Memory Management

run

Dynamic Memory Allocation

- Lots of things need memory at runtime:
 - Activation records (for each function calls).
 - Objects
 - Explicit allocations: new, malloc, etc.
 - Implicit allocations: strings, file buffers, arrays with dynamically varying size, etc.
- Language systems provide an important hidden player: runtime memory management

C++ (memory allocation)

Outline

- □ 14.2 Memory model using Java arrays
- □ 14.3 Stacks
- □ 14.4 Heaps
- □ 14.5 Current heap links
- □ 14.5 Garbage collection

Memory Model

- □ For now, assume that the OS grants each running program one or more fixed-size regions of memory for dynamic allocation
- We will model these regions as Java arrays
 - To see examples of memory management code
 - And, for practice with Java

Declaring An Array

☐ A Java array declaration:

```
int[] a = null;
```

- Array types are reference types—an array is really an object, with a little special syntax
- ☐ The variable **a** above is initialized to **null**
- It can hold a reference to an array of int values, but does not yet

Creating An Array

☐ Use **new** to create an array object:

```
int[] a = null;
a = new int[100];
```

We could have done it with one declaration statement, like this:

```
int[] a = new int[100];
```

Using An Array

```
int i = 0;
while (i<a.length) {
    a[i] = 5;
    i++;
}</pre>
```

- Use a[i] to refer to an element (as Ivalue or rvalue): a is an array reference expression and i is an int expression
- Use a.length to access length
- □ Array indexes are 0..(a.length-1)

```
Jours index storm &
```

Memory Managers In Java

```
public class MemoryManager {
  private int[] memory;
  /**
   * MemoryManager constructor.
   * @param initialMemory int[] of memory to manage
   */
  public MemoryManager(int[] initialMemory) {
    memory = initialMemory;
                    We will show Java implementations
                    this way. The initial Memory
                    array is the memory region provided
                    by the operating system.
```

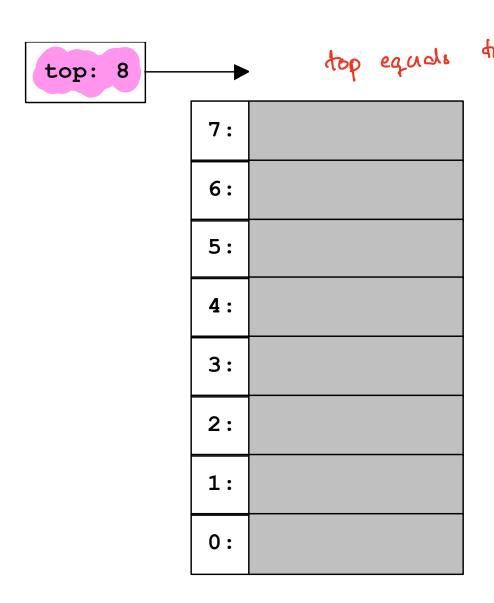
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Stacks Of Activation Records

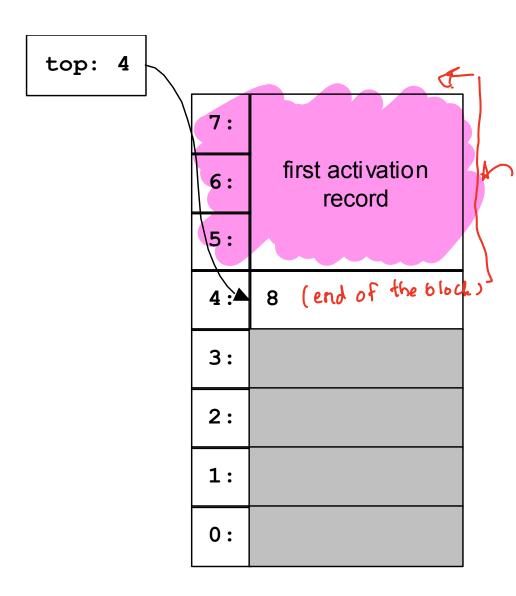
- For almost all languages, activation records must be allocated dynamically
- ☐ For many, it suffices to allocate on call and deallocate on return
- □ This produces a stack of activation records: push on call, pop on return
- A simple memory management problem

