18-600 Foundations of Computer Systems

Lecture 19: "Dynamic Memory Allocation"

John Shen & Zhiyi Yu November 7, 2016

Required Reading Assignment:

• Chapter 9 of CS:APP (3rd edition) by Randy Bryant & Dave O'Hallaron



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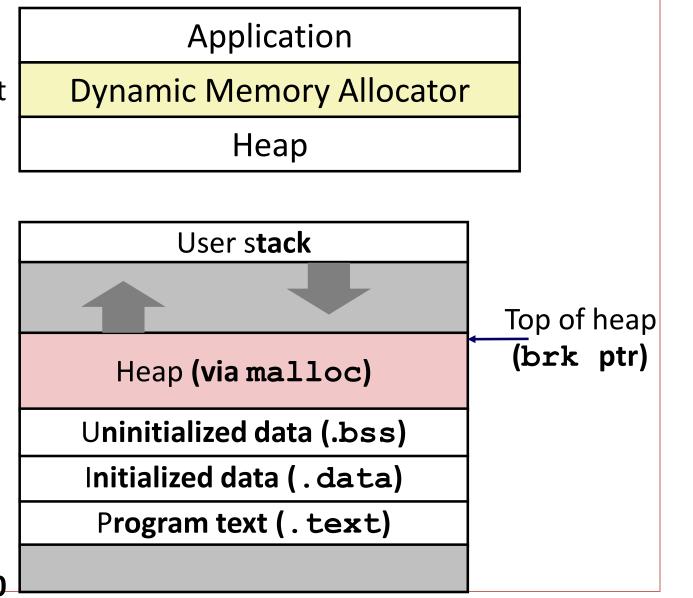
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Today

- Basic concepts
- Implicit free lists
- Explicit free lists
- Segregated free lists
- Garbage collection
- Memory-related perils and pitfalls

Dynamic Memory Allocation

- Programmers use *dynamic memory allocators* (such as malloc) to acquire VM at run time.
 - For data structures whose size is only known at runtime.
- Dynamic memory allocators manage an area of process virtual memory known as the *heap*.
- Allocator maintains heap as collection of variable sized *blocks*, which are either *allocated* or *free*
- Types of allocators
 - *Explicit allocator*: application allocates and frees space
 - E.g., malloc and free in C
 - *Implicit allocator:* application allocates, but does not free space
 - E.g. garbage collection in Java, ML, and Lisp



The malloc Package

#include <stdlib.h>

void *malloc(size_t size)

- Successful:
 - Returns a pointer to a memory block of at least **size** bytes aligned to an 8-byte (x86) or 16-byte (x86-64) boundary
 - If **size** == 0, returns NULL
- Unsuccessful: returns NULL (0) and sets errno

void free(void *p)

- Returns the block pointed at by p to pool of available memory
- p must come from a previous call to malloc or realloc

Other functions

- **calloc:** Version of **malloc** that initializes allocated block to zero.
- **realloc**: Changes the size of a previously allocated block.
- **sbrk**: Used internally by allocators to grow or shrink the heap

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malloc Example

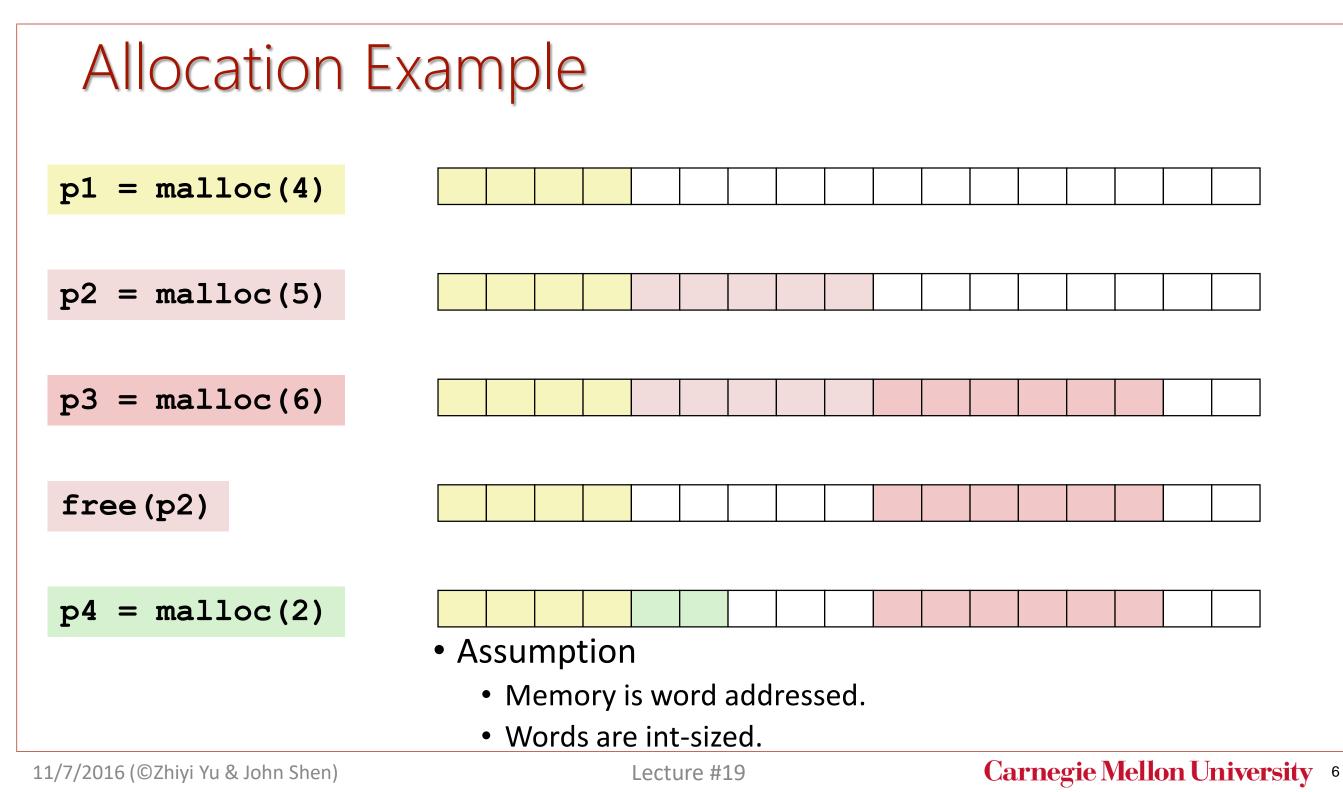
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

void foo(int n) {
 int i, *p;

```
/* Allocate a block of n ints */
p = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
if (p == NULL) {
    perror("malloc");
    exit(0);
```

```
}
```

```
/* Return allocated block to the heap */
free(p);
```



Constraints

- Applications
 - Can issue arbitrary sequence of **malloc** and **free** requests
 - **free** request must be to a **malloc**'d block
- Allocators
 - Can't control number or size of allocated blocks
 - Must respond immediately to **malloc** requests
 - *i.e.*, can't reorder or buffer requests
 - Must allocate blocks from free memory
 - *i.e.*, can only place allocated blocks in free memory
 - Must align blocks so they satisfy all alignment requirements
 - 8-byte (x86) or 16-byte (x86-64) alignment on Linux boxes
 - Can manipulate and modify only free memory
 - Can't move the allocated blocks once they are **malloc**'d
 - *i.e.*, compaction is not allowed

Performance Goal: Throughput

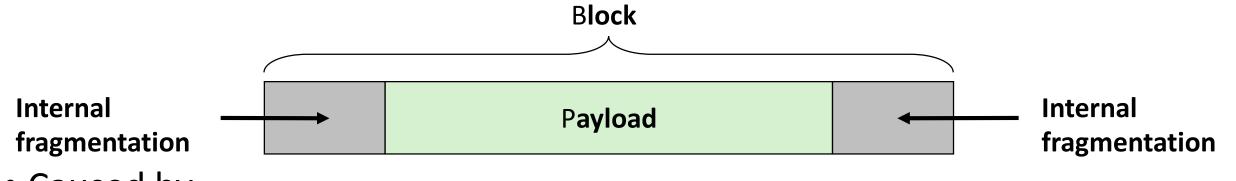
- Given some sequence of malloc and free requests:
 - $R_{0}, R_{1}, ..., R_{k}, ..., R_{n-1}$
- Goals: maximize throughput and peak memory utilization
 - These goals are often conflicting
- Throughput:
 - Number of completed requests per unit time
 - Example:
 - 5,000 malloc calls and 5,000 free calls in 10 seconds
 - Throughput is 1,000 operations/second

