

6.172  
Performance  
Engineering  
of Software  
Systems



LECTURE 12  
Parallel Storage  
Allocation

Julian Shun

# REVIEW OF MEMORY- ALLOCATION PRIMITIVES



# Heap Storage in C

- Allocation

```
void* malloc(size_t s);
```

*Effect:* Allocate and return a pointer to a block of memory containing at least  $s$  bytes.

- Aligned allocation

```
void* memalign(size_t a, size_t s);
```

*Effect:* Allocate and return a pointer to a block of memory containing at least  $s$  bytes, aligned to a multiple of  $a$ , where  $a$  must be an exact power of 2:

$$0 == ((\text{size\_t}) \text{memalign}(a, s)) \% a .$$

- Deallocation

```
void free(void *p);
```

*Effect:*  $p$  is a pointer to a block of memory returned by `malloc()` or `memalign()`. Deallocate the block.

# Allocating Virtual Memory

The `mmap()` system call can be used to allocate virtual memory by **memory mapping**:

```
void *p = mmap(0, // Don't care where
               size, // #bytes
               PROT_READ | PROT_WRITE, // Read/write
               MAP_PRIVATE | MAP_ANON, // Private anonymous
               -1, // no backing file
               0 // offset (N/A)
               );
```

The Linux kernel finds a contiguous, unused region in the address space of the application large enough to hold `size` bytes, modifies the page table, and creates the necessary virtual-memory management structures within the OS to make the user's accesses to this area "legal" so that accesses won't result in a segfault.

# Properties of `mmap()`

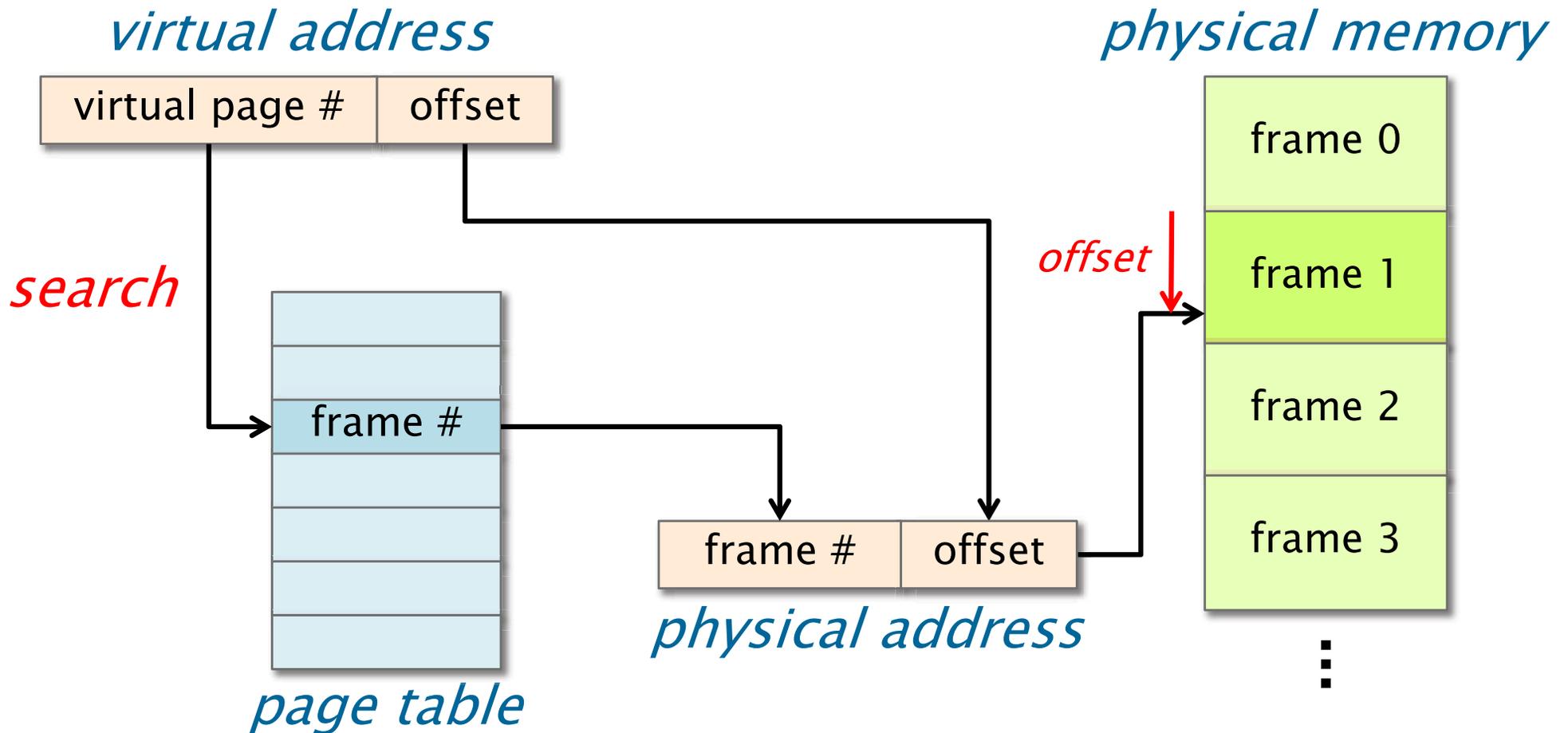
- `mmap()` is lazy. It does not immediately allocate physical memory for the requested allocation.
- Instead, it populates the page table with entries pointing to a special zero page and marks the page as read only.
- The first write into such a page causes a page fault.
- At that point, the OS allocates a physical page, modifies the page table, and restarts the instruction.
- You can `mmap()` a terabyte of virtual memory on a machine with only a gigabyte of DRAM.
- A process may die from running out of physical memory well after after the `mmap()` call.

# What's the Difference...

...between `malloc()` and `mmap()` used in this way?

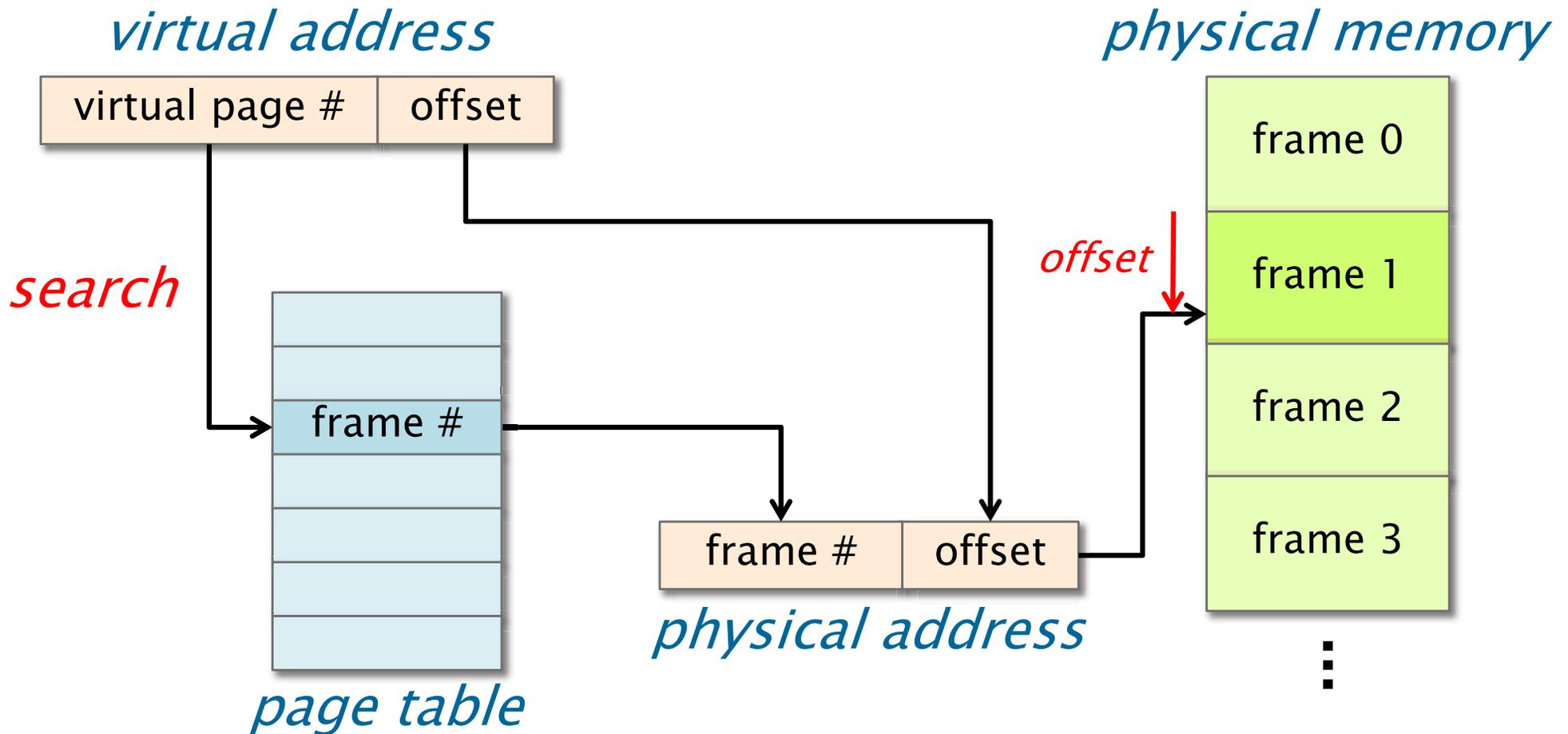
- The functions `malloc()` and `free()` are part of the memory-allocation interface of the heap-management code in the C library.
- The heap-management code uses available system facilities, including `mmap()`, to obtain memory (virtual address space) from the kernel.
- The heap-management code within `malloc()` attempts to satisfy user requests for heap storage by reusing freed memory whenever possible.
- When necessary, the `malloc()` implementation invokes `mmap()` and other system calls to expand the size of the user's heap storage.

# Address Translation



If the virtual page does not reside in physical memory, a **page fault** occurs.

# Address Translation



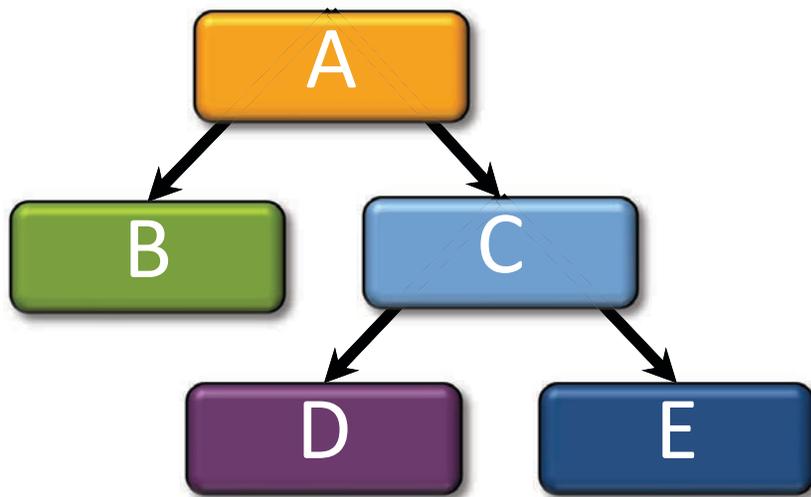
Since page-table lookups are costly, the hardware contains a **translation lookaside buffer (TLB)** to cache recent page-table lookups.

