Virtual Memory Systems and Dynamic Memory Allocation

Computer Systems

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Based on slides by:

Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron

Today

- Simple memory system example
- Case study: Linux memory system
- Memory mapping
- Dynamic Allocation
- Bonus: Implicit Free Lists

Review of Symbols

Basic Parameters

- $N = 2^n$: Number of addresses in virtual address space
- M = 2^m: Number of addresses in physical address space
- **P** = **2**^p : Page size (bytes)

Components of the virtual address (VA)

- TLBI: TLB index
- TLBT: TLB tag
- VPO: Virtual page offset
- VPN: Virtual page number

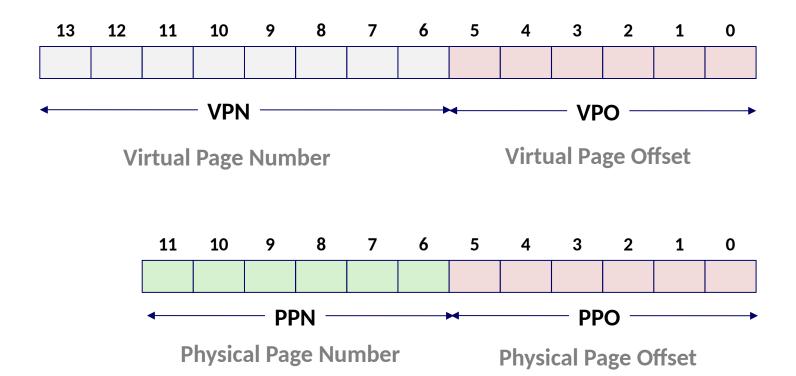
Components of the physical address (PA)

- PPO: Physical page offset (same as VPO)
- PPN: Physical page number
- CO: Byte offset within cache line
- CI: Cache index
- CT: Cache tag

Simple Memory System Example

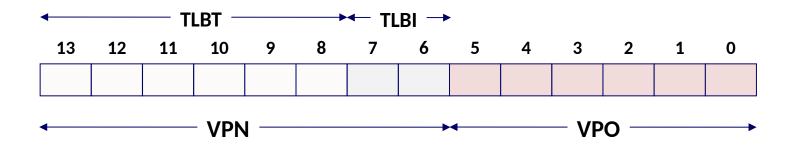
Addressing

- 14-bit virtual addresses
- 12-bit physical address
- Page size = 64 bytes



1. Simple Memory System TLB

- 16 entries
- 4-way associative



| Set | Tag | PPN | Valid |
|-----|-----|-----|-------|-----|-----|-------|-----|-----|-------|-----|-----|-------|
| 0 | 03 | - | 0 | 09 | 0D | 1 | 00 | - | 0 | 07 | 02 | 1 |
| 1 | 03 | 2D | 1 | 02 | - | 0 | 04 | - | 0 | 0A | - | 0 |
| 2 | 02 | - | 0 | 08 | - | 0 | 06 | - | 0 | 03 | - | 0 |
| 3 | 07 | - | 0 | 03 | 0D | 1 | 0A | 34 | 1 | 02 | - | 0 |

2. Simple Memory System Page Table

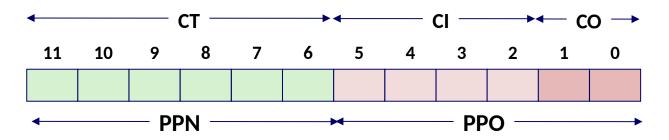
Only show first 16 entries (out of 256)

| VPN | PPN | Valid |
|-----|-----|-------|
| 00 | 28 | 1 |
| 01 | 1 | 0 |
| 02 | 33 | 1 |
| 03 | 02 | 1 |
| 04 | 1 | 0 |
| 05 | 16 | 1 |
| 06 | • | 0 |
| 07 | - | 0 |

| VPN | PPN | Valid | |
|-----|-----|-------|--|
| 08 | 13 | 1 | |
| 09 | 17 | 1 | |
| OA | 09 | 1 | |
| ОВ | - | 0 | |
| OC | - | 0 | |
| 0D | 2D | 1 | |
| OE | 11 | 1 | |
| OF | 0D | 1 | |