Performance Goal: Peak Memory Utilization

- Given some sequence of malloc and free requests:
 - $R_{0}, R_{1}, ..., R_{k}, ..., R_{n-1}$
- *Def*: Aggregate payload P_k
 - malloc(p) results in a block with a payload of p bytes
 - After request *R_k* completed, the *aggregate payload P_k* is the sum of currently allocated payloads
- *Def: Current heap size H*_k
 - Assume H_k is monotonically nondecreasing
 - i.e., heap only grows when allocator uses **sbrk**
- *Def:* Peak memory utilization after k+1 requests
 - $U_k = (max_{i \le k} P_i) / H_k$
- Poor memory utilization caused by *fragmentation*: *internal* fragmentation and *external* fragmentation

Internal Fragmentation

 For a given block, *internal fragmentation* occurs if payload is smaller than block size



- Caused by
 - Overhead of maintaining heap data structures
 - Padding for alignment purposes
 - Explicit policy decisions (e.g., to return a big block to satisfy a small request)
- Depends only on the pattern of *previous* requests
 - Thus, easy to measure

External Fragmentation

• Occurs when there is enough aggregate heap memory, but no single free block is large enough

p1 = malloc(4)	
p2 = malloc(5)	
p3 = malloc(6)	
free (p2)	
p4 = malloc(6)	Oops! (what would happen now?)

- Depends on the pattern of future requests
 - Thus, difficult to measure

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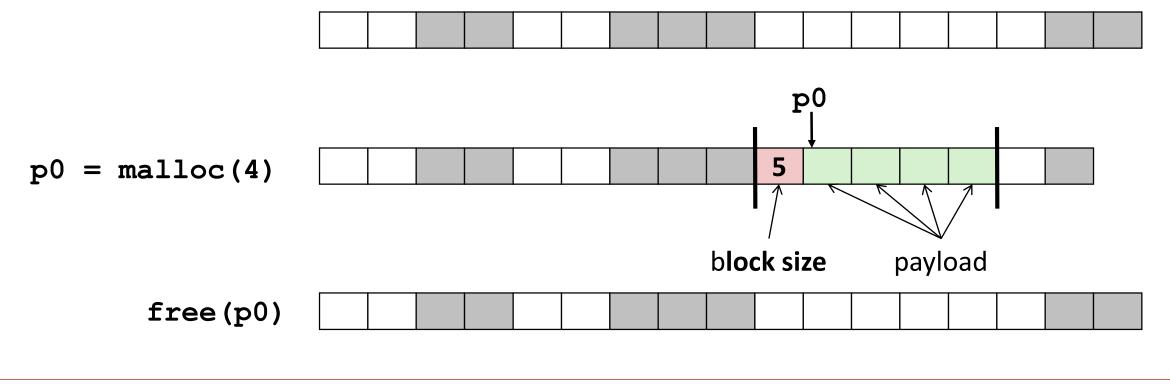
Implementation Issues

- How do we know how much memory to free given just a pointer?
- How do we keep track of the free blocks?
- What do we do with the extra space when allocating a structure that is smaller than the free block it is placed in?
- How do we pick a block to use for allocation -- many might fit?
- How do we reinsert freed block?

Knowing How Much to Free

Standard method

- Keep the length of a block in the word preceding the block.
 - This word is often called the *header field* or *header*
- Requires an extra word for every allocated block

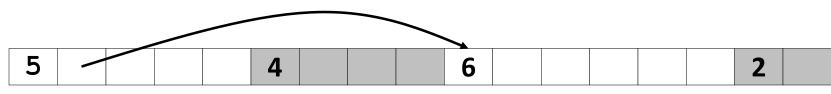


Keeping Track of Free Blocks

• Method 1: Implicit list using length—links all blocks



• Method 2: *Explicit list* among the free blocks using pointers



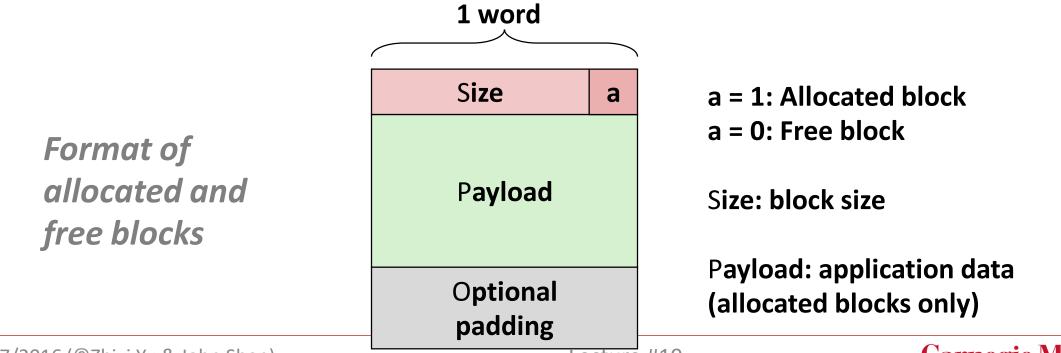
- Method 3: Segregated free list
 - Different free lists for different size classes
- Method 4: Blocks sorted by size
 - Can use a balanced tree (e.g. Red-Black tree) with pointers within each free block, and the length used as a key

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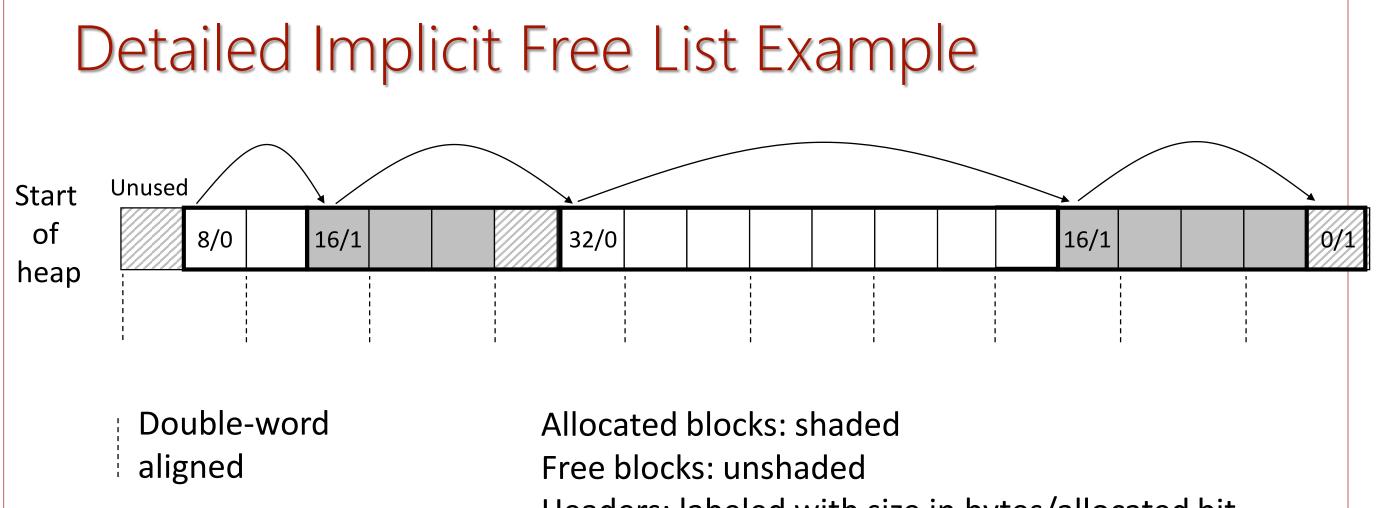
Method 1: Implicit List

- For each block we need both size and allocation status
 - Could store this information in two words: wasteful!
- Standard trick
 - If blocks are aligned, some low-order address bits are always 0
 - Instead of storing an always-0 bit, use it as a allocated/free flag
 - When reading size word, must mask out this bit



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Headers: labeled with size in bytes/allocated bit

Implicit List: Finding a Free Block

• First fit:

• Search list from beginning, choose *first* free block that fits:

- Can take linear time in total number of blocks (allocated and free)
- In practice it can cause "splinters" at beginning of list

• Next fit:

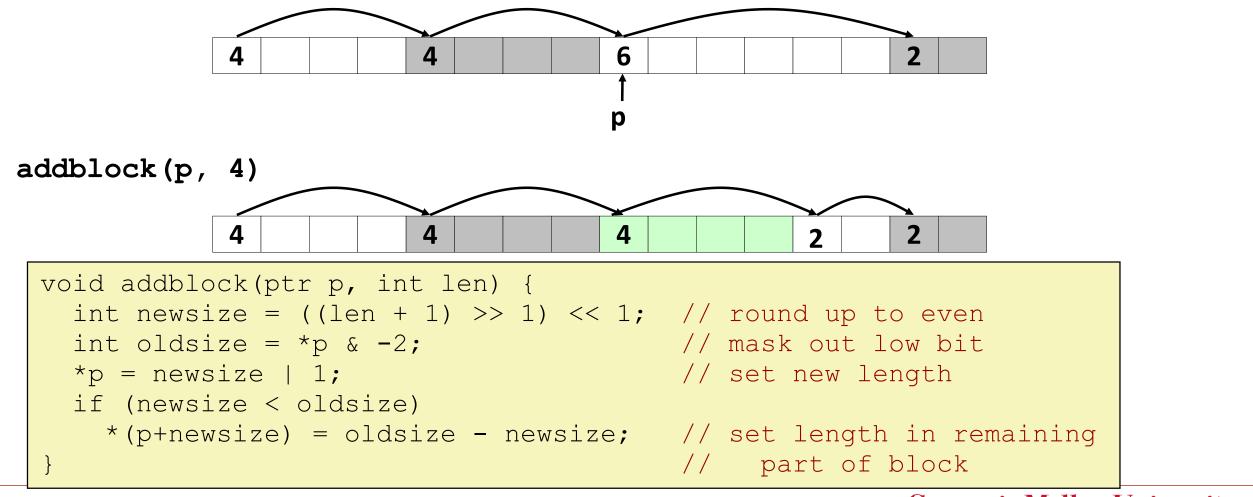
- Like first fit, but search list starting where previous search finished
- Should often be faster than first fit: avoids re-scanning unhelpful blocks
- Some research suggests that fragmentation is worse

• Best fit:

- Search the list, choose the *best* free block: fits, with fewest bytes left over
- Keeps fragments small—usually improves memory utilization
- Will typically run slower than first fit 11/7/2016 (©Zhiyi Yu & John Shen)

Implicit List: Allocating in Free Block

- Allocating in a free block: *splitting*
 - Since allocated space might be smaller than free space, we might want to split the block

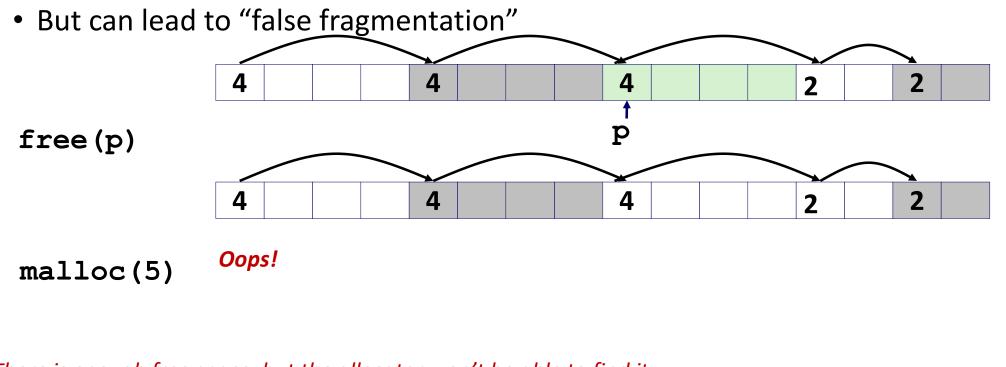


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Implicit List: Freeing a Block

- Simplest implementation:
 - Need only clear the "allocated" flag

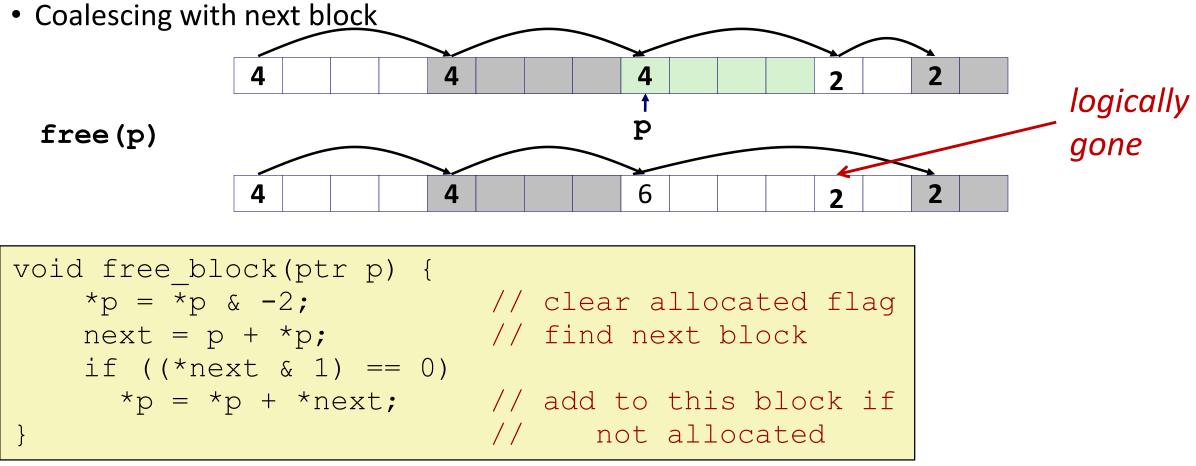
void free_block(ptr p) { *p = *p & -2 }



There is enough free space, but the allocator won't be able to find it

Implicit List: Coalescing

• Join (coalesce) with next/previous blocks, if they are free



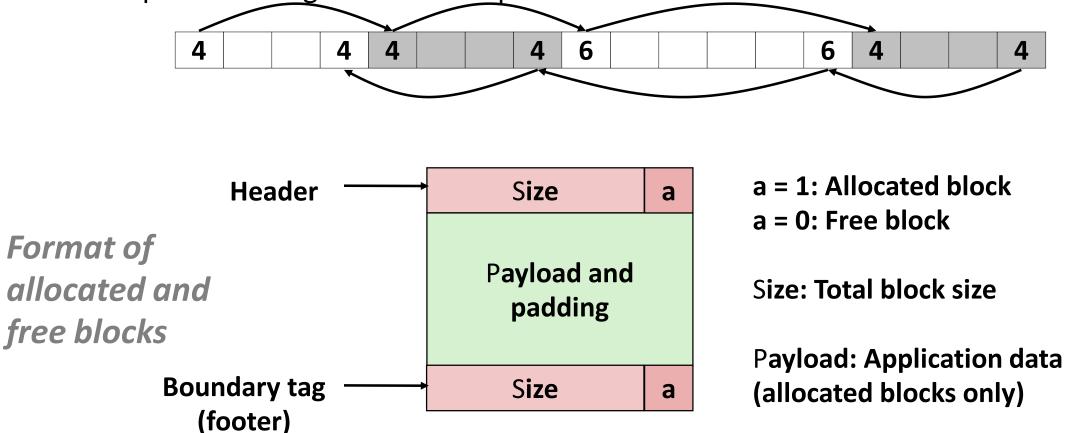
• But how do we coalesce with *previous* block?

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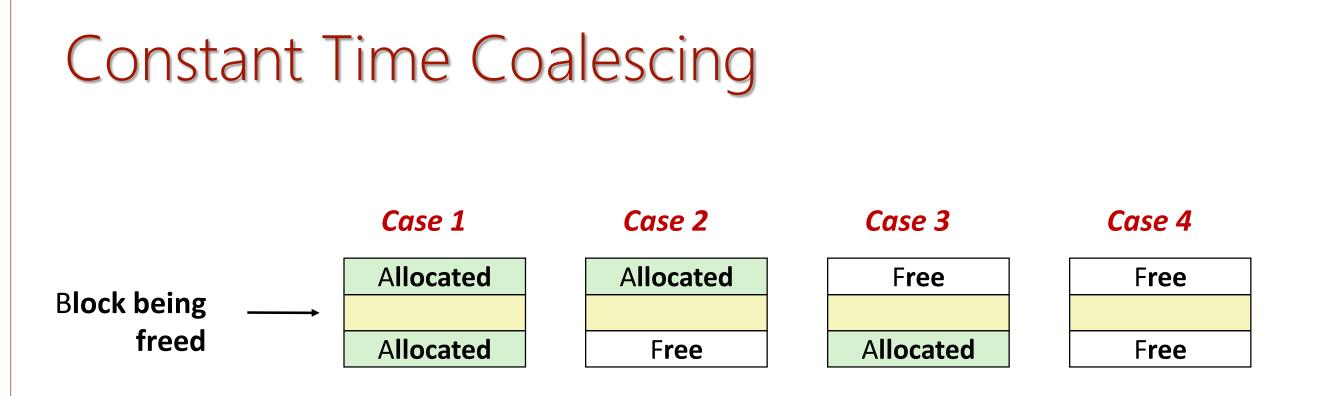
Implicit List: Bidirectional Coalescing

Boundary tags [Knuth73]

- Replicate size/allocated word at "bottom" (end) of free blocks
- Allows us to traverse the "list" backwards, but requires extra space
- Important and general technique!