# CACTUS STACKS

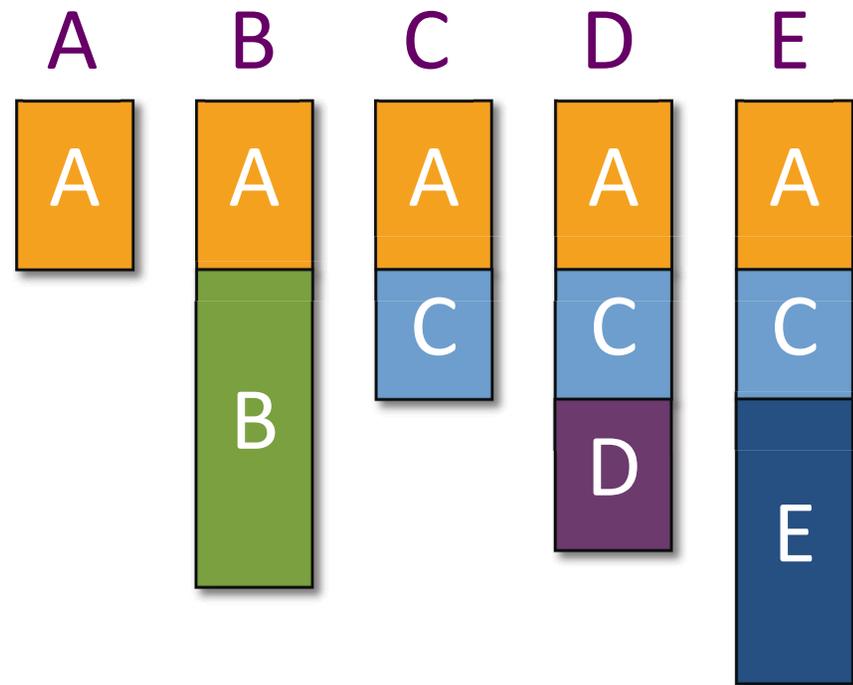


# Traditional Linear Stack

An execution of a serial C/C++ program can be viewed as a **serial walk** of an **invocation tree**.



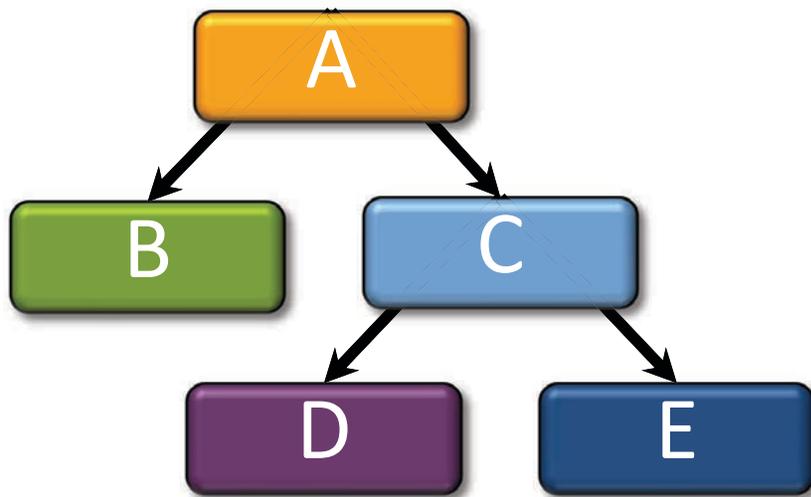
invocation tree



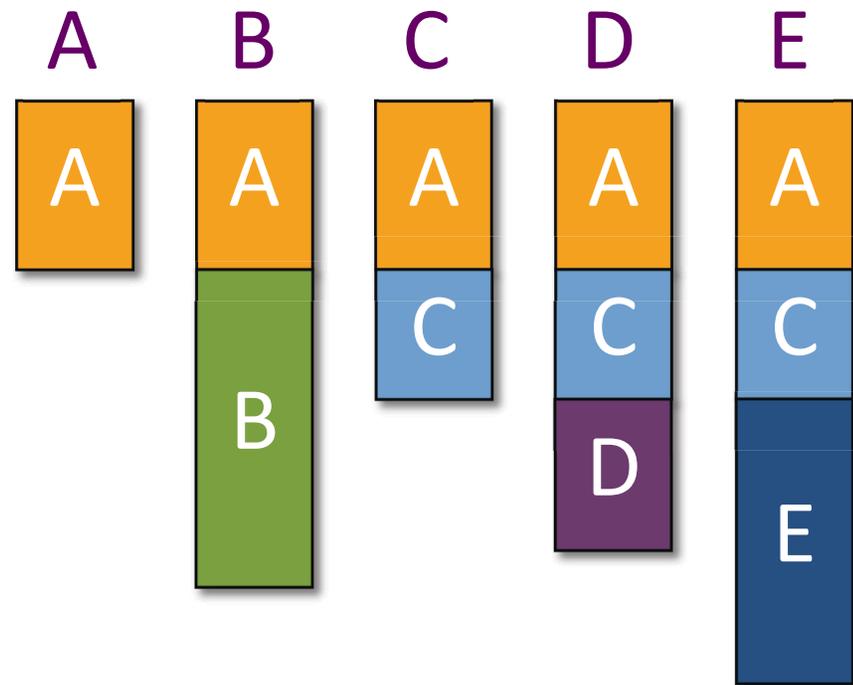
views of stack

# Traditional Linear Stack

**Rule for pointers:** A parent can pass pointers to its stack variables down to its children, but not the other way around.



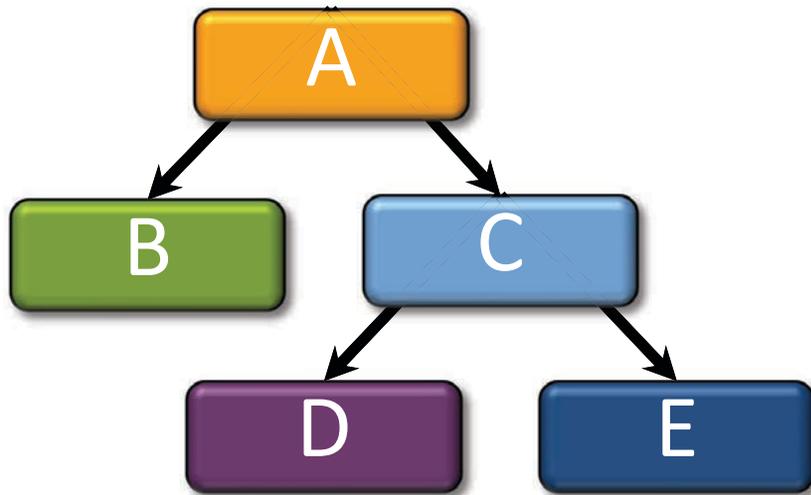
invocation tree



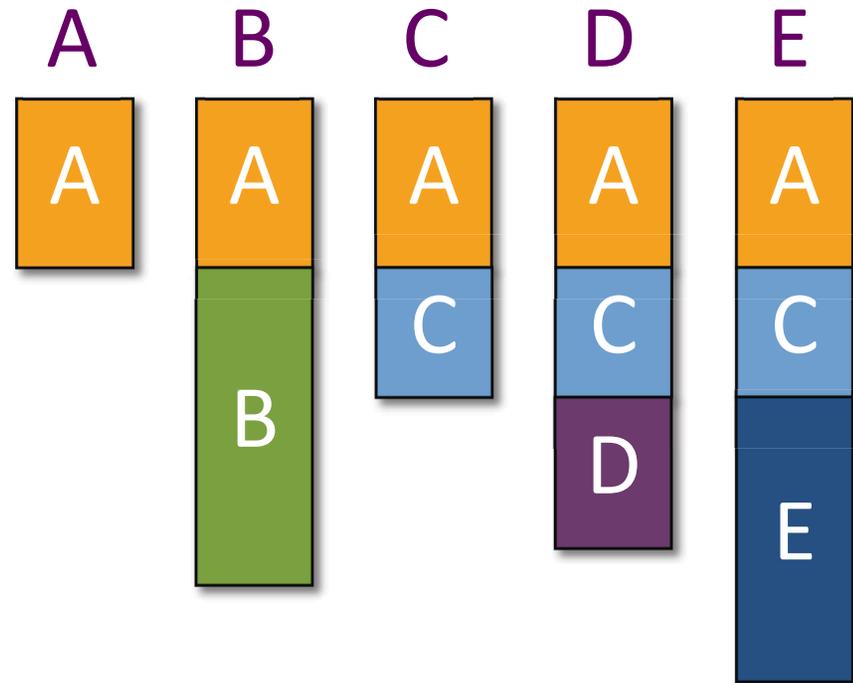
views of stack

# Cactus Stack

A **cactus stack** supports multiple views in parallel.



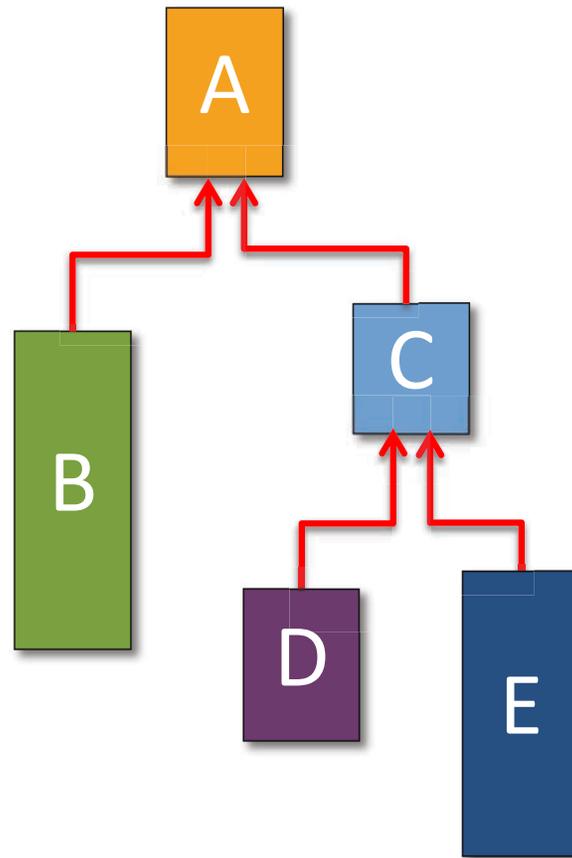
invocation tree



views of stack

# Heap-Based Cactus Stack

A heap-based cactus stack allocates frames off the heap.





# D&C Matrix Multiplication

```
void mm_dac(double *restrict C, int n_C,  
           double *restrict A, int n_A,  
           double *restrict B, int n_B,  
           int n)  
{ // C = A * B  
  assert((n & (-n)) == n);  
  if (n <= THRESHOLD) {  
    mm_base(C, n_C, A, n_A, B, n_B, n);  
  } else {  
    double *D = malloc(n * n * sizeof(*D));  
    assert(D != NULL);  
    #define n_D n  
    #define X(M,r,c) (M + (r*(n_ ## M) + c)*(n/2))  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(C,0,0), n_C, X(A,0,0), n_A, X(B,0,0), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(C,0,1), n_C, X(A,0,0), n_A, X(B,0,1), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(C,1,0), n_C, X(A,1,0), n_A, X(B,0,0), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(C,1,1), n_C, X(A,1,0), n_A, X(B,0,1), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(D,0,0), n_D, X(A,0,1), n_A, X(B,1,0), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(D,0,1), n_D, X(A,0,1), n_A, X(B,1,1), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_spawn mm_dac(X(D,1,0), n_D, X(A,1,1), n_A, X(B,1,0), n_B, n/2);  
    mm_dac(X(D,1,1), n_D, X(A,1,1), n_A, X(B,1,1), n_B, n/2);  
    cilk_sync;  
    m_add(C, n_C, D, n_D, n);  
    free(D);  
  }  
}
```

Notice that allocations of the temporary matrix **D** obey a stack discipline.

