Lecture 12 – Garbage Collection

COSE212: Programming Languages

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2023 Fall

Recall



- Mutation makes it possible to update the contents of a data structure or a variable after its creation.
 - BFAE FAE with mutable boxes
 - MFAE FAE with mutable variables
 - Evaluation with **memories**, finite maps from addresses to values:

Memories
$$M \in \mathbb{A} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \mathbb{V}$$

Addresses $a \in \mathbb{A}$

- In this lecture, we will learn memory management techniques to deallocate unreachable memory cells:
 - Stack and Heap
 - Manual Memory Management
 - Garbage Collection (GC)

Contents



1. Stack and Heap

Tail-Call Optimization (TCO)

2. Manual Memory Management

3. Garbage Collection

Reference Counting Mark-and-Sweep GC Copying GC (Two-Space GC) Other GC Algorithms

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 Stack and Heap Tail-Call Optimization (TCO)

2. Manual Memory Management

Garbage Collection
 Reference Counting
 Mark-and-Sweep GC
 Copying GC (Two-Space GC
 Other GC Algorithms

Stack and Heap



In the previous lecture, we have seen the memory in the following MFAE expression has **unreachable** memory cells as follows:

```
/* MFAE */
var y = 1;
var f = x => {
  x = x + y;
  x * x
};
f(5);  /* 36 */
y = 3;
f(5);  /* 64 */
*
```

```
\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} y \mapsto a_0 \\ f \mapsto a_1 \end{bmatrix}

A : a_0 a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots

M = 3 v 6 8 \dots
```

where
$$v = \langle \lambda x. x = x + y; x * x, [y \mapsto a_0] \rangle$$

Then, how to detect and deallocate unreachable memory cells?

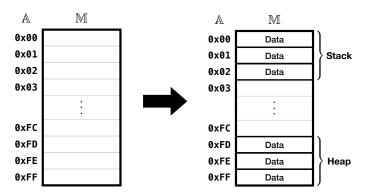
Let's delete unreachable memory cells when the program exits functions!

Stack and Heap



We can **divide** the memory into two parts:

- Stack for local variables and function parameters
- Heap for dynamically allocated memory cells



Create a **new stack frame** when the program **enters** a function, and **delete** the stack frame when it **exits** the function.





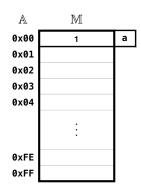
```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int =
 var y = Box(1)
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
var a = 1
var d = f(42)
a + d
```

A	\mathbb{M}
0x00	
0x01	
0x02	
0x03	
0x04	
	:
0xFE	
0xFF	





```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int =
 var y = Box(1)
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
                    /* a -> 0x00 */ *
var a = 1
var d = f(42)
a + d
```







```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int = /* x -> 0x01 */
 var y = Box(1) /* y -> 0x02 */ *
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
                   /* a -> 0x00 */
var a = 1
var d = f(42)
a + d
```

A	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1	а	
0x01	42	х	f
0x02	0xFF	У	Ľ
0x03			
0x04			
	÷		
0xFE			
0xFF	1		

A **new stack frame** is created when it enters the function f.

Stack and Heap



For example, consider the following Scala program:

```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int = /* x -> 0x01 */
 var y = Box(1) /* y -> 0x02 */
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int = /* b -> 0x03 */
 var c = Box(b) /* c -> 0x04 */
 c.k + 3 /* 5 */
                /* a -> 0x00 */
var a = 1
var d = f(42)
a + d
```

A	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1	а	
0x01	42	х	f
0x02	0xFF	у	
0x03	2	b	_
0x04	0xFE	С	g
	:		
0xFE	2		
0xFF	1		
		-	

A new stack frame is created when it enters the function g.





```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int = /* x -> 0x01 */
 var y = Box(1) /* y -> 0x02 */
 var z = g(2) /* z -> 0x03 */
 x + y.k + z /* 48 */
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
var a = 1
                /* a -> 0x00 */
var d = f(42)
a + d
```