A Stack Illustration

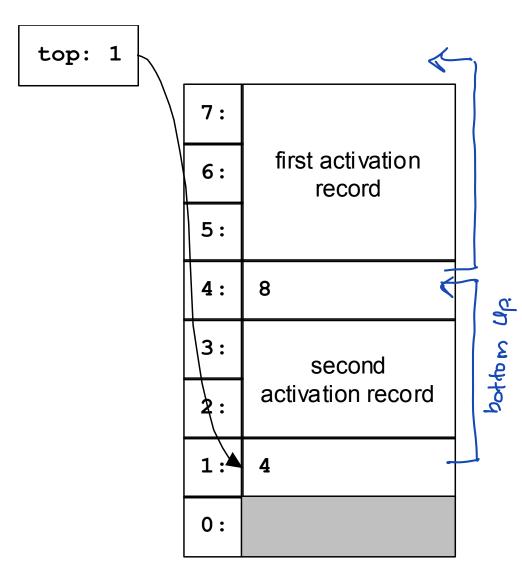


to length of array -, stack is empty.

An empty stack of 8 words. The stack will grow down, from high addresses to lower addresses. A reserved memory location (perhaps a register) records the address of the lowest allocated word.



The program calls m.push (3), which returns 5: the address of the first of the 3 words allocated for an activation record. Memory management uses an extra word to record the previous value of top.



The program calls m.push (2), which returns 2: the address of the first of the 2 words allocated for an activation record. The stack is now full—there is not room even for m.push (1).

For m.pop(), just do
top = memory[top]
to return to previous
configuration.

A Java Stack Implementation

```
public class StackManager {
  private int[] memory; // the memory we manage
  private int top; // index of top stack block
  /**
   * StackManager constructor.
   * @param initialMemory int[] of memory to manage
   */
  public StackManager(int[] initialMemory) {
    memory = initialMemory;
    top = memory.length;
```

```
/**
 * Allocate a block and return its address.
 * @param requestSize int size of block, > 0
 * @return block address
 * @throws StackOverflowError if out of stack space
 * /
public int push(int requestSize) {
  int oldtop = top;
  top -= (requestSize+1); // extra word for oldtop
  if (top<0) throw new StackOverflowError();</pre>
  memory[top] = oldtop;
  return top+1;
                        The throw statement and
                        exception handling are introduced
                        in Chapter 17.
```

```
/**
 * Pop the top stack frame. This works only if the
 * stack is not empty.
 */
public void pop() {
  top = memory[top];
}
```

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The Heap Problem

- □ Stack order makes implementation easy
- Not always possible: what if allocations and deallocations can come in any order?
- □ A heap is a pool of blocks of memory, with an interface for unordered runtime memory allocation and deallocation
- □ There are many mechanisms for this...

First Fit

- A linked list of free blocks, initially containing one big free block
- ☐ To allocate:
 - Search free list for first adequate block
- (seach from start)
 - If there is extra space in the block, return the unused portion at the upper end to the free list
 - Allocate requested portion (at the lower end)
- □ To free, just add to the front of the free list

Heap Illustration

A heap manager **m** with a memory array of 10 words, initially empty.

The link to the head of the free list is held in **freeStart**.

Every block, allocated or free, has its length in its first word.

Free blocks have free-list link in their second word, or -1 at the end of the free list.

	9:					
	8:					
	7:					
	6:					
	5:					
	4:					
	3:					
	2:					
	1:	-1	(nothing here)			
	0 :▶	10	(size)			
<u>-</u> >4	>4?					

p1=m.allocate(4);

p1 will be 1—the address of the first of four allocated words.

An extra word holds the block length.

Remainder of the big free block was returned to the free list.

7: 6: -1 5: 5 3: first allocated block 2: 1: 0:

9:

8:

3) Update free Start.

