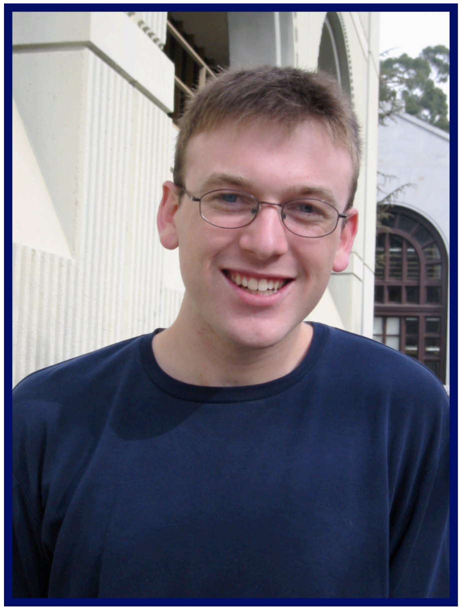
inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs61c

CS61CL : Machine Structures

Lecture #3 - Dynamic Storage

2009-06-29



Jeremy Huddleston

Review

- Pointers and arrays are virtually same
- C knows how to increment pointers
- C is an efficient language, with little protection
  - Array bounds not checked
  - Variables not automatically initialized
- (Beware) The cost of efficiency is more overhead for the programmer.
  - "C gives you a lot of extra rope but be careful not to hang yourself with it!"

Dynamic Memory Allocation (1/4)

- C has operator `sizeof()` which gives size in bytes (of type or variable)
- Assume size of objects can be misleading and is bad style, so use `sizeof(type)`
  - Many years ago an `int` was 16 bits, and programs were written with this assumption.
  - What is the size of integers now?
- "`sizeof`" knows the size of arrays:

```
int ar[3]; // Or:   int ar[] = {54, 47, 99}
sizeof(ar) ⇒ 12
```

  - …as well for arrays whose size is determined at run-time:

```
int n = 3;
int ar[n]; // Or: int ar[fun_that_returns_3()];
sizeof(ar) ⇒ 12
```

Dynamic Memory Allocation (2/4)

- To allocate room for something new to point to, use `malloc()` (with the help of a typecast and `sizeof`):

```
ptr = (int *) malloc (sizeof(int));
```

  - Now, `ptr` points to a space somewhere in memory of size `(sizeof(int))` in bytes.
  - `(int *)` simply tells the compiler what will go into that space (called a typecast).

- `malloc` is almost never used for 1 var

```
ptr = (int *) malloc (n*sizeof(int));
```

  - This allocates an array of `n` integers.

Dynamic Memory Allocation (3/4)

- Once `malloc()` is called, the memory location contains garbage, so don’t use it until you’ve set its value.
- After dynamically allocating space, we must dynamically free it:

```
free(ptr);
```

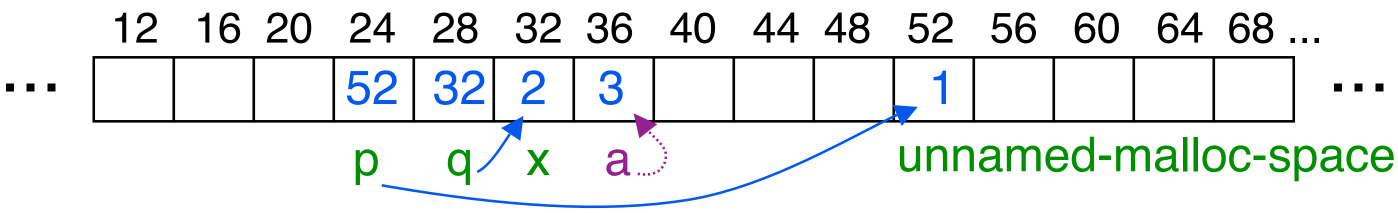
- Use this command to clean up.
  - Even though the program `free`s all memory on `exit` (or when `main` returns), don’t be lazy!
  - You never know when your `main` will get transformed into a subroutine!

Dynamic Memory Allocation (4/4)

- The following two things will cause your program to crash or behave strangely later on, and cause VERY VERY hard to figure out bugs:
  - `free()`ing the same piece of memory twice
  - calling `free()` on something you didn't get back from `malloc()`
- The runtime does not check for these mistakes
  - Memory allocation is so performance-critical that there just isn't time to do this
  - The usual result is that you corrupt the memory allocator's internal structure
  - You won't find out until much later on, in a totally unrelated part of your code!

Arrays not implemented as you’d think

```
void foo() {
  int *p, *q, x, a[1]; // a[] = {3} also works here
  p = (int *) malloc (sizeof(int));
  q = &x;

  *p = 1; // p[0] would also work here
  *q = 2; // q[0] would also work here
  *a = 3; // a[0] would also work here

  printf("*p:%u, p:%u, &p:%u\n", *p, p, &p);
  printf("*q:%u, q:%u, &q:%u\n", *q, q, &q);
  printf("*a:%u, a:%u, &a:%u\n", *a, a, &a);

}
```



```
*p:1, p:52, &p:24
*q:2, q:32, &q:28
*a:3, a:36, &a:36
```

Don’t forget the globals!

- Remember:
  - Structure declaration does not allocate memory
  - Variable declaration does allocate memory
- So far we have talked about several different ways to allocate memory for data:

1. Declaration of a local variable

```
int i; struct Node list; char *string; int ar[n];
```

2. “Dynamic” allocation at runtime by calling allocation function (alloc).

```
ptr = (struct Node *) malloc(sizeof(struct Node)*n);
```

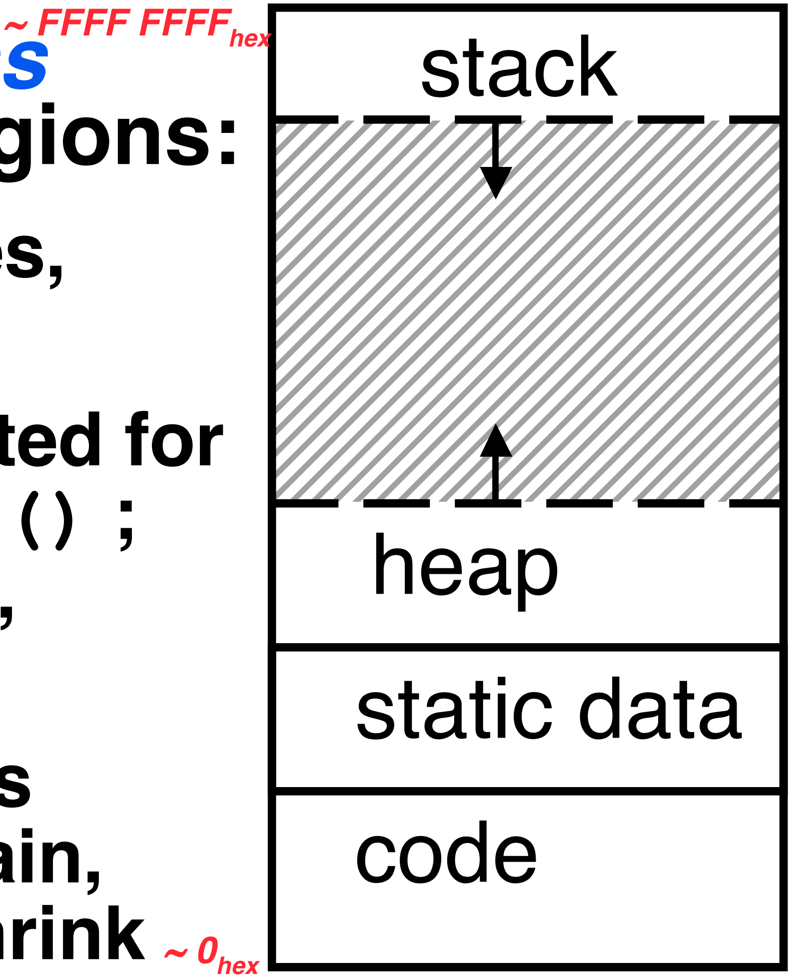
- One more possibility exists…

3. Data declared outside of any procedure (i.e., before `main`).
   - Similar to #1 above, but has “global” scope.

```
int myGlobal;
main() {
}
```

C Memory Management

- A program's ***address space*** contains 4 regions:
  - **stack**: local variables, grows downward
  - **heap**: space requested for pointers via `malloc()` ; resizes dynamically, grows upward
  - **static data**: variables declared outside main, does not grow or shrink
  - **code**: loaded when program starts, does not change



For now, OS somehow prevents accesses between stack and heap (gray hash lines). Wait for virtual memory

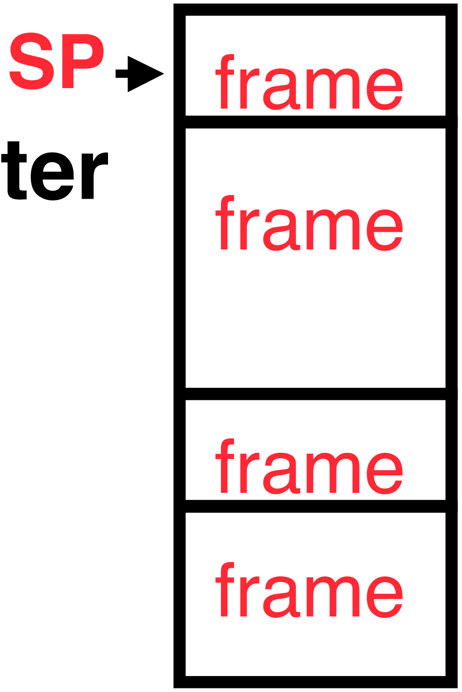
Where are variables allocated?