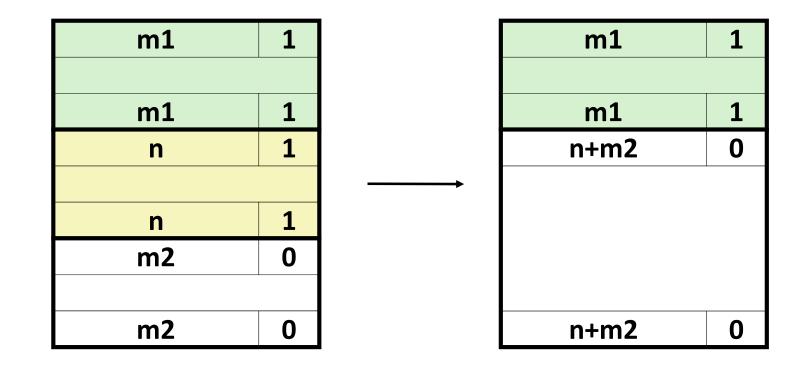
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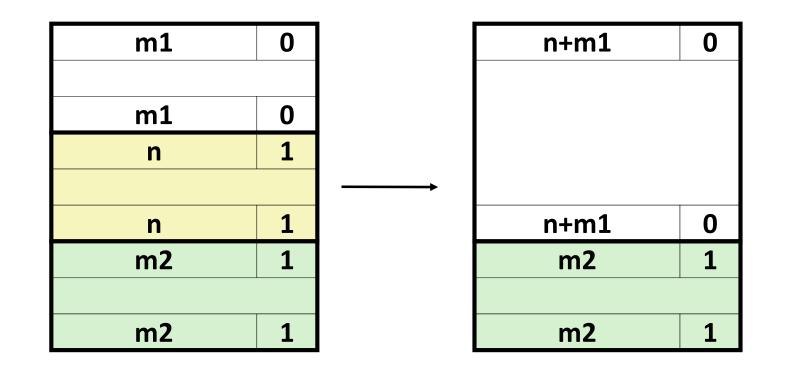
Constant Time Coalescing (Case 1)

		-		
m1	1		m1	1
m1	1		m1	1
n	1		n	0
		→		
n	1		n	0
m2	1		m2	1
m2	1		m2	1

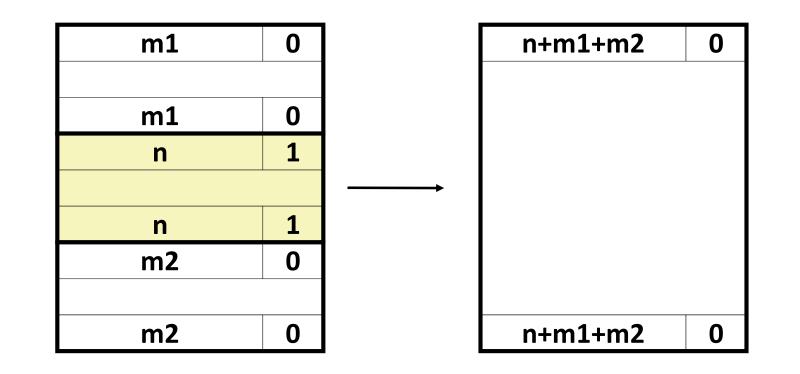
Constant Time Coalescing (Case 2)



Constant Time Coalescing (Case 3)



Constant Time Coalescing (Case 4)



Disadvantages of Boundary Tags

- Internal fragmentation
- Can it be optimized?
 - Which blocks need the footer tag? Only free blocks
 - What does that mean? Use another free bits to indicate free/allocated blocks

Summary of Key Allocator Policies

- Placement policy:
 - First-fit, next-fit, best-fit, etc.
 - Trades off lower throughput for less fragmentation
 - Interesting observation: segregated free lists (next lecture) approximate a best fit placement policy without having to search entire free list
- Splitting policy:
 - When do we go ahead and split free blocks?
 - How much internal fragmentation are we willing to tolerate?
- Coalescing policy:
 - *Immediate coalescing:* coalesce each time **free** is called
 - Deferred coalescing: try to improve performance of free by deferring coalescing until needed.
 Examples:
 - Coalesce as you scan the free list for **malloc**
 - Coalesce when the amount of external fragmentation reaches some threshold

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Lecture #19

Implicit Lists: Summary

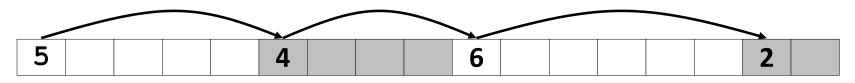
- Implementation: very simple
- Allocate cost:
 - linear time worst case
- Free cost:
 - constant time worst case
 - even with coalescing
- Memory usage:
 - will depend on placement policy
 - First-fit, next-fit or best-fit
- Not used in practice for malloc/free because of linear-time allocation
 - used in many special purpose applications
- However, the concepts of splitting and boundary tag coalescing are general to *all* allocators

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Keeping Track of Free Blocks

• Method 1: Implicit free list using length—links all blocks



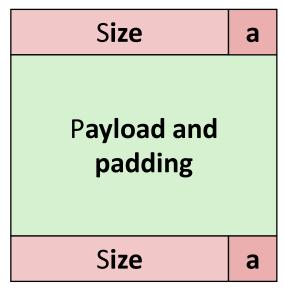
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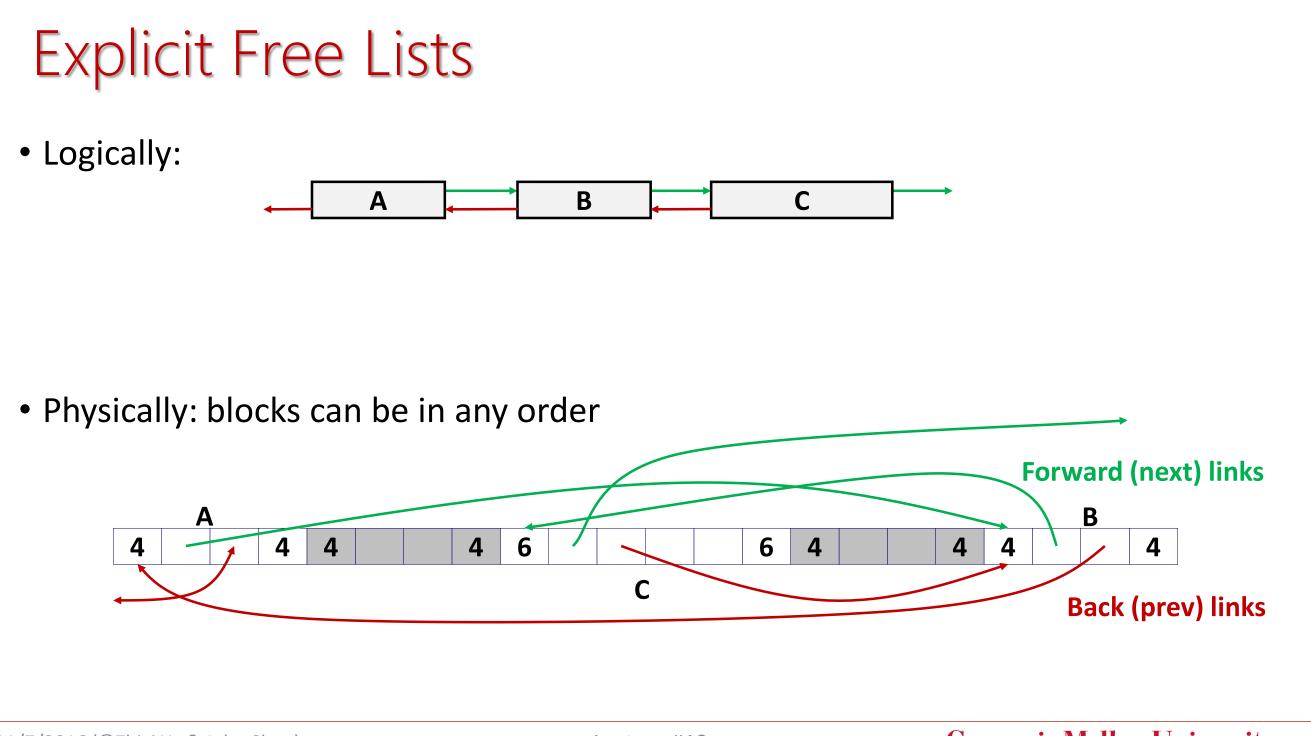
Explicit Free Lists

