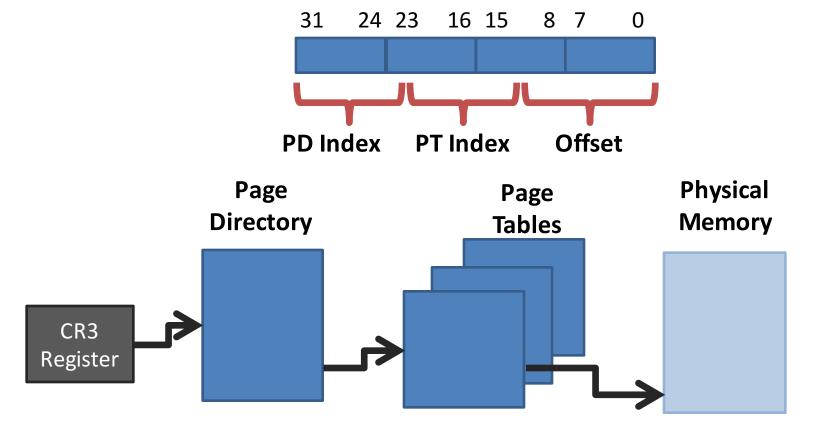
CS 5600 Computer Systems

Lecture 8: Free Memory Management

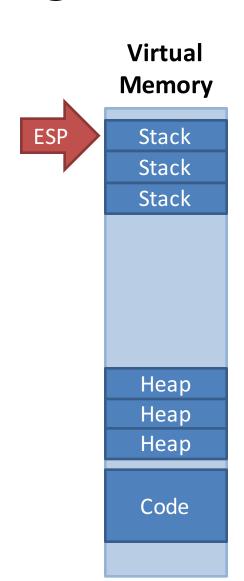
Recap of Last Week

- Last week focused on virtual memory
 - Gives each process the illusion of vast, empty memory
 - Offers protection and isolation



Dynamic Allocation of Pages

- Page tables allow the OS to dynamically assign physical frames to processes on-demand
 - E.g. if the stack grows, the OS can map in an additional page
- On Linux, processes use sbrk()/brk()/mmap() to request additional heap pages
 - But, these syscalls only allocates memory in multiples of 4KB pages



What About malloc() and free()?

- The OS only allocates and frees memory in units of 4KB pages
 - What if you want to allocate <4KB of memory?</p>
 - E.g. char * string = (char *) malloc(100);
- Each process manages its own heap memory
 - On Linux, glibc implements malloc() and free(), manages objects on the heap
 - The JVM uses a garbage collector to manage the heap
- There are many different strategies for managing free memory

Free Space Management

- Todays topic: how do processes manage free memory?
 - 1. Explicit memory management
 - Languages like C, C++; programmers control memory allocation and deallocation
 - 2. Implicit memory management
 - Languages like Java, Javascript, Python; runtime takes care of freeing useless objects from memory
 - In both cases, software must keep track of the memory that is in use or available

Why Should You Care?

- Regardless of language, all of our code uses dynamic memory
- However, there is a performance cost associated with using dynamic memory
- Understanding how the heap is managed leads to:
 - More performant applications
 - The ability to diagnose difficult memory related errors and performance bottlenecks

Key Challenges

- Maximizing CPU performance
 - Keeping track of memory usage requires effort
- Maximize parallelism
 - Heap memory is shared across threads
 - Thus, synchronization may be necessary
- Minimizing memory overhead
 - Metadata is needed to track memory usage
 - This metadata adds to the size of each object
- Minimize fragmentation
 - Over time, deallocations create useless gaps in memory

- Free Lists
 - Basics
 - Speeding Up malloc() and free()
 - Slab Allocation
 - Common Bugs
- Garbage Collectors
 - Reference Counting
 - Mark and Sweep
 - Generational/Ephemeral GC
 - Parallel Garbage Collection

Setting the Stage

- Many languages allow programmers to explicitly allocate and deallocate memory
 - C, C++
 - malloc() and free()
- Programmers can malloc() any size of memory
 - Not limited to 4KB pages
- free() takes a pointer, but not a size
 - How does free() know how many bytes to deallocate?
- Pointers to allocated memory are returned to the programmer
 - As opposed to Java or C# where pointers are "managed"
 - Code may modify these pointers

Requirements and Goals

- Keep track of memory usage
 - What bytes of the heap are currently allocated/unallocated?
- Store the size of each allocation
 - So that free() will work with just a pointer
- Minimize fragmentation...
 - ... without doing compaction or relocation
 - More on this later
- Maintain higher performance
 - O(1) operations are obviously faster than O(n), etc.

