

Memory Allocation I

CSE 351 Winter 2020

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WHEN WILL WE FORGET?

BASED ON US CENSUS BUREAU
NATIONAL POPULATION PROJECTIONS

ASSUMING WE DON'T REMEMBER CULTURAL
EVENTS FROM BEFORE AGE 5 OR 6

BY THIS YEAR:	THE MAJORITY OF AMERICANS WILL BE TOO YOUNG TO REMEMBER:
2016	RETURN OF THE JEDI RELEASE
2017	THE FIRST APPLE MACINTOSH
2018	NEW COKE
2019	CHALLENGER
2020	CHERNOBYL
2021	BLACK MONDAY
2022	THE REAGAN PRESIDENCY
2023	THE BERLIN WALL
2024	HAMMERTIME
2025	THE SOVIET UNION
2026	THE LA RIOTS
2027	LORENA BOBBITT
2028	THE FORREST GUMP RELEASE
2029	THE RWANDAN GENOCIDE
2030	OT SIMPSON'S TRIAL
2038	A TIME BEFORE FACEBOOK
2039	VH1'S I LOVE THE 90s
2040	HURRICANE KATRINA
2041	THE PLANET PLUTO
2042	THE FIRST iPhone
2047	ANYTHING EMBARRASSING YOU DO TODAY

Adapted from

<https://xkcd.com/1093/>

Administrivia

- ❖ Section on 3/05 – Lab 5! Bringing laptop may be useful
- ❖ hw20 due Friday (3/06)
- ❖ hw21 due Monday (3/09)
- ❖ hw22 due Wednesday (3/11) – Do EARLY, will help with Lab 5
- ❖ Lab 5 (on Mem Alloc) due the last day of class (3/13)
 - The most significant amount of C programming you will do in this class – combines lots of topics from this class: pointers, bit manipulation, structs, examining memory
 - Understanding the concepts *first* and efficient *debugging* will save you lots of time
 - Can be submitted at most ONE day late. (Sun 3/15)

Roadmap

C:

```
car *c = malloc(sizeof(car));
c->miles = 100;
c->gals = 17;
float mpg = get_mpg(c);
free(c);
```

Java:

```
Car c = new Car();
c.setMiles(100);
c.setGals(17);
float mpg =
    c.getMPG();
```

- Memory & data
- Integers & floats
- x86 assembly
- Procedures & stacks
- Executables
- Arrays & structs
- Memory & caches
- Processes
- Virtual memory
- Memory allocation**
- Java vs. C

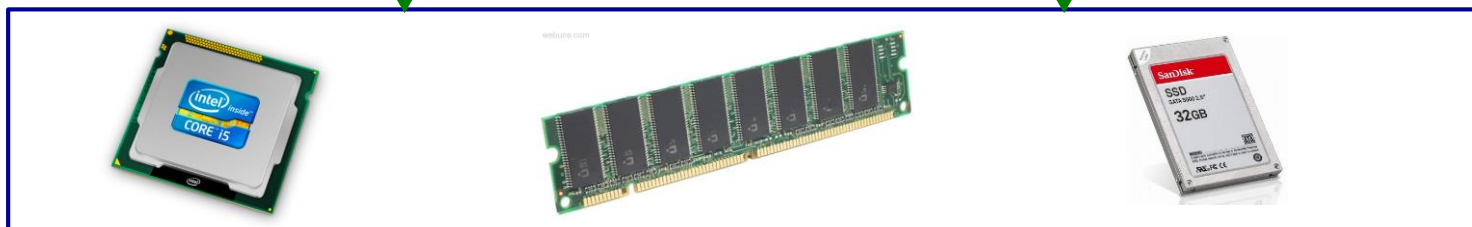
Assembly language:

```
get_mpg:
    pushq    %rbp
    movq    %rsp, %rbp
    ...
    popq    %rbp
    ret
```

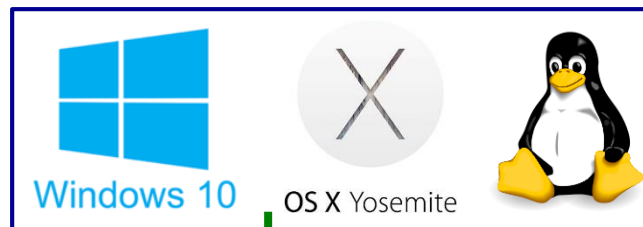
Machine code:

```
0111010000011000
100011010000010000000010
1000100111000010
110000011111101000011111
```