(3) Update & fixed.

p1=m.allocate(4);
p2=m.allocate(2);

p2 will be 6—the address of the first of two allocated words.

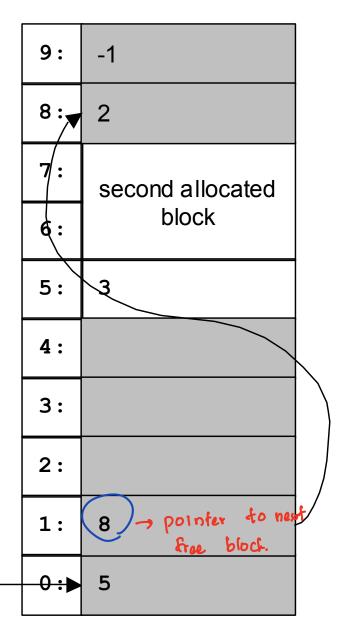
An extra word holds the block length.

Remainder of the free block was returned to the free list.

9: -1 8: 2 second allocated block 6: 3 (9171) 5: 4: 3: first allocated block 2: 1: (917 () 0: 5

```
p1=m.allocate(4);
p2=m.allocate(2);
m.deallocate(p1);
```

Deallocates the first allocated block. It returns to the head of the free list.



```
p1=m.allocate(4);
p2=m.allocate(2);
m.deallocate(p1);
p3=m.allocate(1);
```

p3 will be 1—the address of the allocated word.

Notice that there were two suitable blocks. The other one would have been an exact fit. (Best Fit is another possible mechanism.)

9:	-1	
8:	2	
6:	second allocated block	
5:	3	
4:		
3:	8	
2;	3	
1 :	third allocated block	

A Java Heap Implementation

```
public class HeapManager {
  static private final int NULL = -1; // null link
  public int[] memory; // the memory we manage
  private int freeStart; // start of the free list
  /**
   * HeapManager constructor.
   * @param initialMemory int[] of memory to manage
   */
  public HeapManager(int[] initialMemory) {
    memory = initialMemory;
    memory[0] = memory.length; // one big free block
    memory[1] = NULL; // free list ends with it
    freeStart = 0; // free list starts with it
```

```
/**
 * Allocate a block and return its address.
 * @param requestSize int size of block, > 0
 * @return block address
 * @throws OutOfMemoryError if no block big enough
 */
public int allocate(int requestSize) {
  int size = requestSize + 1; // size with header
  // Do first-fit search: linear search of the free
  // list for the first block of sufficient size.
  int p = freeStart; // head of free list
  int lag = NULL;
  while (p!=NULL && memory[p]<size) {</pre>
    lag = p; // lag is previous p
    p = memory[p+1]; // link to next block
  if (p==NULL) // no block large enough
    throw new OutOfMemoryError();
  int nextFree = memory[p+1]; // block after p
```

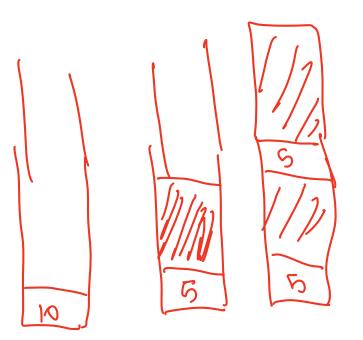
```
// Now p is the index of a block of sufficient size,
// and lag is the index of p's predecessor in the
// free list, or NULL, and nextFree is the index of
// p's successor in the free list, or NULL.
// If the block has more space than we need, carve
// out what we need from the front and return the
// unused end part to the free list.
int unused = memory[p]-size; // extra space
if (unused>1) { // if more than a header's worth
  nextFree = p+size; // index of the unused piece
 memory[nextFree] = unused; // fill in size
 memory[nextFree+1] = memory[p+1]; // fill in link
 memory[p] = size; // reduce p's size accordingly
// Link out the block we are allocating and done.
if (lag==NULL) freeStart = nextFree;
else memory[lag+1] = nextFree;
return p+1; // index of useable word (after header)
```

```
/**
 * Deallocate an allocated block. This works only if
 * the block address is one that was returned by
 * allocate and has not yet been deallocated.
 * @param address int address of the block
 */
public void deallocate(int address) {
  int addr = address-1;
  memory[addr+1] = freeStart;
  freeStart = addr;
```