External Fragmentation, Revisited

- Problem: variable size segments can lead to external fragmentation
 - Memory gets broken into random size,
 non-contiguous pieces
- Example: there is enough free memory to start a new process
 - But the memory is fragmented :(
- Compaction can fix the problem
 - But it is extremely expensive

Physical Memory Kernel Memory Heap Code Stack Stack Heap Heap

Stack

Code

Stack

Code

Heap Fragmentation

```
obj * obj1, * obj2;
hash_tbl * ht;
int array[];
char * str1, * str2;
...
free(obj2);
free(array);
...
str2 = (char *) malloc(300);
```



Heap Memory

str1

array

ht

obj2

obj1

- This is an example of external fragmentation
 - There is enough empty space for str2, but the space isn't usable
- As we will see, internal fragmentation may also be an issue

The Free List

- A free list is a simple data structure for managing heap memory
- Three key components
 - 1. A linked-list that records free regions of memory
 - Free regions get split when memory is allocated
 - Free list is kept in sorted order by memory address
 - 2. Each allocated block of memory has a header that records the size of the block
 - 3. An algorithm that selects which free region of memory to use for each allocation request

Free List Data Structures

- The free list is a linked list
- Stored in heap memory, alongside other data
- For *malloc(n)*:

```
num\_bytes = n + sizeof(header)
```

```
typedef struct node_t {
    int size;
    struct node_t * next;
} node;
```

typedef struct header_t {

} header;

- Linked list of regions of free space
- size = bytes of free space
 - Header for each block of allocated space
- size = bytes of allocated space

node * head

next

Heap Memory (4KB)

4088

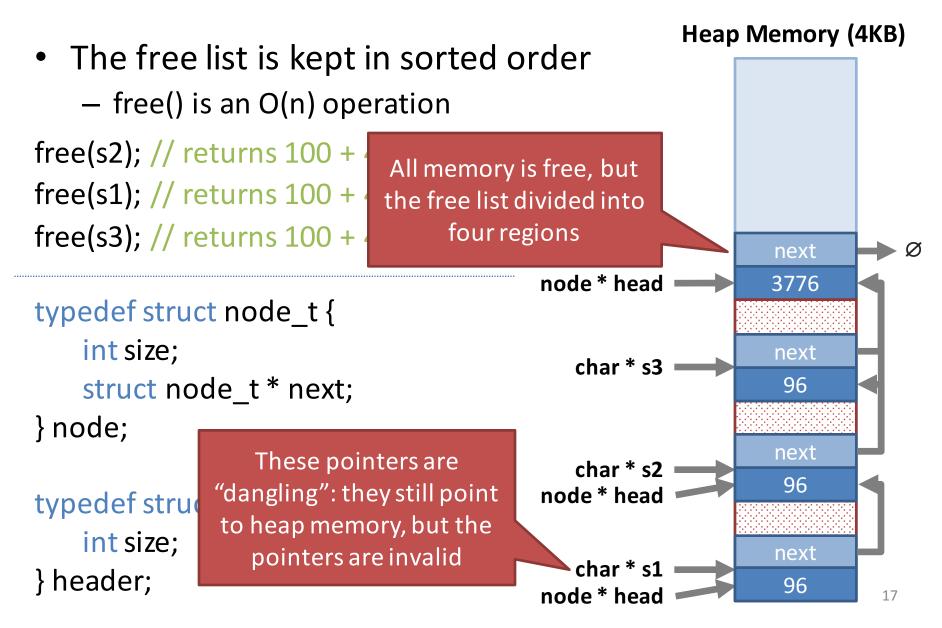
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Code to Initialize a Heap

Allocating Memory (Splitting)

```
Heap Memory (4KB)
char * s1 = (char *) malloc(100); // 104 bytes
char * s2 = (char *) malloc(100); // 104 bytes
char * s3 = (char *) malloc(100); // 104 bytes
                                                              next
                                          node * head
                                                              3776
typedef struct node_t {
    int size;
                               Free region is "split"
                                                              100
    struct node t* next;
                              into allocated and free
} node;
                                     regions
                                                              100
typedef struct header t {
    int size;
} header;
                                   Header
                                                              100
                                                                       16
```

Freeing Memory



Coalescing

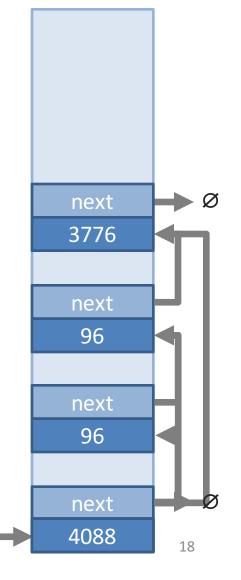
node * head

Heap Memory (4KB)

- Free regions should be merged with their neighbors
 - Helps to minimize fragmentation
 - This would be O(n²) if the list was not sorted

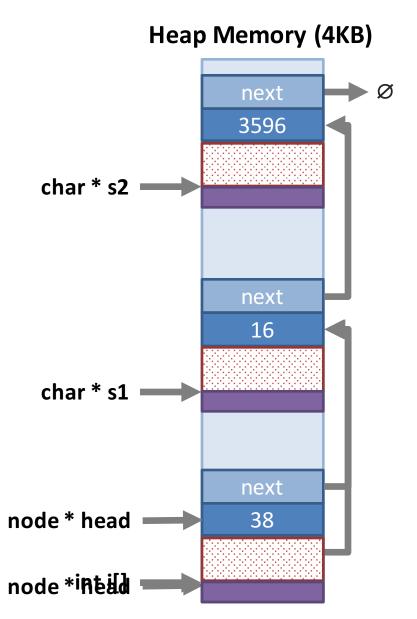
```
typedef struct node_t {
    int size;
    struct node_t * next;
} node;

typedef struct header_t {
    int size;
} header;
```