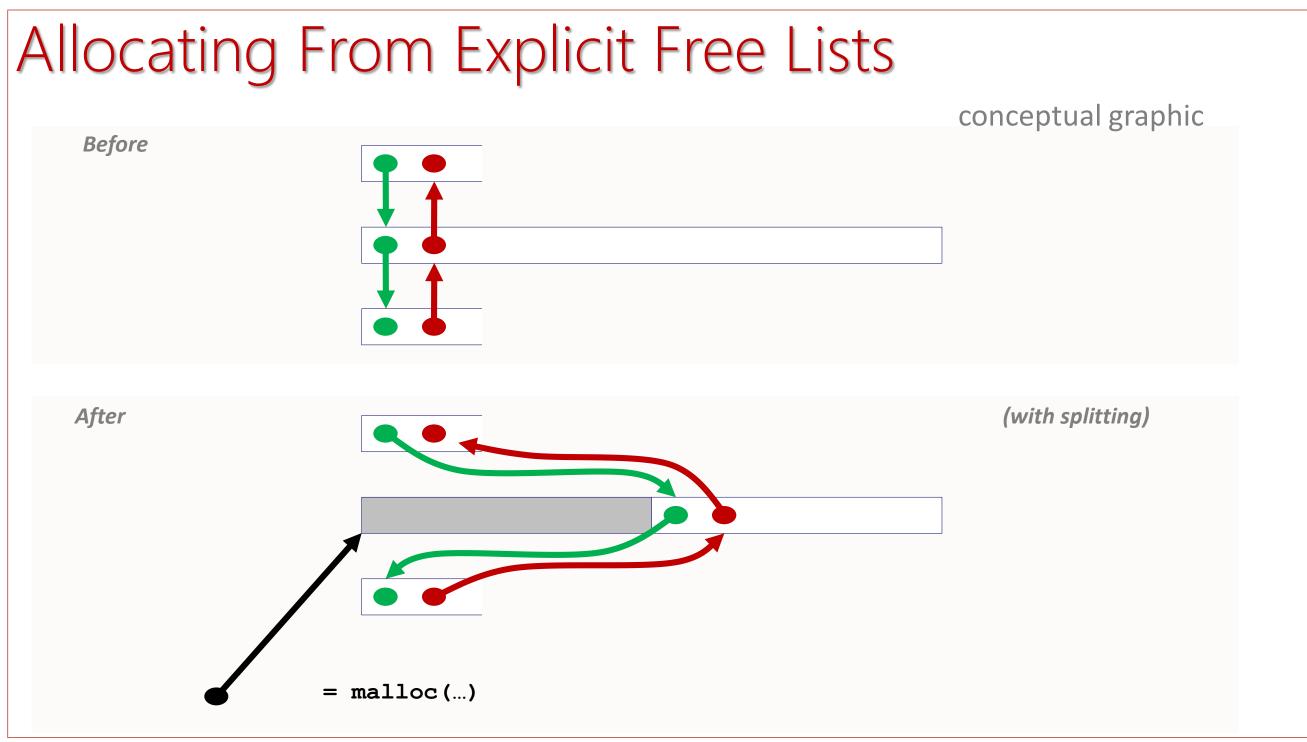
Allocated (as before)





- Maintain list(s) of *free* blocks, not *all* blocks
 - The "next" free block could be anywhere
 - So we need to store forward/back pointers, not just sizes
 - Still need boundary tags for coalescing
 - Luckily we track only free blocks, so we can use payload area



