École Polytechnique

INF564 – Compilation

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre

memory allocation
1. memory
2. allocation
3. GC
   • reference counting
   • mark and sweep
   • stop and copy
4. an example: OCaml’s GC
the physical memory of a computer is a huge array of $M$ bytes,

to which the CPU may access for reading and writing using physical addresses 0, 1, 2, etc.

the order of magnitude of $M$ today is several billions (e.g., $M = 2^{32}$ for 4 Gb of memory)
for a long time now, we do not have direct access to physical memory.

We use instead a **virtual memory** mechanism provided by the hardware, namely the MMU (for *Memory Management Unit*).

It translates virtual addresses (in 0, 1, \ldots, N - 1) to physical addresses (in 0, 1, \ldots, M - 1).
the MMU is typically controlled by the operating system

the virtual memory is split into pages (e.g. each of 4 kb)

each page is either

- not allocated
- allocated in physical memory (and the MMU is set)
- allocated on the disk

the operating system maintains a page table
8 pages
- 2 not allocated
- 4 in physical memory
- 2 on the disk
when the CPU wants to read or write at some virtual address, the MMU translates the operation to a physical address

- either it succeeds and the instruction is executed

- or it fails and
  1. an interruption is raised (*page fault*)
  2. the handler installs the page in physical memory (possibly by moving another page to the disk)
  3. execution resumes on the same instruction
the operating system maintains a page table **per process**

so each program has the illusion to run inside the full (virtual) memory, for its own purposes
this simplifies

- linking
  (the code is always set at the same address, e.g. 0x400000 in 64-bit Linux)

- loading
  (pages are already on the disk)

- sharing of pages between processes
  (one physical page = several virtual pages)

- memory allocation
  (physical pages do not have to be contiguous)
more details about virtual memory in

Randal E. Bryant and David R. O’Hallaron
Computer Systems: A Programmer’s Perspective
Chapter 9 Virtual Memory
memory allocation
it is easy to allocate memory \textit{statically}

- either in the .\texttt{data} segment (initialized explicitly)
- or in the .\texttt{bss} segment (initialized with zero)

yet...
most programs have to allocate memory dynamically

- either implicitly, through programming constructs (objects, closures, etc.)
- either explicitly, to store data whose size is not known at compile time (arrays, lists, trees, etc.)

it is generally advisable to release it
dynamic allocated is performed on the stack and in the heap

the heap is located above the data segment

the system maintains its ends in a variable brk (program break)
the easiest way to allocate memory consists in increasing the value of \texttt{brk}

the system call

\begin{verbatim}
void *sbrk(int n);
\end{verbatim}

increases \texttt{brk} by \texttt{n} bytes and returns its previous value

one may decrease \texttt{brk} with a negative value for \texttt{n},
or query its value with \texttt{n} = 0

this limits us to using the heap as a stack
we seek for a more flexible memory manager to allocate and free blocks in a random order

deallocation can be

- performed explicitly by the programmer
  example: the C library malloc

- performed automatically by a memory manager
  example: a garbage collector
the `malloc` library
starting from `sbrk`, we want to provide two operations

```c
void *malloc(int size);
// returns a pointer to a new block
// of at least size bytes, or NULL in case of failure
```

and

```c
void free(void *ptr);
// frees the block at address ptr
// (must have been allocated with malloc
// and not yet freed, 
// other undefined behavior)
```
rules of the game

- we assume nothing about the forthcoming sequence of calls to malloc and free
- the answer to malloc cannot be deferred
- any data structure needed by malloc and free must itself be allocated on the heap
- any block returned by malloc must be 8-byte aligned
- any allocated block can no longer be moved
the blocks, either allocated or free, are **contiguous** in memory

they are **chained**: given the address of a block, we can deduce the address of the next block
• a header contains the (total) size of the block and the status (allocated / free)
• then come the \( n \) bytes of the block
• and a possible padding, to give a total size multiple of 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>header</th>
<th>block contents</th>
<th>padding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(4 bytes)</td>
<td>( (n ) bytes)</td>
<td>(optional)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

address returned by \texttt{malloc}
(aligned on 8 bytes)
• one square = 4 bytes
• blue = header / red = allocated / gray = padding / white = free
the size being a multiple of 8, its three least significant bits are zero
we can use one of these bits to store the status (allocated / free)
on the previous example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bit</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
we traverse the list of blocks looking for a free block that is large enough