A Problem

□ Consider this sequence:

```
p1=m.allocate(4);
p2=m.allocate(4);
m.deallocate(p1);
m.deallocate(p2);
p3=m.allocate(7);
```



- Final allocate will fail: we are breaking up large blocks but never reversing the process
- Need to *coalesce* adjacent free blocks

A Solution

- We can implement a smarter deallocate method:
 - Maintain the free list sorted in address order
 - When freeing, look at the previous free block
 and the next free block
 - If adjacent, coalesce
- ☐ This is a lot more work than just returning the block to the head of the free list...

```
/**
  * Deallocate an allocated block. This works only if
  * the block address is one that was returned by
  * allocate and has not yet been deallocated.
  * @param address int address of the block
  */
public void deallocate(int address) {
   int addr = address-1; // real start of the block
   // Find the insertion point in the sorted free list
   // for this block.
   int p = freeStart;
   int lag = NULL;
   while (p!=NULL && p<addr) {</pre>
     lag = p;
    p = memory[p+1];
```

```
// Now p is the index of the block to come after
// ours in the free list, or NULL, and lag is the
// index of the block to come before ours in the
// free list, or NULL.
// If the one to come after ours is adjacent to it,
// merge it into ours and restore the property
// described above.
if (addr+memory[addr]==p) {
 memory[addr] += memory[p]; // add its size to ours
 p = memory[p+1]; //
```

```
if (lag==NULL) { // ours will be first free
  freeStart = addr;
 memory[addr+1] = p;
}
else if (lag+memory[lag] == addr) { // block before is
                                // adjacent to ours
 memory[lag] += memory[addr]; // merge ours into it
 memory[lag+1] = p;
else { // neither: just a simple insertion
 memory[lag+1] = addr;
 memory[addr+1] = p;
```