# Analysis of D&C Matrix Mult.

*Work:*  $T_1(n) = \Theta(n^3)$

*Span:*  $T_\infty(n) = \Theta(\lg^2 n)$

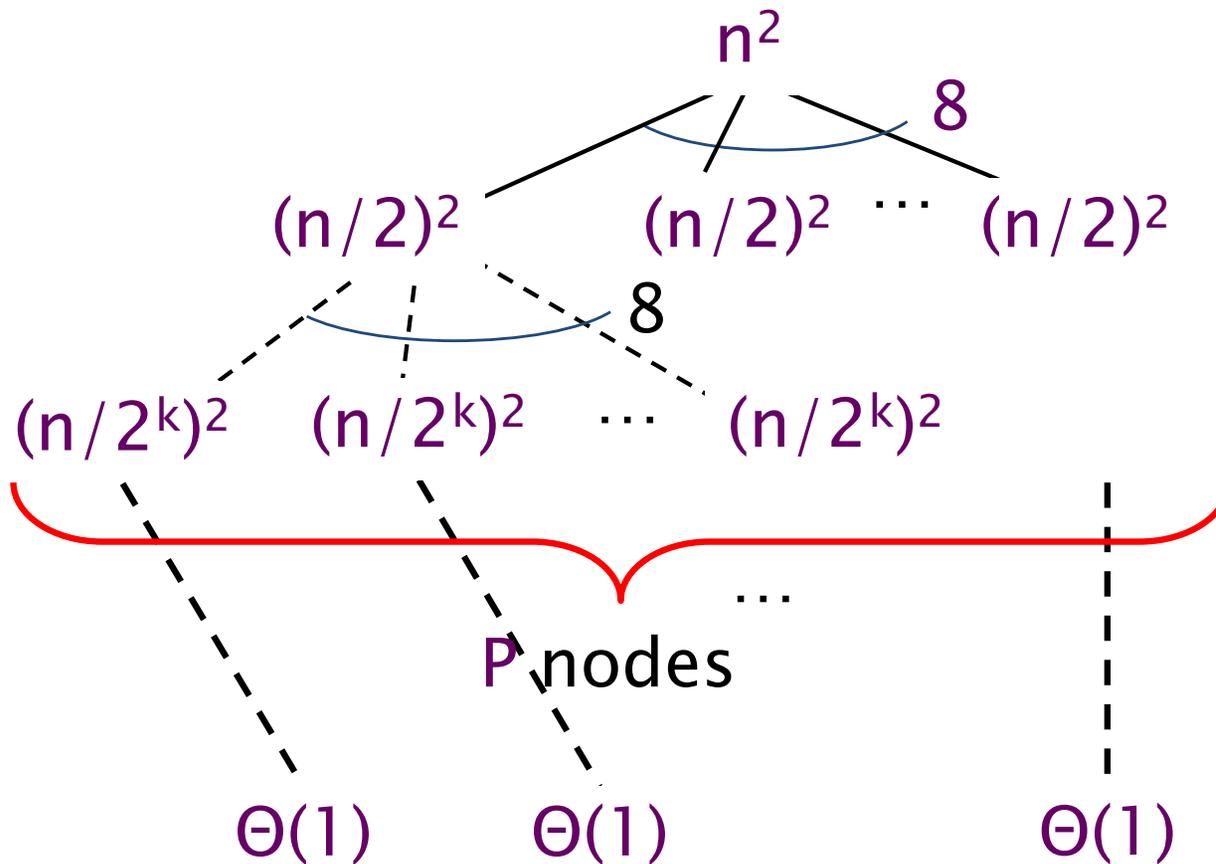
*Space:*  $S_1(n) = S_1(n/2) + \Theta(n^2)$   
 $= \Theta(n^2)$

By the busy-leaves property, we have

$$S_p(n) = O(Pn^2).$$

We can actually prove a stronger bound.

# Worst-Case Recursion Tree

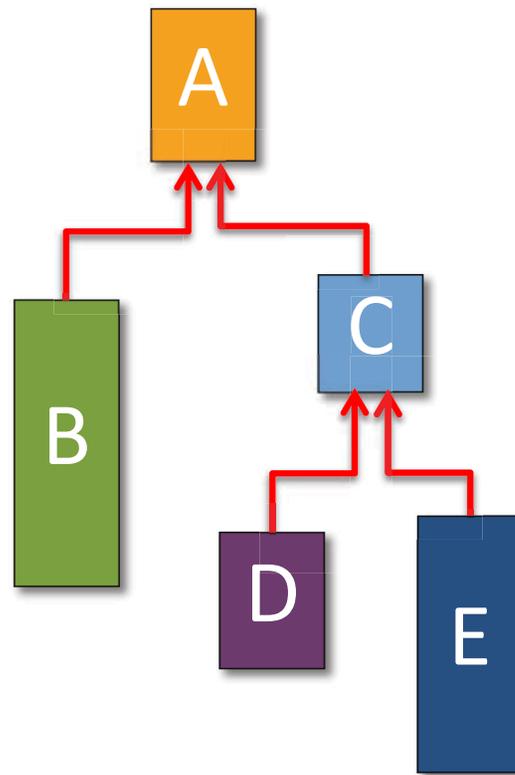


Branch fully (8-way) until we get to a level  $k$  with  $P$  nodes and then branch serially from there on.

We have  $8^k = P$ , which implies that  $k = \log_8 P = (\lg P)/3$ . The cost per level grows geometrically from the root to level  $k$  and then decreases geometrically from level  $k$  to the leaves. Thus, the space is  $\Theta(P(n/2^{(\lg P)/3})^2) = \Theta(P^{1/3}n^2)$ .

# Interoperability

**Problem:** With heap-based linkage, parallel functions fail to interoperate with legacy and third-party serial binaries. Our implementation of Cilk uses a less space-efficient strategy that preserves interoperability by using a pool of linear stacks.



# BASIC PROPERTIES OF STORAGE ALLOCATORS



# Allocator Speed

**Definition.** Allocator **speed** is the number of allocations and deallocations per second that the allocator can sustain.

**Q.** Is it more important to maximize allocator speed for large blocks or small blocks?

**A.** Small blocks!

**Q.** Why?

**A.** Typically, a user program writes all the bytes of an allocated block. A large block takes so much time to write that the allocator time has little effect on the overall runtime. In contrast, if a program allocates many small blocks, the allocator time can represent a significant overhead.

# Fragmentation

**Definition.** The **user footprint** is the maximum over time of the number  $U$  of bytes in use by the user program (allocated but not freed). The **allocator footprint** is the maximum over time of the number  $A$  of bytes of memory provided to the allocator by the operating system. The **fragmentation** is  $F = A/U$ .

**Remark.**  $A$  grows monotonically for many allocators.

**Theorem** (proved in Lecture 11). The fragmentation for binned free lists is  $F_v = O(\lg U)$ . ■

**Remark.** Modern 64-bit processors provide about  $2^{48}$  bytes of virtual address space. A big server might have  $2^{40}$  bytes of physical memory.

# Fragmentation Glossary

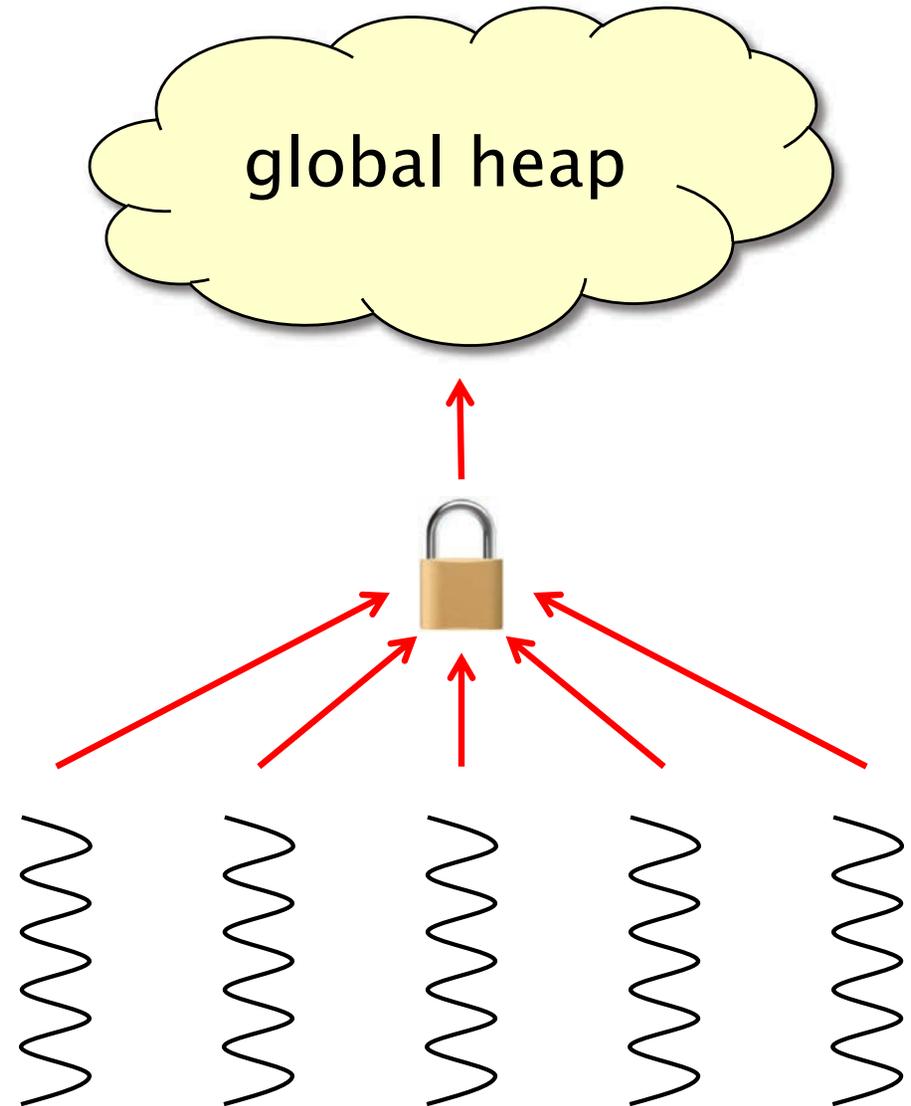
- **Space overhead**: Space used by the allocator for bookkeeping.
- **Internal fragmentation**: Waste due to allocating larger blocks than the user requests.
- **External fragmentation**: Waste due to the inability to use storage because it is not contiguous.
- **Blowup**: For a parallel allocator, the additional space beyond what a serial allocator would require.

# PARALLEL ALLOCATION STRATEGIES



# Strategy 1: Global Heap

- Default C allocator.
  - All threads (processors) share a single heap.
  - Accesses are mediated by a mutex (or lock-free synchronization) to preserve atomicity.
- 😊 Blowup = 1.
- ☹️ Slow — acquiring a lock is like an L2-cache access.
- ☹️ Contention can inhibit scalability.



# Scalability

Ideally, as the number of threads (processors) grows, the time to perform an allocation or deallocation should not increase.

- The most common reason for loss of scalability is **lock contention**.

**Q.** Is lock contention more of a problem for large blocks or for small blocks?

**A.** Small blocks!

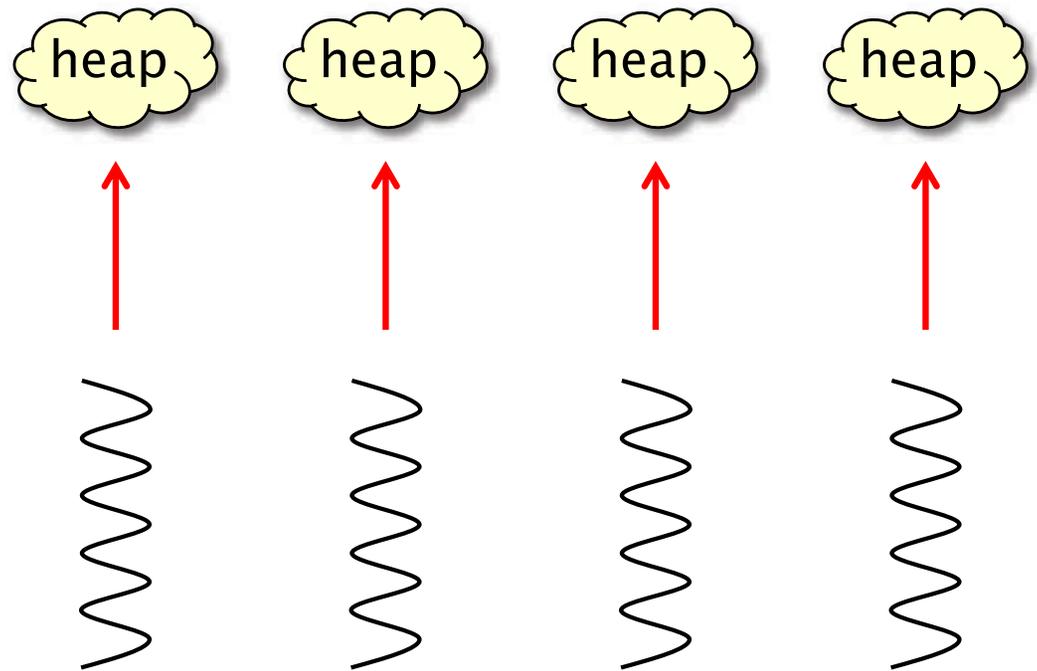
**Q.** Why?