- If declared outside a procedure, allocated in “static” storage
- If declared inside procedure, allocated on the “stack” and freed when procedure returns.
  - NB: `main()` is a procedure

```
int myGlobal;
main() {
   int myTemp;
}
```

The Stack

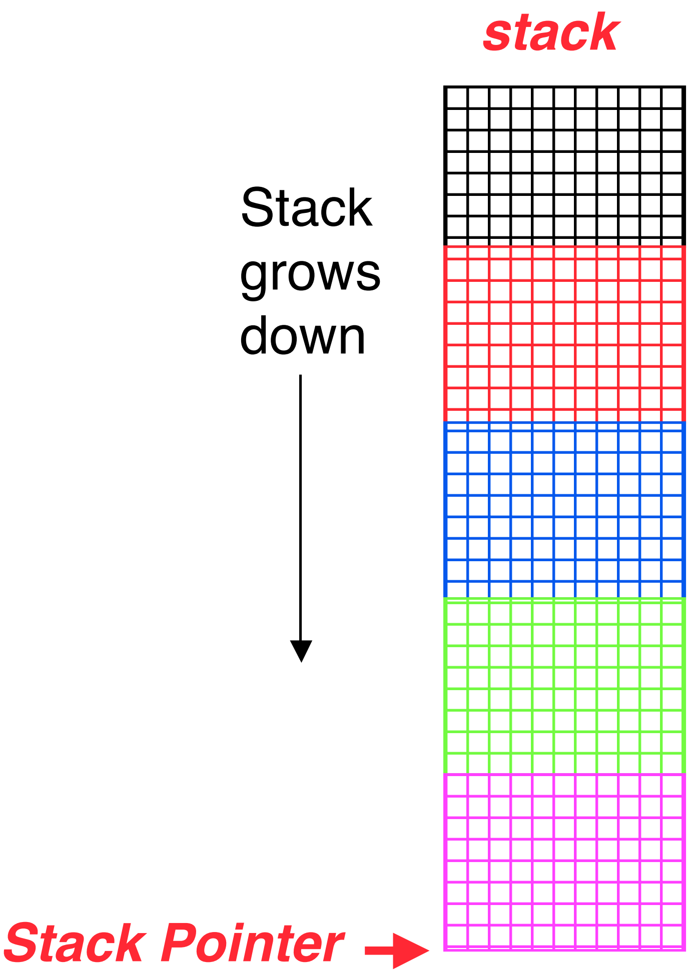
- Stack frame includes:
  - Return "instruction" address
  - Parameters
  - Space for other local variables
- Stack frames contiguous blocks of memory; stack pointer tells where top stack frame is
- When procedure ends, stack frame is tossed off the stack; frees memory for future stack frames



Stack

- **Last In, First Out (LIFO) data structure**

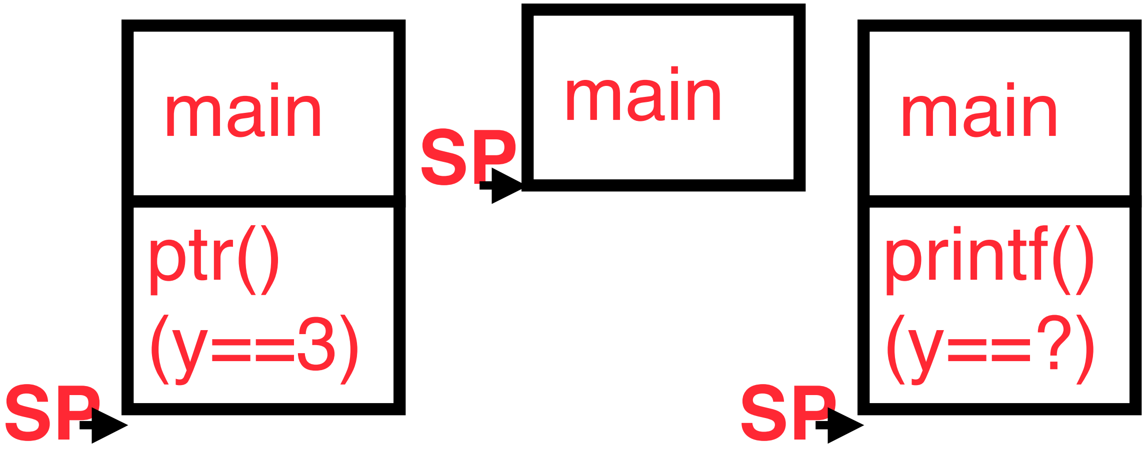
```
main ()
{ a(0);
}
  void a (int m)
  { b(1);
  }
    void b (int n)
    { c(2);
    }
      void c (int o)
      { d(3);
      }void d (int p)
        {
        }
```



Who cares about stack management?

- **Pointers in C allow access to deallocated memory, leading to hard-to-find bugs !**

```
int *ptr () {
   int y;
   y = 3;
   return &y;
 };
 main () {
   int *stackAddr,content;
   stackAddr = ptr();
   content = *stackAddr;
   printf("%d", content); /* 3 */
   content = *stackAddr;
   printf("%d", content); /*13451514 */
 };
```



main

ptr()
(y==3)

SP

SP

main

main

printf()
(y==?)

SP

The Heap (Dynamic memory)

- Large pool of memory, not allocated in contiguous order
  - back-to-back requests for heap memory could result blocks very far apart
  - where Java `new` command allocates memory
- In C, specify number of bytes of memory explicitly to allocate item

```
int *ptr;
ptr = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int));
/* malloc returns type (void *),
so need to cast to right type */
```

  - `malloc()`: Allocates raw, uninitialized memory from heap

Memory Management

- How do we manage memory?
- Code, Static storage are easy: they never grow or shrink
- Stack space is also easy: stack frames are created and destroyed in last-in, first-out (LIFO) order
- Managing the heap is tricky: memory can be allocated / deallocated at any time

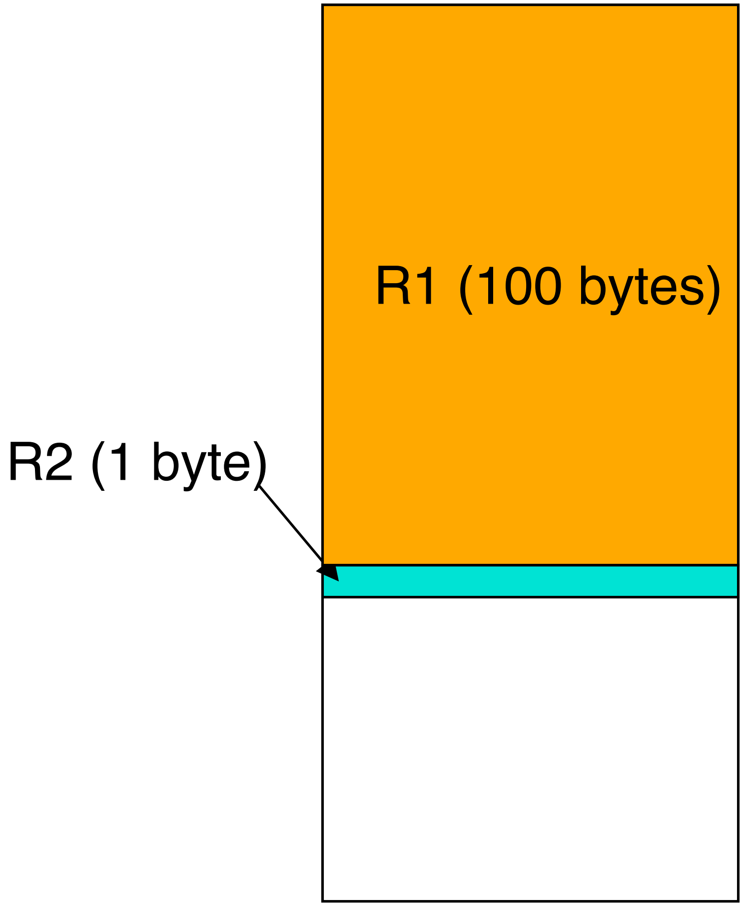
Heap Management Requirements

- Want `malloc()` and `free()` to run quickly.
- Want minimal memory overhead
- Want to avoid *fragmentation** – when most of our free memory is in many small chunks
  - In this case, we might have many free bytes but not be able to satisfy a large request since the free bytes are not contiguous in memory.

* This is technically called *external fragmention*

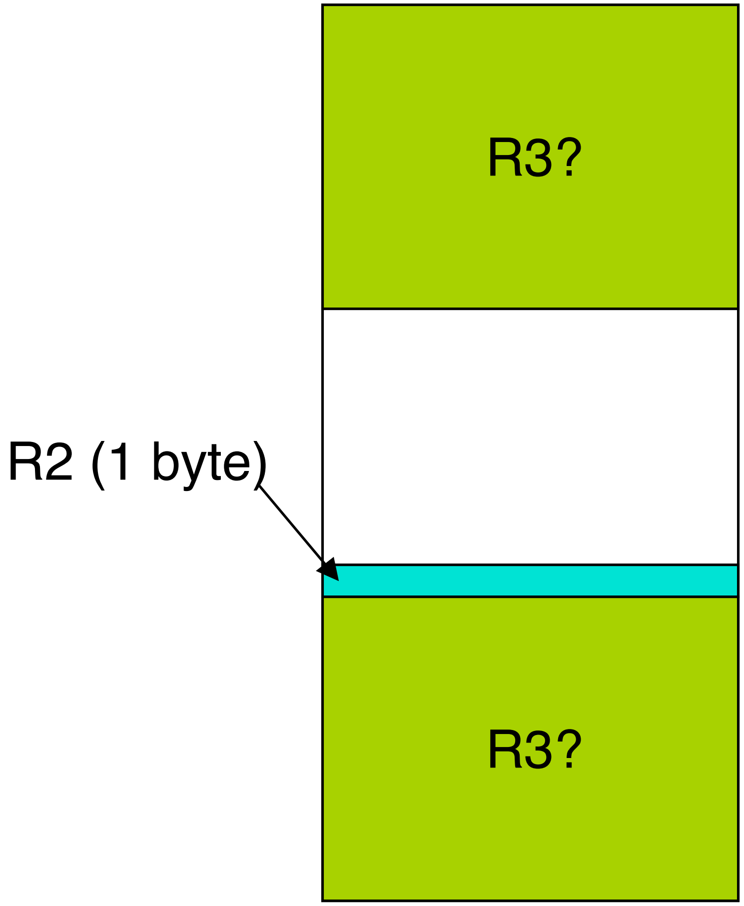
Heap Management

- An example
  - Request R1 for 100 bytes
  - Request R2 for 1 byte
  - Memory from R1 is freed
  - Request R3 for 50 bytes