Computer system:



OS:



Multiple Ways to Store Program Data

❖ Static global data

- *Fixed size* at compile-time
- Entire *lifetime of the program* (loaded from executable)
- Portion is read-only (*e.g.* string literals)

❖ Stack-allocated data

- Local/temporary variables
 - *Can* be dynamically sized (in some versions of C)
- *Known lifetime* (deallocated on `return`)

❖ **Dynamic (heap) data**

- Size known only at runtime (*i.e.* based on user-input)
- Lifetime known only at runtime (long-lived data structures)

```
int array[1024];

void foo(int n) {
    int tmp;
    int local_array[n];

    int* dyn =
        (int*)malloc(n*sizeof(int));
}
```

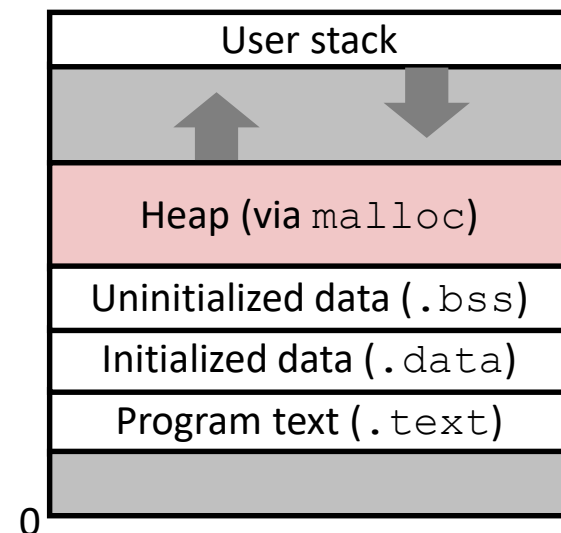
Memory Allocation

- ❖ **Dynamic memory allocation**
 - Introduction and goals
 - Allocation and deallocation (free)
 - Fragmentation
- ❖ Explicit allocation implementation
 - Implicit free lists
 - Explicit free lists (Lab 5)
 - Segregated free lists
- ❖ Implicit deallocation: garbage collection
- ❖ Common memory-related bugs in C

Dynamic Memory Allocation

❖ Programmers use **dynamic memory allocators** to acquire virtual memory at run time

- For data structures whose size (or lifetime) is known only at runtime
- Manage the heap of a process' virtual memory:

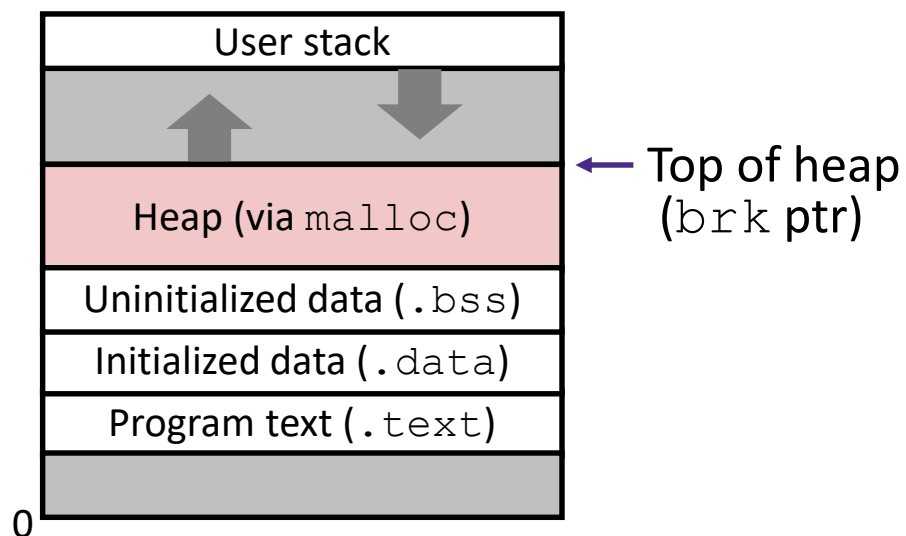


❖ Types of allocators

- **Explicit allocator:** programmer allocates and frees space
 - Example: `malloc` and `free` in C
- **Implicit allocator:** programmer only allocates space (no free)
 - Example: garbage collection in Java, Caml, and Lisp