**A.** Typically, a user program writes all the bytes of an allocated block, making it hard for a thread allocating large blocks to issue allocation requests at a high rate. In contrast, if a program allocates many small blocks in parallel, contention can be a significant issue.

# Strategy 2: Local Heaps

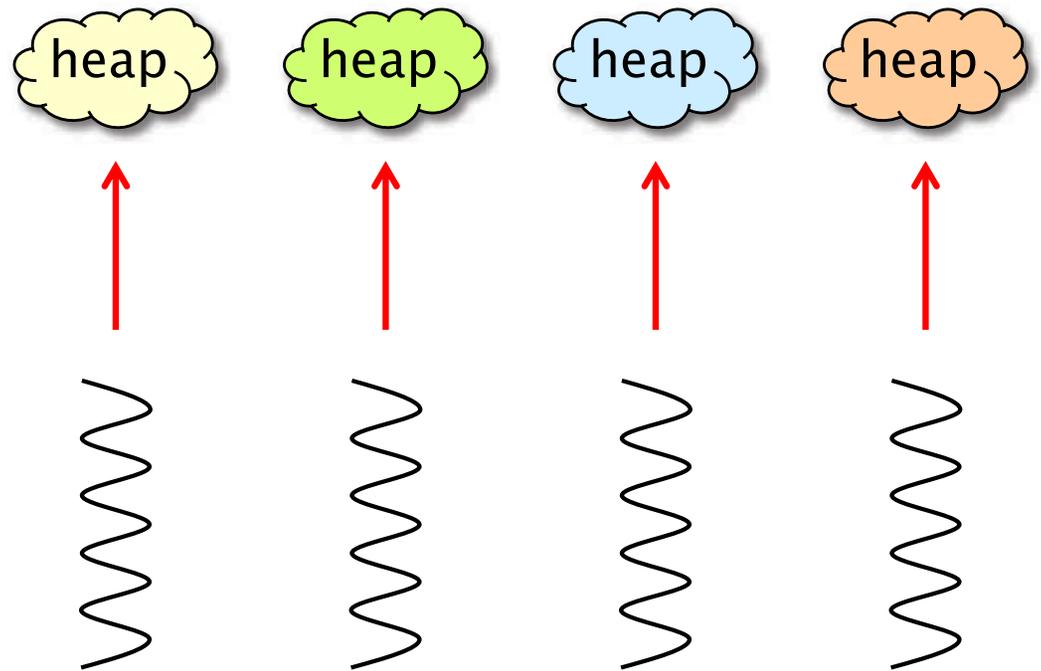
- Each thread allocates out of its own heap.
- No locking is necessary.

- 😊 Fast — no synchronization.
- ☹ Suffers from **memory drift**: blocks allocated by one thread are freed on another  $\Rightarrow$  unbounded blowup.



# Strategy 3: Local Ownership

- Each object is labeled with its owner.
- Freed objects are returned to the owner's heap.



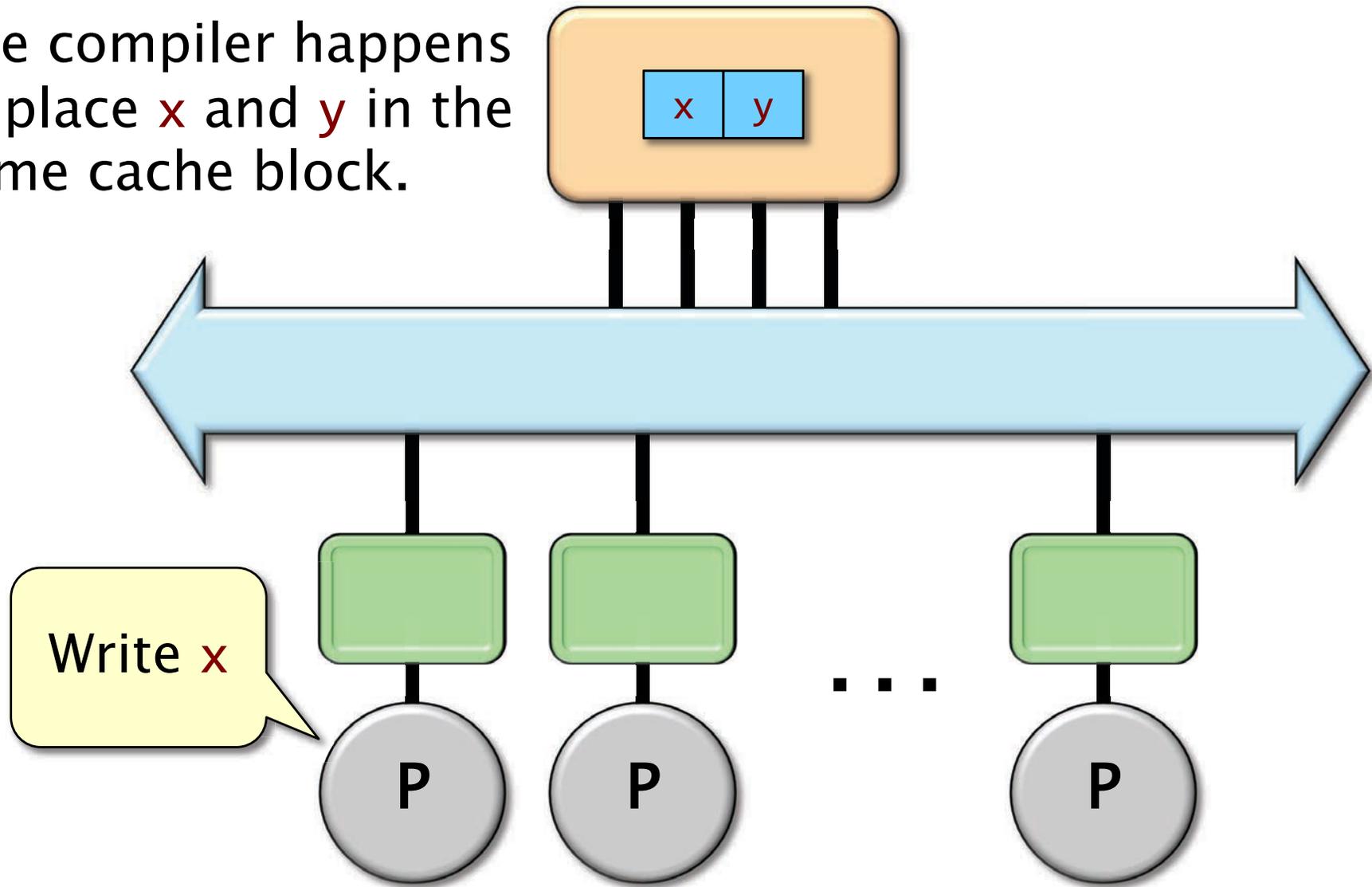
- 😊 Fast allocation and freeing of local objects.
- ☹️ Freeing remote objects requires synchronization.
- 😊 Blowup  $\leq P$ .
- 😊 Resilience to **false sharing**.

**FALSE SHARING**



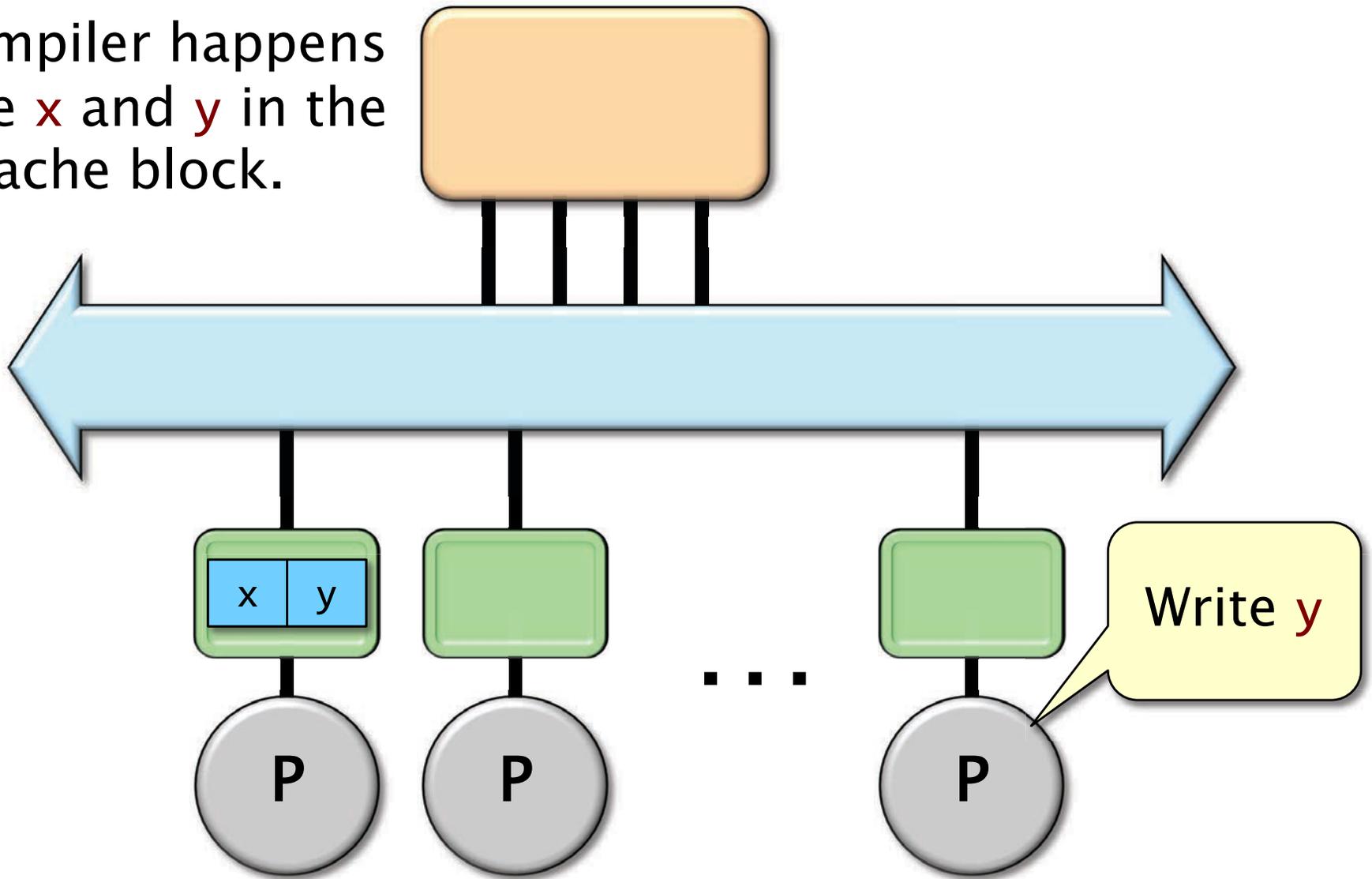
# False Sharing Example

The compiler happens to place  $x$  and  $y$  in the same cache block.