3. Simple Memory System Cache

- 16 lines, 4-byte block size
- Physically addressed
- Direct mapped

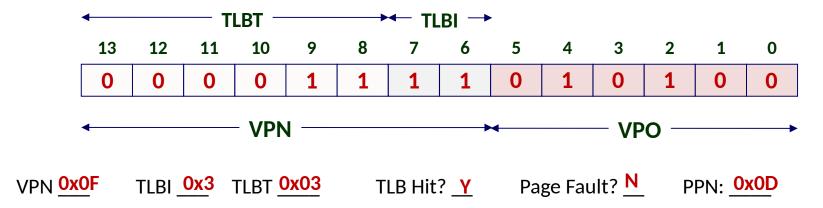


| Idx | Tag | Valid | ВО | B1 | B2 | В3 |
|-----|-----|-------|----|----|----|----|
| 0 | 19 | 1 | 99 | 11 | 23 | 11 |
| 1 | 15 | 0 | ı | - | - | - |
| 2 | 1B | 1 | 00 | 02 | 04 | 80 |
| 3 | 36 | 0 | ı | - | - | - |
| 4 | 32 | 1 | 43 | 6D | 8F | 09 |
| 5 | 0D | 1 | 36 | 72 | F0 | 1D |
| 6 | 31 | 0 | - | - | - | - |
| 7 | 16 | 1 | 11 | C2 | DF | 03 |

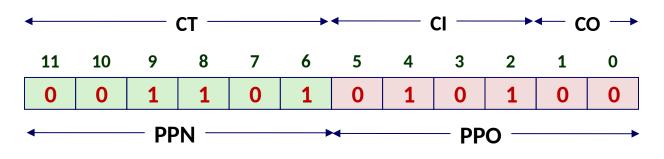
| Idx | Tag | Valid | ВО | B1 | B2 | В3 |
|-----|-----|-------|----|----|----|----|
| 8 | 24 | 1 | 3A | 00 | 51 | 89 |
| 9 | 2D | 0 | - | ı | - | - |
| Α | 2D | 1 | 93 | 15 | DA | 3B |
| В | 0B | 0 | - | - | - | - |
| С | 12 | 0 | - | - | - | - |
| D | 16 | 1 | 04 | 96 | 34 | 15 |
| Е | 13 | 1 | 83 | 77 | 1B | D3 |
| F | 14 | 0 | _ | _ | _ | _ |

Address Translation Example #1

Virtual Address: 0x03D4



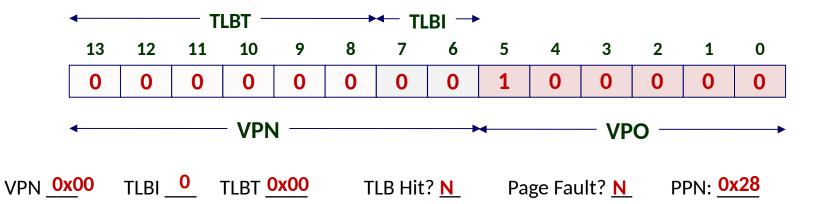
Physical Address



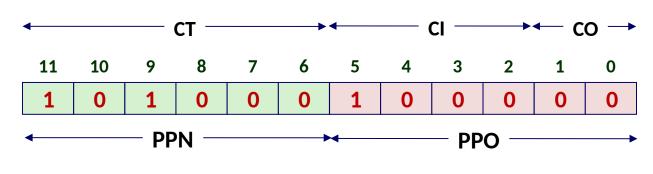
CO $\frac{0}{}$ CI $\frac{0x5}{}$ CT $\frac{0x0D}{}$ Hit? $\frac{Y}{}$ Byte: $\frac{0x36}{}$