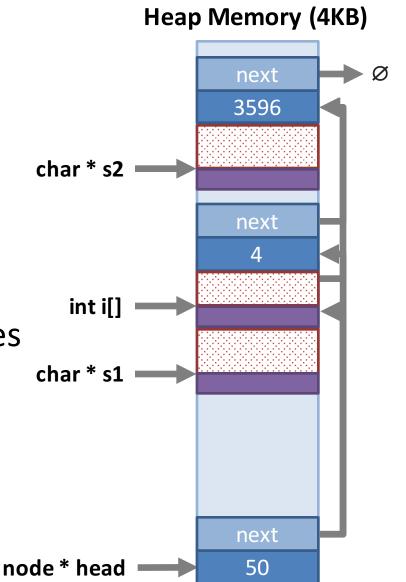
Choosing Free Regions (1)

- Which free region should be chosen?
- Fastest option is First-Fit
 - Split the first free region with >=8 bytes available
- Problem with First-Fit?
 - Leads to external fragmentation



Choosing Free Regions (2)

- Second option: Best-Fit
 - Locate the free region with size closest to (and >=) 8 bytes
- Less external fragmentation than First-fit
- Problem with Best-Fit?
 - Requires O(n) time



Basic Free List Review

- Singly-linked free list
- List is kept in sorted order
 - free() is an O(n) operation
 - Adjacent free regions are coalesced
- Various strategies for selecting which free region to use for a given malloc(n)
 - First-fit: use the first free region with >=n bytes available
 - Worst-case is O(n), but typically much faster
 - Tends to lead to external fragmentation at the head of the list
 - Best-fit: use the region with size closest (and \geq =) to n
 - Less external fragments than first-fit, but O(n) time

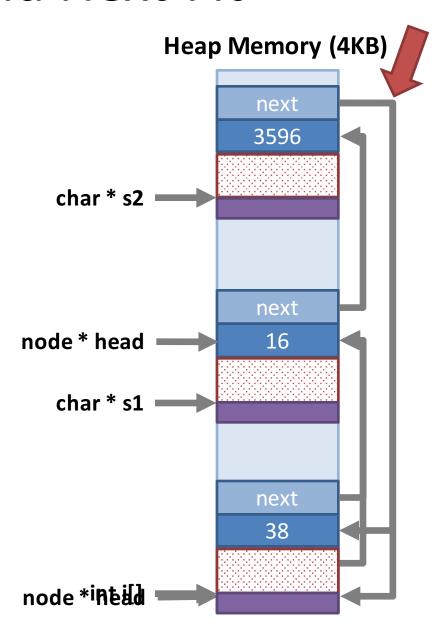
Improving Performance

- 1. Use a circular linked list and Next-Fit
 - Faster than Best-Fit, less fragmentation than First-fit
- 2. Use a doubly-linked free list with footers
 - Good: makes free() and coalesce O(1) time
 - Bad: small amount of memory wasted due to headers and footers
- 3. Use bins to quickly locate appropriately sized free regions
 - Good: much less external fragmentation, O(1) time
 - Bad: much more complicated implementation
 - Bad: some memory wasted due to internal fragmentation

Circular List and Next-Fit

int i[] = (int*) malloc(8);

- 1. Change to a singly-linked, circular linked list
- 2. Use First-Fit, but move head after each split
 - Known as Next-Fit
 - Helps spread allocations, reduce fragmentation
 - Faster allocations than Best-Fit



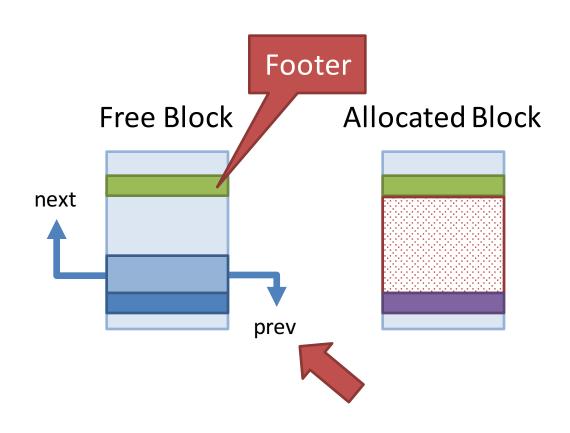
Towards O(1) free()

```
typedef struct node_t {
    bool free;
    int size;
    struct node_t * next;
    struct node_t * prev;
} node;
typedef struct header_t {
    bool free;
    int size;
} header;
typedef struct footer_t {
    int size;
} header;
```

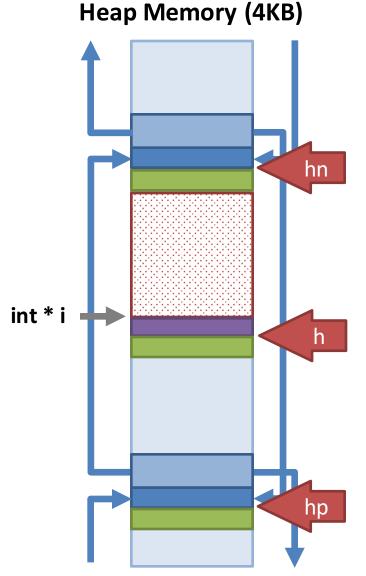
- free() is O(n) because the free list must be kept in sorted order
- Key ideas:
 - Move to a doubly linked list
 - Add footers to each block
- Enables coalescing without sorting the free list
 - Thus, free() becomes O(1)

Example Blocks

```
typedef struct node_t {
    bool free;
    int size;
    struct node_t * next;
    struct node_t * prev;
} node;
typedef struct header_t {
    bool free;
    int size;
} header;
typedef struct footer_t {
    int size;
} header;
```



