Compiler Design

Lecture 22: Garbage Collection

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Memory Management

Manual Deallocation Mechanisms

Runtime Automatic Deallocation Mechanisms

Reference Counting

Mark-and-sweep

Stop-and-Copy

Pratical Considerations

Weak references

Stack Memory Allocation

- Space allocated in the call stack;
- Used for call information, local variables, and return values;
- Usually contains fixed size data; and
- Is allocated and deallocated at the beginning and end of a function.





Heap Memory Allocation

- Space allocated in the program heap;
- Very dynamic in nature:
 - Unknown size; and
 - Unknown time;
- Requires additional runtime support for managing heap space.

Information stored in the heap is therefore not necessarily tied to any particular function invocation.

Example Heap



Heap variables may be referred to by other objects in the heap, or from the stack.

Data stored in the heap is controlled by a heap allocator: malloc.

- Manages the memory in the heap space;
- Takes as input the size (in byte) needed for the allocation;
- Finds unallocated space in the heap large enough to accommodate the request; and
- Returns a pointer to the newly allocated space.

You will find more details in an operating systems course.

Memory allocated on the heap is freed when it is no longer needed. This can be:

- Manual:
 - User code makes the necessary decisions on what is live and when to deallocate (*e.g.* using **free**).
- Automatic:
 - **Continuous**: Runtime code determines on the spot which objects are live; or
 - **Periodic**: Runtime code determines at specific times which objects are live.

Without runtime support the *program* must explicitly return the memory when it is no longer needed.

For this class, we will assume that the freed heap blocks are stored on a **freelist** (a linked list of heap blocks).

Freeing an object *prepends* the heap block onto the list.



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Heap memory can be freed manually at any point in the program.

- Programmers determine when an object is no longer live; and
- Requires calls to a deallocator (i.e. free).

Consider the following code

```
int *a = malloc(sizeof(int));
// ... use of a
free(a);
// ...
*a = 5; // what happens?
```

Advantages

- Reduces runtime complexity;
- Gives the programmer full control on what is live; and
- Can be more efficient in some circumstances.

Disadvantages

- Requires extensive effort from the programmer;
- Gives the programmer full control on what is live;
- Error-prone; and
- Can be less efficient in some circumstances.

Sometimes manual deallocation is slower than automatic methods. Consider the following example code, which allocates 100 integers and then deallocates them one-by-one.

```
for (int i = 0; i < 100; ++i) {
    a[i] = malloc(sizeof(int));
}
...
for (int i = 0; i < 100; ++i) {
    free(a[i]);
}</pre>
```

This is potentially inefficient. Why?

The allocations are potentially contiguous, and could therefore be reclaimed as a *block* instead of one-by-one.

Life Without Garbage Collection

- Dead records must be explicitly deallocated;
- "Superior" if done correctly; but
- It is easy to miss some records;
- It is "dangerous" to handle pointers; and
- May be less efficient in some cases.

Memory leaks in real life (ical v.2.1)



hours

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A runtime deallocation mechanism must answer the question:

Which records are dead, i.e. no longer in use?

The more precise the answer, the better the deallocation mechanism. Ideally: Records that will never be accessed in the future.

ightarrow But this is undecidable, *e.g.*:

```
int * foo(int a) {
    int *p1 = (int*)malloc(16);
    int *p2 = (int*)malloc(16);
    if (a<3) return p1 else return p2;}</pre>
```

Basic conservative assumption

• A record is *live* if it is reachable from a stack-based variable or global variable, otherwise dead.

Consider the following example heap, with stack variables: **p**, **q** and **r**.

- Which records are live?
- Which records are dead?



A garbage collector

- Is part of the runtime system; and
- Automatically reclaims heap-allocated records that are no longer used.

A garbage collector should

- Reclaim all unused records;
- Spend very little time per record;
- Not cause significant delays; and
- Allow all of memory to be used.

These are difficult and often conflicting requirements.

In this class we will study three types of garbage collection:

- Reference counting;
- Mark-and-sweep; and
- Stop-and-copy.