Address Translation Example #2

Virtual Address: 0x0020



Physical Address



 CO_0

CIO_x8

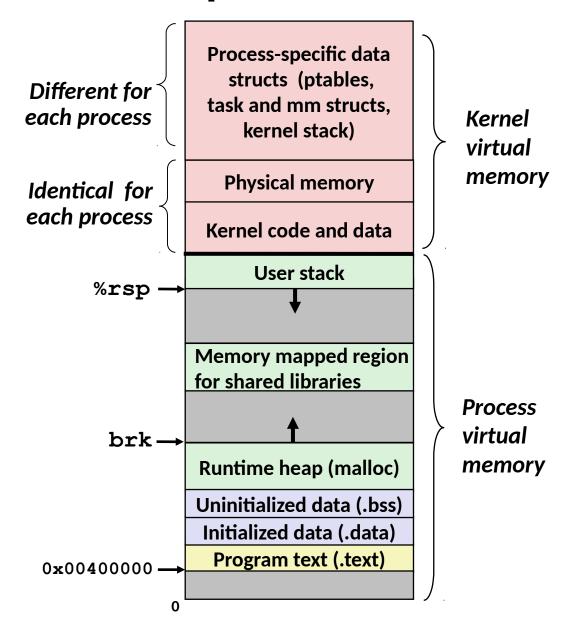
CT 0x28

Hit? N Byte: Mem

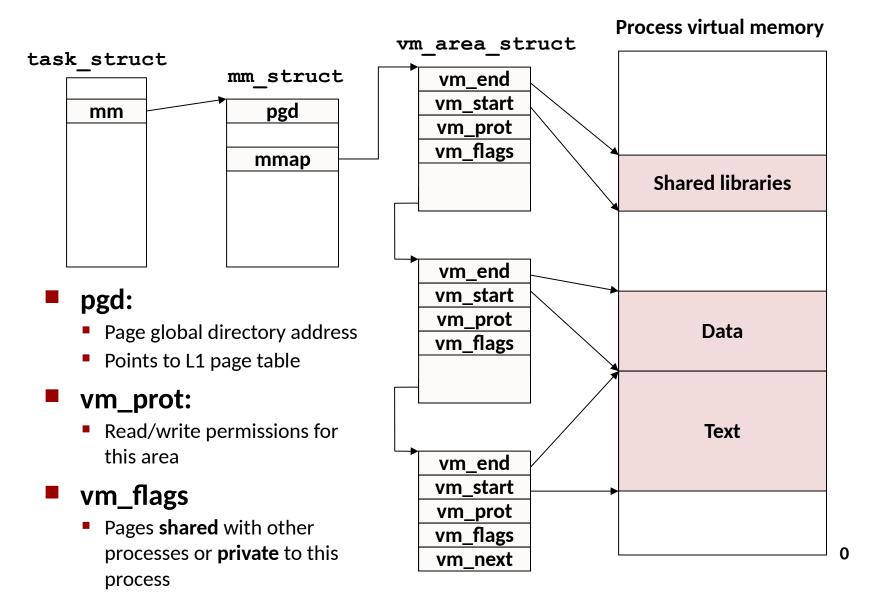
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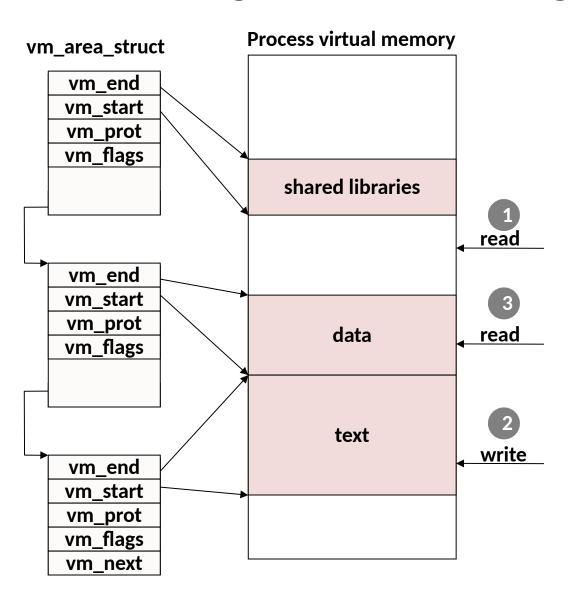
Virtual Address Space of a Linux Process



Linux Organizes VM as Collection of "Areas"



Linux Page Fault Handling



Segmentation fault:

accessing a non-existing page

Normal page fault

Protection exception:

e.g., violating permission by writing to a read-only page (Linux reports as Segmentation fault)

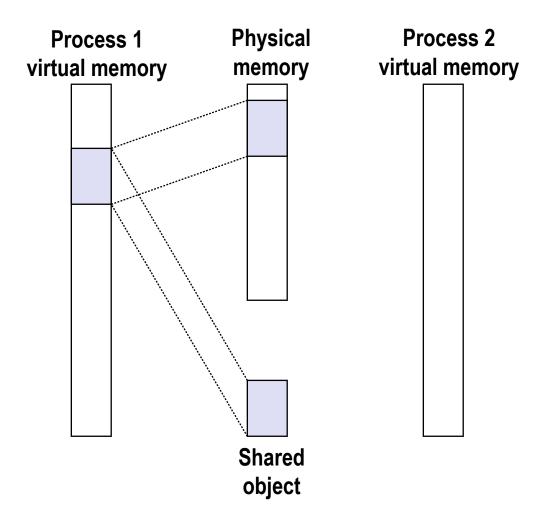
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Memory Mapping