Locating Adjacent Free Blocks



- Suppose we have free(i)
- Locate the next and previous free blocks

Coalescing is O(1)

```
node * n = (node *) h, nn, np;
n->free = true;
if (hn->free) { // combine with the next free
   nn = (node *) hn;
   n->size += nn->size + sizeof(header) + sizeof(footer);
   ((footer *) ((char *) n + n->size))->size = n->size;
if (hp->free) { // combine with the previous free block
   np = (node *) hp;
   np->size += n->size + sizeof(header) + sizeof(footer);
   ((footer *) ((char *) np + np->size))->size = np->size;
if (!hp->free && !hn->free) {
   // add the new free block to the head of the free list
```

- Be careful of corner cases:
 - The first free block
 - The last free block

Speeding Up *malloc()*

- At this point, free() is O(1)
- But malloc() still has problems
 - Next-Fit: O(1) but more fragmentation
 - Best-Fit: O(n) but less fragmentation
- Two steps to speed up malloc()
 - 1. Round allocation requests to powers of 2
 - Less external fragmentation, some internal fragmentation
 - 2. Divide the free list into bins of similar size blocks
 - Locating a free block of size round(x) will be O(1)

Rounding Allocations

malloc(size)

```
size += sizeof(header) + sizeof(footer); // will always be >16 bytes
if (size > 2048) size = 4096 * ((size + 4095) / 4096);
else if (size < 128) size = 32 * ((size + 31) / 32);
else size = round_to_next_power_of_two(size);
```

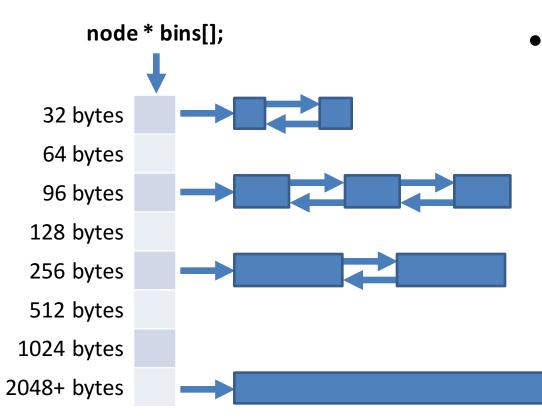
Examples:

- $malloc(4) \rightarrow 32$ bytes
- $malloc(45) \rightarrow 64$ bytes
- malloc(145) \rightarrow 256 bytes

For large allocations, use full pages

Binning

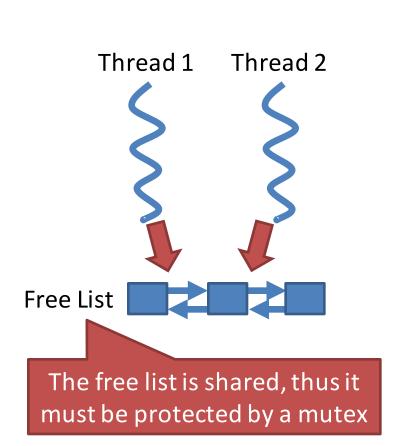
- Divided the free list into bins of exact size blocks
- Most allocations handled in O(1) time by pulling a free block from the appropriate list

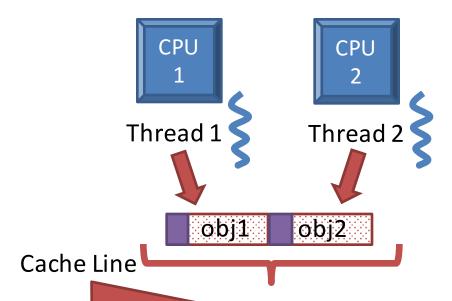


 If no block is available, locate and split a larger block

Next Problem: Parallelism

- Today's programs are often parallel
- However, our current memory manager has poor performance with >1 threads

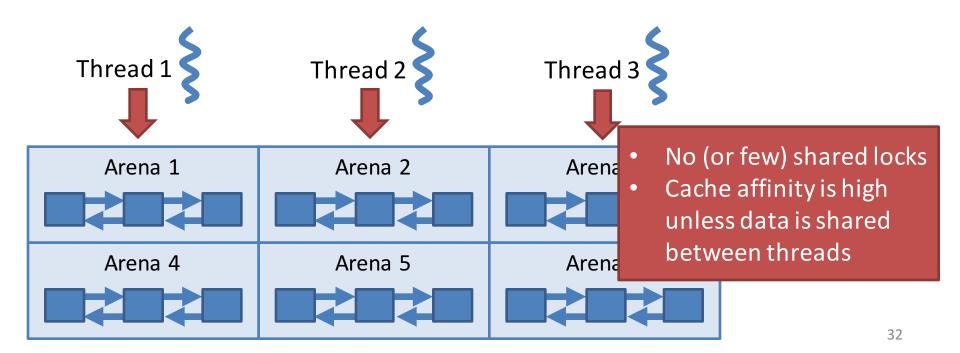




- Allocations are filled sequentially in memory
- Objects for different threads may share the same cache line
- This causes contention between CPU cores

Per-Thread Arenas

- To reduce lock and CPU cache contention, divide the heap into arenas
 - Each arena has its own free list
 - Each thread is assigned to several arenas



Two More Things

- How can you make your code manage memory more quickly?
 - Slab allocation
- Common memory bugs
 - Memory leaks
 - Dangling pointers
 - Double free

