGRP and SIOCGPGRP  
89263 Missing ioctl translations for scsi-generic and CD playing  
89440 tests/deadlock.c line endings  
89481 'impossible' happened: EXEC FAILED  
89663 valgrind 2.2.0 crash on Redhat 7.2  
89792 Report pthread\_mutex\_lock() deadlocks instead of returnin...  
90111 statvfs64 gives invalid error/warning  
90128 crash+memory fault with stabs generated by gnat for a run...  
90778 VALGRIND\_CHECK\_DEFINED() not as documented in memcheck.h  
90834 cachegrind crashes at end of program without reporting re...  
91028 valgrind: vg\_memory.c:229 (vgPlain\_unmap\_range): Assertio...  
91162 valgrind crash while debugging driv1 1.2.1  
91199 Unimplemented function  
91325 Signal routing does not propagate the siginfo structure  
91599 Assertion 'cv == ((void \*)0)'  
91604 rw\_lookup clears orig and sends the NULL value to rw\_new  
91821 Small problems building valgrind with \$top\_builddir ne \$t...  
91844 signal 11 (SIGSEGV) at get\_tcb (libpthread.c:86) in corec...  
92264 UNIMPLEMENTED FUNCTION: pthread\_condattr\_setpshared  
92331 per-target flags necessitate AM\_PROG\_CC\_C\_O  
92420 valgrind doesn't compile with linux 2.6.8.1/9  
92513 Valgrind 2.2.0 generates some warning messages  
92528 vg\_syntab2.c:170 (addLoc): Assertion 'loc->size > 0' failed.  
93096 unhandled ioctl 0x4B3A and 0x5601  
93117 Tool and core interface versions do not match  
93128 Can't run valgrind --tool=memcheck because of unimplement...  
93174 Valgrind can crash if passed bad args to certain syscalls  
93309 Stack frame in new thread is badly aligned  
93328 Wrong types used with sys\_sigprocmask()  
93763 /usr/include/asm/msr.h is missing  
93776 valgrind: vg\_memory.c:508 (vgPlain\_find\_map\_space): Asser...  
93810 fcntl() argument checking a bit too strict  
94378 Assertion 'tst->sigqueue\_head != tst->sigqueue\_tail' failed.  
94429 valgrind 2.2.0 segfault with mmap64 in glibc 2.3.3  
94645 Impossible happened: PINSRW mem  
94953 valgrind: the 'impossible' happened: SIGSEGV  
95667 Valgrind does not work with any KDE app  
96243 Assertion 'res==0' failed  
96252 stage2 loader of valgrind fails to allocate memory  
96520 All programs crashing at \_dl\_start (in /lib/ld-2.3.3.so) ...  
96660 ioctl CDROMREADTOCENTRY causes bogus warnings  
96747 After looping in a segfault handler, the impossible happens  
96923 Zero sized arrays crash valgrind trace back with SIGFPE  
96948 valgrind stops with assertion failure regarding mmap2  
96966 valgrind fails when application opens more than 16 sockets  
97398 valgrind: vg\_libpthread.c:2667 Assertion failed  
97407 valgrind: vg\_mylibc.c:1226 (vgPlain\_safe\_fd): Assertion '...  
97427 "Warning: invalid file descriptor -1 in syscall close()" ...  
97785 missing backtrace  
97792 build in obj dir fails - autoconf / makefile cleanup  
97880 pthread\_mutex\_lock fails from shared library (special ker...  
97975 program aborts without ang VG messages  
98129 Failed when open and close file 230000 times using stdio

98175 Crashes when using valgrind-2.2.0 with a program using al...  
 98288 Massif broken  
 98303 UNIMPLEMENTED FUNCTION pthread\_condattr\_setpshared  
 98630 failed--compilation missing warnings.pm, fails to make he...  
 98756 Cannot valgrind signal-heavy kdrive X server  
 98966 valgrinding the JVM fails with a sanity check assertion  
 99035 Valgrind crashes while profiling  
 99142 loops with message "Signal 11 being dropped from thread 0...  
 99195 threaded apps crash on thread start (using QThread::start...  
 99348 Assertion 'vgPlain\_lseek(core\_fd, 0, 1) == phdrs[i].p\_off...  
 99568 False negative due to mishandling of mprotect  
 99738 valgrind memcheck crashes on program that uses sigtimer  
 99923 0-sized allocations are reported as leaks  
 99949 program seg faults after exit()  
 100036 "newSuperblock's request for 1048576 bytes failed"  
 100116 valgrind: (pthread\_cond\_init): Assertion 'sizeof(\* cond) ...  
 100486 memcheck reports "valgrind: the 'impossible' happened: V...  
 100833 second call to "mremap" fails with EINVAL  
 101156 (vgPlain\_find\_map\_space): Assertion '(addr & ((1 << 12)-1...  
 101173 Assertion 'recDepth >= 0 && recDepth < 500' failed  
 101291 creating threads in a forked process fails  
 101313 valgrind causes different behavior when resizing a window...  
 101423 segfault for c++ array of floats  
 101562 valgrind massif dies on SIGINT even with signal handler r...