A	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1	а	
0x01	42	х	
0x02	0xFF	у	f
0x03	5	z	
0x04			
0xFE	2		
0xFF	1		
		_	

After exiting the function g, its stack frame is **deleted**. The memory cells allocated for b and c in the stack frame are **deallocated**.





```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int =
 var y = Box(1)
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
                 /* a -> 0x00 */
var a = 1
                /* d -> 0x01 */
var d = f(42)
                   /* 49 */
a + d
```

```
Α
           M
0x00
0x01
           48
                     d
0x02
0x03
0x04
0xFE
0xFF
```

After exiting the function f, its stack frame is **deleted**. The memory cells allocated for x, y, and z in the stack frame are **deallocated**.





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

A	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1000	х	sum
0x01	0	acc	Suiii
0x02			
0x03			
0x04			
0x05			
	:		
0xFE			
0xFF			





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

\mathbb{A}	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1000	х	sum
0x01	0	acc	Juiii
0x02	999	х	sum
0x03	1000	acc	Suiii
0x04			,
0x05			
	•		
0xFE			
0xFF			





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

\mathbb{A}	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1000	х	sum
0x01	0	acc	Sum
0x02	999	х	sum
0x03	1000	acc	Sum
0x04	998	х	sum
0x05	1999	acc	Suiii
	•••		
0xFE	873	х	sum
0xFF	118999	acc	Suiii

It fails with a stack overflow error.

However, is it really necessary to keep **all the stack frames? No!** Scala supports **tail-call optimization** (TCO).





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

\mathbb{A}	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	1000	х	sum
0x01	0	acc	Sum
0x02			
0x03			
0x04			
0x05			
	:		
0xFE			
0xFF			

Why? the function call is in **tail-call position** (i.e., the final action in the function). It means that it directly returns the result without any further computation.

Thus, we can safely **discard** the current stack frame **before** calling the function, and it is called **tail-call optimization** (TCO).





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

\mathbb{A}	\mathbb{M}		
0x00	999	х	sum
0x01	1000	acc	Juiii
0x02			
0x03			
0x04			
0x05			
	:		
0xFE			
0xFF			

Why? the function call is in **tail-call position** (i.e., the final action in the function). It means that it directly returns the result without any further computation.

Thus, we can safely **discard** the current stack frame **before** calling the function, and it is called **tail-call optimization** (TCO).





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
  else sum(x - 1, x + acc) // tail-call
  sum(1000, 0) // 500500</pre>
```

```
    A
    M

    0x00
    0
    x

    0x01
    500500
    acc

    0x02
    acc

    0x03
    acc

    0x04
    acc

    0x7E
    acc

    0xFE
    acc
```

Why? the function call is in **tail-call position** (i.e., the final action in the function). It means that it directly returns the result without any further computation.

Thus, we can safely **discard** the current stack frame **before** calling the function, and it is called **tail-call optimization** (TCO).

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Let's see the previous example again:

```
case class Box(var k: Int)
def f(x: Int): Int =
 var y = Box(1)
 var z = g(2)
 x + y.k + z
def g(b: Int): Int =
 var c = Box(b)
 c.k + 3
                 /* a -> 0x00 */
var a = 1
var b = f(42)
                /* b -> 0x01 */
a + b
                   /* 49 */
```

```
\mathbb{M}
 Α
0x00
                         а
0x01
              48
                         b
0x02
0x03
0x04
0xFE
                          Heap
0xFF
```

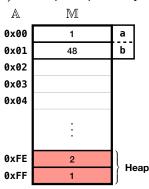
Unfortunately, we still cannot deallocate memory cells (e.g., 0xFE and 0xFF) dynamically allocated in the **heap** rather than the **stack**.





One way to resolve this is using the **manual memory management**, and C++ is an example language that supports it with special keywords for memory allocation (new) and deallocation (delete) in heap, respectively:

```
struct Box { int k; Box(int k): k(k) {} };
int f(int x) {
 Box* y = new Box(1); // alloc OxFF
 int z = g(2);
 int k = y->k;
 return x + k + z;
int g(int b) {
 Box* c = new Box(b); // alloc OxFE
 int k = c->k;
 return k + 3;
int a = 1;  /* a -> 0x00 */
int b = f(42); /* b -> 0x01 */
a + b:
        /* 49 */
```







One way to resolve this is using the **manual memory management**, and C++ is an example language that supports it with special keywords for memory allocation (new) and deallocation (delete) in heap, respectively:

```
struct Box { int k; Box(int k): k(k) {} };
int f(int x) {
 Box* y = new Box(1); // alloc OxFF
 int z = g(2);
  int k = y->k; delete y; // dealloc OxFF
 return x + k + z;
int g(int b) {
 Box* c = new Box(b); // alloc OxFE
  int k = c->k; delete c; // dealloc 0xFE
 return k + 3;
int a = 1; /* a \rightarrow 0x00 */
int b = f(42); /* b -> 0x01 */
a + b; /* 49 */
```

,		
\mathbb{A}	\mathbb{M}	
0x00	1	а
0x01	48	b
0x02		
0x03		
0x04		
	:	
0xFE		
0xFF		
	•	-

Manual Memory Management



Pros:

 Efficient – Users can explicitly deallocate memory cells allocated in heap whenever they want.

Cons:

- **Error-prone** Users have all the **responsibility** to deallocate memory cells allocated in heap:
 - Memory leak occurs if users forget to deallocate memory cells.

```
b = new Box(42); ...
```

Dangling pointer occurs if users deallocate memory cells too early.

```
b = new Box(42); ... delete b; ... b->k;
```

• **Double free** occurs if users deallocate memory cells more than once.

```
b = new Box(42); ... delete b; ... delete b;
```

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Manual Memory Management

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Is there any way to automatically deallocate memory cells in heap? Yes!

Garbage collection (GC) is a representative technique for **automatic memory management**.

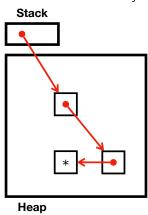
Let's learn several GC algorithms:

- Reference counting
- Mark-and-sweep GC
- Copying GC (Two-space GC)
- Others

Before explaining them, let's represent memory cells in heap in a **graphical** way without actual addresses.

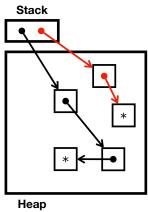


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null))) *
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



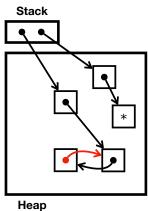


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



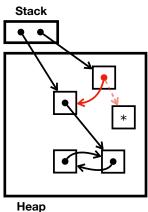


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



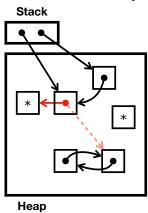


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



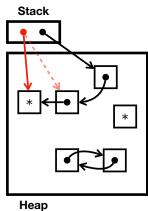


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



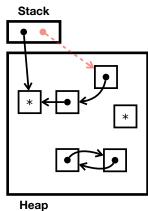


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





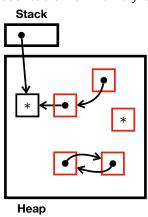
```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





From now on, we will use the **graphical representation** of memory cells:

```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



We need to deallocate five unreachable memory cells in heap.

Reference Counting



Reference counting is a simple GC algorithm that keeps track of the **number of references** to each memory cell in heap.

- 1 Initialize the reference count of each cell to 0.
- 2 When a reference to a cell is created, increment its reference count.
- **3** When a reference to a cell is deleted, **decrement** its reference count.
- When the reference count of a cell reaches 0, deallocate the cell.

Many programming languages use reference counting to implement GC:

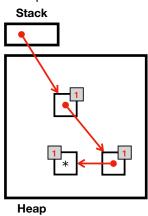
Python, Swift, Perl, Objective-C, etc.

Reference Counting



Reference counting is a simple GC algorithm that keeps track of the **number of references** to each memory cell in heap.