Dynamic Memory Allocation

- ❖ Allocator organizes heap as a collection of variable-sized *blocks*, which are either *allocated* or *free*
 - Allocator requests pages in the heap region; virtual memory hardware and OS kernel allocate these pages to the process
 - Application objects are typically smaller than pages, so the allocator manages blocks *within* pages
 - (Larger objects handled too; ignored here)



Allocating Memory in C

- ❖ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>`
- ❖ `void* malloc(size_t size)`
 - Allocates a continuous block of `size` bytes of uninitialized memory
 - Returns a pointer to the beginning of the allocated block; `NULL` indicates failed request
 - Typically aligned to an 8-byte (x86) or 16-byte (x86-64) boundary
 - Returns `NULL` if allocation failed (also sets `errno`) or `size==0`
 - Different blocks not necessarily adjacent
- ❖ Good practices:
 - `ptr = (int*) malloc(n*sizeof(int));`
 - `sizeof` makes code more portable
 - `void*` is implicitly cast into any pointer type; explicit typecast will help you catch coding errors when pointer types don't match

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 - Different blocks not necessarily adjacent
- ❖ Related functions:
 - `void* calloc(size_t nitems, size_t size)`
 - “Zeros out” allocated block
 - `void* realloc(void* ptr, size_t size)`
 - Changes the size of a previously allocated block (if possible)
 - `void* sbrk(intptr_t increment)`
 - Used internally by allocators to grow or shrink the heap

Freeing Memory in C

- ❖ Need to `#include <stdlib.h>`
- ❖ `void free(void* p)`
 - Releases whole block pointed to by `p` to the pool of available memory
 - Pointer `p` must be the address *originally* returned by `m/c/realloc` (*i.e.* beginning of the block), otherwise system exception raised
 - Don't call `free` on a block that has already been released or on `NULL`

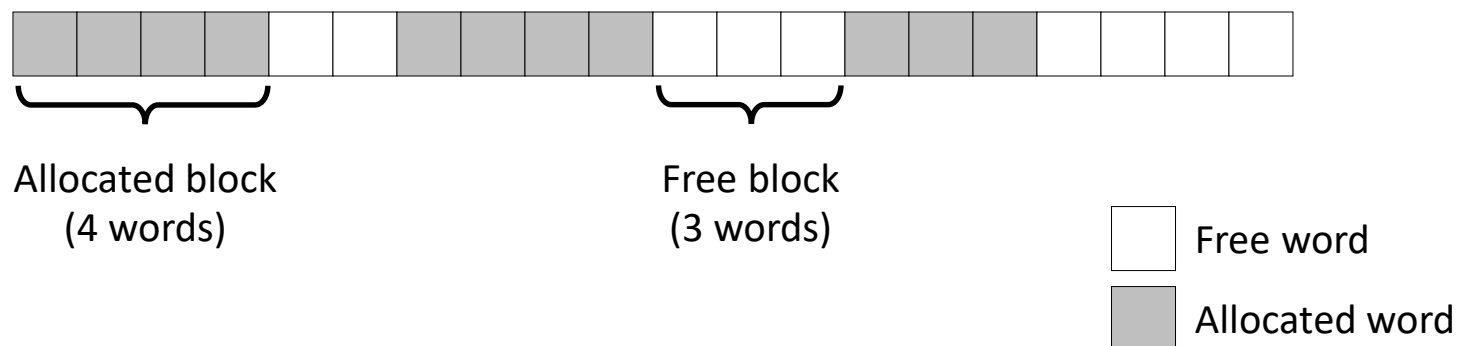
Memory Allocation Example in C

```
void foo(int n, int m) {
    int i, *p;
    p = (int*) malloc(n*sizeof(int)); /* allocate block of n ints */
    if (p == NULL) {                 /* check for allocation error */
        perror("malloc");
        exit(0);
    }
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)               /* initialize int array */
        p[i] = i;
    /* add space for m ints to end of p block */
    p = (int*) realloc(p, (n+m)*sizeof(int));
    if (p == NULL) {                 /* check for allocation error */
        perror("realloc");
        exit(0);
    }
    for (i=n; i < n+m; i++)          /* initialize new spaces */
        p[i] = i;
    for (i=0; i<n+m; i++)            /* print new array */
        printf("%d\n", p[i]);
    free(p);                          /* free p */
}
```


