## 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.
```

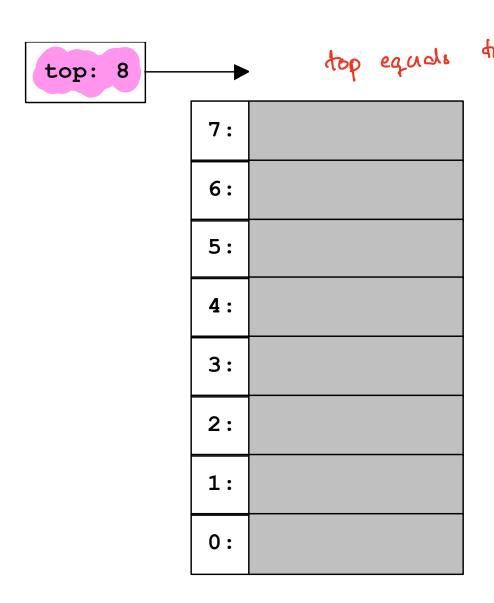
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#### Stacks Of Activation Records

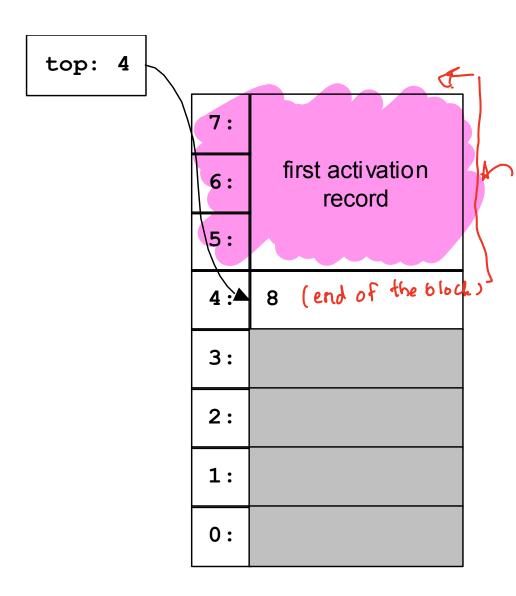
- For almost all languages, activation records must be allocated dynamically
- ☐ For many, it suffices to allocate on call and deallocate on return
- □ This produces a stack of activation records: push on call, pop on return
- A simple memory management problem

#### A Stack Illustration

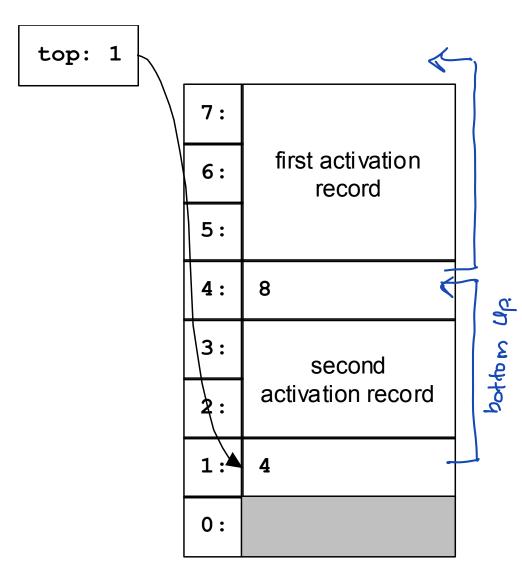


to length of array -, stack is empty.

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.

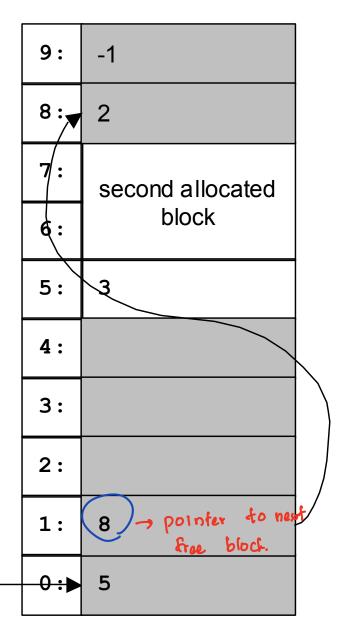
An extra word holds the block length.

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	
<b>1</b> :	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
```