Speeding Up Your Code

- Typically, the memory allocation algorithm is not under your control
 - You don't choose what library to use (e.g. glibc)
 - You don't know the internal implementation
- How can your make your code faster?
 - Avoid the memory allocator altogether!
 - Use an object cache plus slab allocation

```
template<class T> class obj cache {
                                                        Objects are allocated in bulk
    private:
                                                        Less space wasted on
         stack<T *> free objs;
                                                        headers and footers
         void allocate_slab() {
             T * objs = (T *) malloc(sizeof(T) * 10);
             for (int x = 0; x < 10; ++x) free_objs.push(&objs[x]);
    public:
         obj_cache() { allocate_slab(); } // start by pre-allocating some objects
         T * alloc() {
             if (free objs.empty()) allocate slab(); // allocate more if we run out
             T * obj = free_objs.top();
             free_objs.pop();
              return obj; // return an available object
         void free(T * obj) { free_objs.push(obj); } // return obj to the pool
};
```

Two More Things

- How can you make your code manage memory more quickly?
 - Slab allocation
- Common memory bugs
 - Memory leaks
 - Dangling pointers
 - Double free

Memory Management Bugs (1)

```
int search_file(char * filename, char * search) {
  unsigned int size;
  char * data;
  FILE * fp = fopen(filename, "r"); // Open the file
                                        // Seek to the end of the file
  fseek(fp, 0, SEEK END);
                                        // Tell me the total length of the file
  size = ftell(fp);
  data = (char *) malloc(size * sizeof(char));
                                                   // Allocate buffer
  fseek(fp, 0, SEEK SET);
                                         // Seek bar
                                                        We forgot to free(data)!
  fread(data, 1, size, fp);
                                                         If this program ran for a long
  return strstr(data, search) > 0;
                                                         time, eventually it would exhaust
                                                         all available virtual memory
void main(int argc, char ** argv) {
  if (search_file(argv[1], argv[2])) printf("String '%s' found in file '%s'\n", argv[2], argv[1]);
  else printf("String '%s' NOT found in file '%s'\n", argv[2], argv[1]);
```

Memory Management Bugs (2)

Dangling pointer

Double free

- Free Lists
 - Basics
 - Speeding Up malloc() and free()
 - Slab Allocation
 - Common Bugs
- Garbage Collectors
 - Reference Counting
 - Mark and Sweep
 - Generational/Ephemeral GC
 - Parallel Garbage Collection

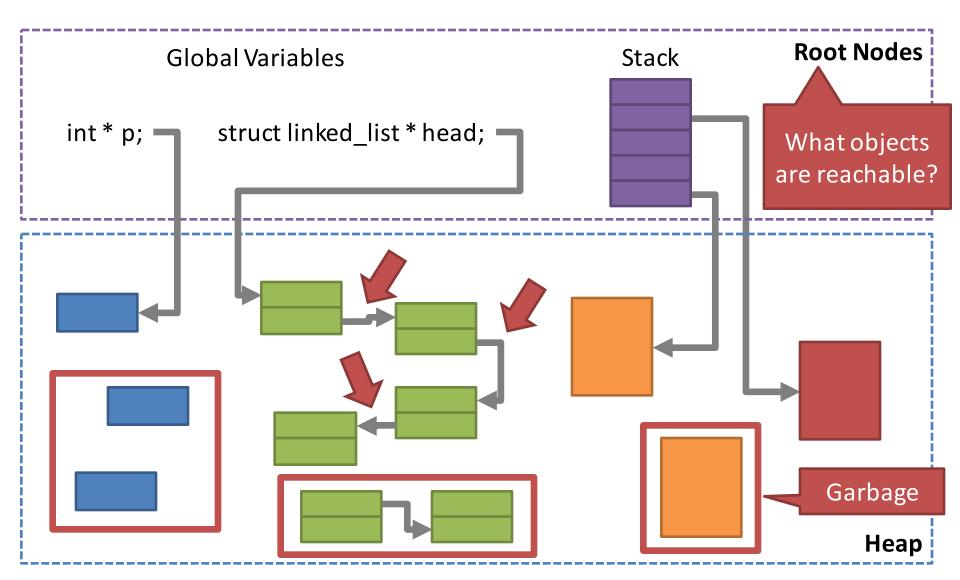
Brief Recap

- At this point, we have thoroughly covered how malloc() and free() can be implemented
 - Free lists of varying complexity
 - Modern implementations are optimized for low fragmentation, high parallelism
- What about languages that automatically manage memory?
 - Java, Javascript, C#, Perl, Python, PHP, Ruby, etc...