Notation

□ = 1 word = 8 bytes

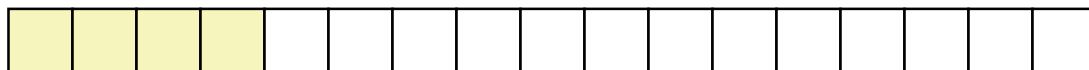
- ❖ We will draw memory divided into *words*
 - Each *word* is 64 bits = 8 bytes
 - Allocations will be in sizes that are a multiple of boxes (*i.e.* multiples of 8 bytes)
 - Book and old videos still use 4-byte *word*
 - Holdover from 32-bit version of textbook 😞



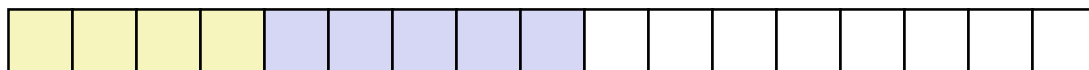
Allocation Example

 = 8-byte word

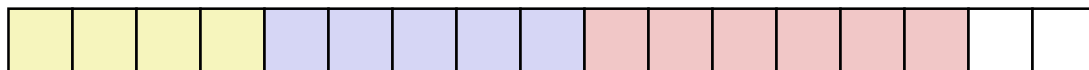
`p1 = malloc(32)`



`p2 = malloc(40)`



`p3 = malloc(48)`



`free(p2)`



`p4 = malloc(16)`



Implementation Interface

❖ Applications

- Can issue arbitrary sequence of `malloc` and `free` requests
- Must never access memory not currently allocated
- Must never free memory not currently allocated
 - Also must only use `free` with previously `malloc`'ed blocks

❖ Allocators

- Can't control number or size of allocated blocks
- Must respond immediately to `malloc`
- Must allocate blocks from free memory
- Must align blocks so they satisfy all alignment requirements
- Can't move the allocated blocks

Performance Goals

- ❖ **Goals:** Given some sequence of `malloc` and `free` requests $R_0, R_1, \dots, R_k, \dots, R_{n-1}$, maximize **throughput** and **peak memory utilization**
 - These goals are often conflicting

1) Throughput

- Number of completed requests per unit time
- Example:
 - If 5,000 `malloc` calls and 5,000 `free` calls completed in 10 seconds, then throughput is 1,000 operations/second

Performance Goals

- ❖ Definition: *Aggregate payload* P_k
 - `malloc(p)` results in a block with a *payload* of p bytes
 - After request R_k has completed, the *aggregate payload* P_k is the sum of currently allocated payloads
- ❖ Definition: *Current heap size* H_k
 - Assume H_k is monotonically non-decreasing
 - Allocator can increase size of heap using `sbrk`

2) Peak Memory Utilization

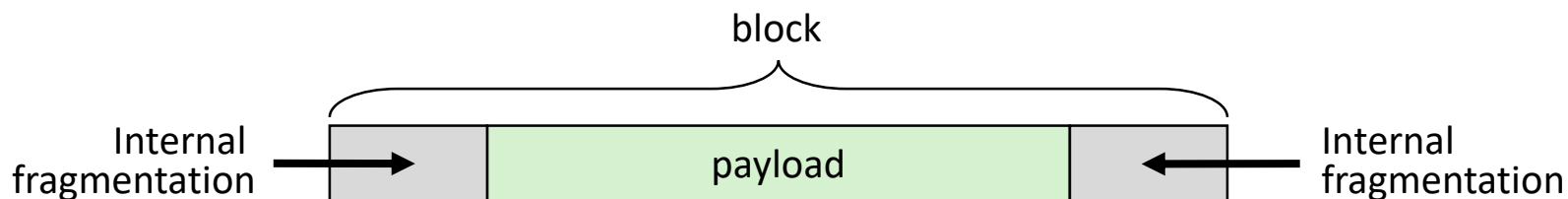
- Defined as $U_k = (\max_{i \leq k} P_i) / H_k$ after $k+1$ requests
- Goal: maximize utilization for a sequence of requests
- **Why is this hard? And what happens to throughput?**

Fragmentation

- ❖ Poor memory utilization is caused by *fragmentation*
 - Sections of memory are not used to store anything useful, but cannot satisfy allocation requests
 - Two types: *internal* and *external*
- ❖ **Recall:** Fragmentation in structs
 - Internal fragmentation was wasted space *inside* of the struct (between fields) due to alignment
 - External fragmentation was wasted space *between* struct instances (*e.g.* in an array) due to alignment
- ❖ Now referring to wasted space in the heap *inside* or *between* allocated blocks

Internal Fragmentation

- ❖ For a given block, *internal fragmentation* occurs if payload is smaller than the block