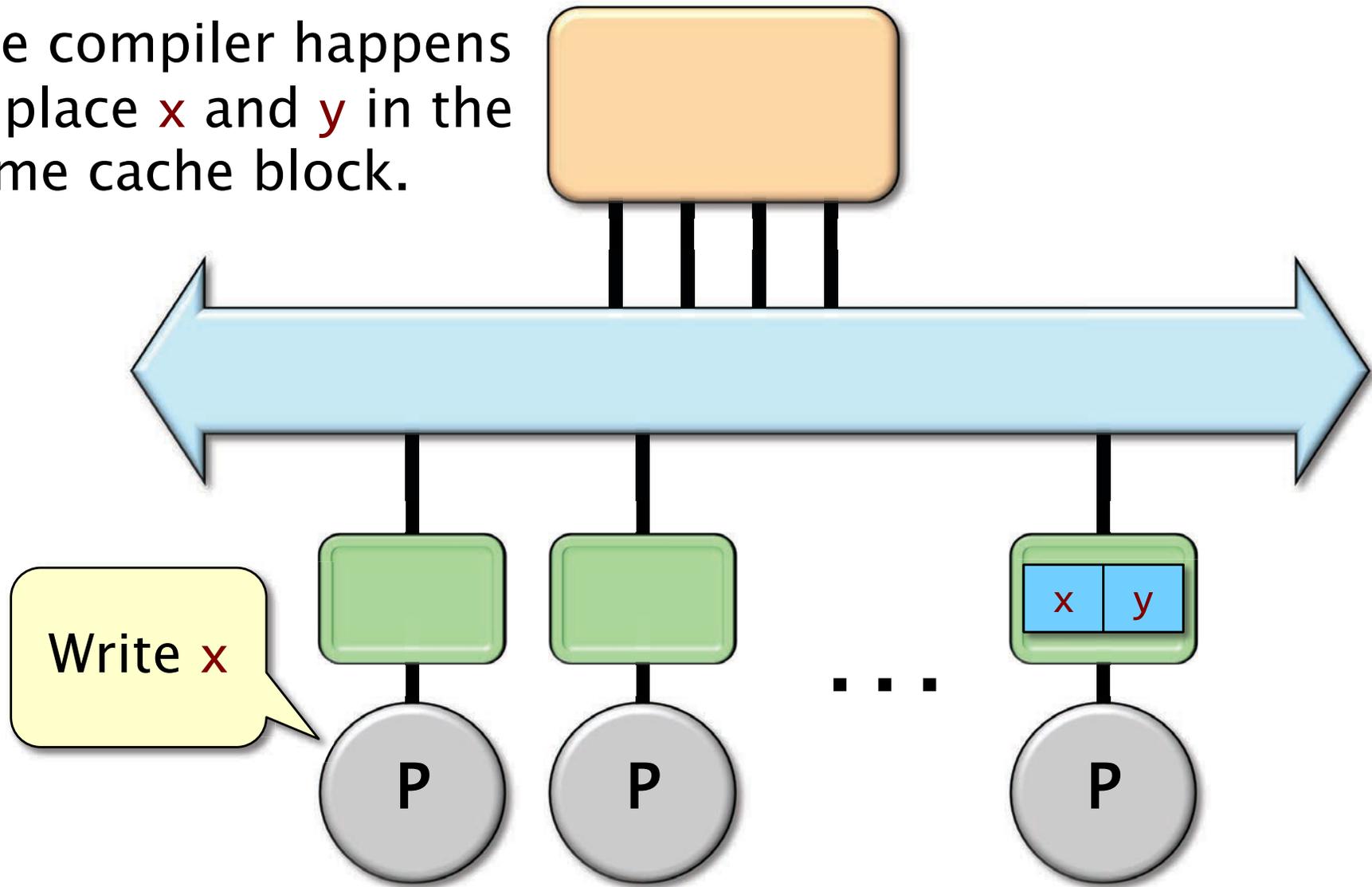
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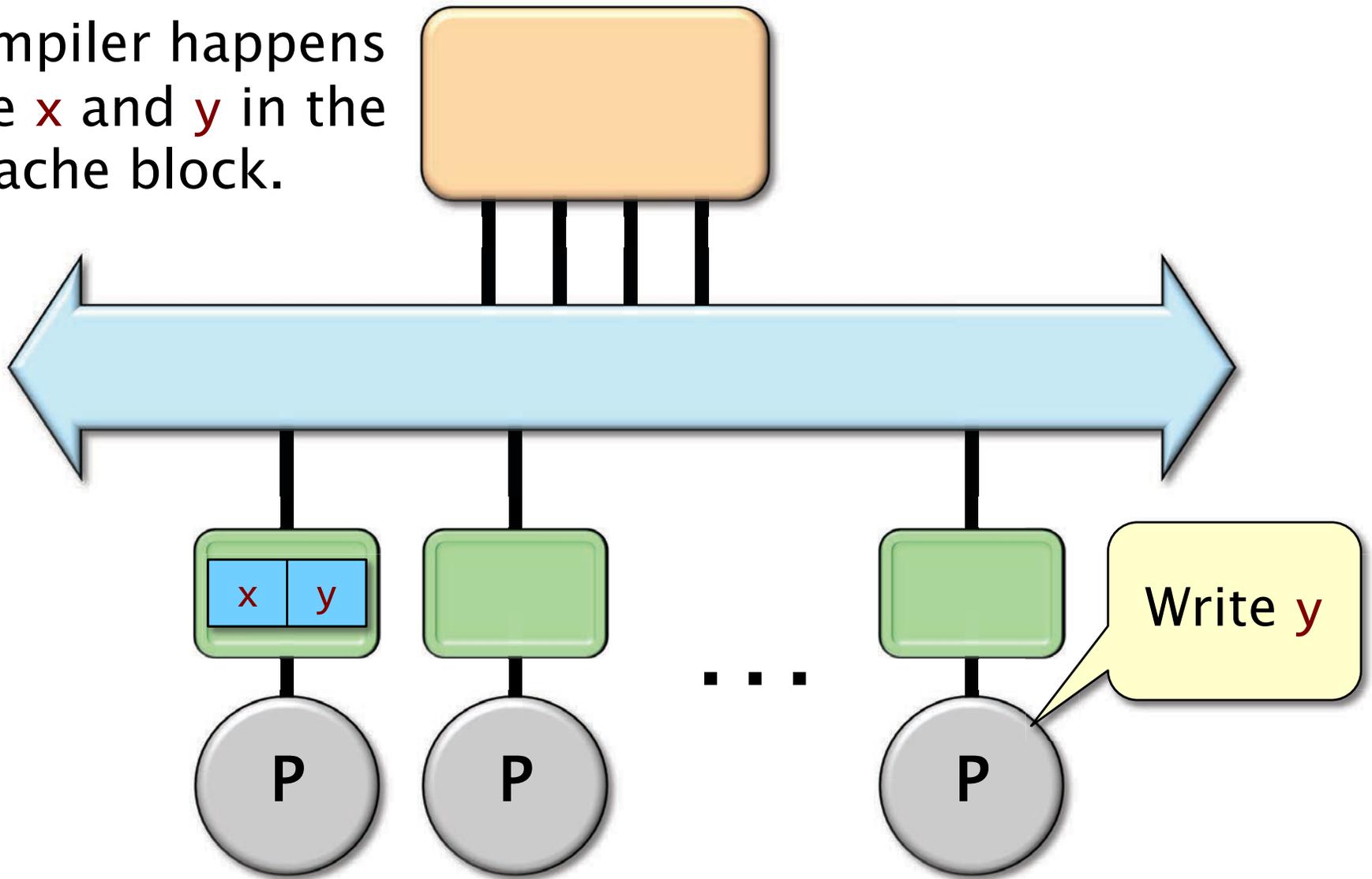
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The compiler happens to place  $x$  and  $y$  in the same cache block.



# False Sharing Example

The compiler happens to place  $x$  and  $y$  in the same cache block.



# How False Sharing Can Occur

A **program** can induce false sharing having different threads process nearby objects.

- The programmer can mitigate this problem by aligning the object on a cache-line boundary and padding out the object to the size of a cache line, but this solution can be wasteful of space.

An **allocator** can induce false sharing in two ways:

- **Actively**, when the allocator satisfies memory requests from different threads using the same cache block.
- **Passively**, when the program passes objects lying on the same cache line to different threads, and the allocator reuses the objects' storage after the objects are freed to satisfy requests from those threads.

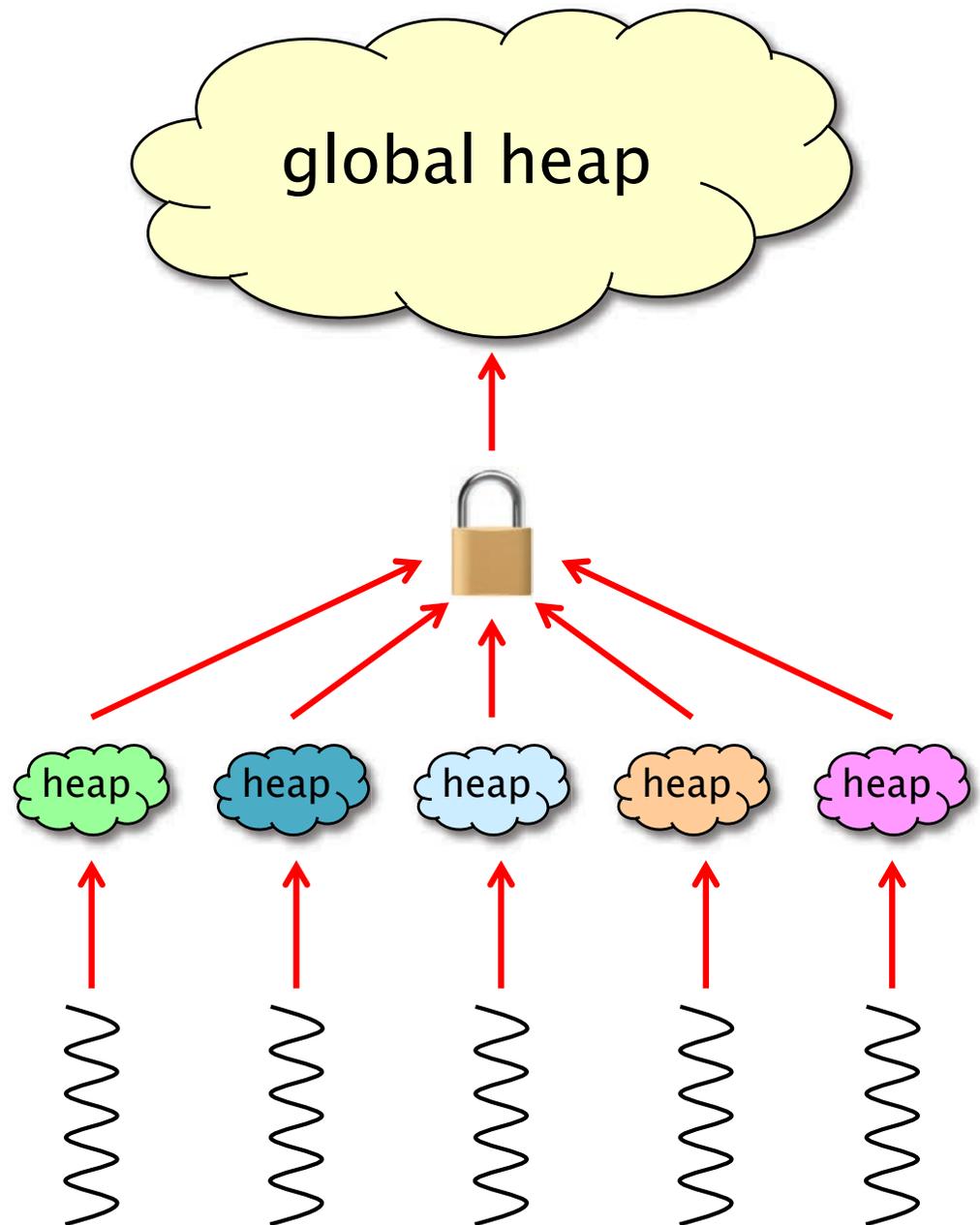
# BACK TO PARALLEL HEAP ALLOCATION



# The Hoard Allocator

- $P$  local heaps.
- 1 global heap.
- Memory is organized into large **superblocks** of size  $S$ .
- Only superblocks are moved between the local heaps and the global heap.

- ☺ Fast.
- ☺ Scalable.
- ☺ Bounded blowup.
- ☺ Resilience to false sharing.



# Hoard Allocation

Assume without loss of generality that all blocks are the same size (fixed-size allocation).

`x = malloc()` on thread `i`

```
if (there exists a free object in heap i) {  
    x = an object from the fullest nonfull superblock in i's heap;  
} else {  
    if (the global heap is empty) {  
        B = a new superblock from the OS;  
    } else {  
        B = a superblock in the global heap;  
    }  
    set the owner of B to i;  
    x = a free object in B;  
}  
return x;
```

# Hoard Deallocation

Let  $u_i$  be the in-use storage in heap  $i$ , and let  $a_i$  be the storage owned by heap  $i$ . Hoard maintains the following invariant for all heaps  $i$ :

$$u_i \geq \min(a_i - 2S, a_i/2),$$

where  $S$  is the superblock size.