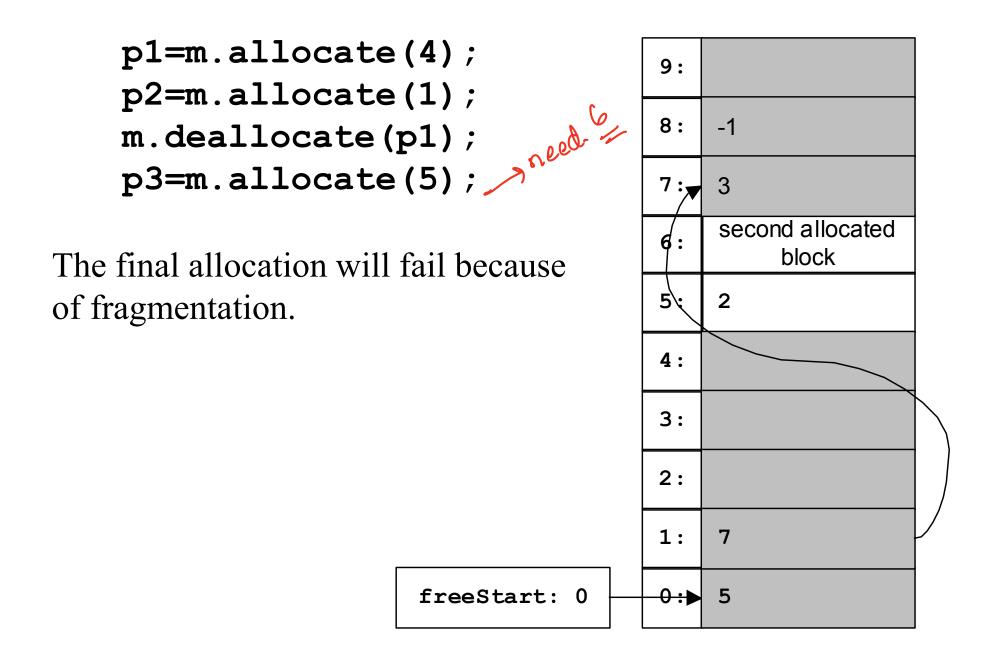
Quick Lists

- Small blocks tend to be allocated and deallocated much more frequently
- □ A common optimization: keep separate free lists for popular (small) block sizes
- □ On these *quick lists*, blocks are one size
- □ *Delayed coalescing*: free blocks on quick lists are not coalesced right away (but may have to be coalesced eventually)

```
do not cut, do not coalesed.
If large block comes, allocate on typical heaps.
```

Fragmentation

- When free regions are separated by allocated blocks, so that it is not possible to allocate all of free memory as one block
- □ More generally: any time a heap manager is unable to allocate memory even though free
 - If it allocated more than requested
 - If it does not coalesce adjacent free blocks
 - And so on...



Other Heap Mechanisms

- An amazing variety
- ☐ Three major issues: 3 Areas, Combine.
 - Placement—where to allocate a block (eg. first fit).
 - Splitting—when and how to split large blocks
 - Coalescing—when and how to recombine
- Many other refinements

Placement

·don't look at part

. Problem: when problem

■ Where to allocate a block

- habeen running a long. Eine.
 Benefit: good at the start.
- Our mechanism: first fit from FIFO free list
- □ Some mechanisms use a similar linked list of free blocks: first fit, best fit, next fit, etc.
- Some mechanisms use a more scalable data structure like a balanced binary tree

```
Search for the exact meth.

Benefit: do not out the block unnecessarily.

Problem: Takes time.
```

Splitting

- □ When and how to split large blocks
- Our mechanism: split to requested size
- □ Sometimes you get better results with less splitting—just allocate more than requested
- A common example: rounding up allocation size to some multiple
 - blocks can be equal size.
 (distributed equally)
 - · Opkind tescult.
 - . Con be almost used up memory.

Coalescing

- When and how to recombine adjacent free blocks
- ☐ We saw several varieties:
 - No coalescing
 - Eager coalescing
 - Delayed coalescing (as with quick lists)

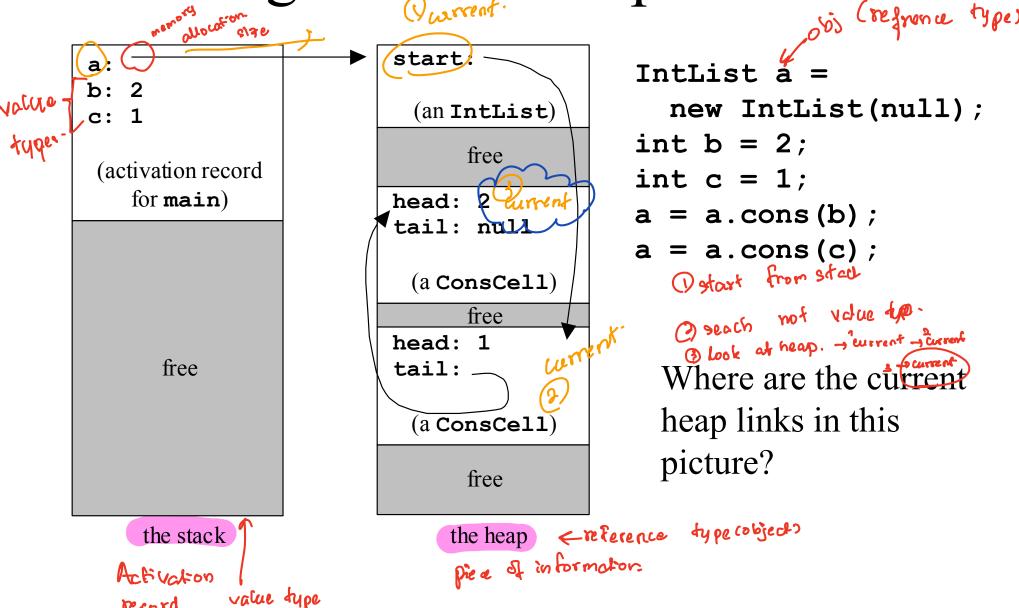
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Current Heap Links