Heap Management

- An example
  - Request R1 for 100 bytes
  - Request R2 for 1 byte
  - Memory from R1 is freed
  - Request R3 for 50 bytes



K&R Malloc/Free Implementation

- From Section 8.7 of K&R
  - Code in the book uses some C language features we haven't discussed and is written in a very terse style, don't worry if you can't decipher the code
- Each block of memory is preceded by a header that has two fields:
  size of the block and
  a pointer to the next block
- All free blocks are kept in a circular linked list, the pointer field is unused in an allocated block

K&R Implementation

- `malloc()` searches the free list for a block that is big enough. If none is found, more memory is requested from the operating system. If what it gets can't satisfy the request, it fails.
- `free()` checks if the blocks adjacent to the freed block are also free
  - If so, adjacent free blocks are merged (coalesced) into a single, larger free block
  - Otherwise, the freed block is just added to the free list

Choosing a block in `malloc()`

- If there are multiple free blocks of memory that are big enough for some request, how do we choose which one to use?
  - **best-fit**: choose the smallest block that is big enough for the request
  - **first-fit**: choose the first block we see that is big enough
  - **next-fit**: like first-fit but remember where we finished searching and resume searching from there

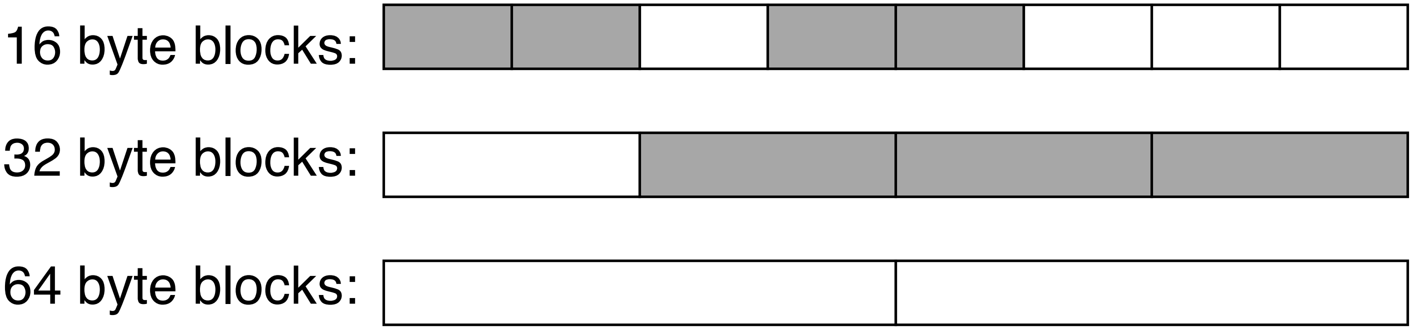
Slab Allocator

- A different approach to memory management (used in GNU `libc`)
- Divide blocks in to “large” and “small” by picking an arbitrary threshold size. Blocks larger than this threshold are managed with a freelist (as before).
- For small blocks, allocate blocks in sizes that are powers of 2
  - e.g., if program wants to allocate 20 bytes, actually give it 32 bytes

Slab Allocator

- Bookkeeping for small blocks is relatively easy: just use a *bitmap* for each range of blocks of the same size
- Allocating is easy and fast: compute the size of the block to allocate and find a free bit in the corresponding bitmap.
- Freeing is also easy and fast: figure out which slab the address belongs to and clear the corresponding bit.

Slab Allocator



16 byte block bitmap: 11011000

32 byte block bitmap: 0111

64 byte block bitmap: 00

Slab Allocator Tradeoffs

- Extremely fast for small blocks.
- Slower for large blocks
  - But presumably the program will take more time to do something with a large block so the overhead is not as critical.
- Minimal space overhead
- No fragmentation (as we defined it before) for small blocks, but still have wasted space!

Internal vs. External Fragmentation

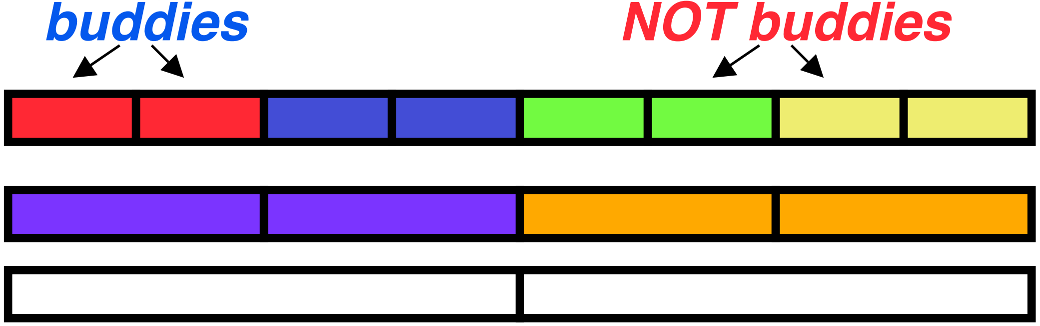
- With the slab allocator, difference between requested size and next power of 2 is wasted
  - e.g., if program wants to allocate 20 bytes and we give it a 32 byte block, 12 bytes are unused.
- We also refer to this as fragmentation, but call it ***internal* fragmentation** since the wasted space is actually within an allocated block.
- **External fragmentation**: wasted space between allocated blocks.

Buddy System

- Yet another memory management technique (used in Linux kernel)
- Like GNU's "slab allocator", but only allocate blocks in sizes that are powers of 2 (internal fragmentation is possible)
- Keep separate free lists for each size
  - e.g., separate free lists for 16 byte, 32 byte, 64 byte blocks, etc.

Buddy System

- If no free block of size `n` is available, find a block of size `2n` and split it in to two blocks of size `n`
- When a block of size `n` is freed, if its neighbor of size `n` is also free, combine the blocks in to a single block of size `2n`
  - **Buddy** is block in other half larger block



- Same speed advantages as slab allocator

Allocation Schemes

- So which memory management scheme (K&R, slab, buddy) is best?
  - There is no single best approach for every application.
  - Different applications have different allocation / deallocation patterns.
  - A scheme that works well for one application may work poorly for another application.

Automatic Memory Management

- Dynamically allocated memory is difficult to track – why not track it automatically?
- If we can keep track of what memory is in use, we can reclaim everything else.
  - Unreachable memory is called *garbage*, the process of reclaiming it is called *garbage collection*.
- So how do we track what is in use?

Tracking Memory Usage

- Techniques depend heavily on the programming language and rely on help from the compiler.
- Start with all pointers in global variables and local variables (root set).
- Recursively examine dynamically allocated objects we see a pointer to.
  - We can do this in constant space by reversing the pointers on the way down
- How do we recursively find pointers in dynamically allocated memory?

Tracking Memory Usage

- Again, it depends heavily on the programming language and compiler.
- Could have only a single type of dynamically allocated object in memory
  - E.g., simple Lisp/Scheme system with only `cons` cells (61A's Scheme not "simple")
- Could use a *strongly typed* language (e.g., Java)
  - Don't allow conversion (casting) between arbitrary types.
  - C/C++ are not strongly typed.
- Here are 3 schemes to collect garbage

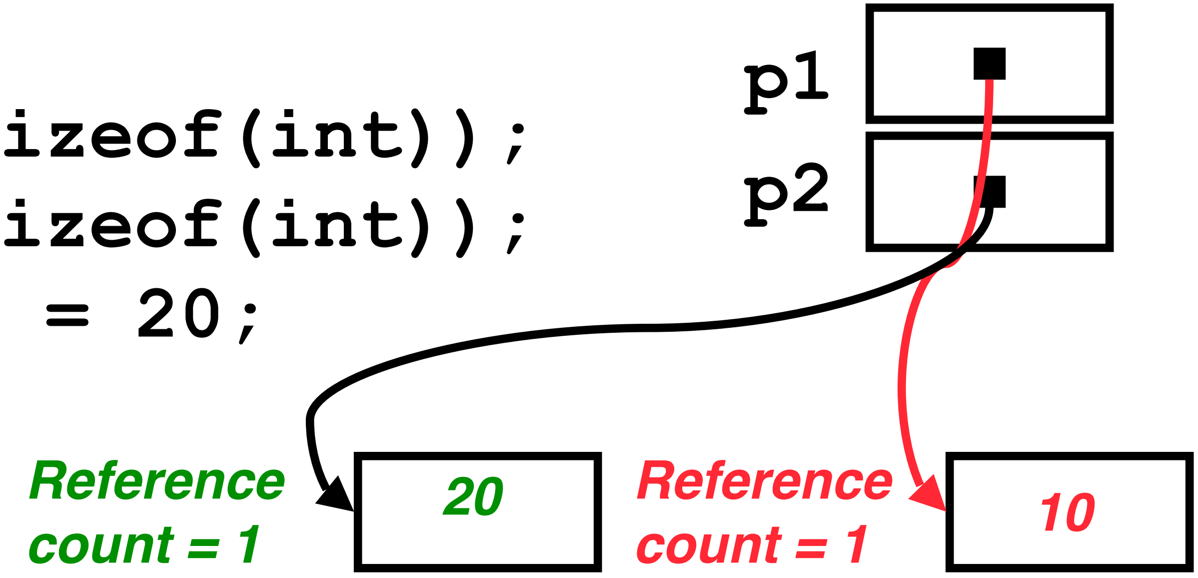
Scheme 1: Reference Counting

- For every chunk of dynamically allocated memory, keep a count of number of pointers that point to it.
- When the count reaches 0, reclaim.
- Simple assignment statements can result in a lot of work, since may update reference counts of many items

Reference Counting Example

- For every chunk of dynamically allocated memory, keep a count of number of pointers that point to it.
  - When the count reaches 0, reclaim.