Stable release 2.2.0 (31 August 2004) -- CHANGES RELATIVE TO 2.0.0

~~~~~  
 2.2.0 brings nine months worth of improvements and bug fixes. We believe it to be a worthy successor to 2.0.0. There are literally hundreds of bug fixes and minor improvements. There are also some fairly major user-visible changes:

- * A complete overhaul of handling of system calls and signals, and their interaction with threads. In general, the accuracy of the system call, thread and signal simulations is much improved:
 - Blocking system calls behave exactly as they do when running natively (not on valgrind). That is, if a syscall blocks only the calling thread when running natively, than it behaves the same on valgrind. No more mysterious hangs because V doesn't know that some syscall or other, should block only the calling thread.
 - Interrupted syscalls should now give more faithful results.
 - Signal contexts in signal handlers are supported.
- * Improvements to NPTL support to the extent that V now works properly on NPTL-only setups.
- * Greater isolation between Valgrind and the program being run, so the program is less likely to inadvertently kill Valgrind by doing wild writes.

- * Massif: a new space profiling tool. Try it! It's cool, and it'll tell you in detail where and when your C/C++ code is allocating heap. Draws pretty .ps pictures of memory use against time. A potentially powerful tool for making sense of your program's space use.
- * File descriptor leakage checks. When enabled, Valgrind will print out a list of open file descriptors on exit.
- * Improved SSE2/SSE3 support.
- * Time-stamped output; use --time-stamp=yes

Stable release 2.2.0 (31 August 2004) -- CHANGES RELATIVE TO 2.1.2

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 2.2.0 is not much different from 2.1.2, released seven weeks ago. A number of bugs have been fixed, most notably #85658, which gave problems for quite a few people. There have been many internal cleanups, but those are not user visible.

The following bugs have been fixed since 2.1.2:

- 85658 Assert in coregrind/vg\_libpthread.c:2326 (open64) != (void\*)0 failed  
 This bug was reported multiple times, and so the following duplicates of it are also fixed: 87620, 85796, 85935, 86065, 86919, 86988, 87917, 88156
- 80716 Semaphore mapping bug caused by unmap (sem\_destroy)  
 (Was fixed prior to 2.1.2)
- 86987 semctl and shmctl syscalls family is not handled properly
- 86696 valgrind 2.1.2 + RH AS2.1 + librt
- 86730 valgrind locks up at end of run with assertion failure  
 in \_\_pthread\_unwind
- 86641 memcheck doesn't work with Mesa OpenGL/ATI on Suse 9.1  
 (also fixes 74298, a duplicate of this)
- 85947 MMX/SSE unhandled instruction 'sfence'
- 84978 Wrong error "Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialised value" resulting from "sbb1 %reg, %reg"
- 86254 ssort() fails when signed int return type from comparison is too small to handle result of unsigned int subtraction
- 87089 memalign( 4, xxx) makes valgrind assert
- 86407 Add support for low-level parallel port driver ioctls.

- 70587 Add timestamps to Valgrind output? (wishlist)
- 84937 `vg_libpthread.c:2505 (se_remap): Assertion 'res == 0'`  
(fixed prior to 2.1.2)
- 86317 cannot load libSDL-1.2.so.0 using valgrind
- 86989 `memcpy` from `mac_replace_strmem.c` complains about uninitialized pointers passed when length to copy is zero
- 85811 gnu pascal symbol causes segmentation fault; ok in 2.0.0
- 79138 writing to `sbrk()`'d memory causes segfault
- 77369 sched deadlock while signal received during `pthread_join` and the joined thread exited
- 88115 In signal handler for SIGFPE, `siginfo->si_addr` is wrong under Valgrind
- 78765 Massif crashes on app exit if FP exceptions are enabled

Additionally there are the following changes, which are not connected to any bug report numbers, AFAICS:

- \* Fix scary bug causing mis-identification of SSE stores vs loads and so causing memcheck to sometimes give nonsense results on SSE code.
- \* Add support for the POSIX message queue system calls.
- \* Fix to allow 32-bit Valgrind to run on AMD64 boxes. Note: this does NOT allow Valgrind to work with 64-bit executables - only with 32-bit executables on an AMD64 box.
- \* At configure time, only check whether `linux/mii.h` can be processed so that we don't generate ugly warnings by trying to compile it.
- \* Add support for POSIX clocks and timers.

Developer (cvs head) release 2.1.2 (18 July 2004)

~~~~~  
2.1.2 contains four months worth of bug fixes and refinements. Although officially a developer release, we believe it to be stable enough for widespread day-to-day use. 2.1.2 is pretty good, so try it first, although there is a chance it won't work. If so then try 2.0.0 and tell us what went wrong." 2.1.2 fixes a lot of problems present in 2.0.0 and is generally a much better product.

Relative to 2.1.1, a large number of minor problems with 2.1.1 have been fixed, and so if you use 2.1.1 you should try 2.1.2. Users of the last stable release, 2.0.0, might also want to try this release.

The following bugs, and probably many more, have been fixed. These are listed at <http://bugs.kde.org>. Reporting a bug for valgrind in the <http://bugs.kde.org> is much more likely to get you a fix than mailing developers directly, so please continue to keep sending bugs there.

- 76869 Crashes when running any tool under Fedora Core 2 test1
This fixes the problem with returning from a signal handler when VDSOs are turned off in FC2.
- 69508 java 1.4.2 client fails with erroneous "stack size too small".
This fix makes more of the pthread stack attribute related functions work properly. Java still doesn't work though.
- 71906 malloc alignment should be 8, not 4
All memory returned by malloc/new etc is now at least 8-byte aligned.
- 81970 vg_alloc_ThreadState: no free slots available
(closed because the workaround is simple: increase VG_N_THREADS, rebuild and try again.)
- 78514 Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialized value(s)
(a slight mishandling of FP code in memcheck)
- 77952 pthread Support (crash) (due to initialisation-ordering probs)
(also 85118)
- 80942 Addrcheck wasn't doing overlap checking as it should.
- 78048 return NULL on malloc/new etc failure, instead of asserting
- 73655 operator new() override in user .so files often doesn't get picked up
- 83060 Valgrind does not handle native kernel AIO
- 69872 Create proper coredumps after fatal signals
- 82026 failure with new glibc versions: __libc_* functions are not exported
- 70344 UNIMPLEMENTED FUNCTION: tcdrain
- 81297 Cancellation of pthread_cond_wait does not require mutex
- 82872 Using debug info from additional packages (wishlist)
- 83025 Support for ioctls FGETBSZ and FIBMAP
- 83340 Support for ioctl HDIO_GET_IDENTITY
- 79714 Support for the semtimedop system call.
- 77022 Support for ioctls FBIOGET_VSCREENINFO and FBIOGET_FSCREENINFO
- 82098 hp2ps ansification (wishlist)
- 83573 Valgrind SIGSEGV on execve
- 82999 show which cmdline option was erroneous (wishlist)
- 83040 make valgrind VPATH and distcheck-clean (wishlist)
- 83998 Assertion 'newfd > vgPlain_max_fd' failed (see below)
- 82722 Unchecked mmap in as_pad leads to mysterious failures later
- 78958 memcheck seg faults while running Mozilla
- 85416 Arguments with colon (e.g. --logsocket) ignored

Additionally there are the following changes, which are not connected to any bug report numbers, AFAICS:

- * Rearranged address space layout relative to 2.1.1, so that Valgrind/tools will run out of memory later than currently in many circumstances. This is good news esp. for Calltree. It should be possible for client programs to allocate over 800MB of memory when using memcheck now.
- * Improved checking when laying out memory. Should hopefully avoid the random segmentation faults that 2.1.1 sometimes caused.
- * Support for Fedora Core 2 and SuSE 9.1. Improvements to NPTL support to the extent that V now works properly on NPTL-only setups.
- * Renamed the following options:
 - logfile-fd --> --log-fd
 - logfile --> --log-file
 - logsocket --> --log-socketto be consistent with each other and other options (esp. --input-fd).
- * Add support for SIOCGMIIPHY, SIOCGMIIREG and SIOCSMIIREG ioctl and improve the checking of other interface related ioctls.
- * Fix building with gcc-3.4.1.
- * Remove limit on number of semaphores supported.
- * Add support for syscalls: set_tid_address (258), acct (51).
- * Support instruction "repne movs" -- not official but seems to occur.
- * Implement an emulated soft limit for file descriptors in addition to the current reserved area, which effectively acts as a hard limit. The setrlimit system call now simply updates the emulated limits as best as possible - the hard limit is not allowed to move at all and just returns EPERM if you try and change it. This should stop reductions in the soft limit causing assertions when valgrind tries to allocate descriptors from the reserved area.
(This actually came from bug #83998).
- * Major overhaul of Cachegrind implementation. First user-visible change is that cachegrind.out files are now typically 90% smaller than they used to be; code annotation times are correspondingly much smaller. Second user-visible change is that hit/miss counts for code that is unloaded at run-time is no longer dumped into a single "discard" pile, but accurately preserved.
- * Client requests for telling valgrind about memory pools.

Developer (cvs head) release 2.1.1 (12 March 2004)

~~~~~  
2.1.1 contains some internal structural changes needed for V's long-term future. These don't affect end-users. Most notable

user-visible changes are:

- \* Greater isolation between Valgrind and the program being run, so the program is less likely to inadvertently kill Valgrind by doing wild writes.
- \* Massif: a new space profiling tool. Try it! It's cool, and it'll tell you in detail where and when your C/C++ code is allocating heap. Draws pretty .ps pictures of memory use against time. A potentially powerful tool for making sense of your program's space use.
- \* Fixes for many bugs, including support for more SSE2/SSE3 instructions, various signal/syscall things, and various problems with debug info readers.
- \* Support for glibc-2.3.3 based systems.

We are now doing automatic overnight build-and-test runs on a variety of distros. As a result, we believe 2.1.1 builds and runs on: Red Hat 7.2, 7.3, 8.0, 9, Fedora Core 1, SuSE 8.2, SuSE 9.

The following bugs, and probably many more, have been fixed. These are listed at <http://bugs.kde.org>. Reporting a bug for valgrind in the <http://bugs.kde.org> is much more likely to get you a fix than mailing developers directly, so please continue to keep sending bugs there.

69616 glibc 2.3.2 w/NPTL is massively different than what valgrind expects  
69856 I don't know how to instrument MMXish stuff (Helgrind)  
73892 valgrind segfaults starting with Objective-C debug info  
(fix for S-type stabs)  
73145 Valgrind complains too much about close(<reserved fd>)  
73902 Shadow memory allocation seems to fail on RedHat 8.0  
68633 VG\_N\_SEMAPHORES too low (V itself was leaking semaphores)  
75099 impossible to trace multiprocess programs  
76839 the 'impossible' happened: disInstr: INT but not 0x80 !  
76762 vg\_to\_ucose.c:3748 (dis\_push\_segreg): Assertion 'sz == 4' failed.  
76747 cannot include valgrind.h in c++ program  
76223 parsing B(3,10) gave NULL type => impossible happens  
75604 shmdt handling problem  
76416 Problems with gcc 3.4 snap 20040225  
75614 using -gstabs when building your programs the 'impossible' happened  
75787 Patch for some CDROM ioctls CDORM\_GET\_MCN, CDROM\_SEND\_PACKET,  
75294 gcc 3.4 snapshot's libstdc++ have unsupported instructions.  
(REP RET)  
73326 vg\_syntab2.c:272 (addScopeRange): Assertion 'range->size > 0' failed.  
72596 not recognizing \_\_libc\_malloc  
69489 Would like to attach ddd to running program  
72781 Cachegrind crashes with kde programs  
73055 Illegal operand at DXTCV11CompressBlockSSE2 (more SSE opcodes)  
73026 Descriptor leak check reports port numbers wrongly  
71705 README\_MISSING\_SYSCALL\_OR\_IOCTL out of date  
72643 Improve support for SSE/SSE2 instructions

72484 valgrind leaves it's own signal mask in place when execing  
 72650 Signal Handling always seems to restart system calls  
 72006 The mmap system call turns all errors in ENOMEM  
 71781 gdb attach is pretty useless  
 71180 unhandled instruction bytes: 0xF 0xAE 0x85 0xE8  
 69886 writes to zero page cause valgrind to assert on exit  
 71791 crash when valgrinding gimp 1.3 (stabs reader problem)  
 69783 unhandled syscall: 218  
 69782 unhandled instruction bytes: 0x66 0xF 0x2B 0x80  
 70385 valgrind fails if the soft file descriptor limit is less  
 than about 828  
 69529 "rep; nop" should do a yield  
 70827 programs with lots of shared libraries report "mmap failed"  
 for some of them when reading symbols  
 71028 glibc's strlen is optimised enough to confuse valgrind

Unstable (cvs head) release 2.1.0 (15 December 2003)

~~~~~  
 For whatever it's worth, 2.1.0 actually seems pretty darn stable to me
 (Julian). It looks eminently usable, and given that it fixes some
 significant bugs, may well be worth using on a day-to-day basis.
 2.1.0 is known to build and pass regression tests on: SuSE 9, SuSE
 8.2, RedHat 8.

2.1.0 most notably includes Jeremy Fitzhardinge's complete overhaul of
 handling of system calls and signals, and their interaction with
 threads. In general, the accuracy of the system call, thread and
 signal simulations is much improved. Specifically:

- Blocking system calls behave exactly as they do when running
 natively (not on valgrind). That is, if a syscall blocks only the
 calling thread when running natively, than it behaves the same on
 valgrind. No more mysterious hangs because V doesn't know that some
 syscall or other, should block only the calling thread.
- Interrupted syscalls should now give more faithful results.
- Finally, signal contexts in signal handlers are supported. As a
 result, konqueror on SuSE 9 no longer segfaults when notified of
 file changes in directories it is watching.

Other changes:

- Robert Walsh's file descriptor leakage checks. When enabled,
 Valgrind will print out a list of open file descriptors on
 exit. Along with each file descriptor, Valgrind prints out a stack
 backtrace of where the file was opened and any details relating to the
 file descriptor such as the file name or socket details.
 To use, give: --track-fds=yes
- Implemented a few more SSE/SSE2 instructions.