• if we find one, then
  • we possibly split it into two blocks (one allocated + one free)
  • we return the allocated block
• otherwise,
  • we allocated a new block at the end of the list, with \texttt{sbrk}
  • we return it
to find a free block, several strategies can be used

- the first block that is large enough (first fit)
- same thing, but starting where the previous search stopped (next fit)
- we choose a block of minimal size among the blocks that are large enough (best fit)
we simply change the status of block $p$ (from allocated to free)
with time, we get memory **fragmentation**: more and more small blocks

⇒ memory is wasted
⇒ search becomes costly

we need **compaction**
we refine the implementation with a new idea: when a block is freed, we check whether it can be **merged** with an adjacent free block (*coalescing*)

it is easy to determine whether the **next** block is free and to merge them in that case (adding the sizes)

but there is no easy way to merge with the previous block
to do so, we duplicate the header at the end of each block (idea due to Knuth, called *boundary tags*)

blocks are now doubly-linked
when we free a block $p$, we check the previous and the next blocks

there are four situations

- allocated | $p$ | allocated: do nothing
- allocated | $p$ | free : merge with the next
- free | $p$ | allocated: merge with the previous
- free | $p$ | free : merge the three blocks

**Invariant**: we never have two adjacent free blocks
duplicate the header requires space

but we can

- do that only in free blocks
- use one bit in the header to indicate whether the previous block is free
it is still costly to traverse blocks when allocating

but we can chain the free blocks in a singly-linked list (free list)

for that we use the contents of the block, which is free, to store two pointers (this imposes a minimum block size)
when we free a block, we now have several options to insert it back in the free list:

• insert at the beginning
• free list sorted by increasing addresses
• free list sorted by size of blocks
• etc.
fifth idea

traversing the free list can be costly when there are numerous small blocks

we can use several free lists, organized by size

example: a list of free blocks whose size is between $2^n$ and $2^{n+1} - 1$, for each $n$
as we see, malloc/free are far more subtle than they appear (Linus’s malloc.c is more than 5 kloc)

many parameters, many possible strategies

a huge literature, with many empirical evaluations

we find C code implementing those ideas in

- Brian W. Kernighan and Dennis M. Ritchie
  *The C Programming Language*

- Randal E. Bryant and David R. O’Hallaron
  *Computer Systems: A Programmer’s Perspective*
GC
many programming languages (Lisp, Python, OCaml, Java, etc.) rely on some **automatic** memory management to free blocks, called **GC** for *Garbage Collector*

(in French, GC is translated as “ramasse-miettes” or “glâneur de cellules”)
**principle:** the space allocated to some data (closure, record, array, object, etc.) that is not **reachable** anymore from the program variables can be **reclaimed** and further reused for other data

**difficulty:** we typically cannot determine at compile time the moment when a block is not reachable anymore

⇒ the GC is part of the program

- either as some part of the interpreter if the language is interpreted
- or as a library linked with the user code if the language is compiled (this is called the **runtime**)

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre
INF564 – Compilation
memory allocation
in the following, a block is any portion of the heap that is allocated by the program

a block may contain one or several pointers to other blocks but also other kind of data (characters, integers, pointers outside of the heap, etc.)

at some point in the program execution, we call root any variable that is active (global variable or local variable contained in a stack frame or in a register)

we say that a block is alive if it is reachable from a root i.e. there is a path of pointers from a root to this block
let x, y =
    let l = [1; 2; 3] in
    (List.filter even l, List.tl l)
...

roots
heap

1
2
3

x
y

2
A first technique to implement a GC is **reference counting**.

Each block contains the number of pointers to that block (from roots or from other blocks).