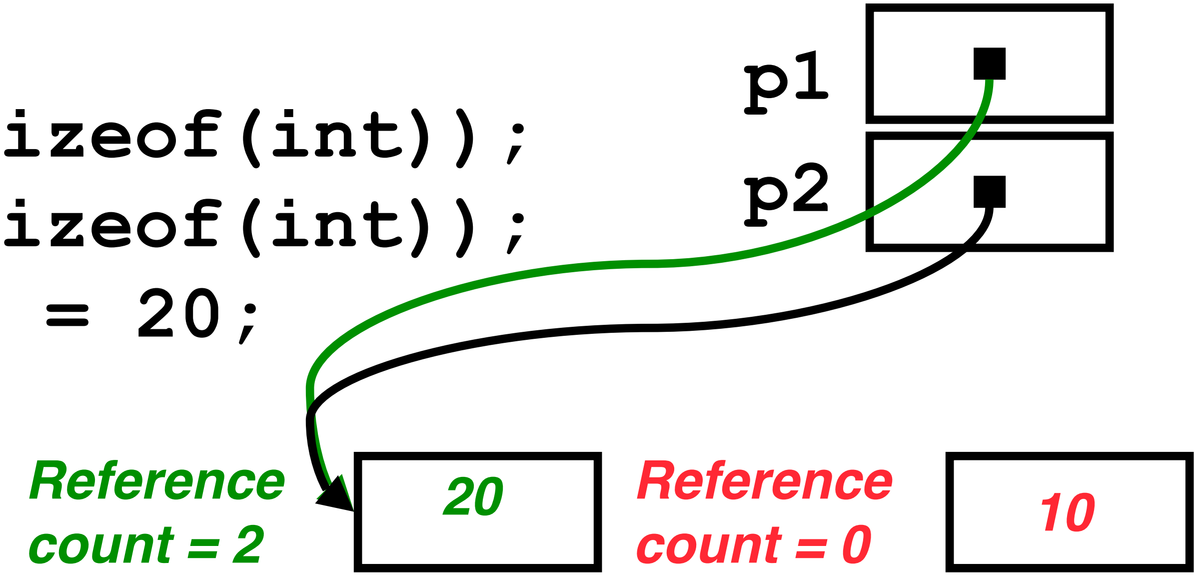
```
int *p1, *p2;
p1 = malloc(sizeof(int));
p2 = malloc(sizeof(int));
*p1 = 10; *p2 = 20;
```



Reference Counting Example

- For every chunk of dynamically allocated memory, keep a count of number of pointers that point to it.
  - When the count reaches 0, reclaim.

```
int *p1, *p2;
p1 = malloc(sizeof(int));
p2 = malloc(sizeof(int));
*p1 = 10; *p2 = 20;
p1 = p2;
```



Reference count = 2

Reference count = 0

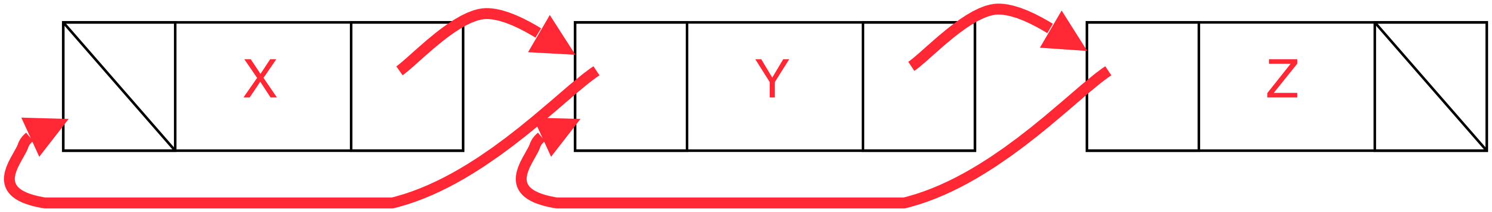
Reference Counting (`p1`, `p2` are pointers)

```
p1 = p2;
```

- Increment reference count for `p2`
- If `p1` held a valid value, decrement its reference count
- If the reference count for `p1` is now 0, reclaim the storage it points to.
    - If the storage pointed to by `p1` held other pointers, decrement all of their reference counts, and so on…
- Must also decrement reference count when local variables cease to exist.

Reference Counting Flaws

- Extra overhead added to assignments, as well as ending a block of code.
- Does not work for circular structures!
  - E.g., doubly linked list:



Scheme 2: Mark and Sweep Garbage Col.

- Keep allocating new memory until memory is exhausted, then try to find unused memory.
- Consider objects in heap a graph, chunks of memory (objects) are graph nodes, pointers to memory are graph edges.
  - Edge from A to B ⇒ A stores pointer to B
- Can start with the root set, perform a graph traversal, find all usable memory!
- 2 Phases:
  1. Mark used nodes
  2. Sweep free ones, returning list of free nodes

Mark and Sweep

- Graph traversal is relatively easy to implement recursively

```
void traverse(struct graph_node *node) {
    /* visit this node */
    foreach child in node->children {
        traverse(child);
    }
}
```

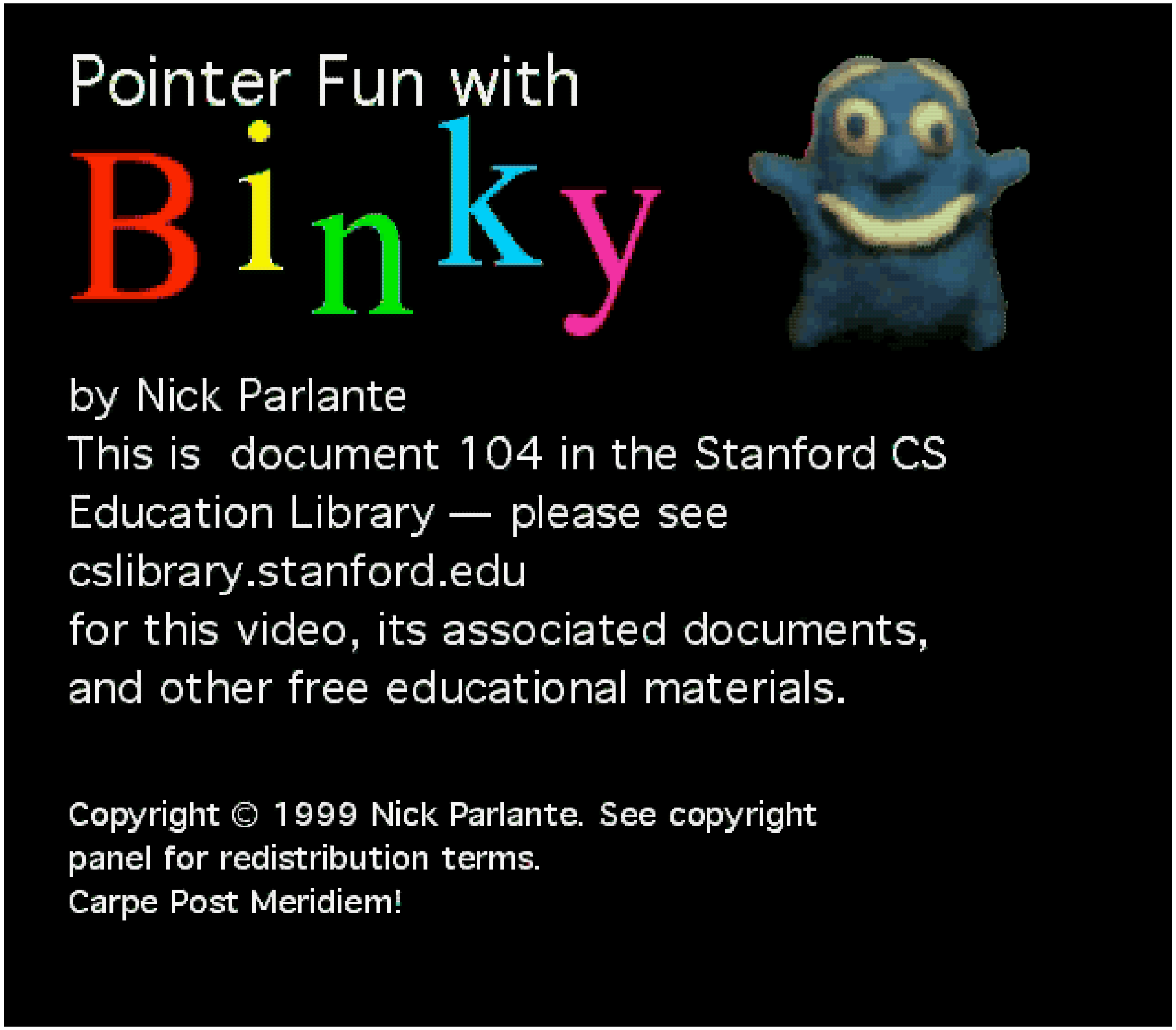
- But with recursion, state is stored on the execution stack.
    - Garbage collection is invoked when not much memory left
- As before, we could traverse in constant space (by reversing pointers)

Bonus slides

- These are extra slides that used to be included in lecture notes, but have been moved to this, the “bonus” area to serve as a supplement.
- The slides will appear in the order they would have in the normal presentation

Bonus

Binky Pointer Video (thanks to NP @ SU)



Pointer Fun with

Binky

by Nick Parlante

This is document 104 in the Stanford CS Education Library — please see cslibrary.stanford.edu for this video, its associated documents, and other free educational materials.