- Less crud on the stack when you do 'where' inside a GDB attach.
- Fixed the following bugs:
 - 68360: Valgrind does not compile against 2.6.0-testX kernels
 - 68525: CVS head doesn't compile on C90 compilers
 - 68566: pkgconfig support (wishlist)
 - 68588: Assertion 'sz == 4' failed in vg_to_ucose.c (disInstr)
 - 69140: valgrind not able to explicitly specify a path to a binary.
 - 69432: helgrind asserts encountering a MutexErr when there are EraserErr suppressions
- Increase the max size of the translation cache from 200k average bbs to 300k average bbs. Programs on the size of OOo (680m17) are thrashing the cache at the smaller size, creating large numbers of retranslations and wasting significant time as a result.

Stable release 2.0.0 (5 Nov 2003)

~~~~~  
 2.0.0 improves SSE/SSE2 support, fixes some minor bugs, and improves support for SuSE 9 and the Red Hat "Severn" beta.

- Further improvements to SSE/SSE2 support. The entire test suite of the GNU Scientific Library (gsl-1.4) compiled with Intel Icc 7.1 20030307Z '-g -O -xW' now works. I think this gives pretty good coverage of SSE/SSE2 floating point instructions, or at least the subset emitted by Icc.
- Also added support for the following instructions:
  - MOVNTDQ UCOMISD UNPCKLPS UNPCKHPS SQRTSS
  - PUSH/POP %{FS,GS}, and PUSH %CS (Nb: there is no POP %CS).
- CFI support for GDB version 6. Needed to enable newer GDBs to figure out where they are when using --gdb-attach=yes.
- Fix this:
  - mc\_translate.c:1091 (memcheck\_instrument): Assertion 'u\_in->size == 4 || u\_in->size == 16' failed.
- Return an error rather than panicing when given a bad socketcall.
- Fix checking of syscall rt\_sigtimedwait().
- Implement \_\_NR\_clock\_gettime (syscall 265). Needed on Red Hat Severn.
- Fixed bug in overlap check in strncpy() -- it was assuming the src was 'n' bytes long, when it could be shorter, which could cause false positives.
- Support use of select() for very large numbers of file descriptors.

- Don't fail silently if the executable is statically linked, or is setuid/setgid. Print an error message instead.
- Support for old DWARF-1 format line number info.

Snapshot 20031012 (12 October 2003)

~~~~~  
Three months worth of bug fixes, roughly. Most significant single change is improved SSE/SSE2 support, mostly thanks to Dirk Mueller.

20031012 builds on Red Hat Fedora ("Severn") but doesn't really work (curiously, mozilla runs OK, but a modest "ls -l" bombs). I hope to get a working version out soon. It may or may not work ok on the forthcoming SuSE 9; I hear positive noises about it but haven't been able to verify this myself (not until I get hold of a copy of 9).

A detailed list of changes, in no particular order:

- Describe --gen-suppressions in the FAQ.
- Syscall __NR_waitpid supported.
- Minor MMX bug fix.
- -v prints program's argv[] at startup.
- More glibc-2.3 suppressions.
- Suppressions for stack underrun bug(s) in the c++ support library distributed with Intel Icc 7.0.
- Fix problems reading /proc/self/maps.
- Fix a couple of messages that should have been suppressed by -q, but weren't.
- Make Addrcheck understand "Overlap" suppressions.
- At startup, check if program is statically linked and bail out if so.
- Cachegrind: Auto-detect Intel Pentium-M, also VIA Nehemiah
- Memcheck/addrcheck: minor speed optimisations
- Handle syscall __NR_brk more correctly than before.
- Fixed incorrect allocate/free mismatch errors when using operator new(unsigned, std::nothrow_t const&) operator new[](unsigned, std::nothrow_t const&)
- Support POSIX pthread spinlocks.

- Fixups for clean compilation with gcc-3.3.1.
- Implemented more opcodes:
 - push %es
 - push %ds
 - pop %es
 - pop %ds
 - movntq
 - sfence
 - pshufw
 - pavgb
 - ucomiss
 - enter
 - mov imm32, %esp
 - all "in" and "out" opcodes
 - inc/dec %esp
 - A whole bunch of SSE/SSE2 instructions
- Memcheck: don't bomb on SSE/SSE2 code.

Snapshot 20030725 (25 July 2003)

~~~~~

Fixes some minor problems in 20030716.

- Fix bugs in overlap checking for strcpy/memcpy etc.
- Do overlap checking with Addrcheck as well as Memcheck.
- Fix this:
  - Memcheck: the 'impossible' happened:
  - get\_error\_name: unexpected type
- Install headers needed to compile new skins.
- Remove leading spaces and colon in the LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH / LD\_PRELOAD passed to non-traced children.
- Fix file descriptor leak in valgrind-listener.
- Fix longstanding bug in which the allocation point of a block resized by realloc was not correctly set. This may have caused confusing error messages.

Snapshot 20030716 (16 July 2003)

~~~~~

20030716 is a snapshot of our current CVS head (development) branch. This is the branch which will become valgrind-2.0. It contains significant enhancements over the 1.9.X branch.

Despite this being a snapshot of the CVS head, it is believed to be quite stable -- at least as stable as 1.9.6 or 1.0.4, if not more so -- and therefore suitable for widespread use. Please let us know asap if it causes problems for you.

Two reasons for releasing a snapshot now are:

- It's been a while since 1.9.6, and this snapshot fixes various problems that 1.9.6 has with threaded programs on glibc-2.3.X based systems.
- So as to make available improvements in the 2.0 line.

Major changes in 20030716, as compared to 1.9.6:

- More fixes to threading support on glibc-2.3.1 and 2.3.2-based systems (SuSE 8.2, Red Hat 9). If you have had problems with inconsistent/illogical behaviour of `errno`, `h_errno` or the DNS resolver functions in threaded programs, 20030716 should improve matters. This snapshot seems stable enough to run OpenOffice.org 1.1rc on Red Hat 7.3, SuSE 8.2 and Red Hat 9, and that's a big threaded app if ever I saw one.
- Automatic generation of suppression records; you no longer need to write them by hand. Use `--gen-suppressions=yes`.
- `strcpy/memcpy/etc` check their arguments for overlaps, when running with the Memcheck or Addrcheck skins.
- `malloc_usable_size()` is now supported.
- new client requests:
 - `VALGRIND_COUNT_ERRORS`, `VALGRIND_COUNT_LEAKS`: useful with regression testing
 - `VALGRIND_NON_SIMD_CALL[0123]`: for running arbitrary functions on real CPU (use with caution!)
- The GDB attach mechanism is more flexible. Allow the GDB to be run to be specified by `--gdb-path=/path/to/gdb`, and specify which file descriptor `V` will read its input from with `--input-fd=<number>`.
- Cachegrind gives more accurate results (wasn't tracking instructions in `malloc()` and friends previously, is now).
- Complete support for the MMX instruction set.
- Partial support for the SSE and SSE2 instruction sets. Work for this is ongoing. About half the SSE/SSE2 instructions are done, so some SSE based programs may work. Currently you need to specify `--skin=addrcheck`. Basically not suitable for real use yet.
- Significant speedups (10%-20%) for standard memory checking.