This number must be updated when the code performs **assignments** (explicit or implicit as in `1::{x}`) such as `b.f ← p`; then we need

- **to decrement the counter** of the block previously in `b.f`; if it reaches 0, we free this block
- **to increment the counter** of the block `p`

When we free a block, we decrement the counters of all the blocks to which it points (possibly triggering other deallocations).
issues:

• updating counters is costly

• cycles in data structures may prevent some blocks to be reclaimed

reference counting is sometimes used explicitly by programmers (e.g., the type Rc<T> of Rust) or combined with other techniques (e.g. CPython)
let us consider another technique, called \textit{mark and sweep}

it proceeds in two steps

1. we mark the blocks that are reachable from the roots (using a depth-first traversal and one bit per block)
2. we scan all blocks and
   - we reclaim those that are not marked (they are put back in the free list)
   - we unset the mark on the other blocks

when an allocation is requested, we look in the free list; if it is empty, this is a good opportunity for a mark and sweep
marking uses a depth-first traversal, as follows

\[
\text{mark}(x) = \\
\text{if } x \text{ is a pointer to some unmarked block in the heap} \\
\quad \text{mark } x \\
\quad \text{for each field } f \text{ of } x \\
\quad \quad \text{mark}(x.f)
\]

\text{for each root } r \\
\quad \text{mark}(r)
sweeping reclaims the unmarked blocks

for each block $x$
  if $x$ is marked
    unmark $x$
  else
    insert $x$ in the free list
marking is a recursive algorithm, which may require a stack size as large as the heap.

we could use an explicit stack or the blocks themselves to encode the stack (pointer reversal)
but more importantly, we do not want to “stop the world” to perform a long mark-and-sweep collection.

to remedy this, we mark the blocks incrementally, during the various calls to the GC.

this is incremental garbage collection.
a single mark is not enough, we need three colors

we have blocks colored

- **white**, not reached (yet)
- **black**, reached from roots and without pointers to white blocks
- **gray**, reached from root but not yet scanned

initially, roots are gray and all the other blocks are white
while there are gray blocks
pick a gray block $x$
color it black
for each field $f$ of $x$
  if $x.f$ points to a white block
    color this block gray

advantage: we can do any number of turns of this loop
once we do not have gray blocks anymore,

- black blocks are all reachable from the roots
- white blocks, on the contrary, are not for a black block never points to a white block

therefore,

1. we reclaim the white blocks
2. we whiten the black blocks
3. we color the roots in gray
this is a good way to determine unreachable blocks
(in particular, we now reclaim unreachable cycles)

not a solution to the problem of fragmentation
let us consider a third technique, called **stop and copy**

we split the heap in two halves

1. we only use one half, in which we allocate linearly
2. when it is full, we copy the reachable blocks into the other half, and we swap roles

immediate benefits:

• allocation is cheap (an addition and a comparison)
• no more fragmentation issue
example

origin

roots

destination

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre
INF564 – Compilation
memory allocation
performs the copy using only constant extra space

principle: a breadth-first traversal that uses

- the destination space as temporary storage for blocks yet to be updated

- the origin space as storage for pointers already updated: when a block is copied, its first field indicates where it was copied
we first implement a function to copy the block at address \( p \), if not yet already done

next points to the first available space in destination

\[
\text{move}(p) = \begin{cases} 
\text{if } p \text{ points to origin} \\
\quad \text{if } p.f_1 \text{ points to destination} \\
\quad \quad \text{return } p.f_1 \\
\quad \text{else} \\
\quad \quad \text{for each field } f_i \text{ in } p \\
\quad \quad \quad \text{next}.f_i \leftarrow p.f_i \\
\quad \quad \quad p.f_1 \leftarrow \text{next} \\
\quad \quad \text{next} \leftarrow \text{next} + \text{size of block } p \\
\quad \quad \text{return } p.f_1 \end{cases} \\
\quad \text{else} \\
\quad \quad \text{return } p
\]
we can now make the copy, starting with the roots

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{scan} & \leftarrow \text{next} \leftarrow \text{start of destination} \\
\text{for each root } r & \\
\quad r & \leftarrow \text{move}(r) \\
\text{while } \text{scan} < \text{next} & \\
\quad \text{for each field } f_i \text{ of } \text{scan} & \\
\quad \quad \text{scan}.f_i & \leftarrow \text{move}(\text{scan}.f_i) \\
\quad \text{scan} & \leftarrow \text{scan} + \text{size of block } \text{scan}
\end{align*}
\]

the zone in destination between \text{scan} and \text{next} contains the blocks whose fields are not yet updated

note that \text{scan} increases, but so does \text{next}!
Cheney scanning algorithm

although very elegant, this algorithm has at least one flaw: it modifies the locality of the data, i.e. blocks that were close before copying are not necessarily close afterwards

with memory caches, locality cannot be ignored

it is possible to modify Cheney algorithm to combine breadth-first and depth-first traversals
in many programs, most values have a short lifetime, and those surviving several collections are likely to survive others

hence the idea to organize the heap into several generations

- $G_0$ contains the most recent data, and we make frequent collections here
- $G_1$ contains data older than those in $G_0$, and we make collections there less frequently
- etc.