Copyright © 1999 Nick Parlante. See copyright panel for redistribution terms.

Carpe Post Meridiem!

Check out this video on the class website (click the link for this lecture)

Kilo, Mega, Giga, Tera, Peta, Exa, Zetta, Yotta

1. Kid meets giant Texas people exercising zen-like yoga. – Rolf O
2. Kind men give ten percent extra, zestfully, youthfully. – Hava E
3. Kissing Mentors Gives Testy Persistent Extremists Zealous Youthfulness. – Gary M
4. Kindness means giving, teaching, permeating excess zeal yourself. – Hava E
5. Killing messengers gives terrible people exactly zero, yo
6. Kindergarten means giving teachers perfect examples (of) zeal (&) youth
7. Kissing mediocre girls/guys teaches people (to) expect zero (from) you
8. Kinky Mean Girls Teach Penis-Extending Zen Yoga
9. Kissing Mel Gibson, Teddy Pendergrass exclaimed: “Zesty, yo!” – Dan G
10. Kissing me gives ten percent extra zeal & youth! – Dan G (borrowing parts)

C structures : Overview

- A `struct` is a data structure composed from simpler data types.
  - Like a class in Java/C++ but without methods or inheritance.

```
struct point {  /* type definition */
    int x;
    int y;
};

void PrintPoint(struct point p)
{  As always in C, the argument is passed by “value” – a copy is made.
    printf(“(%d,%d)”, p.x, p.y);
}

struct point p1 = {0,10}; /* x=0, y=10 */

PrintPoint(p1);
```

C structures: Pointers to them

- **Usually, more efficient to pass a pointer to the struct.**
- **The C arrow operator (`->`) dereferences and extracts a structure field with a single operator.**
- **The following are equivalent:**

```
struct point *p;
 /* code to assign to pointer */
printf("x is %d\n", (*p).x);
printf("x is %d\n", p->x);
```

How big are structs?

- Recall C operator `sizeof()` which gives size in bytes (of type or variable)
- How big is `sizeof(p)`?

```
struct p {
    char x;
    int y;
};
```

  - 5 bytes? 8 bytes?
  - Compiler may word align integer `y`

Linked List Example

- Let’s look at an example of using structures, pointers, `malloc()`, and `free()` to implement a linked list of strings.

```
/* node structure for linked list */
struct Node {
    char *value;
    struct Node *next;
};
```

Recursive definition!

`typedef` simplifies the code

```
struct Node {
    char *value;
    struct Node *next;
 };
```

```
String value;
```

```
/* "typedef" means define a new type */
typedef struct Node NodeStruct;
```

… OR …

```
typedef struct Node {
    char *value;
    struct Node *next;
 } NodeStruct;
```

… THEN

```
 typedef NodeStruct *List;
 typedef char *String;
```

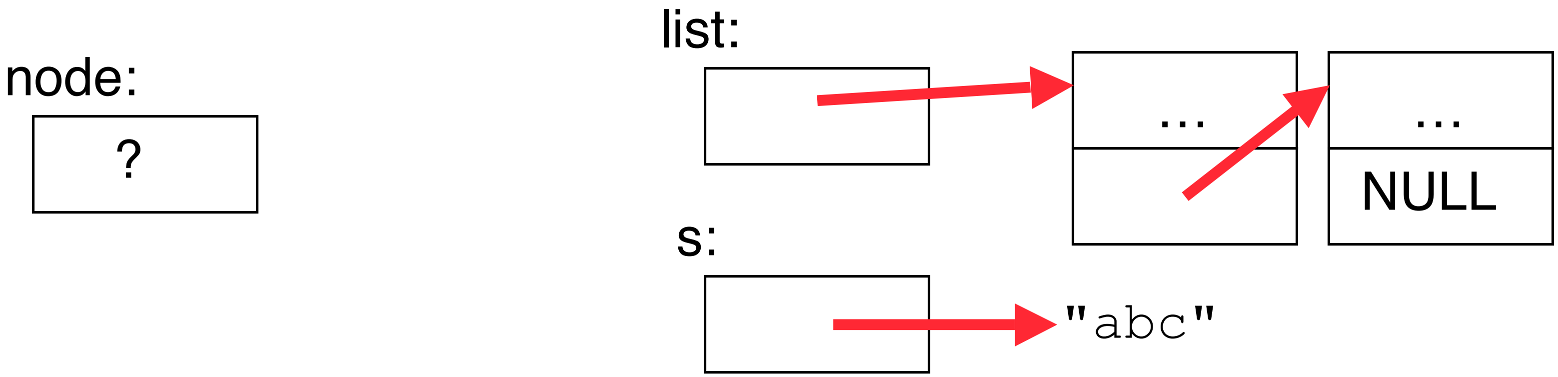
```
/* Note similarity!  */
/* To define 2 nodes */

struct Node {
    char *value;
    struct Node *next;
} node1, node2;
```

Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}

{
   String s1 = "abc", s2 = "cde";
   List theList = NULL;
   theList = cons(s2, theList);
   theList = cons(s1, theList);
/* or, just like (cons s1 (cons s2 nil)) */
   theList = cons(s1, cons(s2, NULL));
```

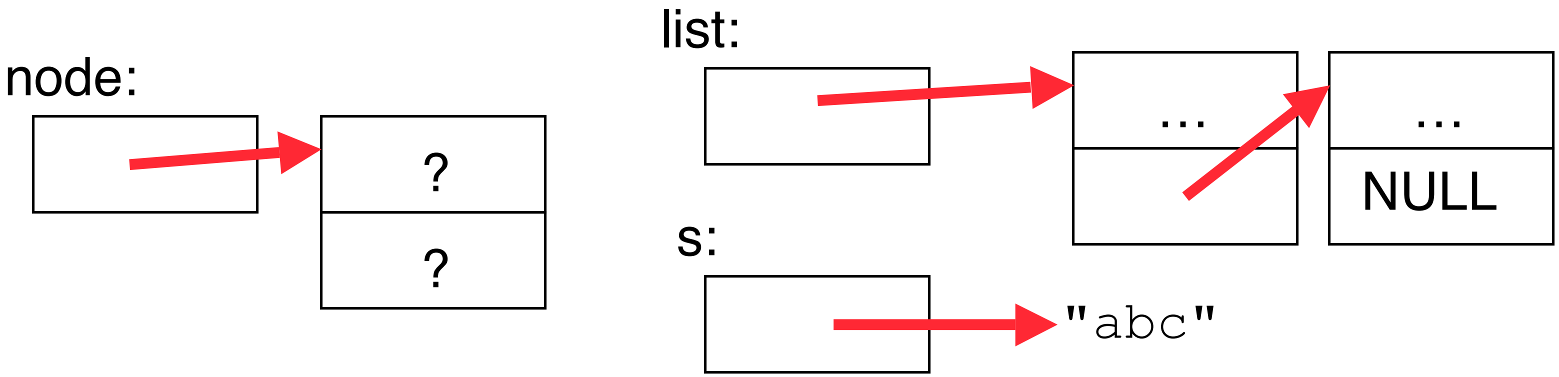
Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```



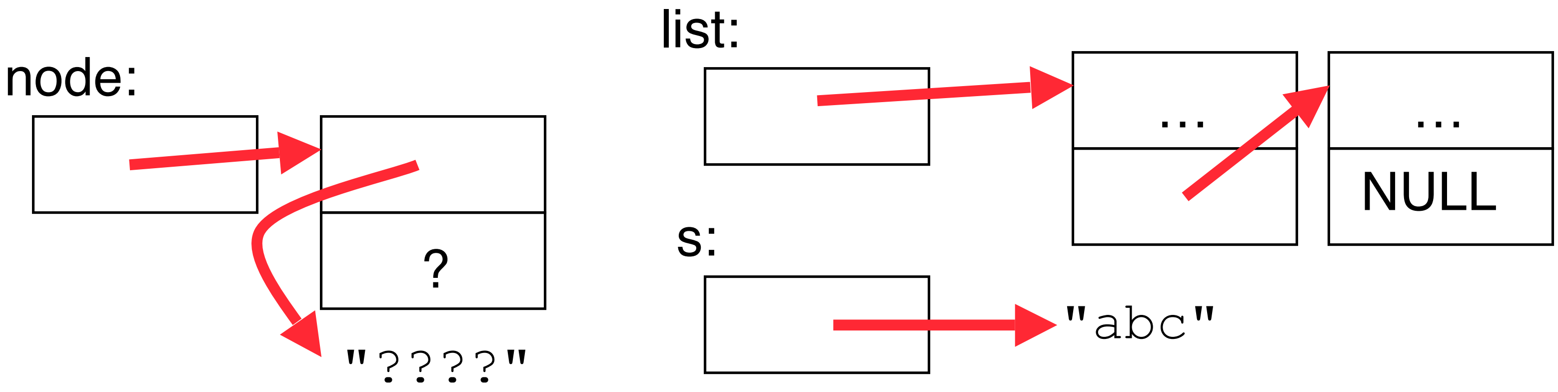
Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```



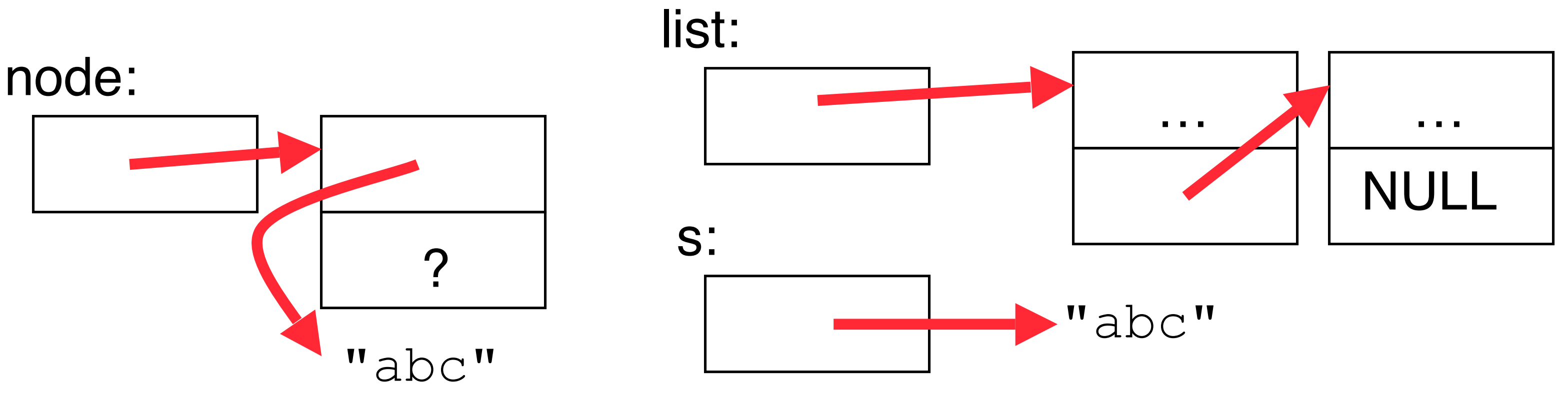
Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```



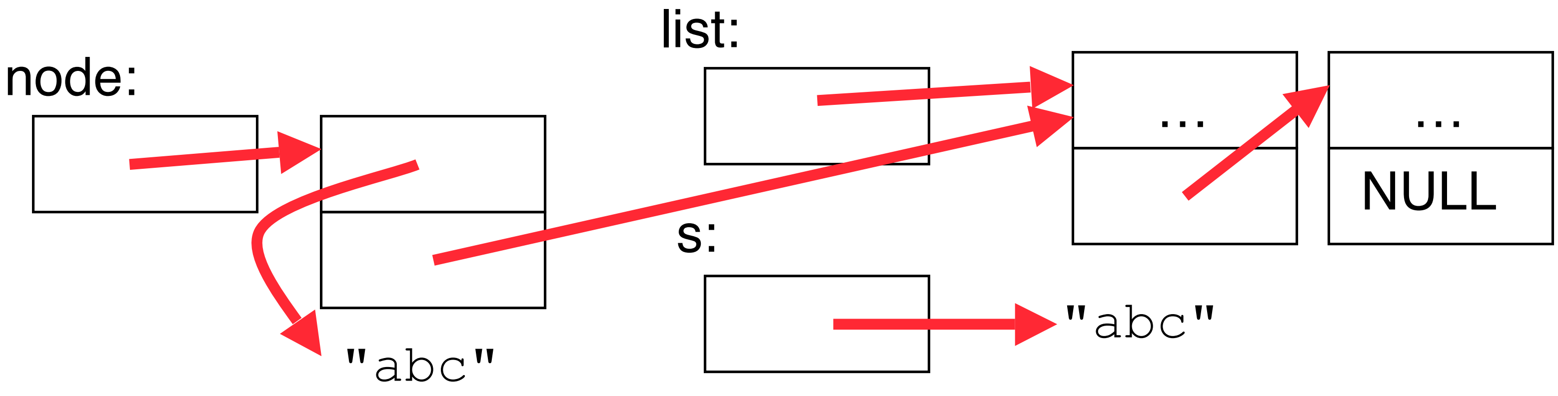
Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```



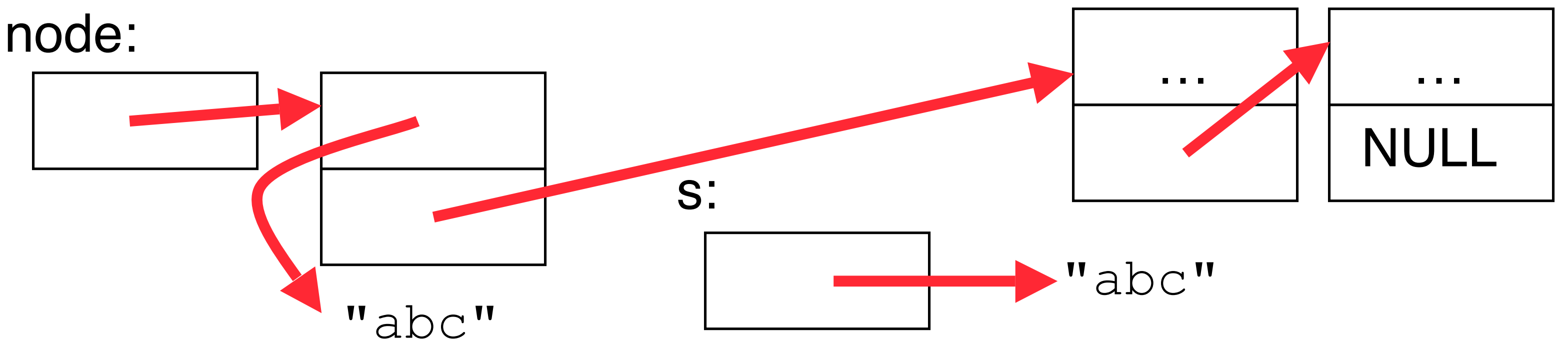
Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```



Linked List Example

```
/* Add a string to an existing list, 2nd call */
List cons(String s, List list)
{
  List node = (List) malloc(sizeof(NodeStruct));