- □ So far, the running program is a black box: a source of allocations and deallocations
- □ What does the running program do with addresses allocated to it?
- Some systems track current heap links
- □ A *current heap link* is a memory location where a value is stored that the running program will use as a heap address

Tracing Current Heap Links



Chapter Fourteen

To Find Current Heap Links

- □ Start with the *root set*: memory locations outside of the heap with links into the heap
 - Active activation records (if on the stack)
 - Static variables, etc.
- □ For each memory location in the set, look at the allocated block it points to, and add all the memory locations in that block
- Repeat until no new locations are found

Discarding Impossible Links

- Depending on the language and implementation, we may be able to discard some locations from the set:
 - If they do not point into allocated heap blocks
 - If they do not point to allocated heap blocks
 - (Java, but not C)

 If their dynamic type rules out use as heap links
 - If their static type rules out use as heap links (Java, but not C) & if value type

Errors In Current Heap Links

4 most chitical one.

- Exclusion errors: a memory location that actually is a current heap link is left out
- Unused inclusion errors: a memory location is included, but the program never actually uses the value stored there
- □ *Used inclusion errors*: a memory location is included, but the program uses the value stored there as something other than a heap address—as an integer, for example



Errors Are Unavoidable

- ☐ For heap manager purposes, exclusion errors are unacceptable
- We must include a location if it *might* be used as a heap link
- ☐ This makes unused inclusion errors unavoidable
- Depending on the language, used inclusions may also be unavoidable



Used Inclusion Errors In C

- Static type and runtime value may be of no use in telling how a value will be used
- □ Variable **x** may be used either as a pointer or as an array of four characters

```
union {
  char *p;
  char tag[4];
} x;
```



Heap Compaction

- One application for current heap links
- Manager can move allocated blocks:
 - Copy the block to a new location
 - Update all links to (or into) that block
- So it can *compact* the heap, moving all allocated blocks to one end, leaving one big free block and no fragmentation

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Some Common Pointer Errors

```
type
  p: ^Integer;
begin
                      Dangling pointer: this Pascal fragment
  new(p);
                      uses a pointer after the block it points
  p^{*} := 21;
                      to has been deallocated
  dispose(p);
  p^{*} := p^{*} + 1
                    JAVA: null réference exception
end
procedure Leak;
                      Memory leak: this Pascal procedure
  type
    p: ^Integer;
                      allocates a block but forgets to
  begin
                      deallocate it
     new(p)
                          can run out of memory.
  end;
```

Garbage Collection

- ☐ Since so many errors are caused by improper deallocation...
- ...and since it is a burden on the programmer to have to worry about it...
- ...why not have the language system reclaim blocks automatically?

Three Major Approaches

- Mark and sweep
- Copying
- □ Reference counting

Mark And Sweep

- □ A mark-and-sweep collector uses current heap links in a two-stage process:
 - *Mark*: find the live heap links and mark all the heap blocks linked to by them
- Sweep: make a pass over the heap and return unmarked blocks to the free pool
 - □ Blocks are not moved, so both kinds of inclusion errors are tolerated

Copying Collection (for memory rich)

- A copying collector divides memory in half, and uses only one half at a time
- □ When one half becomes full, find live heap links, and copy live blocks to the other half
- Compacts as it goes, so fragmentation is eliminated
- Moves blocks: cannot tolerate used inclusion errors