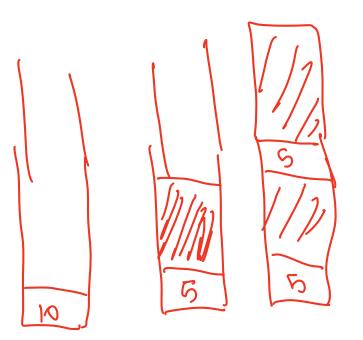
```
// Now p is the index of a block of sufficient size,
// and lag is the index of p's predecessor in the
// free list, or NULL, and nextFree is the index of
// p's successor in the free list, or NULL.
// If the block has more space than we need, carve
// out what we need from the front and return the
// 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;
```

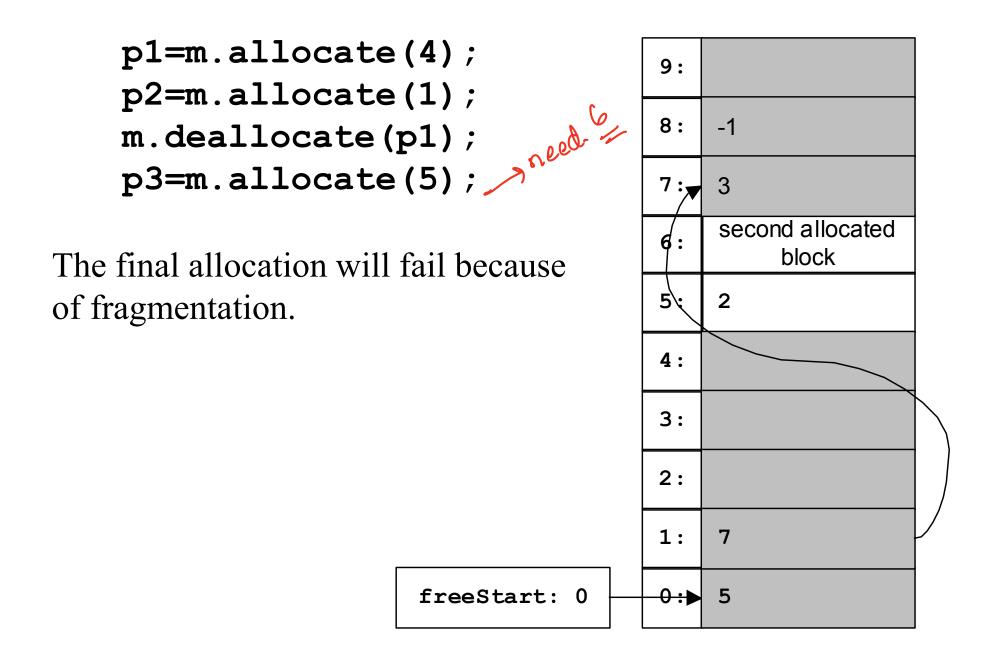
#### Quick Lists

- 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)