  node->value = (String) malloc (strlen(s) + 1);
  strcpy(node->value, s);
  node->next = list;
  return node;
}
```

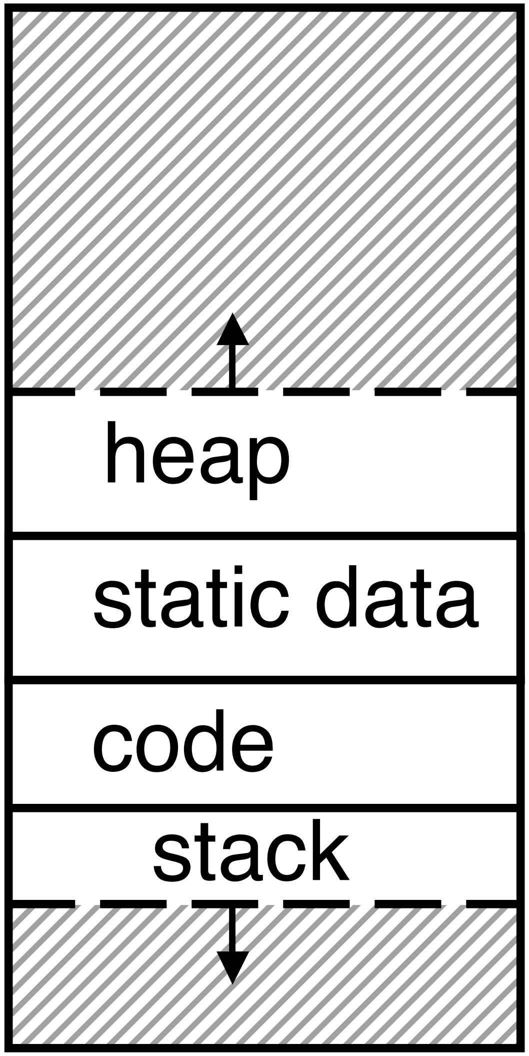


C Memory Management

- C has 3 primary pools of memory
  - Static storage: global variable storage, basically permanent, entire program run
  - The Stack: local variable storage, parameters, return address (location of “activation records” in Java or “stack frame” in C)
  - The Heap (dynamic malloc storage): data lives until deallocated by programmer
- C requires knowing where objects are in memory, otherwise things don’t work as expected
  - Java hides location of objects

Intel 80x86 C Memory Management

- A C program's 80x86 *address space* :
  - **heap**: space requested for pointers via `malloc()`; resizes dynamically, grows upward
  - **static data**: variables declared outside main, does not grow or shrink
  - **code**: loaded when program starts, does not change
  - **stack**: local variables, grows downward



~ 08000000_{hex}

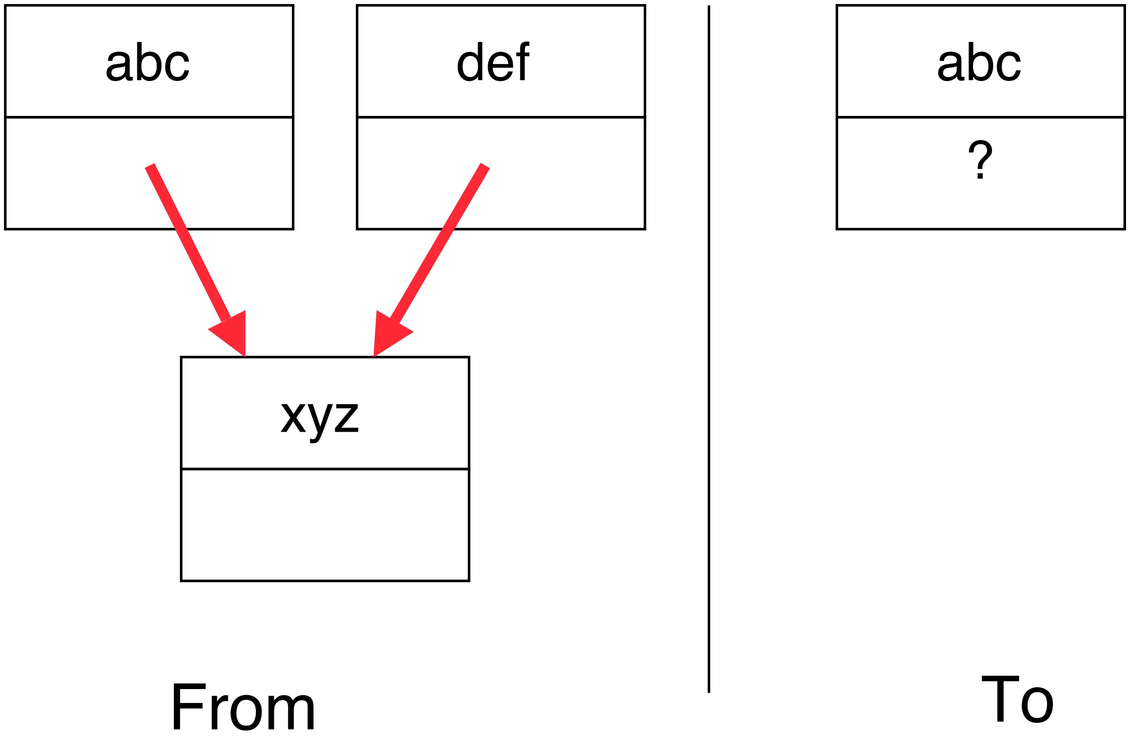
Tradeoffs of allocation policies

- **Best-fit:** Tries to limit fragmentation but at the cost of time (must examine all free blocks for each malloc). Leaves lots of small blocks (why?)