- Fix assertion failure in pthread_once().
- Fix this:
 valgrind: vg_intercept.c:598 (vgAllRoadsLeadToRome_select):
 Assertion 'ms_end >= ms_now' failed.
- Implement pthread_mutexattr_setpshared.
- Understand Pentium 4 branch hints. Also implemented a couple more obscure x86 instructions.
- Lots of other minor bug fixes.
- We have a decent regression test system, for the first time. This doesn't help you directly, but it does make it a lot easier for us to track the quality of the system, especially across multiple linux distributions.

You can run the regression tests with 'make regtest' after 'make install' completes. On SuSE 8.2 and Red Hat 9 I get this:

```
== 84 tests, 0 stderr failures, 0 stdout failures ==
```

On Red Hat 8, I get this:

```
== 84 tests, 2 stderr failures, 1 stdout failure ==
corecheck/tests/res_search      (stdout)
memcheck/tests/sigaltstack      (stderr)
```

sigaltstack is probably harmless. res_search doesn't work on R H 8 even running natively, so I'm not too worried.

On Red Hat 7.3, a glibc-2.2.5 system, I get these harmless failures:

```
== 84 tests, 2 stderr failures, 1 stdout failure ==
corecheck/tests/pth_atfork1      (stdout)
corecheck/tests/pth_atfork1      (stderr)
memcheck/tests/sigaltstack      (stderr)
```

You need to run on a PII system, at least, since some tests contain P6-specific instructions, and the test machine needs access to the internet so that corecheck/tests/res_search (a test that the DNS resolver works) can function.

As ever, thanks for the vast amount of feedback :) and bug reports :(We may not answer all messages, but we do at least look at all of them, and tend to fix the most frequently reported bugs.

Version 1.9.6 (7 May 2003 or thereabouts)

~~~~~

Major changes in 1.9.6:

- Improved threading support for glibc  $\geq$  2.3.2 (SuSE 8.2, RedHat 9, to name but two ...) It turned out that 1.9.5 had problems with threading support on glibc  $\geq$  2.3.2, usually manifested by threaded programs deadlocking in system calls, or running unbelievably slowly. Hopefully these are fixed now. 1.9.6 is the first valgrind which gives reasonable support for glibc-2.3.2. Also fixed a 2.3.2 problem with pthread\_atfork().
- Majorly expanded FAQ.txt. We've added workarounds for all common problems for which a workaround is known.

Minor changes in 1.9.6:

- Fix identification of the main thread's stack. Incorrect identification of it was causing some on-stack addresses to not get identified as such. This only affected the usefulness of some error messages; the correctness of the checks made is unchanged.
- Support for kernels  $\geq$  2.5.68.
- Dummy implementations of \_\_libc\_current\_sigrtmin, \_\_libc\_current\_sigrtmax and \_\_libc\_allocate\_rtsig, hopefully good enough to keep alive programs which previously died for lack of them.
- Fix bug in the VALGRIND\_DISCARD\_TRANSLATIONS client request.
- Fix bug in the DWARF2 debug line info loader, when instructions following each other have source lines far from each other (e.g. with inlined functions).
- Debug info reading: read symbols from both "symtab" and "dynsym" sections, rather than merely from the one that comes last in the file.
- New syscall support: prctl(), creat(), lookup\_dcookie().
- When checking calls to accept(), recvfrom(), getsockopt(), don't complain if buffer values are NULL.
- Try and avoid assertion failures in mash\_LD\_PRELOAD\_and\_LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH.
- Minor bug fixes in cg\_annotate.

Version 1.9.5 (7 April 2003)

~~~~~

It occurs to me that it would be helpful for valgrind users to record in the source distribution the changes in each release. So I now attempt to mend my errant ways :-). Changes in this and future releases

will be documented in the NEWS file in the source distribution.

Major changes in 1.9.5:

- (Critical bug fix): Fix a bug in the FPU simulation. This was causing some floating point conditional tests not to work right. Several people reported this. If you had floating point code which didn't work right on 1.9.1 to 1.9.4, it's worth trying 1.9.5.
- Partial support for Red Hat 9. RH9 uses the new Native Posix Threads Library (NPTL), instead of the older LinuxThreads. This potentially causes problems with V which will take some time to correct. In the meantime we have partially worked around this, and so 1.9.5 works on RH9. Threaded programs still work, but they may deadlock, because some system calls (accept, read, write, etc) which should be nonblocking, in fact do block. This is a known bug which we are looking into.

If you can, your best bet (unfortunately) is to avoid using 1.9.5 on a Red Hat 9 system, or on any NPTL-based distribution. If your glibc is 2.3.1 or earlier, you're almost certainly OK.

Minor changes in 1.9.5:

- Added some #errors to valgrind.h to ensure people don't include it accidentally in their sources. This is a change from 1.0.X which was never properly documented. The right thing to include is now memcheck.h. Some people reported problems and strange behaviour when (incorrectly) including valgrind.h in code with 1.9.1 -- 1.9.4. This is no longer possible.
- Add some __extension__ bits and pieces so that gcc configured for valgrind-checking compiles even with -Werror. If you don't understand this, ignore it. Of interest to gcc developers only.
- Removed a pointless check which caused problems interworking with Clearcase. V would complain about shared objects whose names did not end ".so", and refuse to run. This is now fixed. In fact it was fixed in 1.9.4 but not documented.
- Fixed a bug causing an assertion failure of "waiters == 1" somewhere in vg_scheduler.c, when running large threaded apps, notably MySQL.
- Add support for the munlock system call (124).

Some comments about future releases:

1.9.5 is, we hope, the most stable Valgrind so far. It pretty much supersedes the 1.0.X branch. If you are a valgrind packager, please consider making 1.9.5 available to your users. You can regard the 1.0.X branch as obsolete: 1.9.5 is stable and vastly superior. There are no plans at all for further releases of the 1.0.X branch.