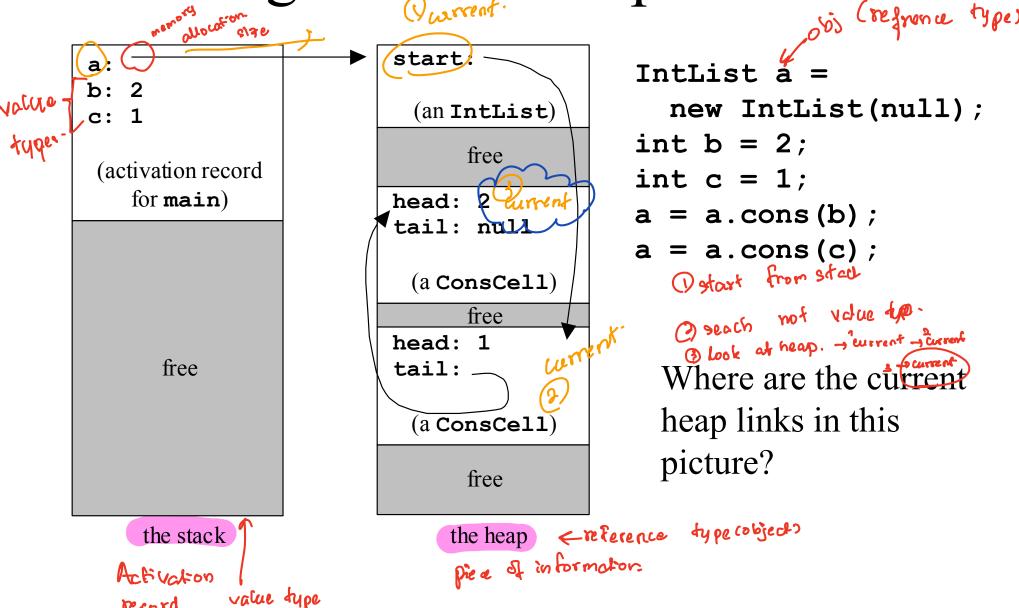
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## Current Heap Links

- □ 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

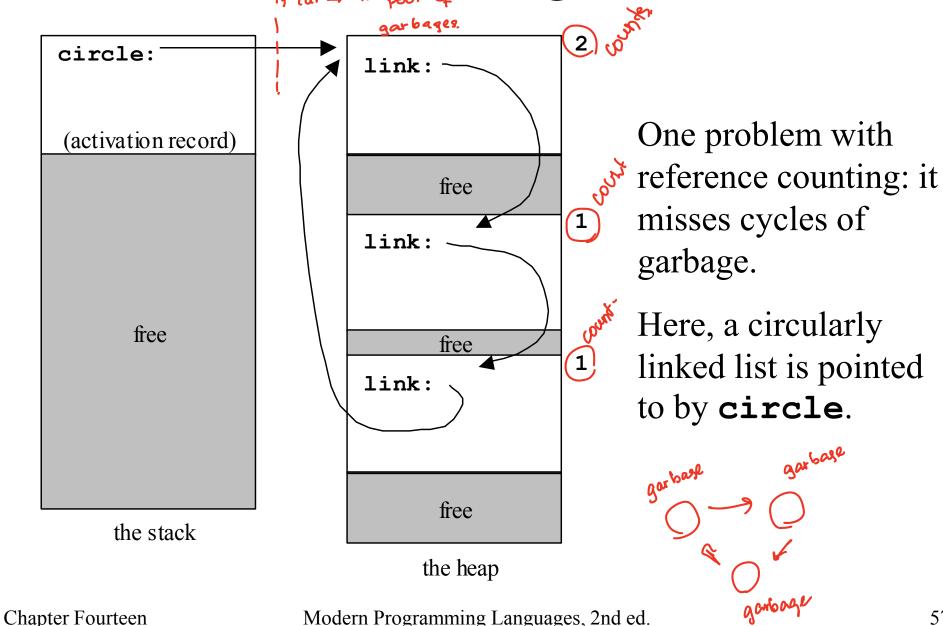
- block < counts: 4.
- □ Each block has a counter of heap links to it
- Incremented when a heap link is copied, decremented when a heap link is discarded
- When counter goes to zero, block is garbage and can be freed
- Does not use current heap links

block

Count:0

(garbage)

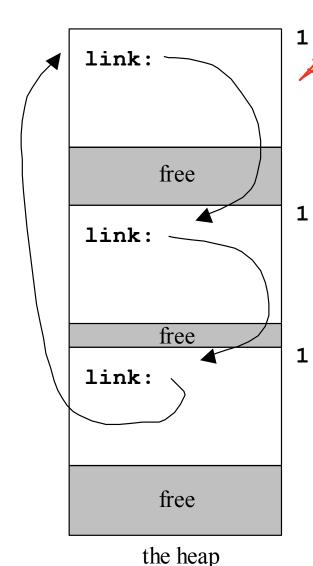
# Reference Counting Problem



57

# 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