Garbage Collection

- Invented in 1959
- Automatic memory management
 - The GC reclaims memory occupied by objects that are no longer in use
 - Such objects are called garbage
- Conceptually simple
 - 1. Scan objects in memory, identify objects that cannot be accessed (now, or in the future)
 - 2. Reclaim these garbage objects
- In practice, very tricky to implement

Garbage Collection Concepts



Identifying Pointers

At the assembly level, anything can be a pointer

```
int x = 0x80FCE42;
char * c = (char *) x;  // this is legal
```

- Challenge: how can the GC identify pointers?
 - 1. Conservative approach: assume any number that might be a pointer, is a pointer
 - Problem: may erroneously determine (due to false pointers) that some blocks of memory are in use
 - Deterministic approach: use a type-safe language that does not allow the programmer to use unboxed values as pointers, or perform pointer arithmetic

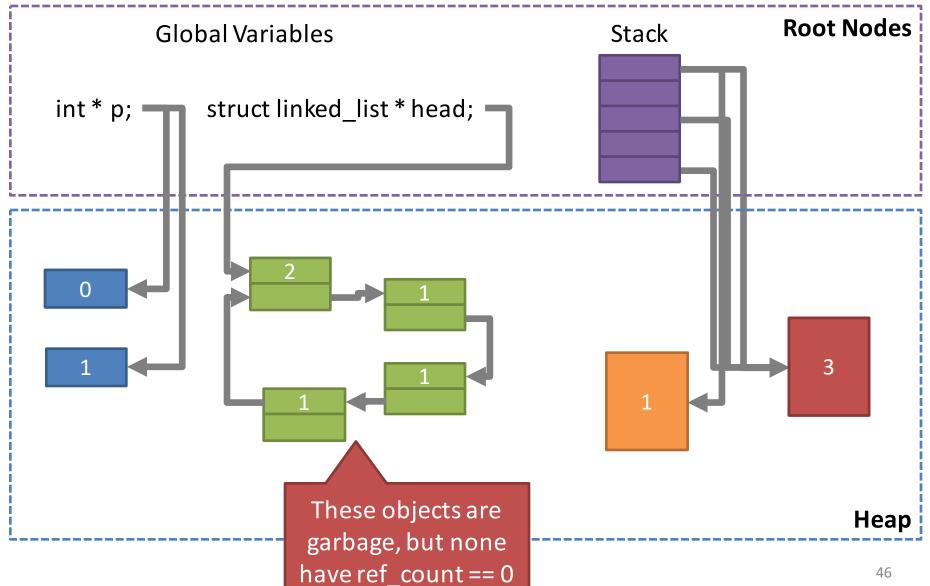
Approaches to GC

- Reference Counting
 - Each object keeps a count of references
 - If an objects count == 0, it is garbage
- Mark and Sweep
 - Starting at the roots, traverse objects and "mark" them
 - Free all unmarked objects on the heap
- Copy Collection
 - Extends mark & sweep with compaction
 - Addresses CPU and external fragmentation issues
- Generational Collection
 - Uses heuristics to improve the runtime of mark & sweep

Reference Counting

- Key idea: each object includes a ref_count
 - Assume obj * p = NULL;
 - p = obj1; // obj1->ref_count++
 - $-p = obj2; // obj1->ref_count--, obj2->ref_count++$
- If an object's ref_count == 0, it is garbage
 - No pointers target that object
 - Thus, it can be safely freed

Reference Counting Example



Pros and Cons of Reference Counting

The Good

- Relatively easy to implement
- Easy to conceptualize

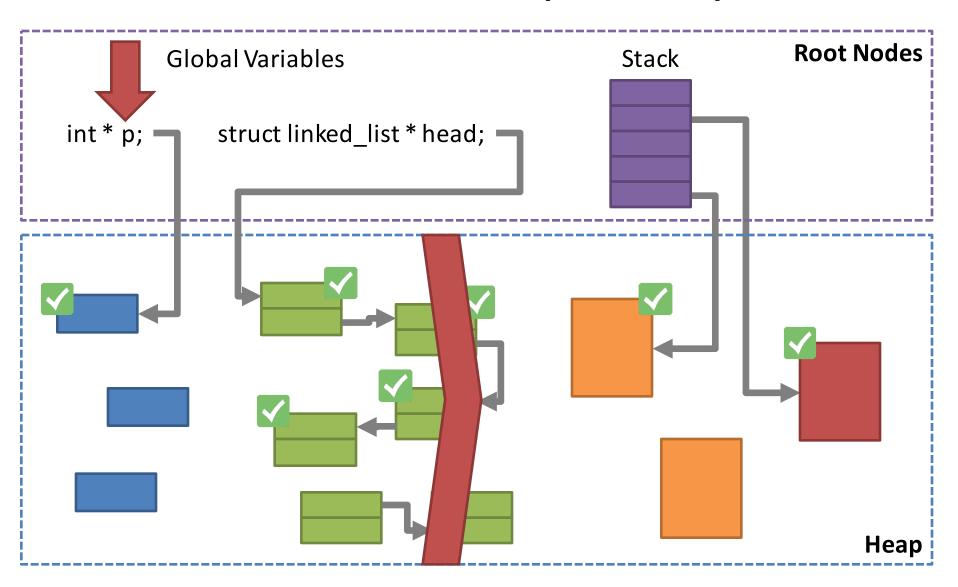
The Bad

- Not guaranteed to free all garbage objects
- Additional overhead (int ref_count) on all objects
- Access to obj->ref_count must be synchronized