If you want a leading-edge valgrind, consider building the cvs head (from SourceForge), or getting a snapshot of it. Current cool stuff going in includes MMX support (done); SSE/SSE2 support (in progress), a significant (10-20%) performance improvement (done), and the usual large collection of minor changes. Hopefully we will be able to improve our NPTL support, but no promises.

5. README

Release notes for Valgrind

~~~~~  
If you are building a binary package of Valgrind for distribution, please read README\_PACKAGERS. It contains some important information.

If you are developing Valgrind, please read README\_DEVELOPERS. It contains some useful information.

For instructions on how to build/install, see the end of this file.

Valgrind works on most, reasonably recent Linux setups. If you have problems, consult FAQ.txt to see if there are workarounds.

Executive Summary

~~~~~  
Valgrind is an award-winning suite of tools for debugging and profiling Linux programs. With the tools that come with Valgrind, you can automatically detect many memory management and threading bugs, avoiding hours of frustrating bug-hunting, making your programs more stable. You can also perform detailed profiling, to speed up and reduce memory use of your programs.

The Valgrind distribution currently includes five production grade tools: a memory error detector, a thread error detector, a cache profiler, a call graph profiler and a heap profiler. Experimental tools are also included. They are distinguished by the "exp-" prefix on their names.

To give you an idea of what Valgrind tools do, when a program is run under the supervision of Memcheck, the memory error detector tool, all reads and writes of memory are checked, and calls to malloc/new/free/delete are intercepted. As a result, Memcheck can detect if your program:

- Accesses memory it shouldn't (areas not yet allocated, areas that have been freed, areas past the end of heap blocks, inaccessible areas of the stack).
- Uses uninitialised values in dangerous ways.
- Leaks memory.
- Does bad frees of heap blocks (double frees, mismatched frees).
- Passes overlapping source and destination memory blocks to memcpy() and related functions.

Problems like these can be difficult to find by other means, often lying undetected for long periods, then causing occasional, difficult-to-diagnose crashes. When one of these errors occurs, you can

attach GDB to your program, so you can poke around and see what's going on.

Valgrind is closely tied to details of the CPU, operating system and to a less extent, compiler and basic C libraries. This makes it difficult to make it portable. Nonetheless, it is available for the following platforms: x86/Linux, AMD64/Linux and PPC32/Linux.

Valgrind is licensed under the GNU General Public License, version 2. Read the file COPYING in the source distribution for details.

Documentation

~~~~~

A comprehensive user guide is supplied. Point your browser at \$PREFIX/share/doc/valgrind/manual.html, where \$PREFIX is whatever you specified with --prefix= when building.

## Building and installing it

~~~~~

To install from the Subversion repository :

0. Check out the code from SVN, following the instructions at <http://www.valgrind.org/downloads/repository.html>.
1. cd into the source directory.
2. Run ./autogen.sh to setup the environment (you need the standard autoconf tools to do so).
3. Continue with the following instructions...

To install from a tar.bz2 distribution:

4. Run ./configure, with some options if you wish. The standard options are documented in the INSTALL file. The only interesting one is the usual --prefix=/where/you/want/it/installed.
5. Do "make".
6. Do "make install", possibly as root if the destination permissions require that.
7. See if it works. Try "valgrind ls -l". Either this works, or it bombs out with some complaint. In that case, please let us know (see www.valgrind.org).

Important! Do not move the valgrind installation into a place different from that specified by --prefix at build time. This will cause things to break in subtle ways, mostly when Valgrind handles fork/exec calls.

The Valgrind Developers

6. README_MISSING_SYSCALL_OR_IOCTL

Dealing with missing system call or ioctl wrappers in Valgrind

You're probably reading this because Valgrind bombed out whilst running your program, and advised you to read this file. The good news is that, in general, it's easy to write the missing syscall or ioctl wrappers you need, so that you can continue your debugging. If you send the resulting patches to me, then you'll be doing a favour to all future Valgrind users too.

Note that an "ioctl" is just a special kind of system call, really; so there's not a lot of need to distinguish them (at least conceptually) in the discussion that follows.

All this machinery is in coregrind/m_syswrap.

What are syscall/ioctl wrappers? What do they do?

Valgrind does what it does, in part, by keeping track of everything your program does. When a system call happens, for example a request to read part of a file, control passes to the Linux kernel, which fulfills the request, and returns control to your program. The problem is that the kernel will often change the status of some part of your program's memory as a result, and tools (instrumentation plug-ins) may need to know about this.

Syscall and ioctl wrappers have two jobs:

1. Tell a tool what's about to happen, before the syscall takes place. A tool could perform checks beforehand, eg. if memory about to be written is actually writeable. This part is useful, but not strictly essential.
2. Tell a tool what just happened, after a syscall takes place. This is so it can update its view of the program's state, eg. that memory has just been written to. This step is essential.

The "happenings" mostly involve reading/writing of memory.

So, let's look at an example of a wrapper for a system call which should be familiar to many Unix programmers.

The syscall wrapper for time()

The wrapper for the time system call looks like this:

```
PRE(sys_time)
{
```

```

/* time_t time(time_t *t); */
PRINT("sys_time ( %p )",ARG1);
PRE_REG_READ1(long, "time", int *, t);
if (ARG1 != 0) {
    PRE_MEM_WRITE( "time(t)", ARG1, sizeof(vki_time_t) );
}
}

POST(sys_time)
{
    if (ARG1 != 0) {
        POST_MEM_WRITE( ARG1, sizeof(vki_time_t) );
    }
}
}

```

The first thing we do happens before the syscall occurs, in the PRE() function. The PRE() function typically starts with invoking to the PRINT() macro. This PRINT() macro implements support for the --trace-syscalls command line option. Next, the tool is told the return type of the syscall, that the syscall has one argument, the type of the syscall argument and that the argument is being read from a register:

```
PRE_REG_READ1(long, "time", int *, t);
```

Next, if a non-NULL buffer is passed in as the argument, tell the tool that the buffer is about to be written to:

```
if (ARG1 != 0) {
    PRE_MEM_WRITE( "time", ARG1, sizeof(vki_time_t) );
}

```

Finally, the really important bit, after the syscall occurs, in the POST() function: if, and only if, the system call was successful, tell the tool that the memory was written:

```
if (ARG1 != 0) {
    POST_MEM_WRITE( ARG1, sizeof(vki_time_t) );
}

```

The POST() function won't be called if the syscall failed, so you don't need to worry about checking that in the POST() function. (Note: this is sometimes a bug; some syscalls do return results when they "fail" - for example, nanosleep returns the amount of unslept time if interrupted. TODO: add another per-syscall flag for this case.)

