# 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();
```

# Assembly language:

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

OS:

Data & addressing **Integers & floats** Machine code & C x86 assembly programming **Procedures &** stacks **Arrays & structs** Memory & caches **Processes** Virtual memory **Memory allocation** Java vs. C

# Machine code:



# Computer system:







### **Memory Allocation Topics**

### Dynamic memory allocation

- Size/number of data structures may only be known at run time
- Need to allocate space on the heap
- Need to de-allocate (free) unused memory so it can be re-allocated

### Implementation

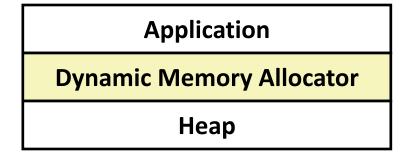
- Implicit free lists
- Explicit free lists subject of next programming assignment
- Segregated free lists

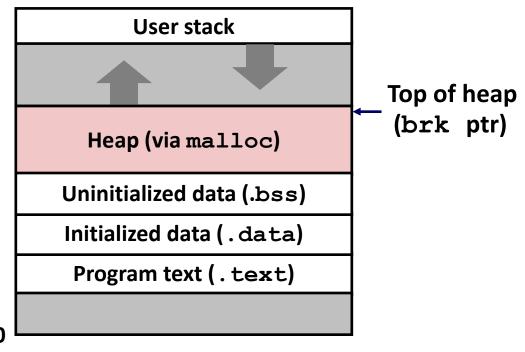
### Garbage collection

Common memory-related bugs in C programs

# **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
  - Allocator requests space in heap region; VM hardware and kernel allocate these pages to the process
  - Application objects are typically smaller than pages, so the allocator manages blocks within pages

### 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 Java, ML, and Lisp

# The malloc Package

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void *malloc(size_t size)
```

- Successful:
  - Returns a pointer to a memory block of at least size bytes (typically) aligned to 8-byte boundary
  - If size == 0, returns NULL
- Unsuccessful: returns NULL 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**

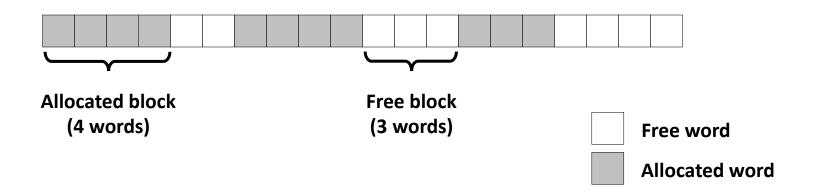
- calloc: Version of malloc that initializes allocated block to zero.
- realloc: Changes the size of a previously allocated block.
- **sbrk:** Used internally by allocators to grow or shrink the heap.

# Malloc Example

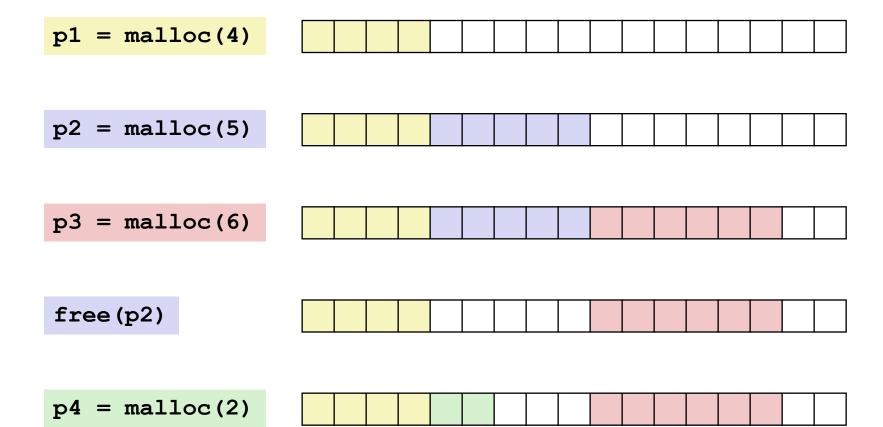
```
void foo(int n, int m) {
  int i, *p;
  /* allocate a block of n ints */
  p = (int *)malloc(n * sizeof(int));
  if (p == NULL) {
  perror("malloc");
   exit(0);
  for (i=0; i < n; i++) p[i] = i;
  /* add space for m ints to end of p block */
  if ((p = (int *)realloc(p, (n+m) * sizeof(int))) ==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

### **Assumptions Made in This Lecture**

- Memory is word addressed (each word can hold a pointer)
  - block size is a multiple of words



# **Allocation Example**



# How are going to implement that?!?

What information does the allocator need to keep track of?

### **Constraints**

### Applications

- Can issue arbitrary sequence of malloc() and free() requests
- free() requests must be made only for a previously malloc()'d block

#### 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., blocks can't overlap
- Must align blocks so they satisfy all alignment requirements
  - 8 byte alignment for GNU malloc (libc malloc) on Linux boxes
- Can't move the allocated blocks once they are malloc()'d
  - *i.e.*, compaction is not allowed. Why not?

# **Performance Goal: Throughput**

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

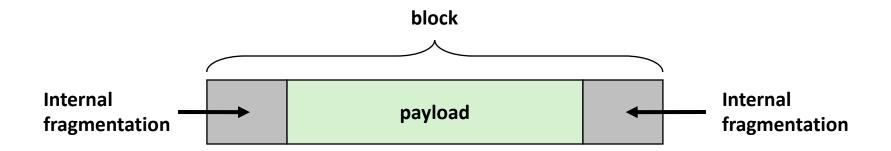
- Given some sequence of malloc and free requests:
  - $R_0, R_1, ..., R_k, ..., R_{n-1}$
- Def: Aggregate payload P<sub>k</sub>
  - malloc(p) results in a block with a payload of p bytes
  - After request  $R_k$  has completed, the **aggregate payload**  $P_k$  is the sum of currently allocated payloads
- **Def**: Current heap size =  $H_k$ 
  - Assume  $H_k$  is monotonically nondecreasing
    - Allocator can increase size of heap using sbrk ()
- *Def*: Peak memory utilization after k requests
  - $U_k = (\max_{i < k} P_i) / H_k$
  - 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
  - *internal* fragmentation
  - external fragmentation

# **Internal Fragmentation**

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

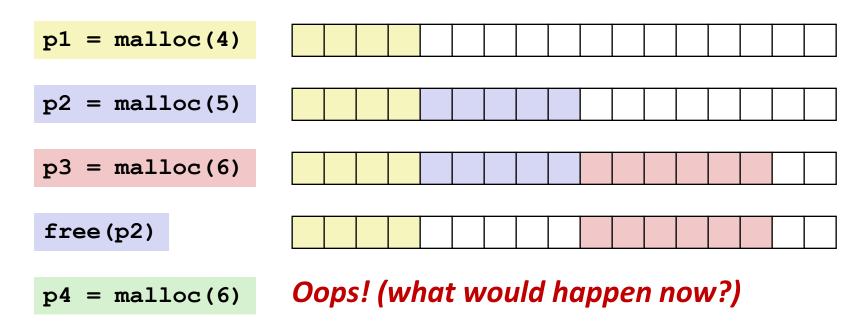


#### Caused by

- overhead of maintaining heap data structures (inside block, outside payload)
- padding for alignment purposes
- explicit policy decisions (e.g., to return a big block to satisfy a small request) why would anyone do that?
- 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