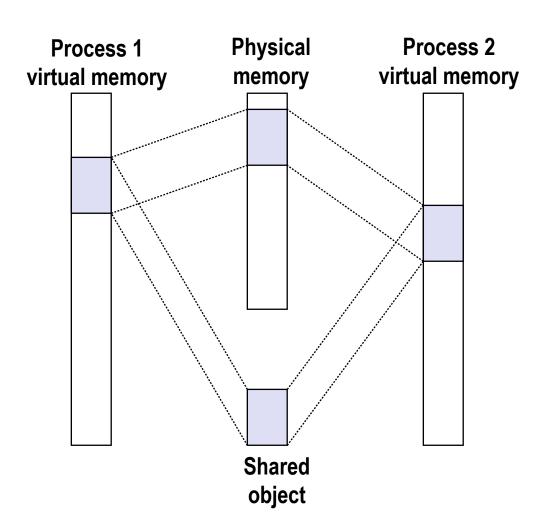
- VM areas initialized by associating them with disk objects.
 - Process is known as memory mapping.
- Area can be backed by (i.e., get its initial values from) :
 - Regular file on disk (e.g., an executable object file)
 - Initial page bytes come from a section of a file
 - Anonymous file (e.g., nothing)
 - First fault will allocate a physical page full of 0's (demand-zero page)
 - Once the page is written to (dirtied), it is like any other page
- Dirty pages are copied back and forth between memory and a special swap file.

Sharing Revisited: Shared Objects



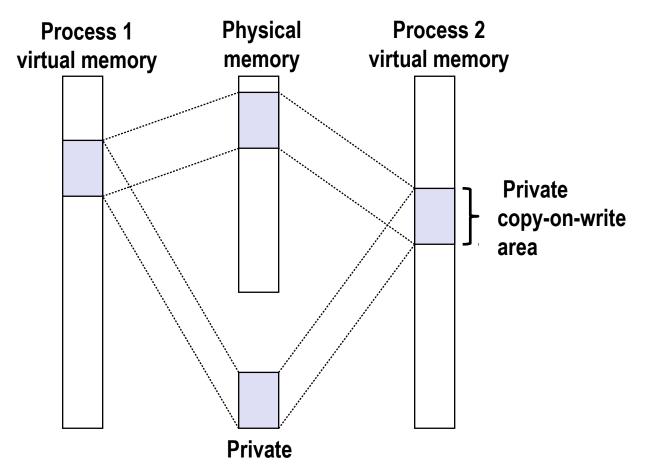
Process 1 maps the shared object.

Sharing Revisited: Shared Objects



- Process 2 maps the shared object.
- Notice how the virtual addresses can be different.

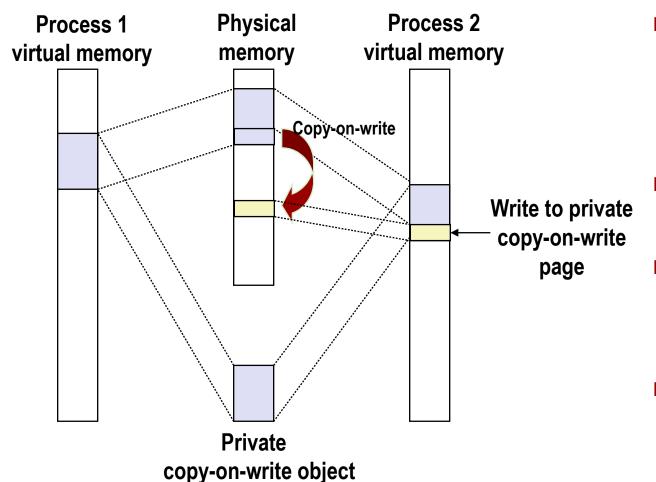
Sharing Revisited: Private Copy-on-write (COW) Objects



copy-on-write object

- Two processes mapping a private copy-on-write (COW) object.
- Area flagged as private copy-onwrite
- PTEs in private areas are flagged as read-only