in practice, this is not easy to identify the roots of each generations, notably because an assignment may introduce a pointer from $G_1$ to $G_0$
The Garbage Collection Handbook
Richard Jones, Antony Hosking, Eliot Moss
CRC Press, 2023

- other algorithms
- implementations details
- parallel and concurrent garbage collection
- real-time garbage collection
example: OCaml’s GC
two generations

- a minor heap (young values): Stop & Copy
- a major heap (older values): incremental Mark & Sweep

the minor heap’s destination is the major heap
now that we understand the GC requirements, we can explain the value representation chosen by OCaml
an OCaml value is

• either an integer, that is a value of type `int` or a 0-ary constructor (`true`, `false`, `[]`, etc.)

• or a pointer

reminder: OCaml’s passing mode is **by value** (cf lecture 5)
a pointer points to block of $n + 1$ **words**
(one word $= 8$ bytes on a 64-bit architecture)

the first word is a **header** containing the size $n$, the nature of the block and two bits for the GC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>63</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>size</td>
<td>color</td>
<td>nature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(this is different from malloc's headers)
the size being stored on 54 bits, we have

```ocaml
# Sys.max_array_length;;
- : int = 18014398509481983
```

character strings are represented in a compact way (8 bytes per word), thus

```ocaml
# Sys.max_string_length;;
- : int = 144115188075855863
```
the block’s nature is coded on 8 bits (0..255); it is used to distinguish
- floating-point number
- character string
- object
- closure
- record, array, tuple
- constructor
  (and tells which constructor it is, needed for pattern matching)
when the GC is scanning a block (for marking or copying), it must distinguish between integers and pointers

issue: the compiler cannot always tell the GC which are the fields containing pointers in the presence of polymorphism

```
let f x = (x, x)

f 42 (* a block containing two integers *)

f [42] (* a block containing two pointers *)
```
an OCaml value is

- either a pointer, necessarily even for alignment reasons
- or an odd integer \( 2n + 1 \), standing for the value \( n \)

the GC tests the least significant bit to determine if a field is a pointer

consequence: OCaml's integers are 63-bit signed integers
(but the OCaml standard library provides a module Int64)
the value 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: [] has the following memory layout

![Diagram showing memory layout of 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: []]
the integer \( n \) being represented by \( 2n + 1 \), arithmetic becomes a little more complicated

but the OCaml compiler makes a good use of `lea` at many places

e.g., function

\[
\text{let } f \ x \ y = x + y
\]

is compiled to

\[
f: \text{lea} -1(%rax,%rbx), %rax
\]

\[
\text{ret}
\]
to avoid wasting a bit, another solution is to consider “any value that looks like a pointer” as a pointer

this is

- **sound** i.e. reachable blocks are not reclaimed
- but **incomplete** i.e. some unreachable blocks may not be reclaimed

this is called **conservative collection**

an example: Boehm–Demers–Weiser’s GC for C and C++
(see [https://www.hboehm.info/gc/](https://www.hboehm.info/gc/))
yet another solution

another solution consists in allocated all the values on the heap, so that we only have pointers (we say that all values are boxed)

this is what Python does for instance
take away
understanding programming languages is essential for

- **coding**
  - have a precise execution model in mind
  - choose the right abstractions

- doing **research** in Computer Science
  - design new languages
  - design tools
in particular, we explained

• what is the stack
• various passing modes
• what is an object
• what is a closure
compilation involves
- numerous techniques
- several passes, mostly orthogonal

most of these techniques can be reused in contexts other than code generation, such as
- computational linguistics
- computer-assisted proofs
- databases
compilation also means…

many other things we didn’t have time to explore

module systems
common sub-expression
program transformations
abstract interpretation
alias analysis
loop unrolling
interprocedural analysis
peephole optimization
memory caches
logic programming
just-in-time compilation
instruction scheduling
etc.
• lab 9
  • mini-Python continued

• the project is due **Sunday March 17, 6pm**
  • via Moodle
  • graded on the basis of your report and your source code

• exam on Monday March 18 2pm–5pm (T5)
  • lecture notes are allowed
  • archives on the website of the course