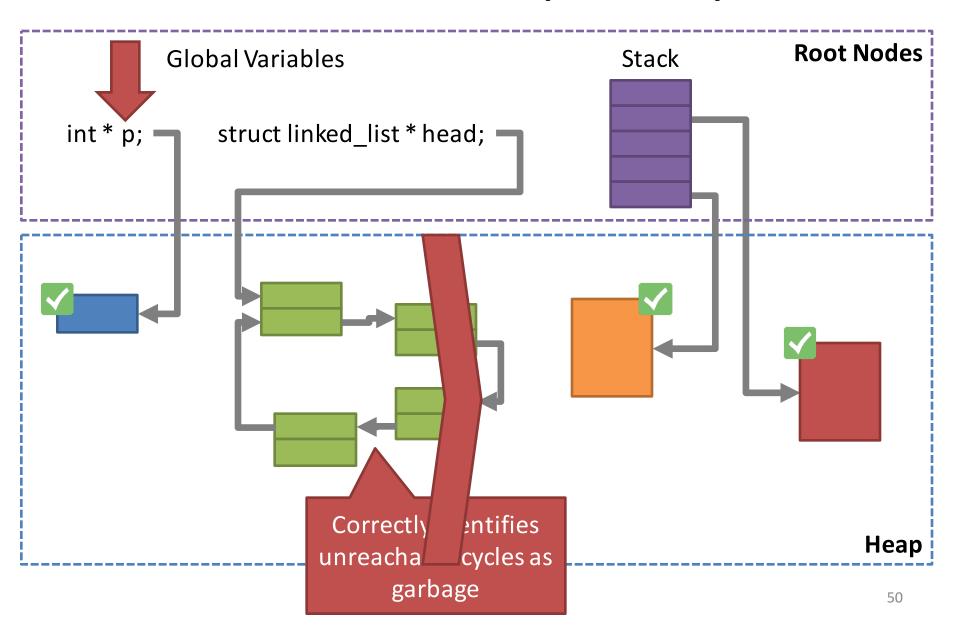
Mark and Sweep

- Key idea: periodically scan all objects for reachability
 - Start at the roots
 - Traverse all reachable objects, mark them
 - All unmarked objects are garbage

Mark and Sweep Example



Mark and Sweep Example



Pros and Cons of Mark and Sweep

The Good

- Overcomes the weakness of reference counting
- Fairly easy to implement and conceptualize
- Guaranteed to free all garbage objects

Be careful: if you forget to set a reference to NULL, it will never be collected (i.e. Java can leak memory)

The Bad

- Mark and sweep is CPU intensive
 - Traverses all objects reachable from the root
 - Scans all objects in memory freeing unmarked objects
- Naïve implementations "stop the world" before collecting
 - Threads cannot run in parallel with the GC
 - All threads get stopped while the GC runs

Copy Collection

- Problem with mark and sweep:
 - After marking, all objects on the heap must be scanned to identify and free unmarked objects
- Key idea: use compaction (aka relocation)
 - Divide the heap into start space and end space
 - Objects are allocated in start space
 - During GC, instead of marking, copy live object from start space into end space
 - Switch the space labels and continue

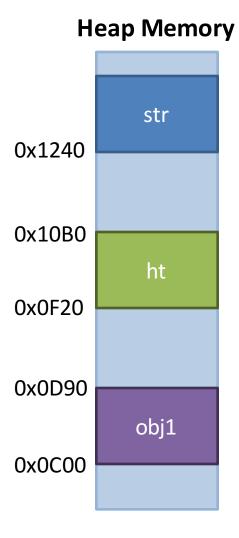
Compaction/Relocation

String str2 = new String();

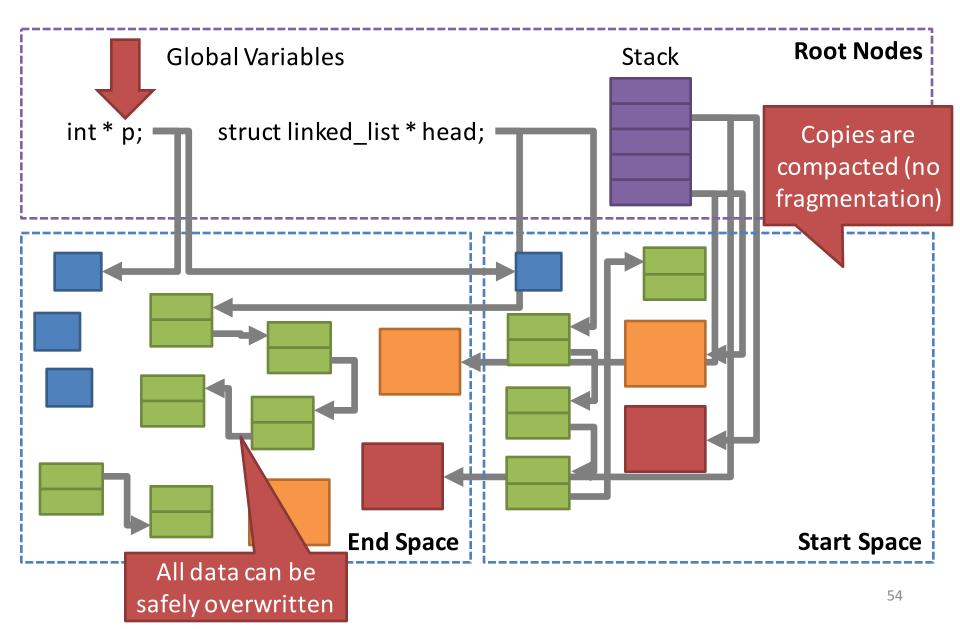
Pointer	Value	Location
obj1	0x0C00	0x0C00
ht	0x0D90	0x0D90
str	0x0F20	0x0F20
str2	0x10B0	0x10B0



- One way to deal with fragmentation is compaction
 - Copy allocated blocks of memory into a contiguous region of memory
 - Repeat this process periodically
- This only works if pointers are boxed, i.e. managed by the runtime