- ❖ **Causes:**

- Padding for alignment purposes
 - Overhead of maintaining heap data structures (inside block, outside payload)
 - Explicit policy decisions (*e.g.* return a big block to satisfy a small request)
- ❖ Easy to measure because only depends on past requests

External Fragmentation

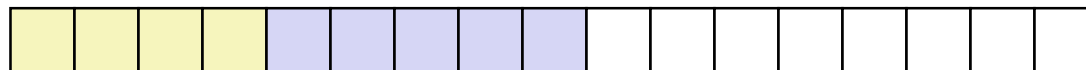
□ = 8-byte word

- ❖ For the heap, *external fragmentation* occurs when allocation/free pattern leaves “holes” between blocks
 - That is, the aggregate payload is non-continuous
 - Can cause situations where there is enough aggregate heap memory to satisfy request, but no single free block is large enough

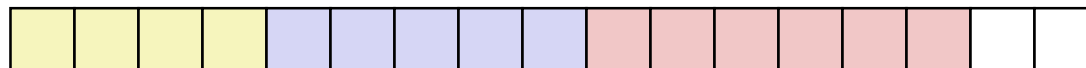
```
p1 = malloc(32)
```



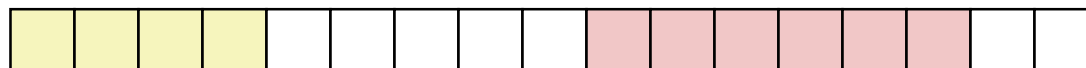
```
p2 = malloc(40)
```



```
p3 = malloc(48)
```



```
free(p2)
```



```
p4 = malloc(48)
```

Oh no! (What would happen now?)

- ❖ Don't know what future requests will be
 - Difficult to impossible to know if past placements will become problematic

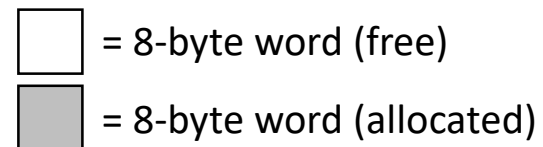
Polling Question

- ❖ Which of the following statements is FALSE?
 - Vote at <http://pollev.com/rea>
 - A. Temporary arrays should *not* be allocated on the Heap**
 - B. `malloc` returns an address of a block that is filled with garbage**
 - C. Peak memory utilization is a measure of both internal and external fragmentation**
 - D. An allocation failure will cause your program to stop**
 - E. We're lost...**

Implementation Issues

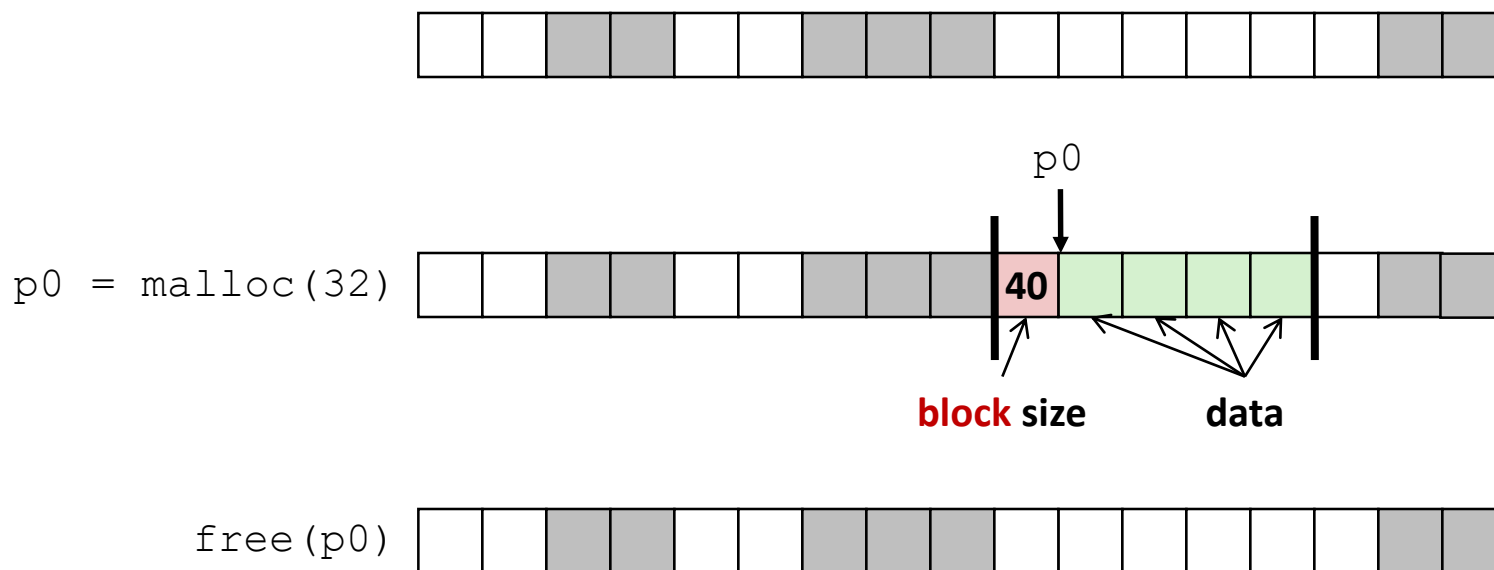
- ❖ How do we know how much memory to free given just a pointer?
- ❖ How do we keep track of the free blocks?
- ❖ How do we pick a block to use for allocation (when many might fit)?
- ❖ What do we do with the extra space when allocating a structure that is smaller than the free block it is placed in?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

