COMS3010A Operating Systems

Lab 4 - My Alloc

Instructors

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Consultation Times

Questions should be firstly posted on the moodle question forum, for the Lecturer and the Tutors to answer. If further explanation is required consultation times can be organised.

1 Introduction

So this is an experiment where we will implement our own malloc. We will not implement the world's fastest allocator, but it will work and we will hopefully better understand what is required by the underlying memory manager. Remember that malloc() is a library procedure that is running in user space, it is therefore easy to direct a program to use our allocator rather than the one provided by the standard library.

2 The Interface

If we look at the manual pages of malloc and free, we start to understand what the requirements are.

The malloc() function allocates size bytes and returns a pointer to the allocated memory. The memory is not initialized. If size is 0, then malloc() returns either NULL, or a unique pointer value that can later be successfully passed to free(). The free() function frees the memory space pointed to by ptr, which must have been returned by a previous call to malloc(), calloc(), or realloc(). Otherwise, or if free(ptr) has already been called before, undefined behavior occurs. If ptr is NULL, no operation is performed.

Also look further down in the man page, to see what the procedures should return and why malloc() can fail.

3 Your first allocator

Ok, how hard can it be, we only need to have a infinite memory and the problem is solved - let's do this as our first experiment. Create a file called mylloc.c and buckle your seat belt. We will make things very easy in the

beginning, simply ask the operating system for more heap space when we call mylloc() and ignore anything that is freed. Now this solution would not give you any points in the exam but it's a good start for our experiments.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>

void * malloc(size_t size) {
    if(size == 0) {
        return NULL;
    }
    void *memory = sbrk(size);
    if(memory == (void *)-1) {
        return NULL;
    }else {
        return memory;
    }
}

void free(void *memory) {
    return;
}
```

Look up the man-pages for sbrk(). The procedure will fail only if the operating system fails to increase the heap segment, if this happens it will return -1 but malloc() should return NULL. Also note the two versions of changing the size of the heap segment, sbrk() and brk(), the first is just a convenient way of calling the other. When we compile the mylloc.c program we need to tell GCC that the program should be compiled to an object le but we should not link the object file and try to turn it into an executable. After all there is no main() procedure, so it is not a complete program. We do this using the -c ag, if we look in the man page for gcc we find this description:

• -c Compile or assemble the source files, but do not link. The linking stage simply is not done. The ultimate output is in the form of an object file for each source file.

So our command looks like this:

• gcc -c mylloc.c

If everything works you should have a le called mylloc.o that is the object le that we need.

3.1 The Benchmark

To see how well our solution (remember the proposal is close to a stupid solution) works, we implement a benchmark that will allocate and free a sequence of memory blocks. Our first benchmark will not be the best benchmark, but it will at least show that the system is working, or rather why it is not working that well. We use a call to sbrk(0) to get the current top of the heap and then track this for each round that we execute the inner loop.

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

```
#define ROUNDS 10
#define LOOP 100000
int main(){
        void *init = sbrk(0);
        void *current;
        printf("The initial top of the heap is %p.\n", init);
        for (int j = 0; j < ROUNDS; j++) {
                for (int i = 0; i < LOOP; i++) {
                         size_t size = (rand() % 4000) + sizeof(int);
                         int *memory;
                         memory = malloc(size);
                         if (memory == NULL) {
                                 fprintf(stderr, "malloc failed\n");
                                 return(1);
                         }
                         // writing to the memory so we know it exists
                         *memory = 123;
                         free (memory);
                }
                current = sbrk(0);
                int allocated = (int)((current - init) / 1024);
                printf("%d\n" , j);
                printf("The current top of the heap is %p. \n", current);
                printf("increased by %d Kbyte\n", allocated);
return 0;
```

3.2 Your First Run

We can now compile our benchmark and provide the object file so that the linking works. Note that we provide the object file mylloc.o as an argument to gcc. The linker will first use the object files that we provide so the real implementation of malloc() in the standard library is shadowed by our implementation in mylloc.o.

• gcc -o bench mylloc.o bench.c

Ok, give the benchmark a try to see if it works. If it does, you should see how the heap is increasing as we "myllocate" more memory. The problem is of course that our implementation of free() is simply doing nothing. The blocks that we have freed could have been reused when we asked for the next block but we simply ignore old blocks and just ask the kernel for more space. For how long can this work, we must run out of memory sometime? Increase the number of rounds to 100 and see what happens. My guess is that the program will not end successfully, it might stop with an exit message malloc failed but it could also be that it is shot down by the kernel and the final message is simply killed. The latter happens when the kernel is starting to run out of virtual memory and is looking around for a suitable process to terminate. This is the called "Out Of Memory

management" or simply the "OOM-Killer" process in action. You might wonder what could cause the kernel to be out of virtual memory, if we have a virtual address space of 47 bits, there should be plenty of virtual memory to choose from. Hmm . . . , comment out the line where we write 123 to the allocated memory, then increase the number of rounds to a thousand - what is going on?

3.3 Random Sequence Sizes

Ok, so we know that things work and we know what we will have to improve the reuse of freed blocks, but before we change the mylloc procedures we need to improve the benchmark program. The first thing that we will fix is the random selection of block size. We can assume that a program will request small blocks far more often than large blocks, so this is our goal. The use of "rand() % 4000" in the code gives us a uniform distribution from zero to 4000. We would much rather have an exponentially decreasing distribution between for example MIN and MAX; how can we achieve this? What if the size was calculated like this, where r is a random value,:

```
• size = \frac{MAX}{e^r}
```

If e^r is from 1 to $\frac{MAX}{MIN}$, then the size will be in the range from MIN to MAX. To generate e^r in this range we simply want r to be in the range 0 to $log(\frac{MAX}{MIN})$. Let's implement our own random selection of block sizes in a file called rand.c.

Compile the le as an object file:

• gcc -c rand.c

We also need a le rand.h that have the description of the request procedure. This will be needed by the programs that make use of our random model.

```
int request();
```

To see the effect of this distribution you can do a quick experiment. Write a small program, test.c, that takes an integer as an argument and generates a sequence of requested block sizes. Print them to stdout so that we can pipe the sequence and sort the output.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "rand.h"
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
        if(argc < 2) {
            printf("usage : rand <loop>\n");
            exit(1);
        }
        int loop = atoi(argv[1]);
        for(int i= 0; i < loop; i++) {
            int size = request();
            printf("%d\n", size);
        }
}</pre>
```

When you compile the program you need to include the "math" library (-lm) in order for the linker to find the definitions of log() and exp(). Note that test.c must be given before the link parameter.

• gcc -o test rand.o test.c -lm

Now we generate a sequence and sort the output:

• ./test 100 |sort -n

Looks ok? Now generate a thousand numbers, sort them and save it to a file freq.dat

• ./test 1000 | sort -n > freq.dat

Now we are ready to use "gnuplot" to take a look at the generated sequence. Start "gnuplot" and just do a quick and dirty plot of the freq.dat.

- gnuplot
- gnuplot> plot "freq.dat" u 1

You can try the following if you better want to see what is happening:

- gnuplot> set logscale y
- gnuplot> plot "freq.dat" u 1

Ok? Now let's continue the work on the benchmark program. Change the code in bench.c so that it uses our new request procedure (don't forget to include the header file). When you now compile the benchmark you need to include also the object file rand.o.

• gcc -o bench mylloc.o rand.o bench.c -lm

3.4 a buffer of blocks

The benchmark program does not mimic how a typical program would use memory. We simply allocate a memory block and then free the same block immediately. A typical program would probably allocate some blocks, free some and then allocate some more etc. We need to adapt our benchmark program so it produces something that is closer to regular behaviour. To do this we introduce a buffer of allocated blocks. We will randomly select a position in the buffer and if it is empty we allocate a block. If we find a block at the position we first free this block before allocating a new block. When we start, the buffer is all empty but after a while it will be filled with references to allocated blocks. The size of the buffer is the maximum number of blocks in memory. Since we randomly add or remove blocks we will on average have half of the entries filled. The size of the buffer is a measurement on how memory hungry your benchmark will be and how quickly data structures are freed; choose any number that you think makes sense but realize that it will change the behaviour of the benchmark.

```
#define BUFFER 100
```

To initialize the buffer we include this code in the beginning of the main procedure:

```
void *buffer[BUFFER];
for( int i = 0; i < BUFFER; i++) {
          buffer[i] = NULL;
}</pre>
```