Copy Collection Example



Pros and Cons of Copy Collection

The Good

- Improves on mark and sweep
- No need to scan memory for garbage to free
- After compaction, there is no fragmentation

The Bad

- Copy collection is slow
 - Data must be copied
 - Pointers must be updated
- Naïve implementations are not parallelizable
 - "Stop the world" collector

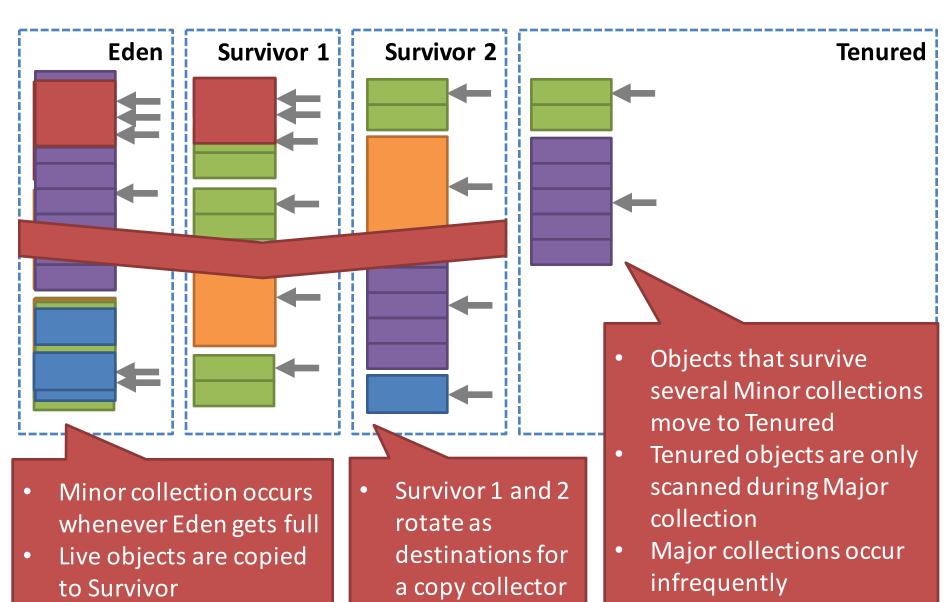
Generational Collection

- Problem: mark and sweep is slow
 - Expensive full traversals of live objects
 - Expensive scan of heap memory
- Problem: copy collection is also slow
 - Expensive full traversals of live objects
 - Periodically, all live objects get copied
- Solution: leverage knowledge about object creation patterns
 - Object lifetime tends to be inversely correlated with likelihood of becoming garbage (generational hypothesis)
 - Young objects die quickly old objects continue to live

Garbage Collection in Java

- By default, most JVMs use a generational collector
- GC periodically runs two different collections:
 - 1. Minor collection occurs frequently
 - 2. Major collection occurs infrequently
- Divides heap into 4 regions
 - Eden: newly allocated objects
 - Survivor 1 and 2: objects from Eden that survive minor collection
 - Tenured: objects from Survivor that survive several minor collections

Generational Collection Example



More on Generational GC

- Separating young and old objects improves performance
 - Perform frequent, minor collections on young objects
 - No need to scan old objects frequently
- Copy collection reduces fragmentation
 - Eden and Survivor areas are relatively small, but they are frequently erased

Parallel and Concurrent GC

- Modern JVMs ship with multiple generational GC implementations, including:
 - The Parallel Collector
 - Runs several GC threads in parallel with user threads
 - Multiple GC threads take part in each minor/major collection
 - Best choice if your app is intolerant of pauses
 - The Concurrent Mark and Sweep Collector
 - Also implements multi-threaded GC
 - Pauses the app, uses all CPU cores for GC
 - Overall fastest GC, if your app can tolerate pauses
- Selecting and tuning Java GCs is an art

malloc()/free() vs. GC

Explicit Alloc/Dealloc

- Advantages:
 - Typically faster than GC
 - No GC "pauses" in execution
 - More efficient use of memory
- Disadvantages:
 - More complex for programmers
 - Tricky memory bugs
 - Dangling pointers
 - Double-free
 - Memory leaks
 - Bugs may lead to security vulnerabilities

Garbage Collection

- Advantages:
 - Much easier for programmers
- Disadvantages
 - Typically slower than explicit alloc/dealloc
 - Good performance requires careful tuning of the GC
 - Less efficient use of memory
 - Complex runtimes may have security vulnerabilities
 - JVM gets exploited all the time

Other Considerations

- Garbage collectors are available for C/C++
 - Boehm Garbage Collector
 - Beware: this GC is conservative
 - It tries to identify pointers using heuristics
 - Since it can't identify pointers with 100% accuracy, it must conservatively free memory
- You can replace the default malloc() implementation if you want to
 - Example: Google's high-performance tcmalloc library
 - http://goog-perftools.sourceforge.net/doc/tcmalloc.html

Sources

- Slides by Jennifer Rexford
 - http://www.cs.princeton.edu/~jrex
- Operating Systems: Three Easy Pieces, Chapter 17 by Remzi and Andrea Arpaci-Dusseau
 - http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-freespace.pdf
- Java Platform, Standard Edition HotSpot Virtual Machine Garbage Collection Tuning Guide by Oracle (Java SE v. 8)
 - http://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/technotes/guides/vm/gc tuning/toc.html