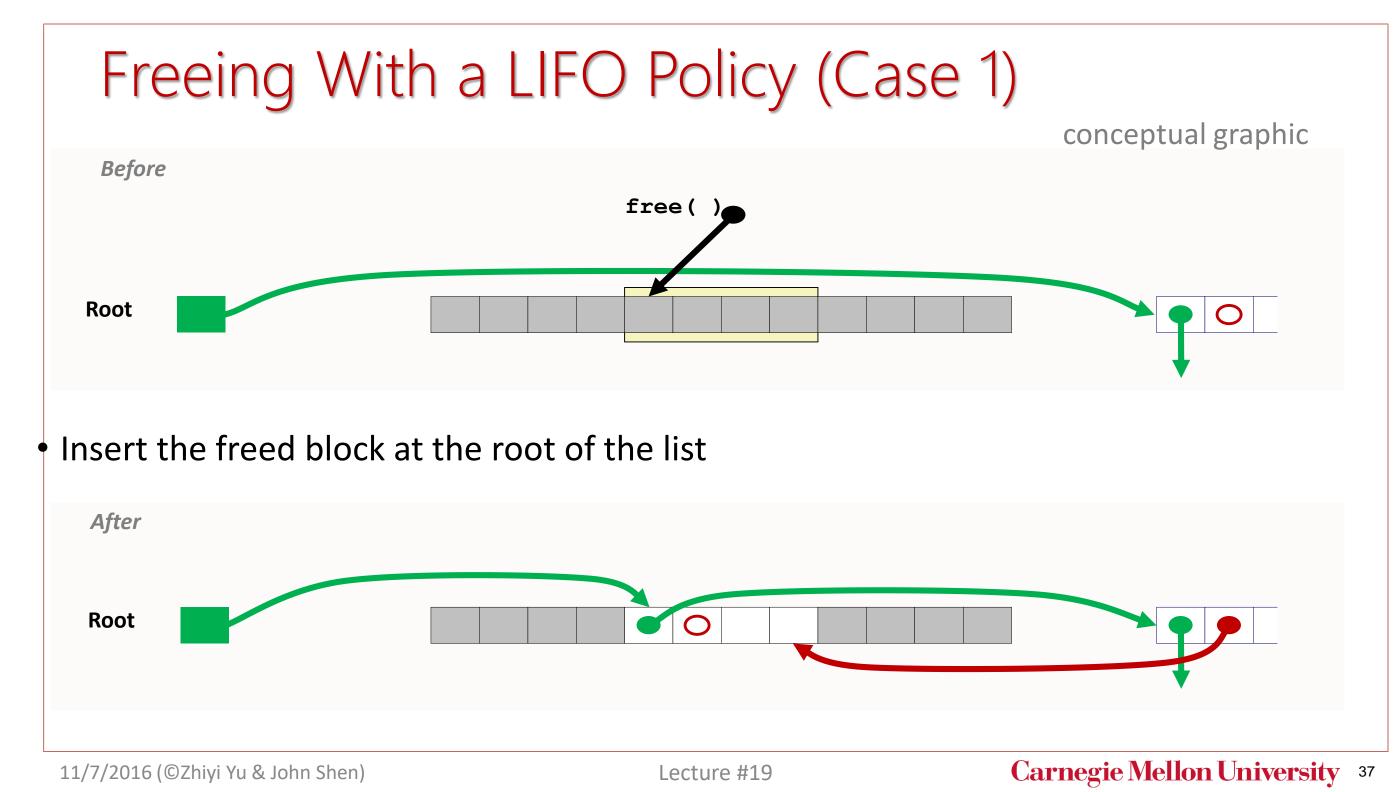


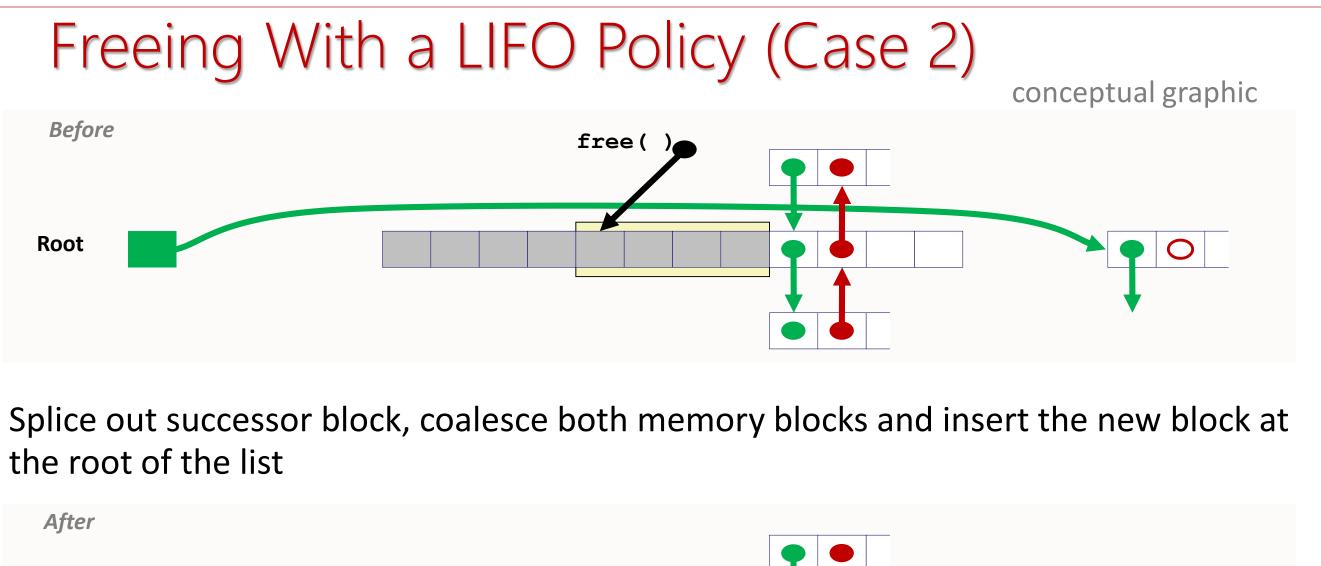
Freeing With Explicit Free Lists

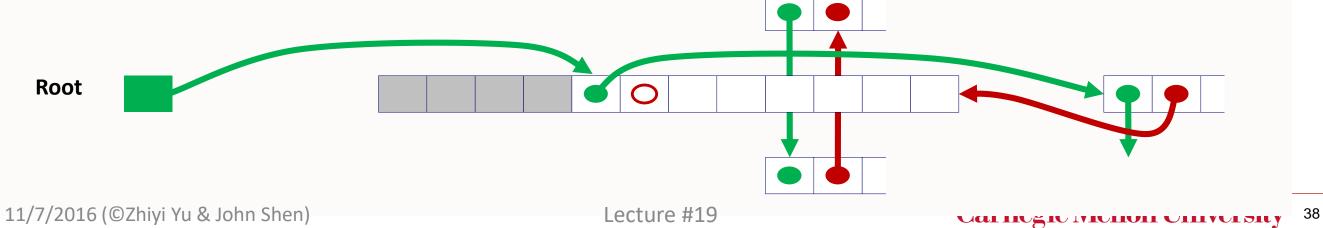
- *Insertion policy*: Where in the free list do you put a newly freed block?
- LIFO (last-in-first-out) policy
 - Insert freed block at the beginning of the free list
 - **Pro:** simple and constant time
 - Con: studies suggest fragmentation is worse than address ordered

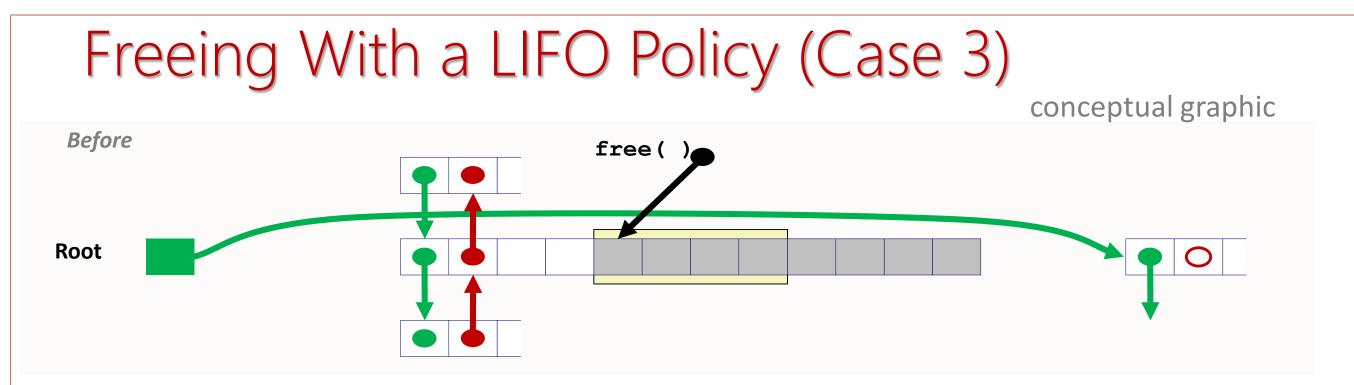
Address-ordered policy

- Insert freed blocks so that free list blocks are always in address order: *addr(prev) < addr(curr) < addr(next)*
- *Con:* requires search
- Pro: studies suggest fragmentation is lower than LIFO