Sharing Revisited: Private Copy-on-write (COW) Objects

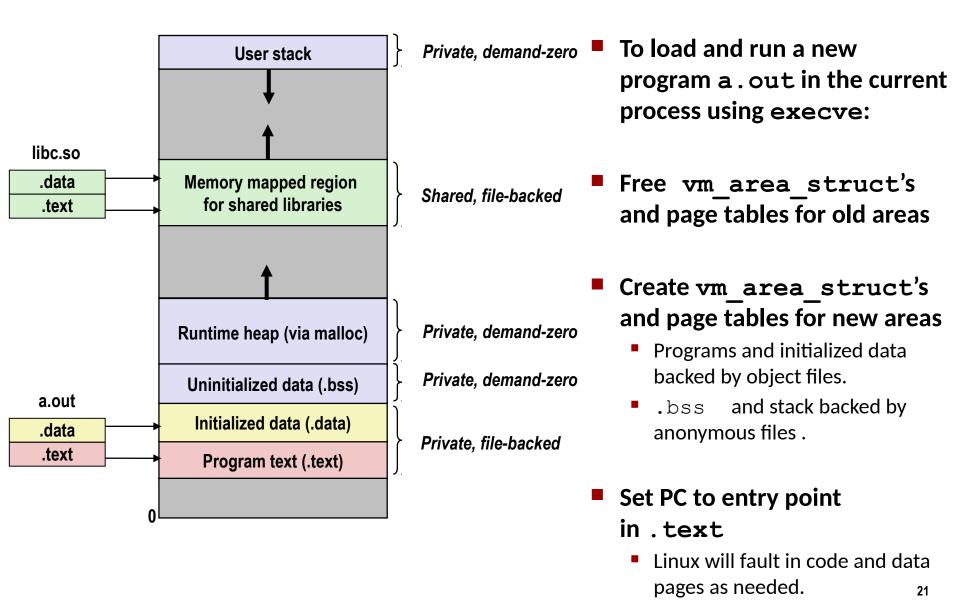


- Instruction writing to private page triggers protection fault.
- Handler creates new R/W page.
- Instruction restarts upon handler return.
- Copying deferred as long as possible!

The fork Function Revisited

- VM and memory mapping explain how fork provides private address space for each process.
- To create virtual address for new new process
 - Create exact copies of current mm_struct, vm_area_struct, and page tables.
 - Flag each page in both processes as read-only
 - Flag each vm_area_struct in both processes as private COW
- On return, each process has exact copy of virtual memory
- Subsequent writes create new pages using COW mechanism.

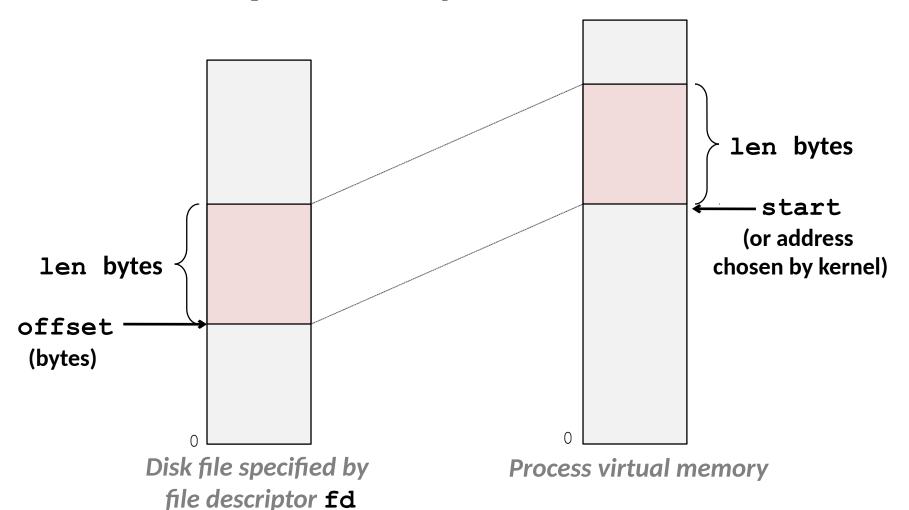
The execve Function Revisited



User-Level Memory Mapping

- Map len bytes starting at offset offset of the file specified by file description fd, preferably at address start
 - start: may be 0 for "pick an address"
 - prot: PROT_READ, PROT_WRITE, ...
 - flags: MAP_ANON, MAP_PRIVATE, MAP_SHARED, ...
- Return a pointer to start of mapped area (may not be start)

User-Level Memory Mapping



Example: Using mmap to Copy Files

Copying a file to stdout without transferring data to user space.

```
#include "csapp.h"
void mmapcopy(int fd, int size)
    /* Ptr to memory mapped area */
    char *bufp;
    bufp = Mmap(NULL, size,
                PROT READ,
                MAP PRIVATE,
                fd, 0);
    Write(1, bufp, size);
    return;
                         mmapcopy.c
```