- **First-fit:** Quicker than best-fit (why?) but potentially more fragmentation. Tends to concentrate small blocks at the beginning of the free list (why?)
- **Next-fit:** Does not concentrate small blocks at front like first-fit, should be faster as a result.

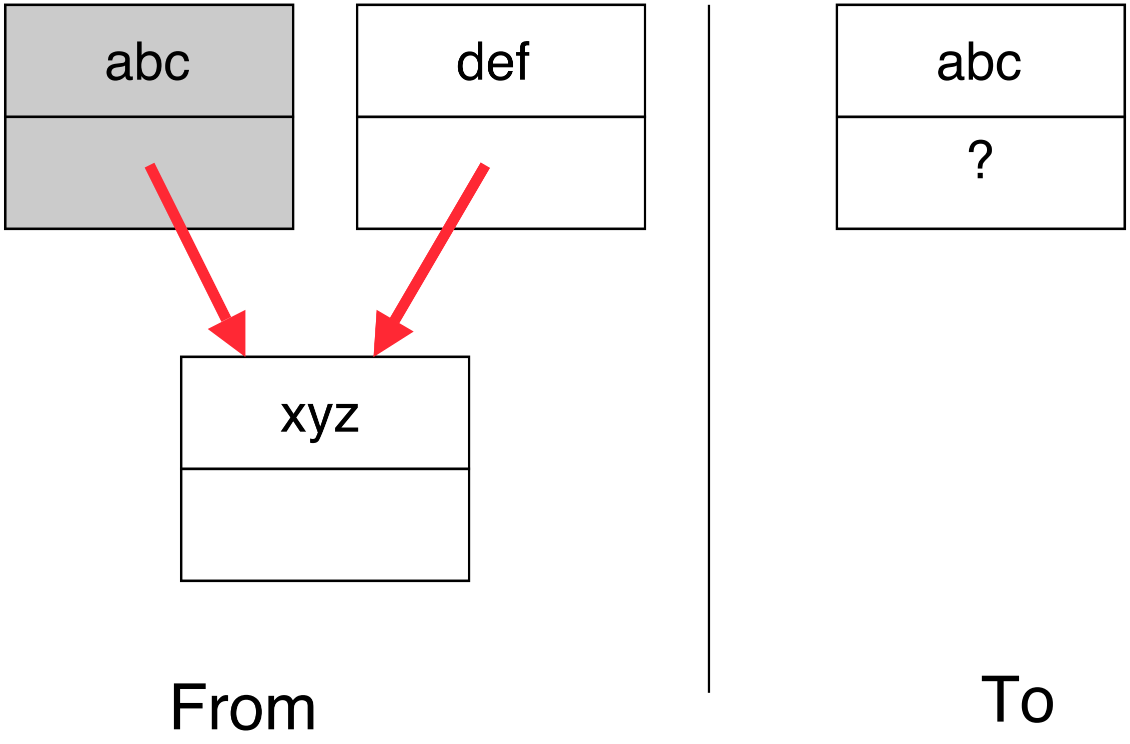
Scheme 3: Copying Garbage Collection

- Divide memory into two spaces, only one in use at any time.
- When active space is exhausted, traverse the active space, copying all objects to the other space, then make the new space active and continue.
  - Only reachable objects are copied!
- Use “forwarding pointers” to keep consistency
  - Simple solution to avoiding having to have a table of old and new addresses, and to mark objects already copied (see bonus slides)

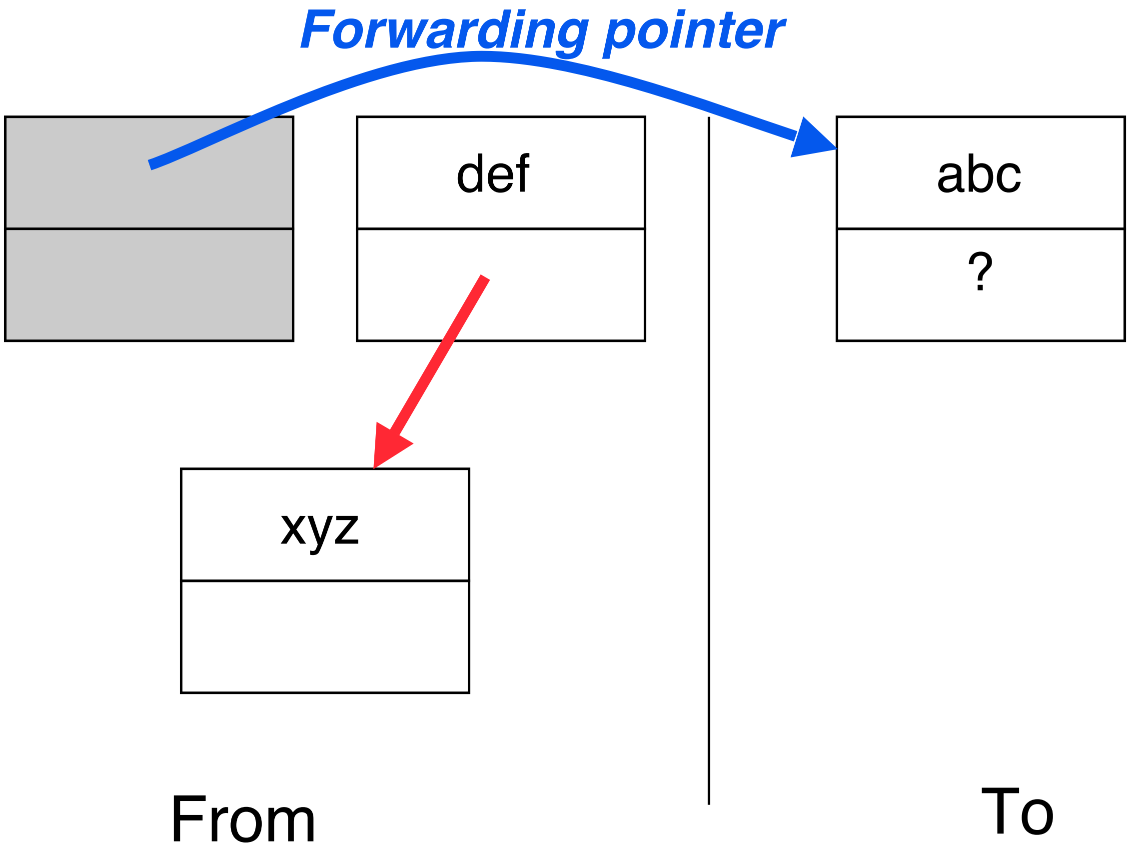
Forwarding Pointers: 1^{st} copy “abc”



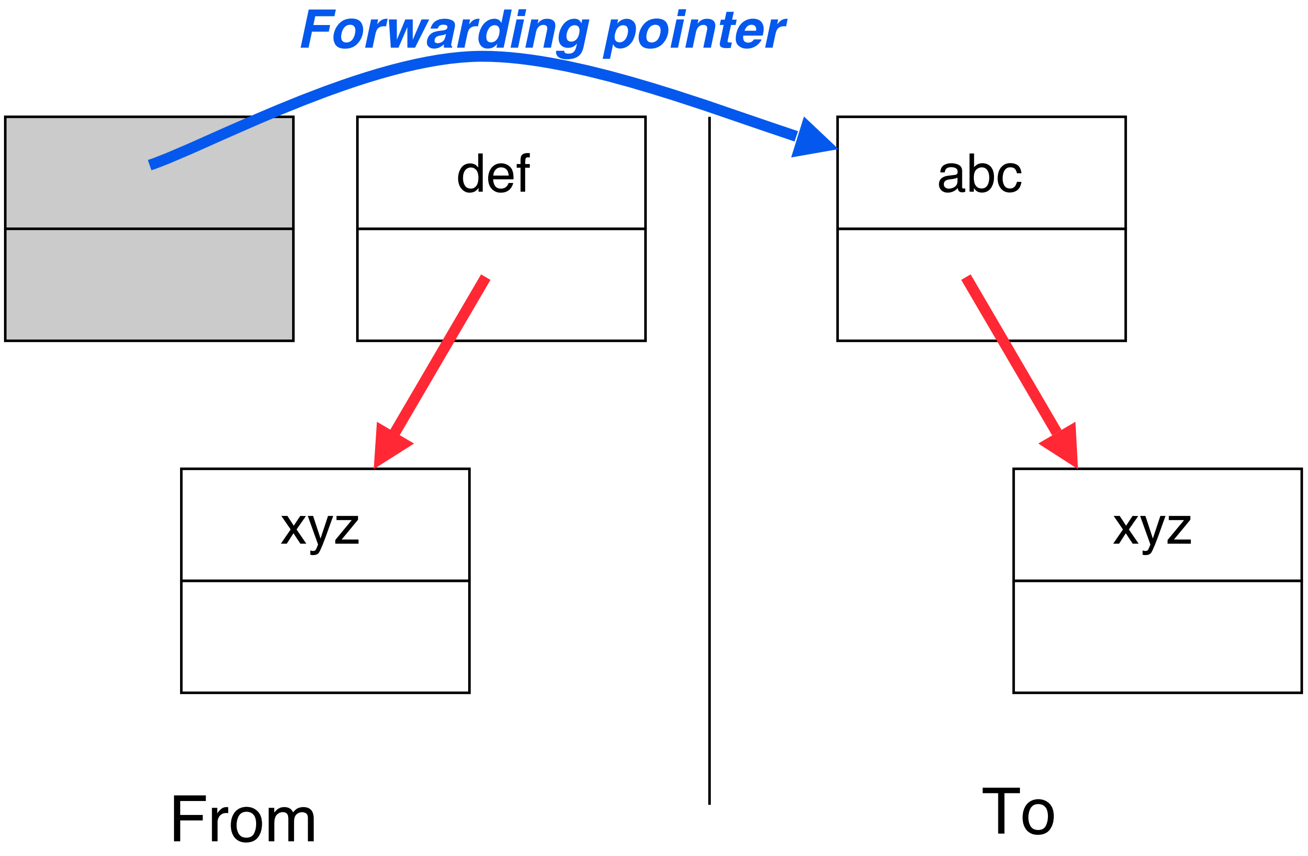
Forwarding Pointers: leave ptr to new abc



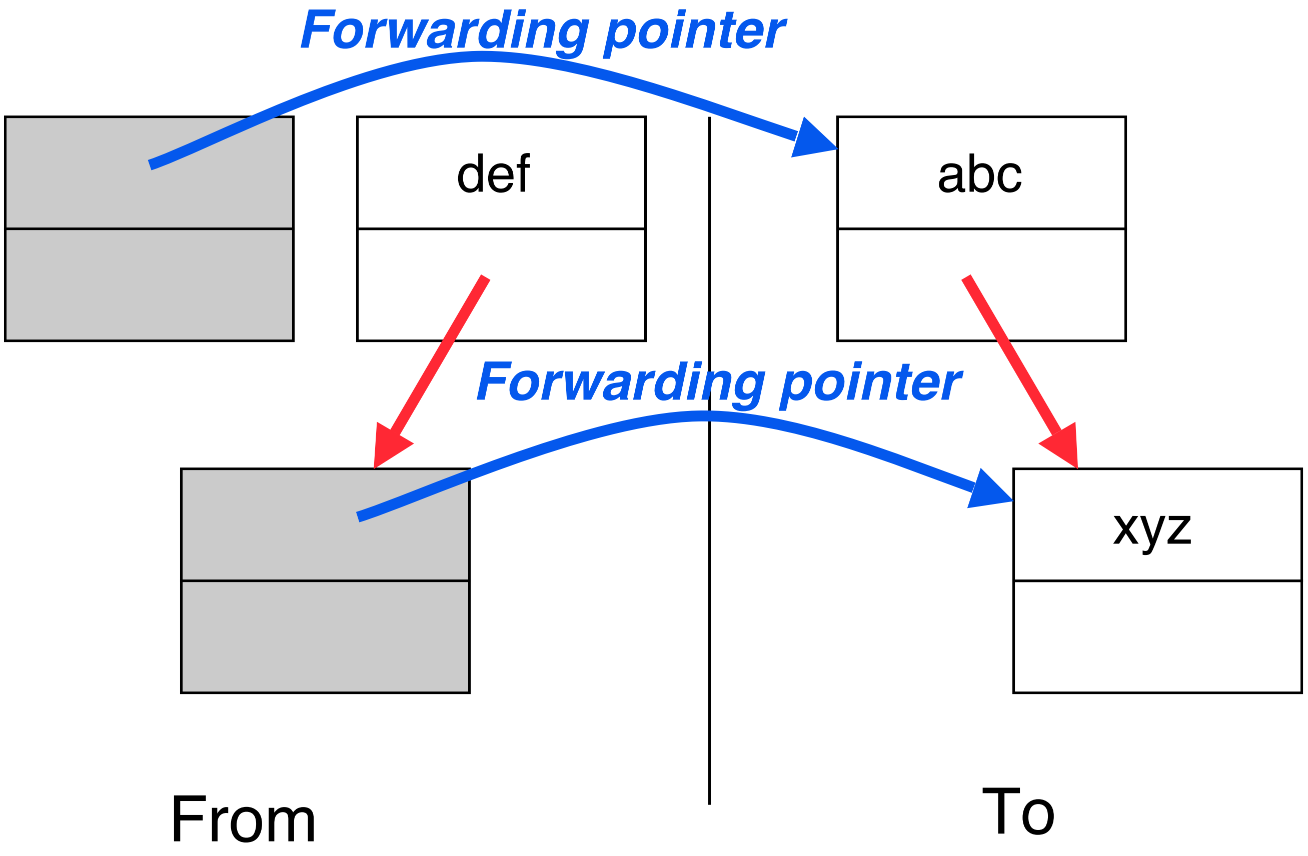
Forwarding Pointers : now copy "xyz"



Forwarding Pointers: leave ptr to new xyz

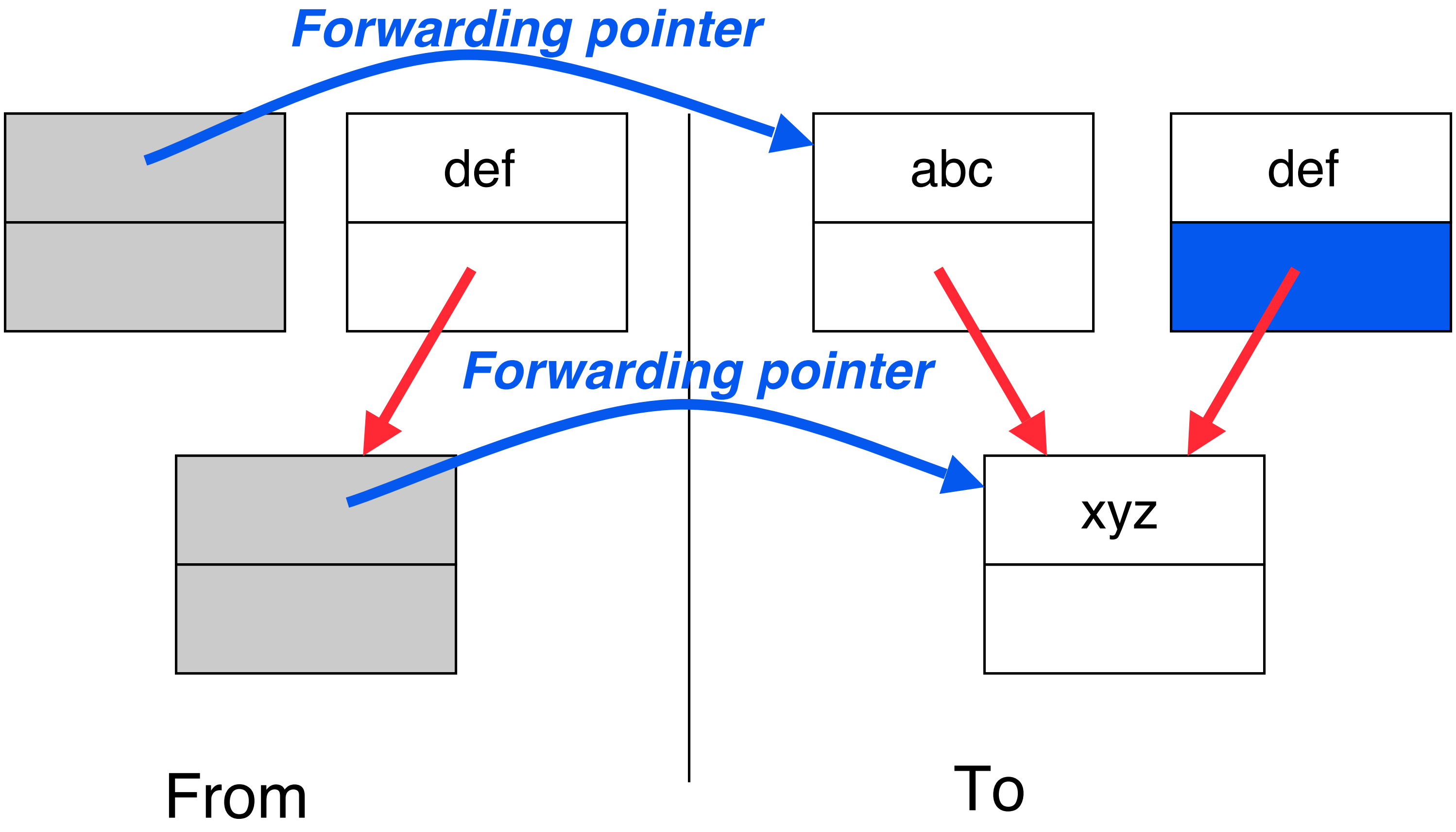


Forwarding Pointers: now copy “def”



Since xyz was already copied,
def uses xyz’s forwarding pointer
to find its new location

Forwarding Pointers



Since xyz was already copied, def uses xyz's forwarding pointer to find its new location