Now change the section where new blocks are allocated to something that looks like this:

```
int index = rand() % BUFFER;
if(buffer[index] != NULL) {
          free(buffer[index]);
}
size_t size = (size_t)request();
int *memory;
memory = malloc(size);
if(memory == NULL) {
          fprintf(stderr, "memory allocation failed \n");
          return(1);
}
buffer[index] = memory;
// writing to the memory so we know it exists
*memory = 123;
```

A word of warning; we're happily writing to the allocated memory in the hope that the integer will actually t. We're thus relying on the fact that request() will always return something that is greater than sizeof(int). This is true in our case since we have MIN set to 8 but if you set MIN to 2 things might break. So now we should have a nice benchmark program. Try it to see that it works and then do the following: re-compile bench.c but now omit to provide mylloc.o on the command line. The benchmark program will then use the definition of malloc() found in the standard library

• gcc -o bench rand.o bench.c -lm

Run the benchmark again and see if there is any difference - we have some work to do, right?

4 Keeping it Simple

We should not complicate things more than necessary, so let's keep it simple. We can save all freed blocks in a linked list and when we're asked for a new block we simply search through the list to see if we can find a block that is large enough. In order to do this we of course need to keep track of how big the blocks are: this is not something that comes automatically. When the free() procedure is called it is given a reference to a block but there is no information on how big the block is. To solve this dilemma we have to cheat a bit.

4.1 A better free block

Make a copy of mylloc.c and call it mhysa.c. We will now adapt the procedures to work with a linked list of free blocks. Since we do not want to expose the internals of our implementation we will do a trick. We will allocate more memory than requested and write some hidden information in the beginning of the block. When we hand the block to the user process, we give it a pointer to the first free location. We create a new data structure chunk and initialize a free list pointer. The data structure is called malloc_chunk in Linux and holds more information than what we have, but this is ne for now.

```
struct chunk{
        int size;
        struct chunk *next;
};

struct chunk* flist = NULL;
```

We now have to rewrite free() and malloc() to make use of the free list. To free a block is quite simple, we assume that the reference that we get, is a reference to something that we allocated and therefore know that there will be a hidden chunk structure just before the given reference.

It is a simple task to let the next pointer of the freed block point to whatever flist is pointing to and then update flist. You can test to see that it works, but nothing has changed if we do not make use of the blocks in the lists.

4.2 Finding a free block

The malloc() procedure is slightly more code but the task is quite simple. If we're asked for a new block of a given size we will first search the free list for a suitable block. If one is found we can reuse the block and will then of course un-link it from the free list. If no suitable block is found we have to do as we did before and ask the kernel for some more space.

```
next = next->next;
}
```

The only tricky thing is to make sure that we request more space from the kernel than the user process asks for. We need some space to write the hidden chunk structure. We also initialize this structure with the right size value, since this is something we need to know if we later want to reuse the block.

```
// use sbrk to allocate new memory
void *memory = sbrk(size + sizeof(struct chunk));
if(memory == (void *)-1) {
          return NULL;
}else{
         struct chunk *cnk = (struct chunk*)memory;
         cnk->size = size;
         return (void *) (cnk + 1);
}
```

If everything works you should be able to compile the mhysa.c module into an object file and then link this with the benchmark - give it a try

- gcc -c mhysa.c
- gcc -o bench rand.o mhysa.o bench.c -lm
- ./bench

How is that? It's dirt simple and of course not the most efficient memory allocator but it looks like it's working right?

5 How to improve

We have a system that is working but there are of course a lot of things that could be improved. One problem we clearly have is that we're still consuming far more memory than what we would need. The standard library implementation obviously can do away with far less memory. The other problem is that we're probably asking the kernel for memory more often than we would have to.

5.1 system calls

There is a command "strace" that could be fun to use. This command will execute a program but trap all system calls and print them to standard output. Try the following:

• strace ./bench

Too much information? Try this (we're redirecting stderr to stdout to be able to pipe it to grep):

• strace ./bench 2>&1> /dev/null |grep brk |wc -l

Try all versions of the benchmark program, one linked with the standard library, one with mylloc.o and one with mhysa.o. How more often do we request memory from the kernel? Are there ways to avoid this?

6 Summary

Implementing a strategy that works well over a range of hardware systems is a problem, and far more complicated than what we have done in this exercise. The important lesson in this exercise is that it is doable, and I'm sure you realize that you would be able to do so given more time. I also hope that you better understand the role of malloc() and free() and that they are working in user space. The kernel should be disturbed as little as possible, and we achieve this by allocating larger blocks of memory than we have to.

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