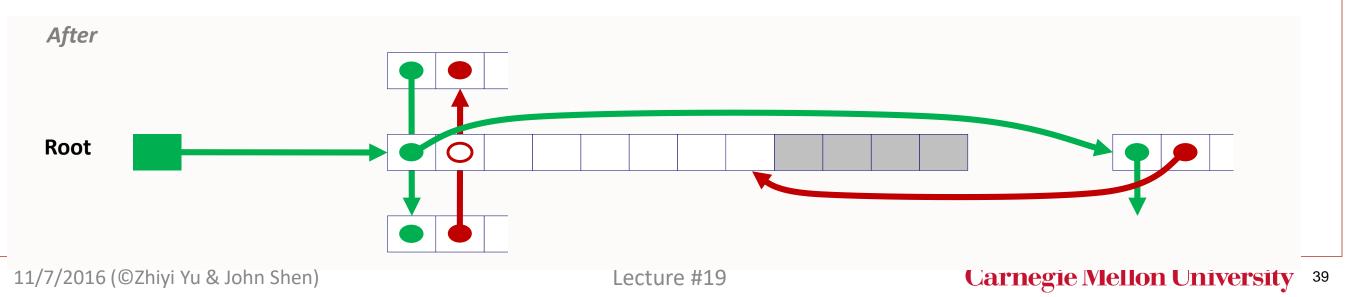


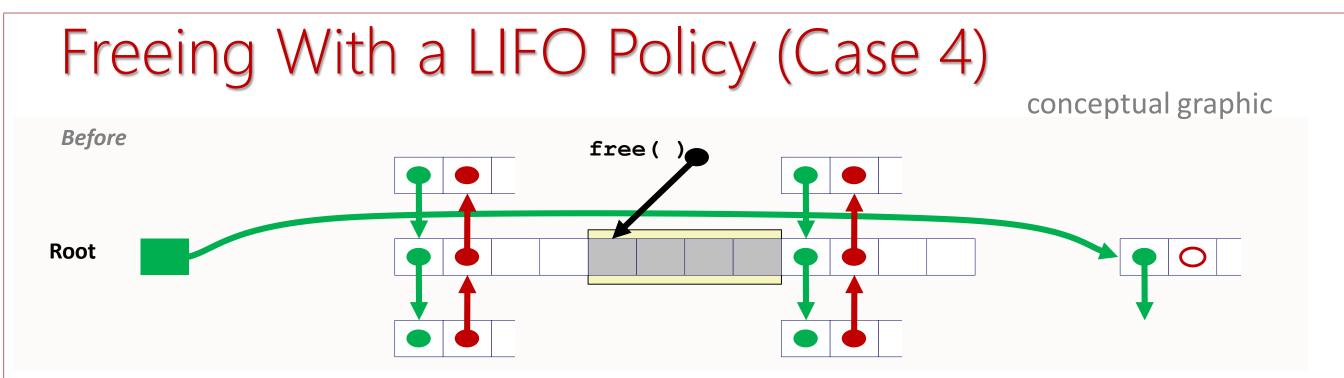




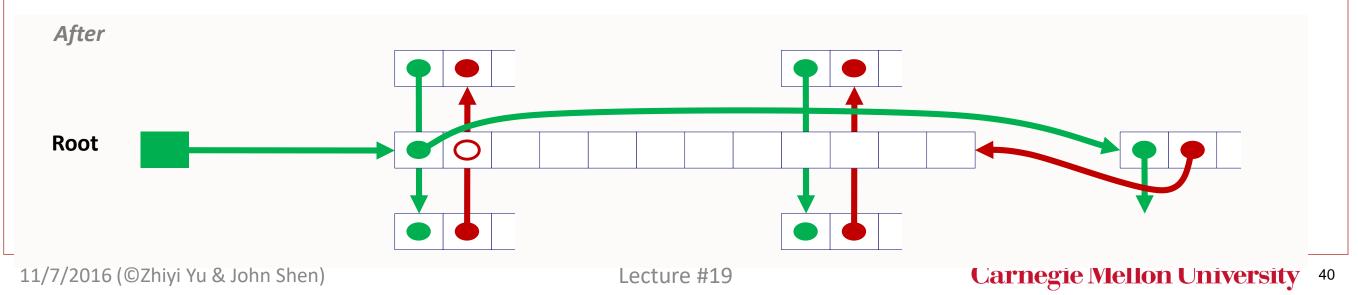


Splice out predecessor block, coalesce both memory blocks, and insert the new block at the root of the list





Splice out predecessor and successor blocks, coalesce all 3 memory blocks and insert the new block at the root of the list



Explicit List Summary

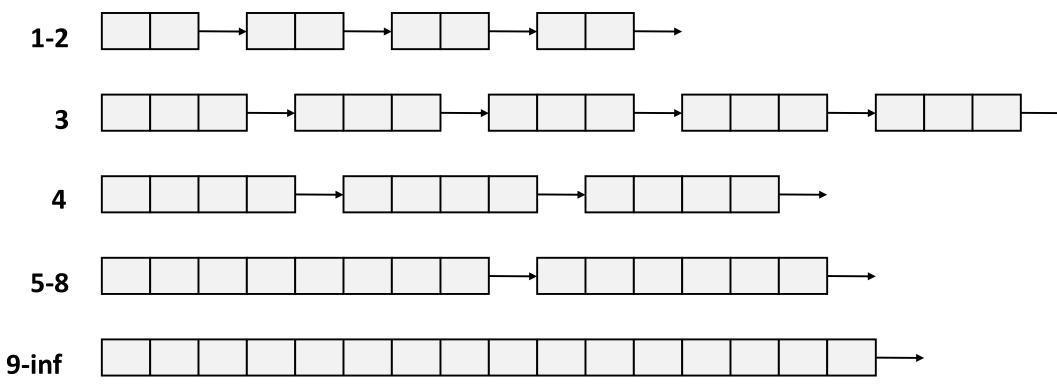
- Comparison to implicit list:
 - Allocate is linear time in number of *free* blocks instead of *all* blocks
 - *Much faster* when most of the memory is full
 - Slightly more complicated allocate and free since needs to splice blocks in and out of the list
 - Some extra space for the links (2 extra words needed for each block)
 - Does this increase internal fragmentation?
- Most common use of linked lists is in conjunction with segregated free lists
 - Keep multiple linked lists of different size classes, or possibly for different types of objects

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Segregated List (Seglist) Allocators

• Each *size class* of blocks has its own free list



- Often have separate classes for each small size
- For larger sizes: One class for each two-power size

Seglist Allocator

- Given an array of free lists, each one for some size class
- To allocate a block of size *n*:
 - Search appropriate free list for block of size *m* > *n*
 - If an appropriate block is found:
 - Split block and place fragment on appropriate list (optional)
 - If no block is found, try next larger class
 - Repeat until block is found
- If no block is found:
 - Request additional heap memory from OS (using **sbrk()**)
 - Allocate block of *n* bytes from this new memory
 - Place remainder as a single free block in largest size class.

Seglist Allocator (cont.)

- To free a block:
 - Coalesce and place on appropriate list
- Advantages of seglist allocators
 - Higher throughput
 - log time for power-of-two size classes
 - Better memory utilization
 - First-fit search of segregated free list approximates a best-fit search of entire heap.
 - Extreme case: Giving each block its own size class is equivalent to best-fit.

More Info on Allocators

• D. Knuth, "The Art of Computer Programming", 2nd edition, Addison Wesley, 1973

- The classic reference on dynamic storage allocation
- Wilson et al, "*Dynamic Storage Allocation: A Survey and Critical Review*", Proc. 1995 Int'l Workshop on Memory Management, Kinross, Scotland, Sept, 1995.
 - Comprehensive survey
 - Available from CS:APP student site (csapp.cs.cmu.edu)

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Implicit Memory Management: Garbage Collection

 Garbage collection: automatic reclamation of heap-allocated storage application never has to free

```
void foo() {
    int *p = malloc(128);
    return; /* p block is now garbage */
}
```

• Common in many dynamic languages:

- Python, Ruby, Java, Perl, ML, Lisp, Mathematica
- Variants ("conservative" garbage collectors) exist for C and C++
 - However, cannot necessarily collect all garbage

Garbage Collection

- How does the memory manager know when memory can be freed?
 - In general we cannot know what is going to be used in the future since it depends on conditionals
 - But we can tell that certain blocks cannot be used if there are no pointers to them
- Must make certain assumptions about pointers
 - Memory manager can distinguish pointers from non-pointers
 - All pointers point to the start of a block
 - Cannot hide pointers

 (e.g., by coercing them to an int, and then back again)

Classical GC Algorithms

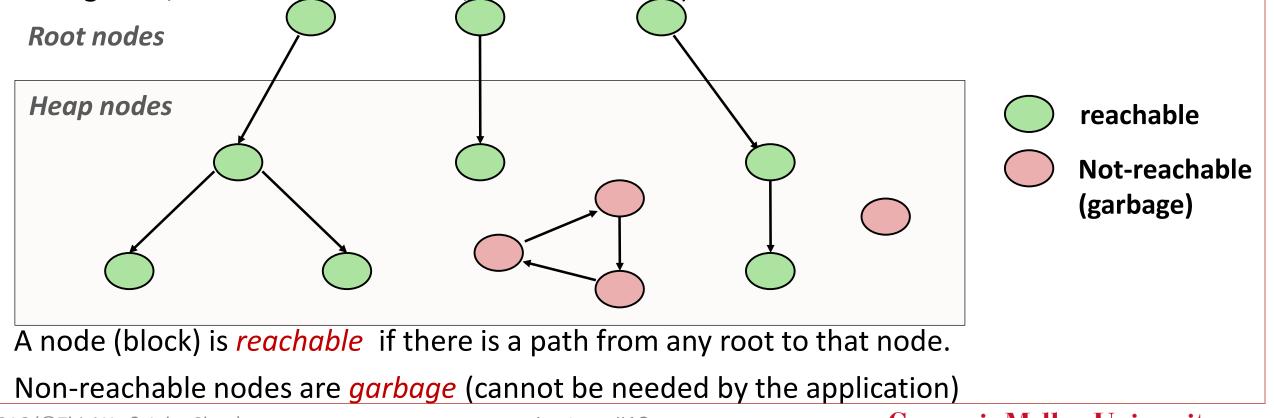
- Mark-and-sweep collection (McCarthy, 1960)
 - Does not move blocks (unless you also "compact")
- Reference counting (Collins, 1960)
 - Does not move blocks (not discussed)
- Copying collection (Minsky, 1963)
 - Moves blocks (not discussed)
- Generational Collectors (Lieberman and Hewitt, 1983)
 - Collection based on lifetimes
 - Most allocations become garbage very soon
 - So focus reclamation work on zones of memory recently allocated
- For more information:

Jones and Lin, "Garbage Collection: Algorithms for Automatic Dynamic Memory", John Wiley & Sons, 1996.