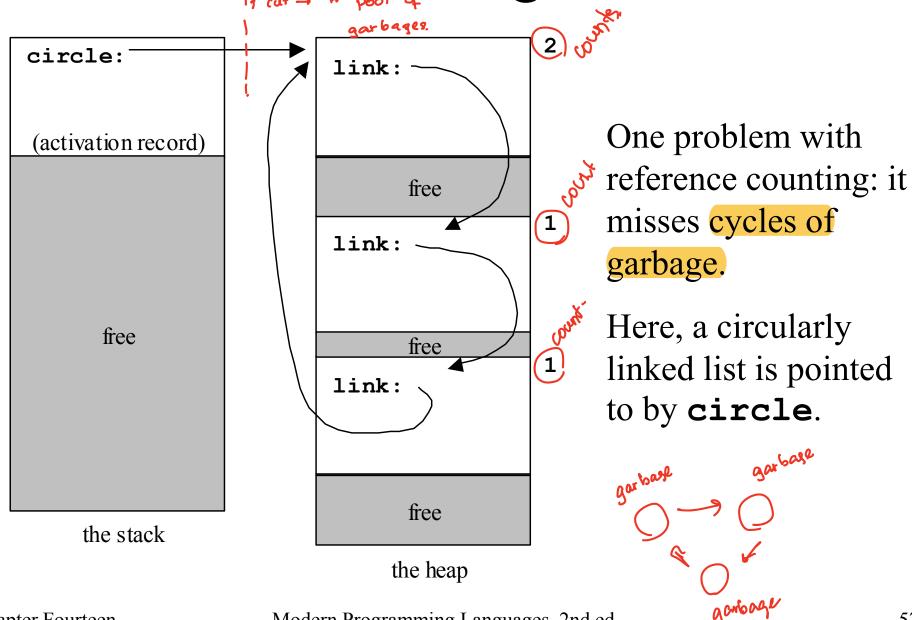
Reference Counting

- block <
 counts: 4.
- Each block has a counter of heap links to it
- Incremented when a heap link is copied,
 decremented when a heap link is discarded
- When counter goes to zero, block is garbage and can be freed
- Does not use current heap links

```
block
Count:0

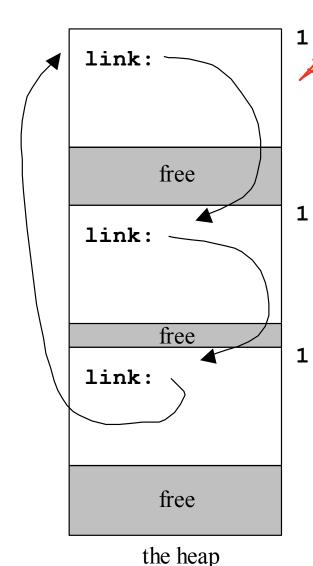
(apribage)
```

Reference Counting Problem



Reference Counting Problem

circle: null (activation record) free the stack



Lydes of Garbase

When circle is set to null, the reference counter is decremented.

No reference counter is zero, though all blocks are garbage.

Reference Counting

- Problem with cycles of garbage
- Problem with performance generally, since the overhead of updating reference counters is high
- One advantage: naturally incremental, with no big pause while collecting

vonly clean 23 % of garbages.

Garbage Collecting Refinements

- □ Generational collectors
 - Divide block into generations according to age
 - Garbage collect in younger generations more often (using previous methods)
- □ *Incremental* collectors
 - Collect garbage a little at a time
 - Avoid the uneven performance of ordinary mark-and-sweep and copying collectors

Garbage Collecting Languages

- mod em.
- □ Some require it: Java, ML
- Some encourage it: Ada
- □ Some make it difficult: C, C++
 - Even for C and C++ it is possible
 - There are libraries that replace the usual malloc/free with a garbage-collecting manager

Trends

- An old idea whose popularity is increasing
- Good implementations are within a few percent of the performance of systems with explicit deallocation
- Programmers who like garbage collection feel that the development and debugging time it saves is worth the runtime it costs

Conclusion

- Memory management is an important hidden player in language systems
- Performance and reliability are critical
- Different techniques are difficult to compare, since every run of every program makes different memory demands
- ☐ An active area of language systems research and experimentation