Note that we use the type 'vki_time_t'. This is a copy of the kernel type, with 'vki_' prefixed. Our copies of such types are kept in the appropriate vki*.h file(s). We don't include kernel headers or glibc headers directly.

Writing your own syscall wrappers (see below for ioctl wrappers)

~~~~~

If Valgrind tells you that system call NNN is unimplemented, do the following:

1. Find out the name of the system call:

```
grep NNN /usr/include/asm/unistd.h
```

This should tell you something like `__NR_mysyscallname`.  
Copy this entry to `include/vki/vki-scnums-$(VG_PLATFORM).h`.

2. Do `'man 2 mysyscallname'` to get some idea of what the syscall does. Note that the actual kernel interface can differ from this, so you might also want to check a version of the Linux kernel source.

NOTE: any syscall which has something to do with signals or threads is probably "special", and needs more careful handling. Post something to `valgrind-developers` if you aren't sure.

3. Add a case to the already-huge collection of wrappers in the `coregrind/m_syswrap/syswrap-*.c` files. For each in-memory parameter which is read or written by the syscall, do one of

```
PRE_MEM_READ( ... )
PRE_MEM_RASCIIZ( ... )
PRE_MEM_WRITE( ... )
```

for that parameter. Then do the syscall. Then, if the syscall succeeds, issue suitable `POST_MEM_WRITE( ... )` calls. (There's no need for `POST_MEM_READ` calls.)

Also, add it to the `syscall_table[]` array; use one of `GENX_`, `GENXY`, `LINUX_`, `LINXY`, `PLAX_`, `PLAXY`.

`GEN*` for generic syscalls (in `syswrap-generic.c`), `LIN*` for linux specific ones (in `syswrap-linux.c`) and `PLA*` for the platform dependant ones (in `syswrap-$(PLATFORM)-linux.c`).

The `*XY` variant if it requires a `PRE()` and `POST()` function, and the `*X_` variant if it only requires a `PRE()` function.

If you find this difficult, read the wrappers for other syscalls for ideas. A good tip is to look for the wrapper for a syscall which has a similar behaviour to yours, and use it as a starting point.

If you need structure definitions and/or constants for your syscall, copy them from the kernel headers into `include/vki.h` and co., with the appropriate `vki_*/VKI_*` name mangling. Don't `#include` any kernel headers. And certainly don't `#include` any glibc headers.

Test it.

Note that a common error is to call `POST_MEM_WRITE( ... )` with 0 (NULL) as the first (address) argument. This usually means your logic is slightly inadequate. It's a sufficiently common bug that there's a built-in check for it, and you'll get a "probably sanity check failure" for the syscall wrapper you just made, if this is the case.

4. Once happy, send us the patch. Pretty please.

#### Writing your own ioctl wrappers

~~~~~

Is pretty much the same as writing syscall wrappers, except that all the action happens within `PRE(ioctl)` and `POST(ioctl)`.

There's a default case, sometimes it isn't correct and you have to write a more specific case to get the right behaviour.

As above, please create a bug report and attach the patch as described on <http://www.valgrind.org>.

7. README_DEVELOPERS

Building and not installing it

~~~~~

To run Valgrind without having to install it, run `coregrind/valgrind` with the `VALGRIND_LIB` environment variable set, where `<dir>` is the root of the source tree (and must be an absolute path). Eg:

```
VALGRIND_LIB=~/.grind/head4/.in_place ~/.grind/head4/coregrind/valgrind
```

This allows you to compile and run with "make" instead of "make install", saving you time.

Or, you can use the 'vg-in-place' script which does that for you.

I recommend compiling with "make --quiet" to further reduce the amount of output spewed out during compilation, letting you actually see any errors, warnings, etc.

## Running the regression tests

~~~~~

To build and run all the regression tests, run "make [--quiet] regtest".

To run a subset of the regression tests, execute:

```
perl tests/vg_regtest <name>
```

where `<name>` is a directory (all tests within will be run) or a single `.vgtest` test file, or the name of a program which has a like-named `.vgtest` file. Eg:

```
perl tests/vg_regtest memcheck
perl tests/vg_regtest memcheck/tests/badfree.vgtest
perl tests/vg_regtest memcheck/tests/badfree
```

Running the performance tests

~~~~~

To build and run all the performance tests, run "make [--quiet] perf".

To run a subset of the performance suite, execute:

```
perl perf/vg_perf <name>
```

where `<name>` is a directory (all tests within will be run) or a single `.vgperf` test file, or the name of a program which has a like-named `.vgperf` file. Eg:

```
perl perf/vg_perf perf/
perl perf/vg_perf perf/bz2.vgperf
```

```
perl perf/vg_perf perf/bz2
```

To compare multiple versions of Valgrind, use the `--vg=` option multiple times. For example, if you have two Valgrinds next to each other, one in `trunk1/` and one in `trunk2/`, from within either `trunk1/` or `trunk2/` do this to compare them on all the performance tests:

```
perl perf/vg_perf --vg=./trunk1 --vg=./trunk2 perf/
```

### Debugging Valgrind with GDB

To debug the valgrind launcher program (`<prefix>/bin/valgrind`) just run it under `gdb` in the normal way.

Debugging the main body of the valgrind code (and/or the code for a particular tool) requires a bit more trickery but can be achieved without too much problem by following these steps:

- (1) Set `VALGRIND_LAUNCHER` to point to the valgrind executable. Eg:

```
export VALGRIND_LAUNCHER=/usr/local/bin/valgrind
```

or for an uninstalled version in a source directory `$DIR`:

```
export VALGRIND_LAUNCHER=$DIR/coregrind/valgrind
```

- (2) Run `gdb` on the tool executable. Eg:

```
gdb /usr/local/lib/valgrind/ppc32-linux/lackey
```

or

```
gdb $DIR/in_place/x86-linux/memcheck
```

- (3) Do "handle SIGSEGV SIGILL nostop noprint" in GDB to prevent GDB from stopping on a SIGSEGV or SIGILL:

```
(gdb) handle SIGILL SIGSEGV nostop noprint
```

- (4) Set any breakpoints you want and proceed as normal for `gdb`. The macro `VG_(FUNC)` is expanded to `vgPlain_FUNC`, so If you want to set a breakpoint `VG_(do_exec)`, you could do like this in GDB:

```
(gdb) b vgPlain_do_exec
```

- (5) Run the tool with required options:

```
(gdb) run pwd
```

Steps (1)--(3) can be put in a `.gdbinit` file, but any directory names must be fully expanded (ie. not an environment variable).

Self-hosting

~~~~~

To run Valgrind under Valgrind:

- (1) Check out 2 trees, "inner" and "outer". "inner" runs the app directly and is what you will be profiling. "outer" does the profiling.
- (2) Configure inner with `--enable-inner` and build/install as usual.
- (3) Configure outer normally and build/install as usual.
- (4) Choose a very simple program (date) and try

```
outer/.../bin/valgrind --sim-hints=enable-outer --trace-children=yes \
  --tool=cachegrind -v inner/.../bin/valgrind --tool=none -v prog
```

If you omit the `--trace-children=yes`, you'll only monitor inner's launcher program, not its stage2.