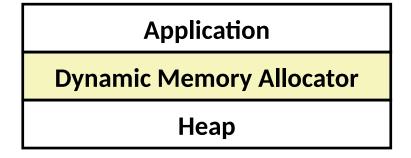
```
/* mmapcopy driver */
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    struct stat stat:
    int fd:
    /* Check for required cmd line arg */
    if (argc != 2) {
        printf("usage: %s <filename>\n",
               argv[0]);
        exit(0);
    /* Copy input file to stdout */
    fd = Open(argv[1], O_RDONLY, 0);
    Fstat(fd, &stat);
   mmapcopy(fd, stat.st size);
    exit(0);
                              mmapcopy.c
```

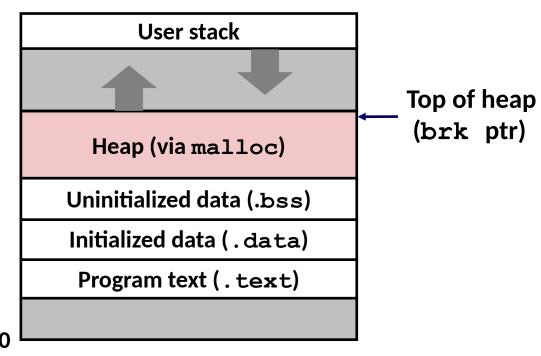
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- Dynamic allocation
- Bonus: Implicit free lists

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.





Dynamic Memory Allocation

- 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 F#, SML, Haskell, and Lisp
- Will discuss simple explicit memory allocation in CompSys
 - Implicit allocation maybe touched upon in PLD

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

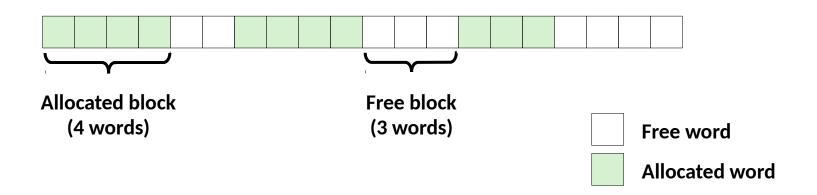
- **calloc:** Version of **malloc** that initializes allocated block to zero.
- realloc: Changes the size of a previously allocated block.
- sbrk: Used internally by allocators to grow or shrink the heap