Knowing How Much to Free

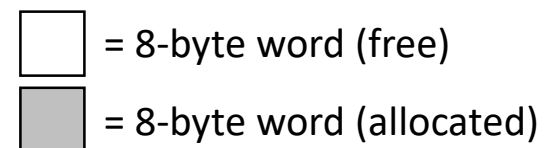


❖ Standard method

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

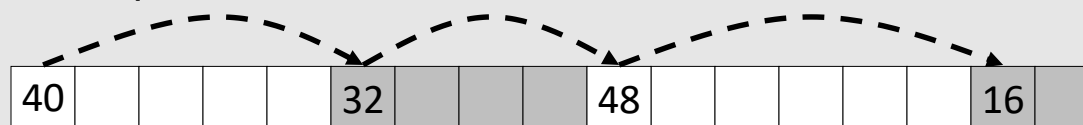


Keeping Track of Free Blocks

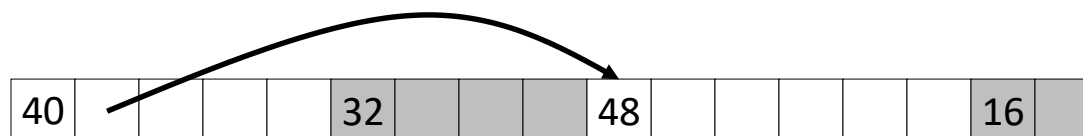


1) *Implicit free list* using length – links all blocks using math

- No actual pointers, and must check each block if allocated or free



2) *Explicit free list* among only the free blocks, using pointers



3) *Segregated free list*

- Different free lists for different size “classes”

4) *Blocks sorted by size*

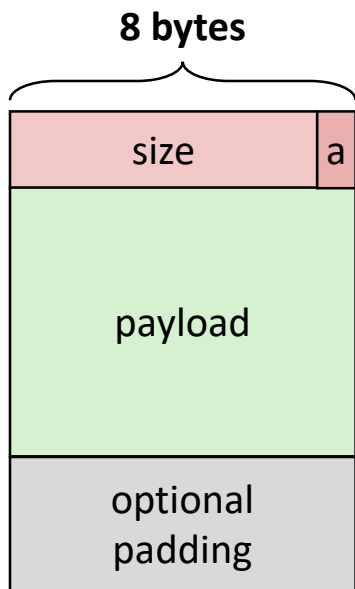
- Can use a balanced binary tree (e.g. red-black tree) with pointers within each free block, and the length used as a key

Implicit Free Lists

- ❖ For each block we need: **size, is-allocated?**
 - Could store using two words, but wasteful
- ❖ Standard trick
 - If blocks are aligned, some low-order bits of `size` are always 0
 - Use lowest bit as an allocated/free flag (fine as long as aligning to $K > 1$)
 - When reading `size`, must remember to mask out this bit!

e.g. with 8-byte alignment, possible values for size:
 00001000 = 8 bytes
 00010000 = 16 bytes
 00011000 = 24 bytes
 ...

Format of allocated and free blocks:



a = 1: allocated block
a = 0: free block

size: block size (in bytes)

payload: application data (allocated blocks only)

```
If x is first word (header):
x = size | a;
a = x & 1;
size = x & ~1;
```