```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null))) *
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```

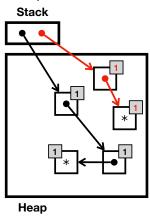


Reference Counting

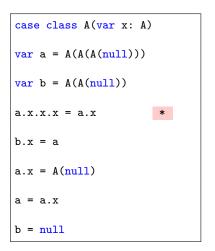


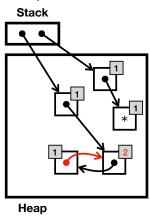
Reference counting is a simple GC algorithm that keeps track of the **number of references** to each memory cell in heap.

```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```

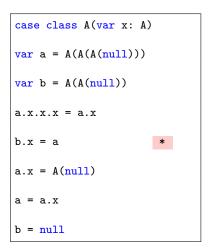


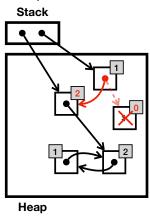






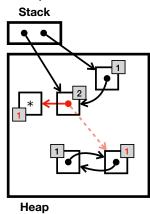




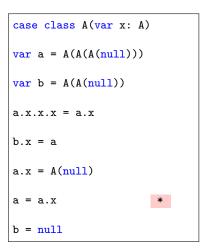


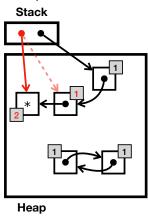


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



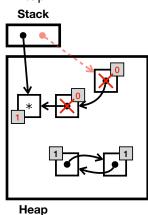








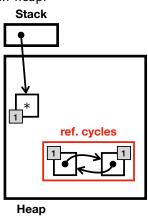
```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





Reference counting is a simple GC algorithm that keeps track of the **number of references** to each memory cell in heap.

```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



Unfortunately, we cannot deallocate unreachable reference cycles.



Reference counting is a simple GC algorithm that keeps track of the **number of references** to each memory cell in heap.

Pros:

- **Easy to implement** Simply increment and decrement the reference count when a reference is created and deleted.
- Low overhead Deallocation is immediate and takes a short time.

Cons:

- **Reference cycles** It cannot deallocate unreachable reference cycles.
- **Reference count cost** It requires space to store reference counts.
- Free List and Fragmentation It requires a free list to keep track
 of available free memory cells in heap, and it also suffers from
 fragmentation making it difficult to allocate large objects.

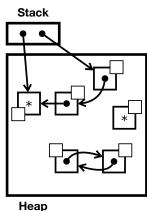


Mark-and-Sweep GC is one of tracing GC algorithms that traverses the heap to find unreachable objects when it is triggered under some conditions.

- **1** Mark all memory cells as unreachable (white).
- Mark all memory cells referenced by roots as unscanned (gray).
- 3 Repeat until there are no unscanned (gray) memory cells:
 - 1 Pick an unscanned (gray) memory cell.
 - 2 Mark memory cells referenced by the picked one as unscanned (gray).
 - 3 Mark the picked memory cell as scanned (black).
- Oeallocate (sweep) all memory cells that are still marked as unreachable (white).

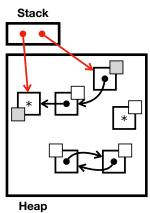


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



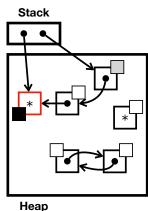


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



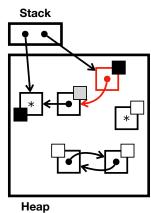


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
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```



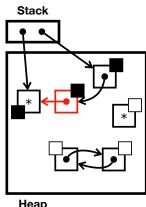


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





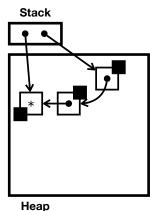
```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