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);
    /* Initialize allocated block */
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
   p[i] = i;
    /* Return allocated block to the heap */
    free(p);
```

Assumptions Made in This Lecture

- Memory is word addressed.
- Words are int-sized.



Allocation Example





$$p2 = malloc(5)$$



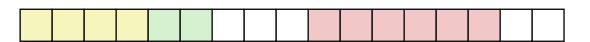
$$p3 = malloc(6)$$



free (p2)



$$p4 = malloc(2)$$



Constraints

Applications

- Can issue arbitrary sequence of malloc and free requests
- free request must be to a malloc'd block (or NULL)

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 (why?)

Performance Goal: Throughput

- Given some sequence of malloc and free requests:
 - \blacksquare $R_0, R_1, ..., R_k, ..., R_{n-1}$
- 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

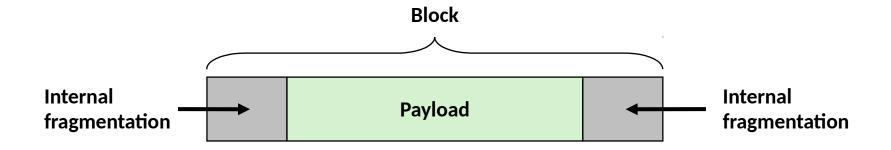
- Given some sequence of malloc and free requests:
 - $R_0, R_1, ..., R_k, ..., R_{n-1}$
- Def: Aggregate payload P_k
 - malloc(p) results in a block with a payload of p bytes
 - After request R_k has completed, the **aggregate payload** P_k is the sum of currently allocated payloads
- Def: Current heap 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
 - $U_k = (\max_{i < k} P_i) / H_k$

Fragmentation

- Poor memory utilization caused by fragmentation
 - internal fragmentation
 - external fragmentation

Internal Fragmentation

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

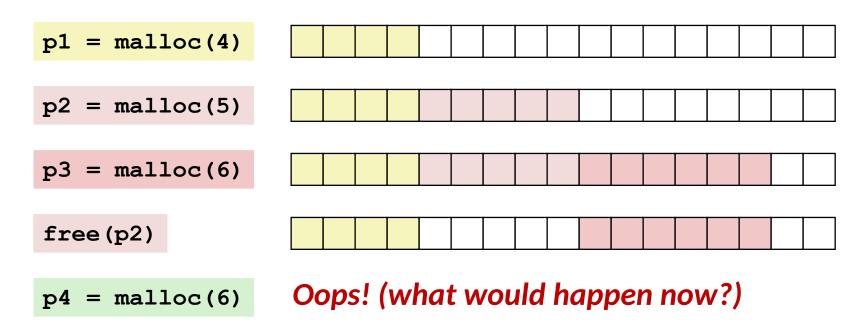


Caused by

- 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



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

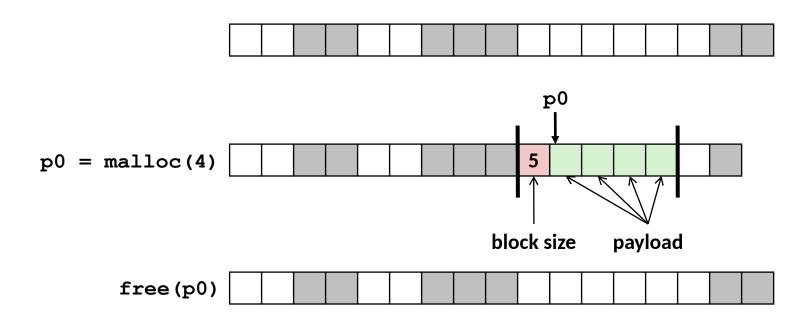
Implementation Issues

- 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

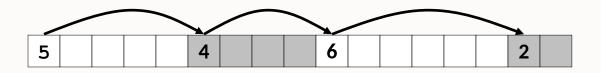
Standard method

- 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

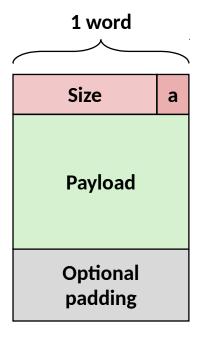
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Method 1: Implicit List

- 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

Format of allocated and free blocks



a = 1: Allocated block

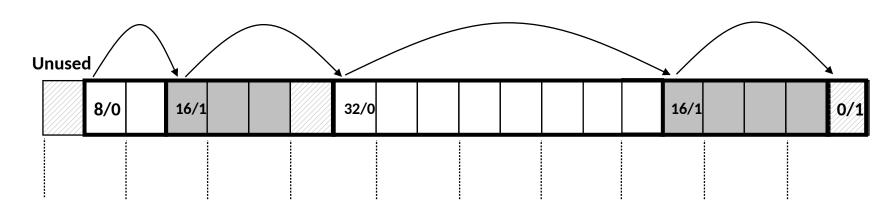
a = 0: Free block

Size: block size

Payload: application data (allocated blocks only)

Detailed Implicit Free List Example