**free(x)**, where  $x$  is owned by thread  $i$ :

```
put  $x$  back in heap  $i$ ;  
if ( $u_i < \min(a_i - 2S, a_i/2)$ ) {  
    move a superblock that is at least  $1/2$  empty from  
    heap  $i$  to the global heap;  
};
```

# Hoard's Blowup

**Lemma.** The maximum storage allocated in global heap is at most maximum storage allocated in local heaps.

**Theorem.** Let  $U$  be the user footprint for a program, and let  $A$  be Hoard's allocator footprint. We have

$$A \leq O(U + SP) ,$$

and hence the blowup is

$$A/U = O(1 + SP/U) . \blacksquare$$

**Proof.** Analyze storage in local heaps.

Recall that  $u_i \geq \min(a_i - 2S, a_i/2)$ .

First term: at most  $2S$  unutilized storage per heap for a total of  $O(SP)$ .

Second term: allocated storage is at most twice the used storage for a total of  $O(U)$ .  $\blacksquare$

# Other Solutions

**jemalloc** is like Hoard, with a few differences:

- jemalloc has a separate global lock for each different allocation size.
- jemalloc allocates the object with the smallest address among all objects of the requested size.
- jemalloc releases empty pages using `madvise(p, MADV_DONTNEED, ...)`, which zeros the page while keeping the virtual address valid.
- jemalloc is a popular choice for parallel systems due to its performance and robustness.

**SuperMalloc** is an up-and-coming contender. (See paper by Bradley C. Kuszmaul.)

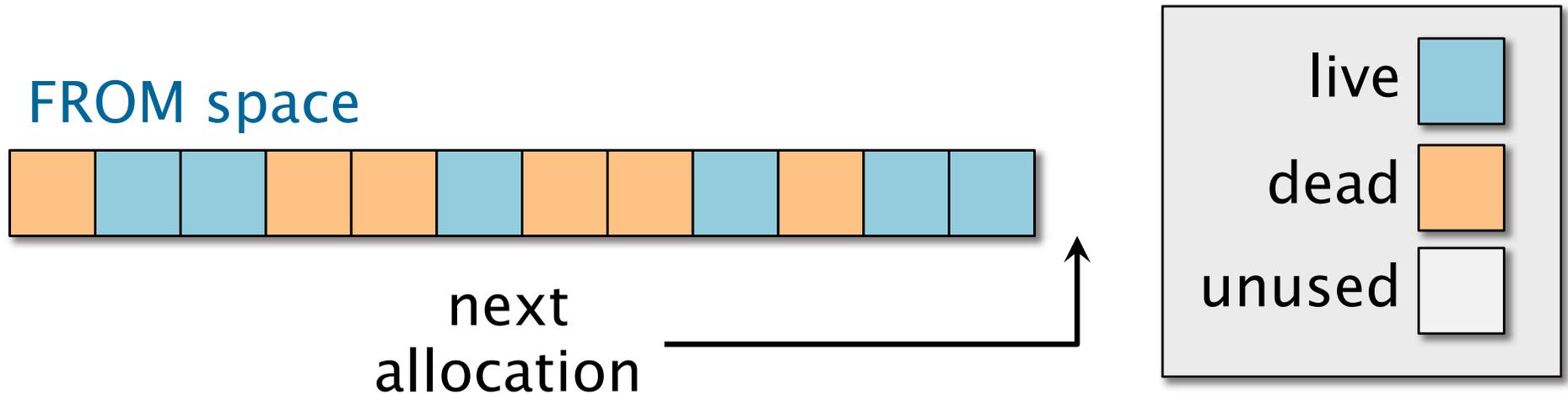
# Allocator Speeds

Allocator	SLOC	32 threads
Default	6,281	0.97 M/s
Hoard	16,948	17.1 M/s
jemalloc	22,230	38.2 M/s
SuperMalloc	3,571	131.7 M/s

# GARBAGE COLLECTION

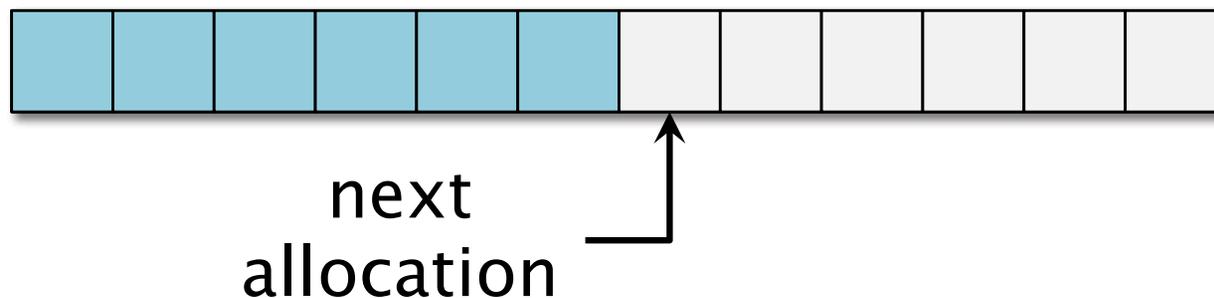


# Copying Garbage Collector



When the **FROM** space is “full,” copy live storage using BFS with the **TO** space as the FIFO queue.

TO space

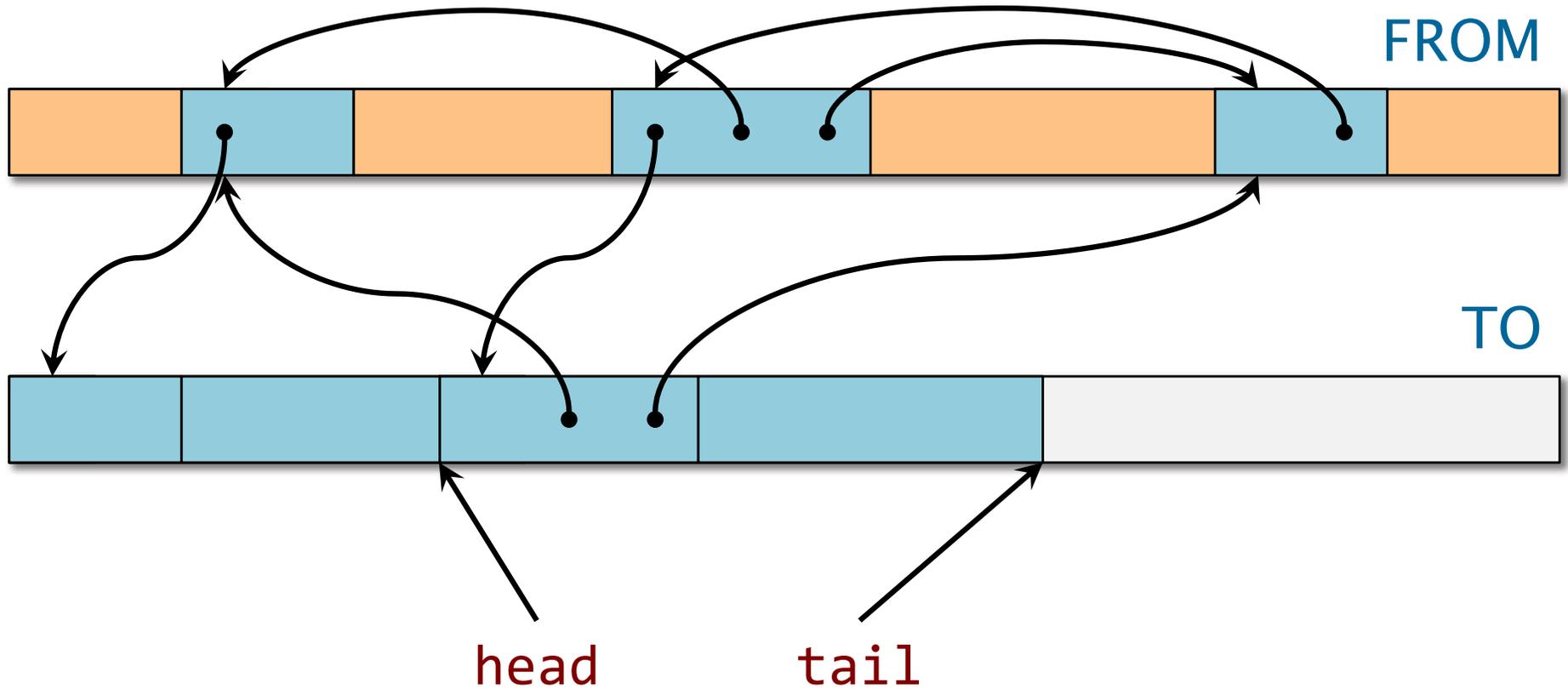


# Updating Pointers

Since the **FROM** address of an object is not generally equal to the **TO** address of the object, pointers must be updated.

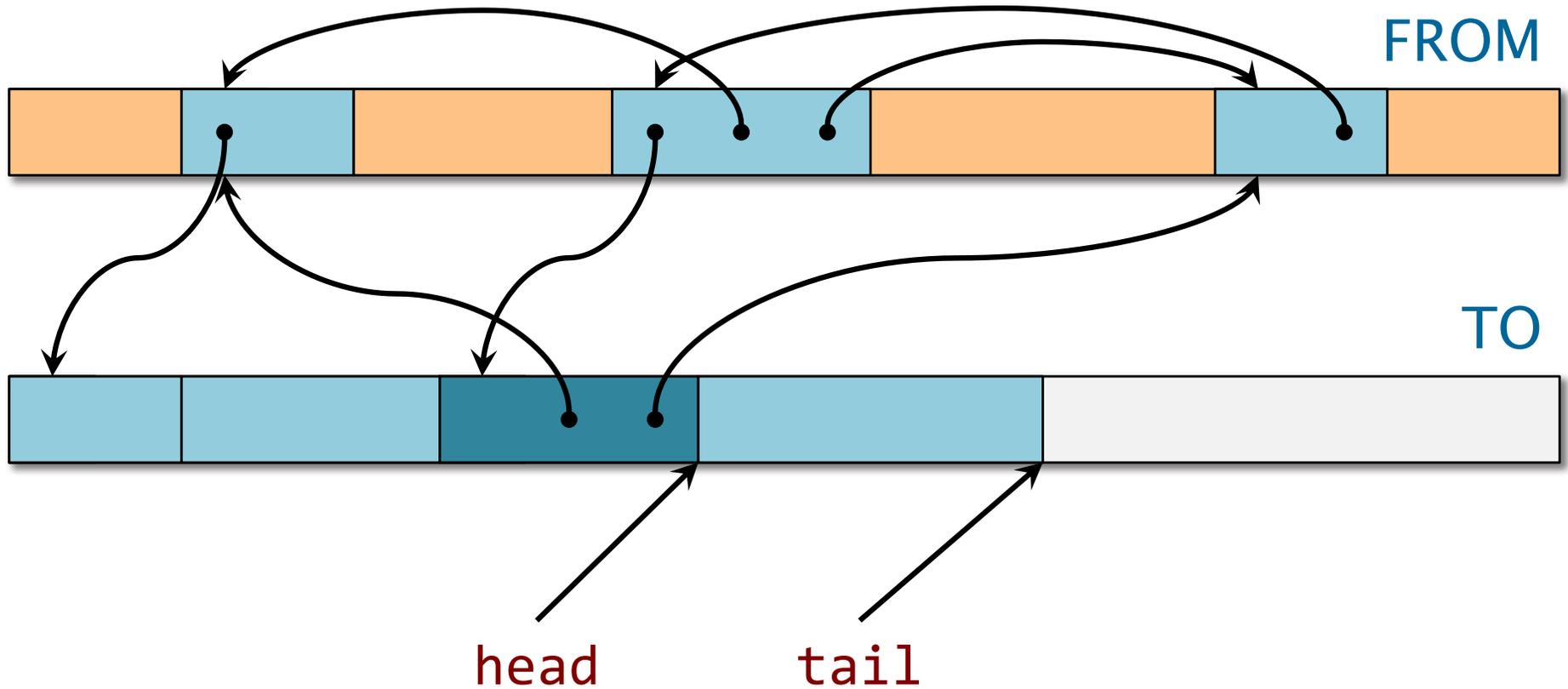
- When an object is copied to the **TO** space, store a forwarding pointer in the **FROM** object, which implicitly marks it as moved.
- When an object is removed from the FIFO queue in the **TO** space, update all its pointers.