Heap



```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





Mark-and-Sweep GC is one of tracing GC algorithms that traverses the heap to find unreachable objects when it is triggered under some conditions.

Pros:

• Reference cycles – It can deallocate unreachable reference cycles.

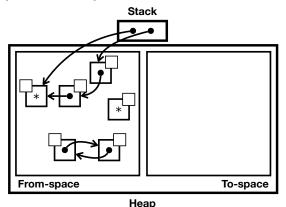
Cons:

- Stop-the-world It stops the program execution during GC.
- Free List and Fragmentation It requires a free list to keep track
 of available free memory cells in heap, and it also suffers from
 fragmentation making it difficult to allocate large objects.

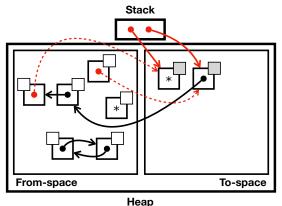


- Allocation It allocates memory cells only in from-space.
- **Deallocation** It deallocates all the unreachable objects as follows:
 - Mark all memory cells as unreachable (white).
 - 2 Copy all memory cells referenced by roots as unscanned (gray) and copy them from the from-space to the to-space
 - **3 Update** the data of the original memory cell to point to the copied one.
 - 4 Repeat until there are no unscanned (gray) memory cells
 - 1 Pick an unscanned (gray) memory cell in the from-space.
 - **2** Copy memory cells referenced by the picked one as unscanned (gray).
 - **3 Update** the data of the original memory cell to point to the copied one.
 - Mark the picked memory cell as scanned (black).
 - **5 Swap** from-space and to-space.

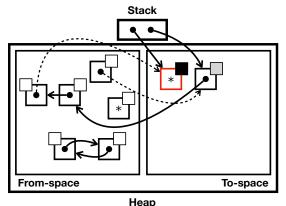




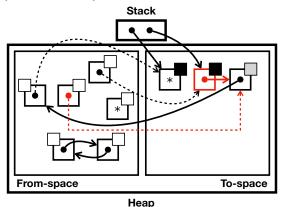




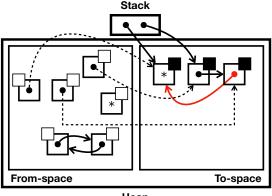






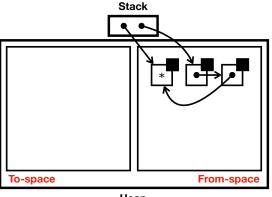






Heap





Heap



Similar to mark-and-sweep GC, **copying GC** (Two-space GC) is another **tracing GC** algorithm. However, it **copies** all the reachable objects and reorganizes them in a **compact** layout by splitting the heap into two spaces: **from-space** and **to-space**.

Pros:

- Reference cycles It can deallocate unreachable reference cycles.
- No more Free List and Fragmentation After deallocation process, the heap is always contiguous. Thus, it is enough to keep track of the first free memory cell for allocation.
- Fast Allocation It does not require any extra work to find free memory cells in the free list for allocation.

Cons:

- Stop-the-world It stops the program execution during GC.
- Only half of the heap (from-space) is used for allocation.
- Expensive copying process It copies all the reachable objects from the from-space to the to-space.

Other GC Algorithms



Existing real-world programming languages utilize more sophisticated GC algorithms, mix diverse GC algorithms, or even provide options to choose different GC algorithms:

- **Generational GC** e.g, Java¹, Python²
- Concurrent GC e.g., Java³, Golang⁴
- Ownership, Borrowing, and Lifetimes e.g., Rust⁵
- Escape Analysis e.g., Java⁶
- etc.

https://www.oracle.com/webfolder/technetwork/tutorials/obe/java/gc01/index.html

² https://devguide.python.org/internals/garbage-collector/

https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/technotes/guides/vm/gctuning/cms.html

⁴ https://tip.golang.org/doc/gc-guide

⁵ https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch04-01-what-is-ownership.html

https://blogs.oracle.com/javamagazine/post/escape-analysis-in-the-hotspot-jit-compiler

Summary



1. Stack and Heap

Tail-Call Optimization (TCO)

2. Manual Memory Management

3. Garbage Collection

Reference Counting Mark-and-Sweep GC Copying GC (Two-Space GC) Other GC Algorithms

Next Lecture



Lazy Evaluation

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