Start of heap



Double-word aligned

Allocated blocks: shaded

Free blocks: unshaded

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:

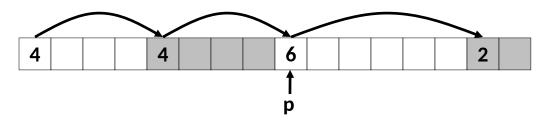
- Like first fit, but search list starting where previous search finished
- Should often be faster than first fit: avoids re-scanning unhelpful blocks
- Some research suggests that fragmentation is worse

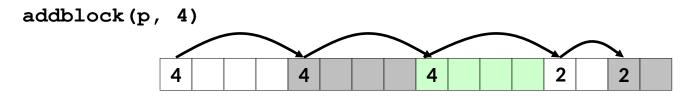
Best fit:

- 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

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





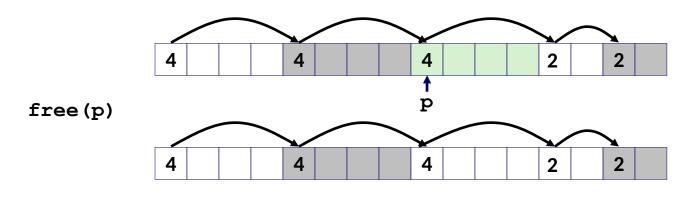
```
void addblock(ptr p, int len) {
  int newsize = ((len + 1) >> 1) << 1; // round up to even
  int oldsize = *p & -2; // mask out low bit
  *p = newsize | 1; // set new length
  if (newsize < oldsize)
    *(p+newsize) = oldsize - newsize; // set length in remaining
}</pre>
```

Implicit List: Freeing a Block

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

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

But can lead to "false fragmentation"

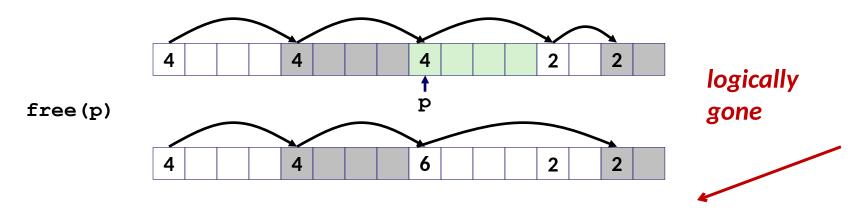


malloc(5) Oops!

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

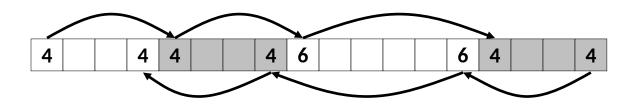
Implicit List: Coalescing

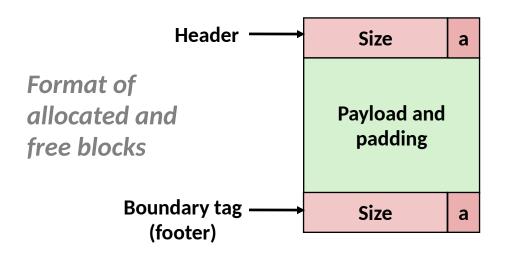
- Join (coalesce) with next/previous blocks, if they are free
 - Coalescing with next block



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!





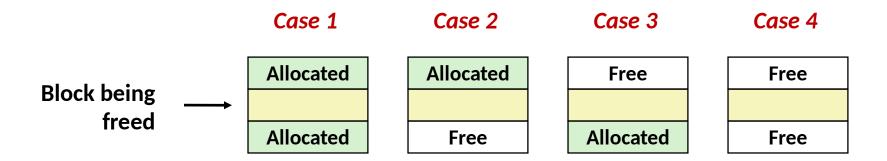
a = 1: Allocated block

a = 0: Free block

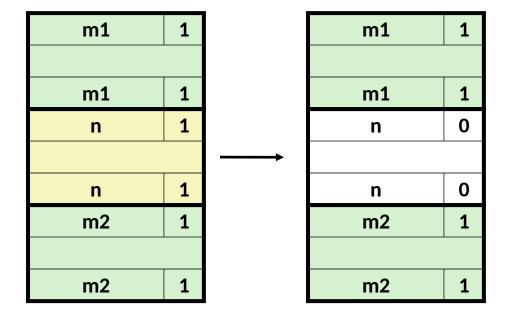
Size: Total block size

Payload: Application data (allocated blocks only)

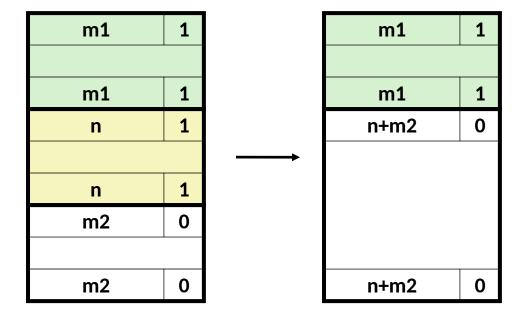
Constant Time Coalescing



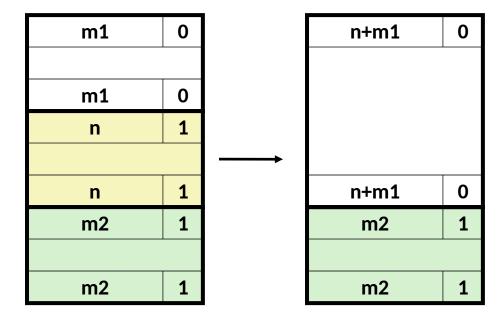
Constant Time Coalescing (Case 1)



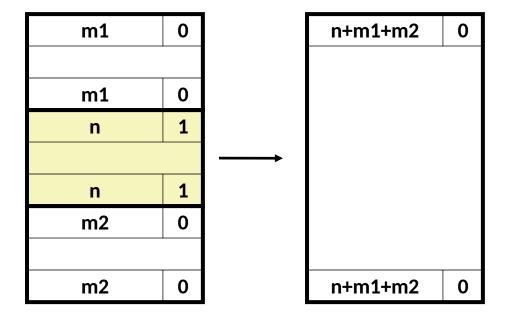
Constant Time Coalescing (Case 2)



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?
 - What does that mean?

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 (see book) 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

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 lineartime allocation
 - used in many special purpose applications
- However, the concepts of splitting and boundary tag coalescing are general to all allocators