# Example



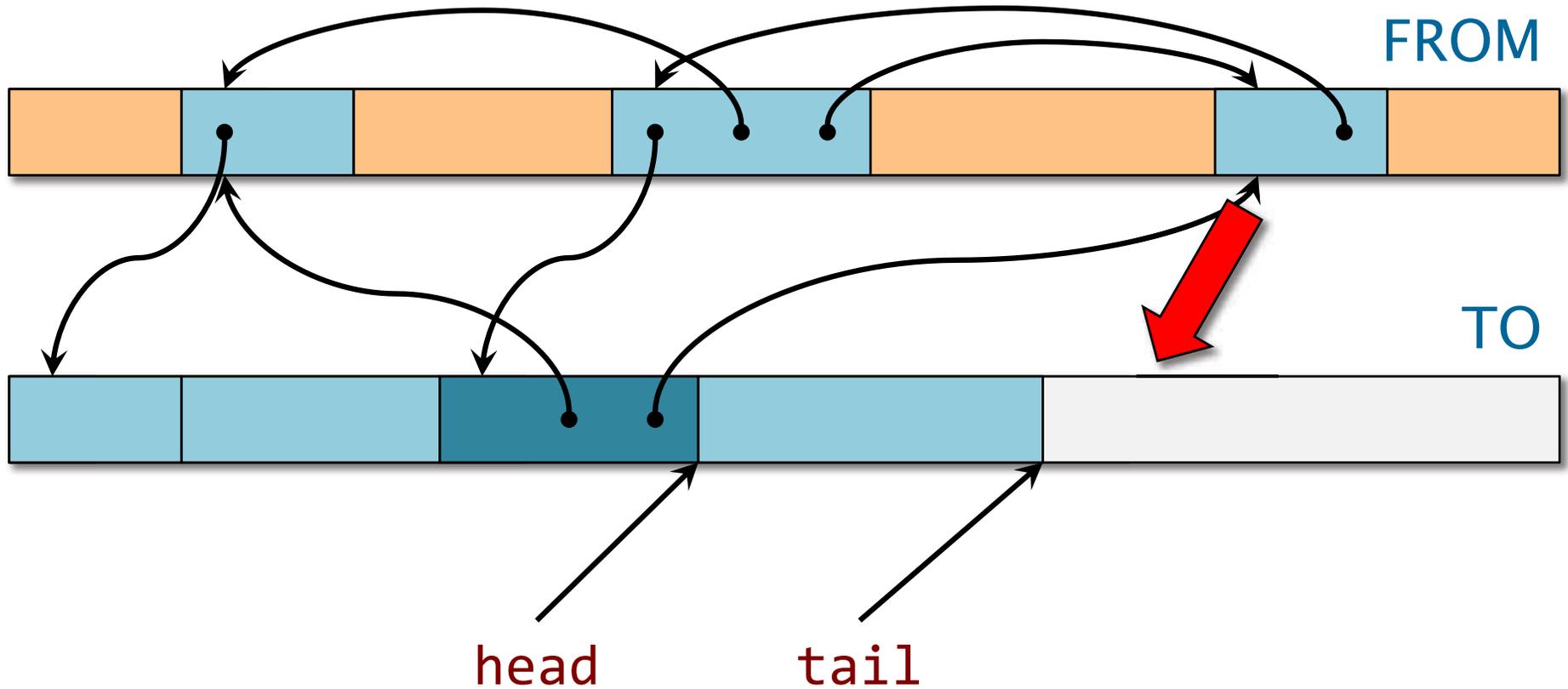
Remove an item from the queue.

# Example



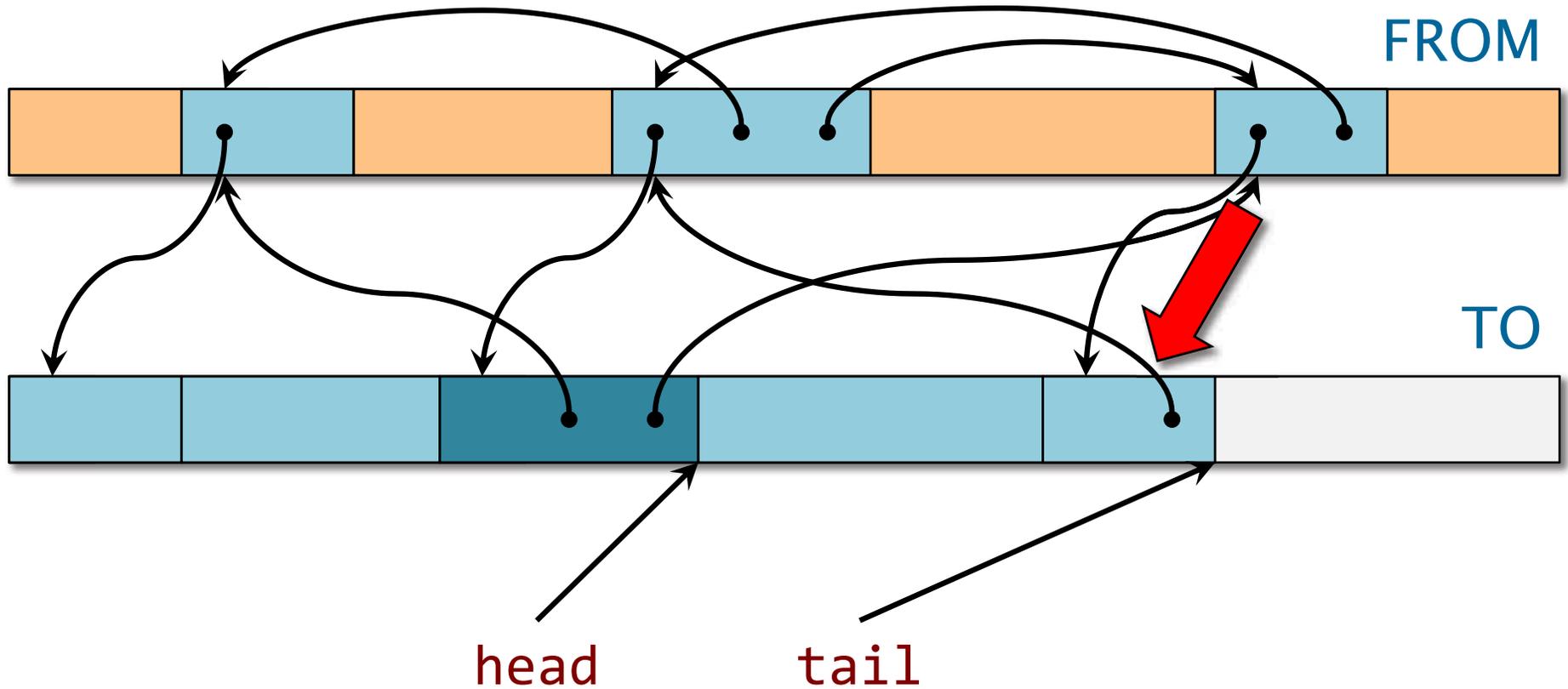
Remove an item from the queue.

# Example



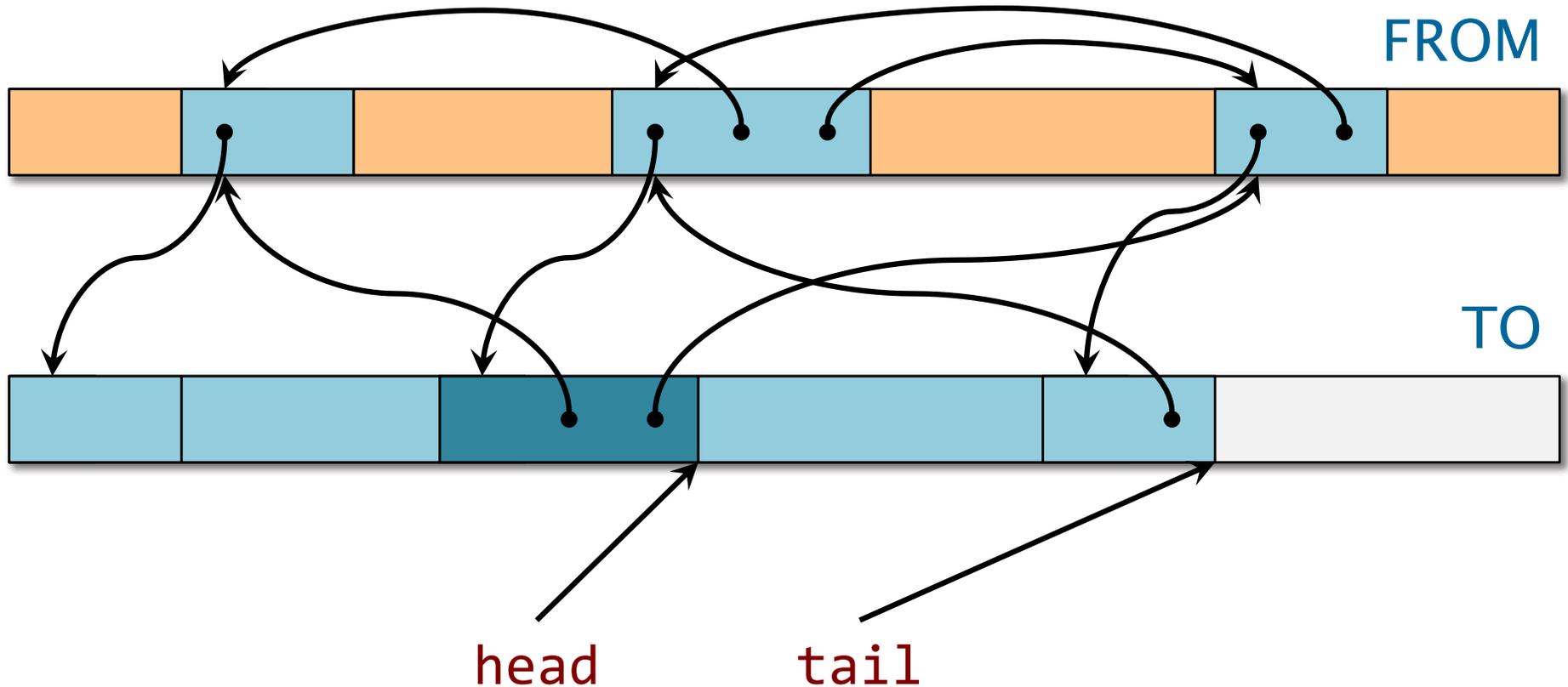
Enqueue adjacent vertices.