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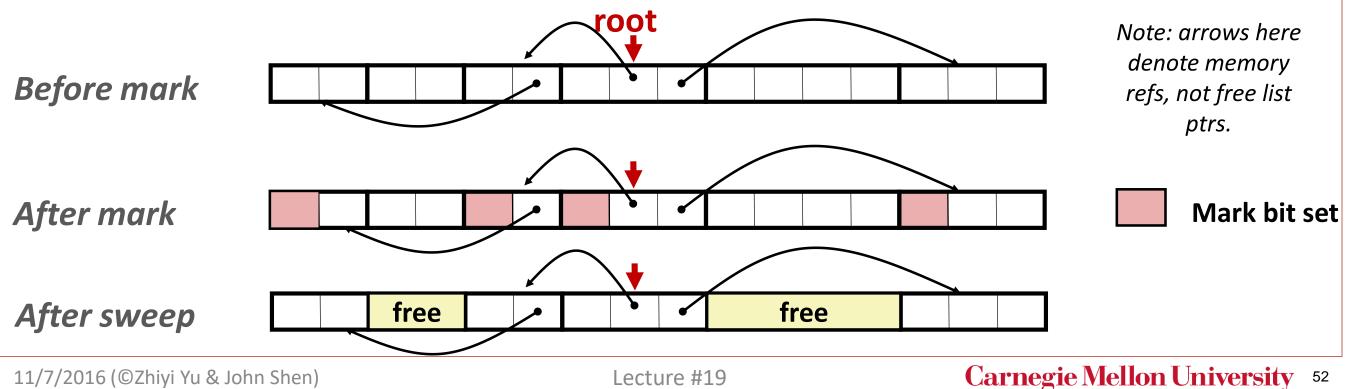
Memory as a Graph

- We view memory as a directed graph
 - Each block is a node in the graph
 - Each pointer is an edge in the graph
 - Locations not in the heap that contain pointers into the heap are called *root* nodes (e.g. registers, locations on the stack, global variables)



Mark and Sweep Collecting

- Can build on top of malloc/free package
 - Allocate using malloc until you "run out of space"
- When out of space:
 - Use extra *mark bit* in the head of each block
 - Mark: Start at roots and set mark bit on each reachable block
 - Sweep: Scan all blocks and free blocks that are not marked



Assumptions For a Simple Implementation

- Application
 - **new(n):** returns pointer to new block with all locations cleared
 - read(b,i): read location i of block b into register
 - write (b,i,v): write v into location i of block b
- Each block will have a header word
 - addressed as b[-1], for a block b
 - Used for different purposes in different collectors
- Instructions used by the Garbage Collector
 - **is_ptr(p)**: determines whether **p** is a pointer
 - length (b): returns the length of block b, not including the header
 - get_roots(): returns all the roots

Mark and Sweep (cont.)

Mark using depth-first traversal of the memory graph

```
ptr mark(ptr p) {
   if (!is ptr(p)) return; // do nothing if not pointer
   if (markBitSet(p)) return; // check if already marked
  setMarkBit(p);
   for (i=0; i < length(p); i++) // call mark on all words</pre>
    mark(p[i]);
  return;
```

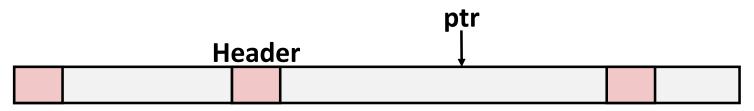
```
// set the mark bit
        // in the block
```

Sweep using lengths to find next block

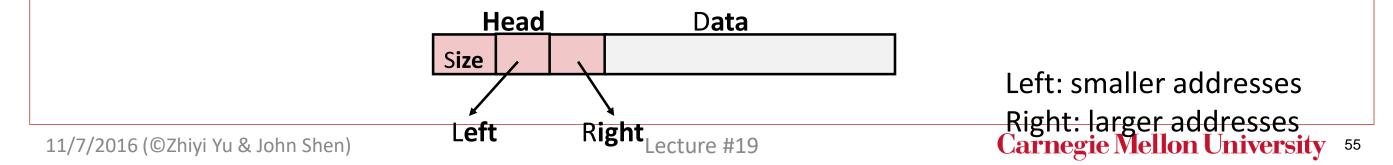
```
ptr sweep(ptr p, ptr end) {
   while (p < end) {
      if markBitSet(p)
         clearMarkBit();
      else if (allocateBitSet(p))
         free(p);
      p += length(p);
```

Conservative Mark & Sweep in C

- A "conservative garbage collector" for C programs
 - is_ptr() determines if a word is a pointer by checking if it points to an allocated block of memory
 - But, in C pointers can point to the middle of a block



- So how to find the beginning of the block?
 - Can use a balanced binary tree to keep track of all allocated blocks (key is start-of-block)
 - Balanced-tree pointers can be stored in header (use two additional words)



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Memory-Related Perils and Pitfalls

- Dereferencing bad pointers
- Reading uninitialized memory
- Overwriting memory
- Referencing nonexistent variables
- Freeing blocks multiple times
- Referencing freed blocks
- Failing to free blocks

C operators

<pre>Operators () [] -> . ! ~ ++ + - * & (type) sizeof * / % + - <<< >> < <= > >= </pre>	Associativity left to right right to left left to right left to right left to right left to right
== !=	left to right
&	left to right
\wedge	left to right
	left to right
& &	left to right
	left to right
?:	right to left
= += -= *= /= %= &= ^= != <<= >>=	right to left
/	left to right
-> () and [] have high precedence with * and	s. just helow

- ->, (), and [] have high precedence, with * and & just below
- Unary +, -, and * have higher precedence than binary forms

C Pointer Declarations: Test Yourself!

p is a pointer to int int *p p is an array[13] of pointer to int int *p[13] p is an array[13] of pointer to int int *(p[13]) p is a pointer to a pointer to an int int **p p is a pointer to an array[13] of int int (*p)[13] f is a function returning a pointer to int int *f() f is a pointer to a function returning int int (*f)() f is a function returning ptr to an array[13] int (*(*f())[13])() of pointers to functions returning int x is an array[3] of pointers to functions int (*(*x[3])())[5] returning pointers to array[5] of ints

Dereferencing Bad Pointers

• The classic scanf bug (val need to be an address)

```
int val;
...
scanf(``%d", val);
```

Reading Uninitialized Memory

• Assuming that heap data is initialized to zero

```
/* return y = Ax */
int *matvec(int **A, int *x) {
   int *y = malloc(N*sizeof(int));
   int i, j;
   for (i=0; i<N; i++)
      for (j=0; j<N; j++)
         y[i] += A[i][j] * x[j];
   return y;
```

Allocating the (possibly) wrong sized object (should be *int)

```
int **p;
p = malloc(N*sizeof(int));
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
    p[i] = malloc(M*sizeof(int));
}
```

• Off-by-one error (should be N+1)

```
int **p;
p = malloc(N*sizeof(int *));
for (i=0; i<=N; i++) {
    p[i] = malloc(M*sizeof(int));
}
```

• Not checking the max string size

```
char s[8];
int i;
```

```
gets(s); /* reads "123456789" from stdin */
```

• Basis for classic buffer overflow attacks

• Misunderstanding pointer arithmetic

```
int *search(int *p, int val) {
  while (*p && *p != val)
    p += sizeof(int);
  return p;
}
```

• Referencing a pointer instead of the object it points to

```
int *BinheapDelete(int **binheap, int *size) {
    int *packet;
    packet = binheap[0];
    binheap[0] = binheap[*size - 1];
    *size--;
    Heapify(binheap, *size, 0);
    return(packet);
}
```

Referencing Nonexistent Variables

• Forgetting that local variables disappear when a function returns

```
int *foo () {
    int val;
    return &val;
}
```

Freeing Blocks Multiple Times

• Nasty!

```
y = malloc(M*sizeof(int));
        <manipulate y>
free(x);
```

Referencing Freed Blocks

• Evil!

Failing to Free Blocks (Memory Leaks)

• Slow, long-term killer!

```
foo() {
    int *x = malloc(N*sizeof(int));
    ...
    return;
}
```

Failing to Free Blocks (Memory Leaks)

• Freeing only part of a data structure

```
struct list {
   int val;
   struct list *next;
};
foo() {
   struct list *head = malloc(sizeof(struct list));
   head \rightarrow val = 0;
   head->next = NULL;
   <create and manipulate the rest of the list>
    . . .
   free(head);
   return;
```

Dealing With Memory Bugs

- Debugger: gdb
 - Good for finding bad pointer dereferences
 - Hard to detect the other memory bugs
- Data structure consistency checker
 - Runs silently, prints message only on error
 - Use as a probe to zero in on error
- Binary translator: valgrind
 - Powerful debugging and analysis technique
 - Rewrites text section of executable object file
 - Checks each individual reference at runtime
 - Bad pointers, overwrites, refs outside of allocated block
- glibc malloc contains checking code
 - setenv MALLOC_CHECK_ 3

18-600 Foundations of Computer Systems

Lecture 20: "Overview of Parallel Architectures"

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