The whole thing is fragile, confusing and slow, but it does work well enough for you to get some useful performance data. The inner Valgrind has most of its output (ie. those lines beginning with "`==<pid>==`") prefixed with a `'>'`, which helps a lot.

At the time of writing the allocator is not annotated with client requests so Memcheck is not as useful as it could be. It also has not been tested much, so don't be surprised if you hit problems.

When using self-hosting with an outer callgrind tool, use `'--pop-on-jump'` (on the outer). Otherwise, callgrind has much higher memory requirements.

Printing out problematic blocks

~~~~~

If you want to print out a disassembly of a particular block that causes a crash, do the following.

Try running with `"--vex-guest-chase-thresh=0 --trace-flags=10000000 --trace-notbelow=999999"`. This should print one line for each block translated, and that includes the address.

Then re-run with 999999 changed to the highest bb number shown. This will print the one line per block, and also will print a disassembly of the block in which the fault occurred.

# 8. README\_PACKAGERS

These notes were significantly updated on 6 Dec 2007 for the Valgrind 3.3.0 release.

Greetings, packaging person! This information is aimed at people building binary distributions of Valgrind.

Thanks for taking the time and effort to make a binary distribution of Valgrind. The following notes may save you some trouble.

-- Do not ship your Linux distro with a completely stripped `/lib/ld.so`. At least leave the debugging symbol names on -- line number info isn't necessary. If you don't want to leave symbols on `ld.so`, alternatively you can have your distro install `ld.so's debuginfo` package by default, or make `ld.so.debuginfo` be a requirement of your Valgrind RPM/DEB/whatever.

Reason for this is that Valgrind's Memcheck tool needs to intercept calls to, and provide replacements for, some symbols in `ld.so` at startup (most importantly `strlen`). If it cannot do that, Memcheck shows a large number of false positives due to the highly optimised `strlen` (etc) routines in `ld.so`. This has caused some trouble in the past. As of version 3.3.0, on some targets (`ppc32-linux`, `ppc64-linux`), Memcheck will simply stop at startup (and print an error message) if such symbols are not present, because it is infeasible to continue.

It's not like this is going to cost you much space. We only need the symbols for `ld.so` (a few K at most). Not the debug info and not any `debuginfo` or extra symbols for any other libraries.

-- (Unfortunate but true) When you configure to build with the `--prefix=/foo/bar/xyzzy` option, the prefix `/foo/bar/xyzzy` gets baked into valgrind. The consequence is that you must install valgrind at the location specified in the prefix. If you don't, it may appear to work, but will break doing some obscure things, particularly doing `fork()` and `exec()`.

So you can't build a relocatable RPM / whatever from Valgrind.

-- Don't strip the debug info off `lib/valgrind/$platform/vgpreload*.so` in the installation tree. Either Valgrind won't work at all, or it will still work if you do, but will generate less helpful error messages. Here's an example:

```
Mismatched free() / delete / delete []  
at 0x40043249: free (vg_clientfuncs.c:171)
```

```

by 0x4102BB4E: QGArray::~QGArray(void) (tools/qgarray.cpp:149)
by 0x4C261C41: PptDoc::~PptDoc(void) (include/qmemarray.h:60)
by 0x4C261F0E: PptXml::~PptXml(void) (pptxml.cc:44)
Address 0x4BB292A8 is 0 bytes inside a block of size 64 alloc'd
at 0x4004318C: __builtin_vec_new (vg_clientfuncs.c:152)
by 0x4C21BC15: KLaola::readSBStream(int) const (klaola.cc:314)
by 0x4C21C155: KLaola::stream(KLaola::OLENode const *) (klaola.cc:416)
by 0x4C21788F: OLEFilter::convert(QCString const &) (olefilter.cc:272)

```

This tells you that some memory allocated with `new[]` was freed with `free()`.

```

Mismatched free() / delete / delete []
at 0x40043249: (inside vgpreload_memcheck.so)
by 0x4102BB4E: QGArray::~QGArray(void) (tools/qgarray.cpp:149)
by 0x4C261C41: PptDoc::~PptDoc(void) (include/qmemarray.h:60)
by 0x4C261F0E: PptXml::~PptXml(void) (pptxml.cc:44)
Address 0x4BB292A8 is 0 bytes inside a block of size 64 alloc'd
at 0x4004318C: (inside vgpreload_memcheck.so)
by 0x4C21BC15: KLaola::readSBStream(int) const (klaola.cc:314)
by 0x4C21C155: KLaola::stream(KLaola::OLENode const *) (klaola.cc:416)
by 0x4C21788F: OLEFilter::convert(QCString const &) (olefilter.cc:272)

```

This isn't so helpful. Although you can tell there is a mismatch, the names of the allocating and deallocating functions are no longer visible. The same kind of thing occurs in various other messages from `valgrind`.

- Don't strip symbols from `lib/valgrind/$platform/{cachegrind, callgrind, drd, exp-omega, helgrind, lackey, massif, memcheck, none}` in the installation tree. Doing so will likely cause problems. Removing the line number info is probably OK, although that has not been tested by the Valgrind developers.
- Please test the final installation works by running it on something huge. I suggest checking that it can start and exit successfully both `Firefox-2.0.0.X` and `OpenOffice.org 2.3.X`. I use these as test programs, and I know they fairly thoroughly exercise Valgrind. The command lines to use are:

```
valgrind -v --trace-children=yes mozilla
```

```
valgrind -v --trace-children=yes soffice
```

If you find any more hints/tips for packaging, please report it as a bugreport. See <http://www.valgrind.org> for details.

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