# Example



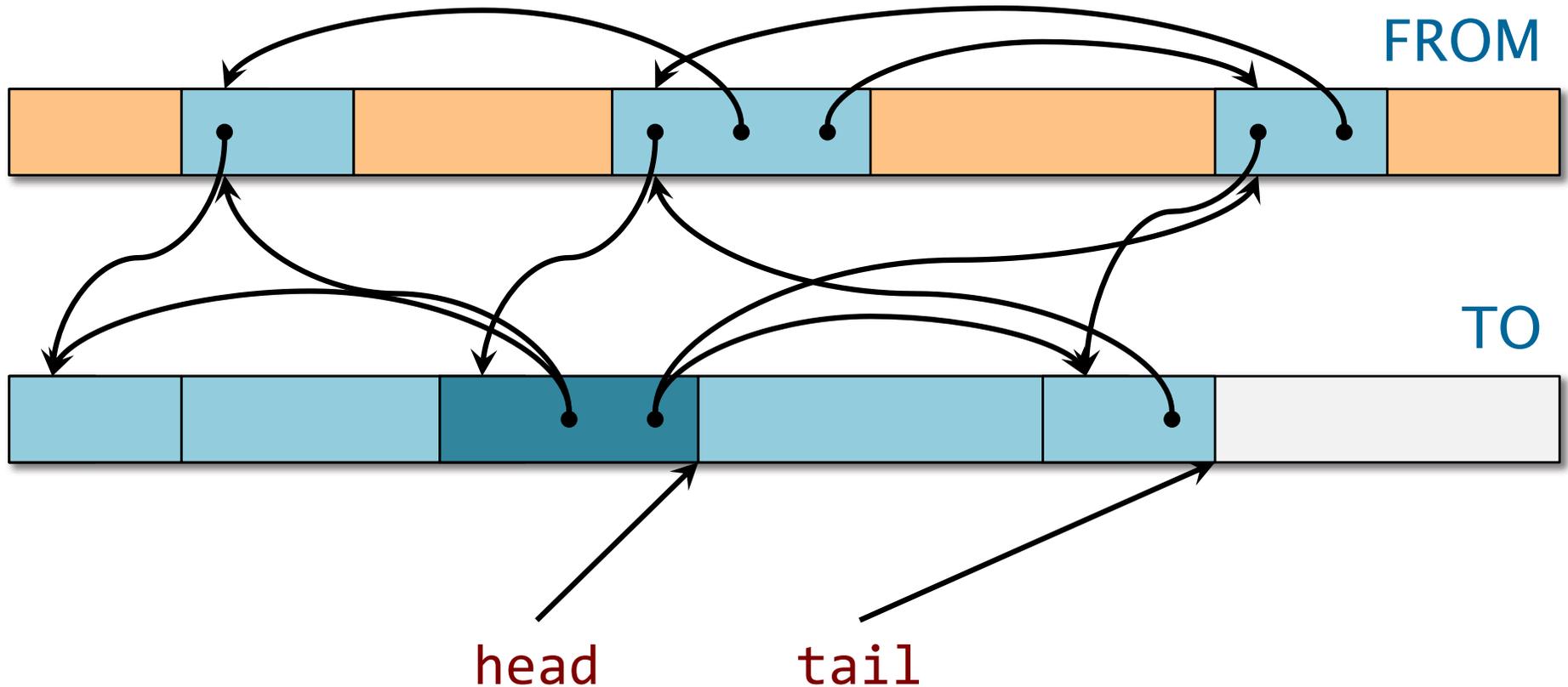
Enqueue adjacent vertices.  
Place forwarding pointers in **FROM** vertices.

# Example



Update the pointers in the removed item to refer to its adjacent items in the **TO** space.

# Example



Update the pointers in the removed item to refer to its adjacent items in the **TO** space.

# Types of Garbage Collectors

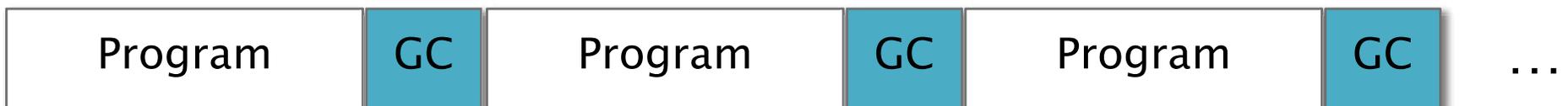
## Stop-the-world collector

- Program pauses once in a while and garbage collector (GC) does work across all of memory
- High program pause times



## Incremental collector

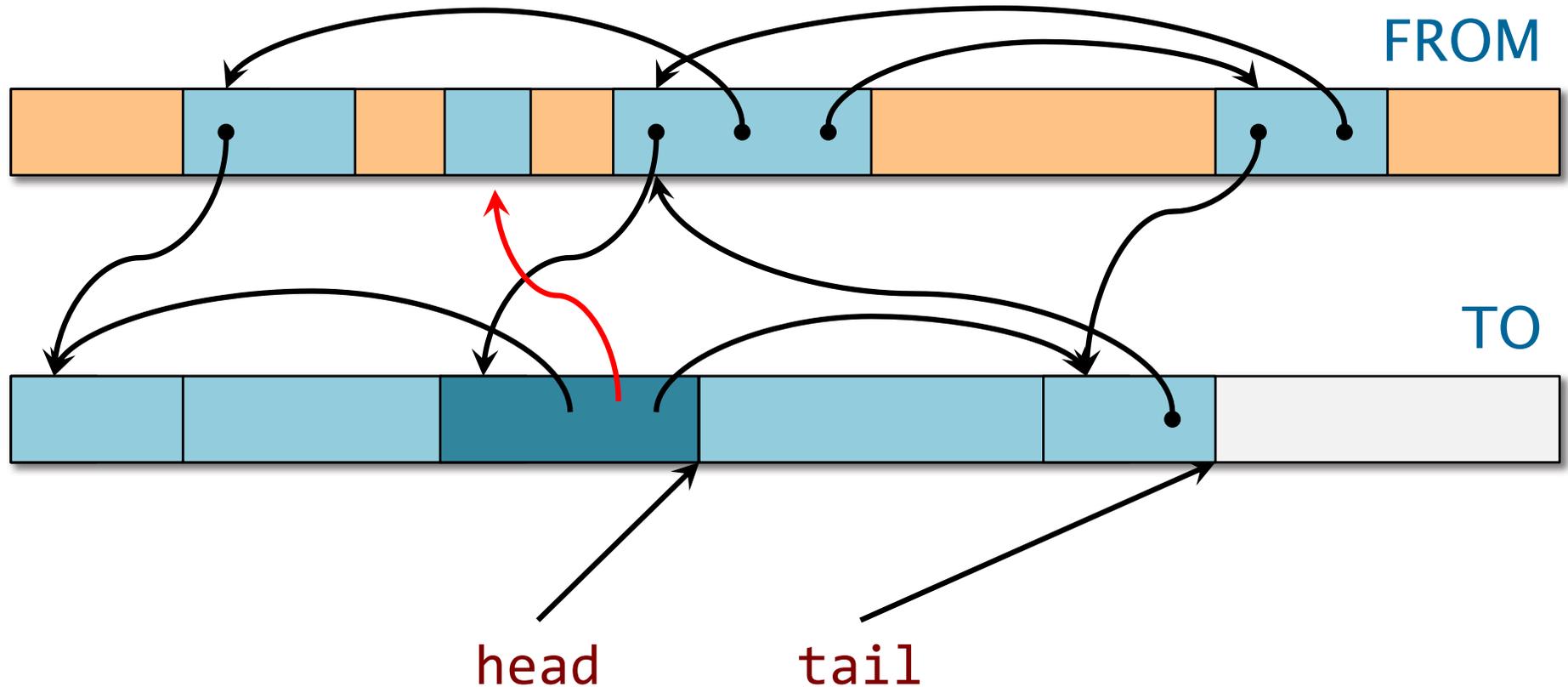
- Collector cleans up a small part of memory every time it executes
- Low program pause times



# Running Collector with Program

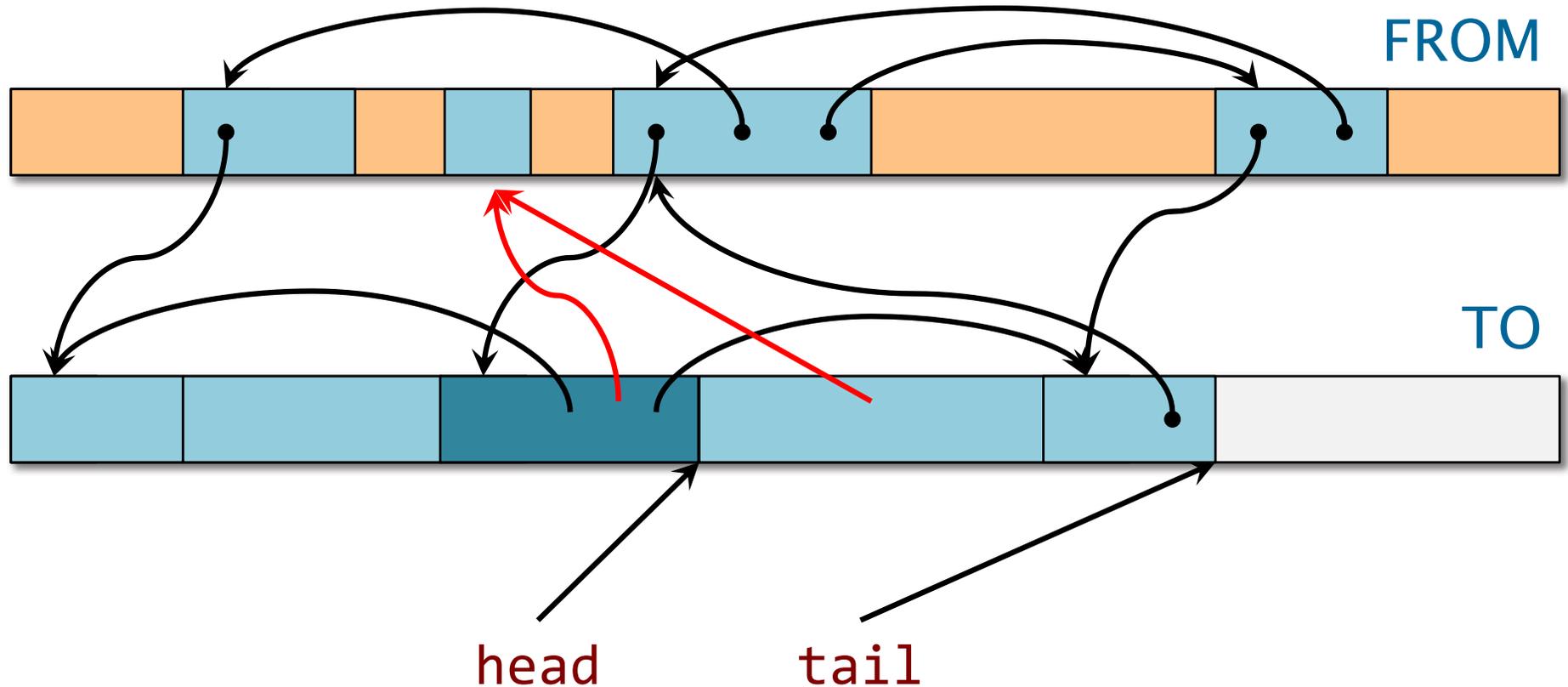
- Incremental version of copying collector.
- When it is time to collect, application program and garbage collector take turns running.

# Running Collector with Program



If an object  $O$  already dequeued in BFS gains a reference to another object  $O'$ , the BFS may not find  $O'$  and it will be freed.

# Running Collector with Program



If an object  $O$  already dequeued in BFS gains a reference to another object  $O'$ , the BFS may not find  $O'$  and it will be freed.

# Baker's Algorithm

- Program follows forward pointer if there is one.
- Whenever the program accesses an object not in the TO space, mark object as explored and copy it over to the TO space.
- Whenever the program allocates an object, put it in the TO space.
- Requires a **read barrier** to intercept every read with a check, which is expensive.
- This algorithm is conservative in that it does not necessarily collect all garbage. Why?

# Nettles–O’Toole Algorithm

- Program works only in FROM space until garbage collection is finished.
- Replicates the objects by keeping mutations to FROM–space objects in a log.
- Garbage collector applies the mutations to corresponding TO–space objects.
- Requires a **write barrier** to log mutations on every write
  - This is expensive, but writes are usually much less frequent than reads.
- Is this algorithm conservative?

# Garbage Collection Glossary

- **Stop-the-world**: Garbage collector does all of its work across memory while pausing program.
- **Incremental**: Garbage collector runs incrementally, allowing pause times to be bounded.
- **Parallel**: Multiple collector threads are running simultaneously.
- **Concurrent**: At least one program thread and one collector thread are running simultaneously.

# Parallel and Concurrent GC

- Based on Nettles–O’Toole algorithm
- High-level idea
  - Use per-processor local stacks for search
  - Maintain a shared stack for load balancing
    - Processors periodically transfer objects between local and shared stack
  - Use synchronization primitives (test-and-set and fetch-and-add) to manage concurrent accesses

See “On Bounding Time and Space for Multiprocessor Garbage Collection” (PLDI 1999), and “A Parallel, Real-Time Garbage Collector” (PLDI 2001) by Cheng and Blelloch

# Summary

- `malloc()` vs. `mmap()`
- Cactus stacks
- Cilk space bound of  $S_p \leq P S_1$  and better bound for matrix multiply
- Parallel allocation strategies: global heap, local heaps, local ownership
- Incremental garbage collection
- Parallel and concurrent garbage collection

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