For each algorithm we will discuss the implementation, an example, and the associated advantages/disadvantages.

Runtime Automatic Deallocation Mechanisms

Reference Counting

Reference Counting

- $\cdot\,$ Is a type of continuous (or incremental) garbage collection;
- Uses a field on each object (the reference count) to track incoming pointers; and
- Determines an object is dead when its reference count reaches zero.

The reference count is updated

- Whenever a reference is changed:
 - Created

```
e.g. int *a = b; // b refcount++
```

Destroyed

```
e.g. a = c; // b refcount--
```

- Whenever a local variable goes out of scope;
- Whenever an object is deallocated: all objects it points to have their reference counts decremented.

Reference Counting

Reference counting inserts calls to **increment** and **decrement** in the source program as needed.

When the object is no longer needed, a call to **free** is made.

Pseudo code for reference counting

function increment(x)
 x.count = x.count+1

function decrement(x)
 x.count = x.count-1
 if x.count == 0 then
 free(x)

function free(x)
∀ field f_i with a ref do
 decrement(f_i)
x.f₁ = freelist
freelist = x

Example

```
class A { int count; // ref counting
         int y;}
class B { int count; // ref counting
          int x;
          A a;}
B foo(int c) {
    A = new A();
   A = a2 = new A();
    B b = new B();
    b.a = a1;
    if (c>4) {
        b.a = a2;
    return b;
```

Example with increment/decrement calls

```
class A { int count; // ref counting
         int y;}
class B { int count; // ref counting
          int x:
         A a;}
B foo(int c) {
   A a1 = new A(): // a1.count = 1:
   A a2 = new A(); // a2.count = 1;
   B b = new B(); // b.count = 1;
   decrement(b.a); // if b.a is null, no effect
   b_{a} = a1:
   increment(a1); // a1.count = 2;
    if (c>4) {
        decrement(b.a); // a1.count = 1;
       b.a = a2;
       increment(a2); // a2.count = 2;
    decrement(a1); // a1.count = ?
    decrement(a2); // a2.count = ?
    return b;
```

Reference counting has one big problem:

• What about the objects with number 7 & 9?

How can we even have this situation?



Advantages

- Is incremental, distributing the cost over a long period;
- Does not require long pauses to handle deallocations;
- · Catches dead objects immediately; and
- Requires no effort from the user.

Disadvantages

- Is incremental, slowing down the program continuously; and
- Cannot handle circular data structures.

Initially for Objective-C (now also for Swift), *automatic reference counting* (ARC) is a reference counting implementation designed by Apple and integrated into Clang.

• Inserts calls to **retain** (increment) and **release** (decrement) at compile time;

Previously, developers inserted manual calls to the memory management methods.

Alternative to ARC is to use smart pointers, such as ones found in the C++ Standard Library:

- unique_ptr, shared_ptr, weak_ptr
- automatically decremented when out of scope (using C++ destructor mechanism)
- if you want to learn more (you should!):
 https://en.cppreference.com/book/intro/smart_pointers

Runtime Automatic Deallocation Mechanisms

Mark-and-sweep

The mark-and-sweep algorithm is a periodic approach to garbage collection that has 3 main steps:

- 1. Explore pointers starting from the program (stack & global) variables, and *mark* all records encountered;
- 2. *Sweep* through all records in the heap and reclaim the unmarked ones; and
- 3. Finish by unmarking all marked records.

Assumptions

- We know which fields are pointers;
- \cdot We know the size of each record; and
- Reclaimed records are kept in a **freelist**.

Mark-and-Sweep

The 3 steps of the mark-and-sweep algorithm are shown below (steps 2 and 3 are merged).

Pseudo code for mark-and-sweep

```
function mark()
  for each program variable v do
    dfs(v)
function dfs(x)
  if x is pointer into heap then
    if record x not marked then
       mark record x
       for i=1 to |x| do
         dfs(x.f_i)
```

```
function sweep()
p = first address in heap
while p < last address in heap do
    if record p is marked then
        unmark record p
    else
        p.f<sub>1</sub> = freelist
        freelist = p
        p = p+sizeof(record p)
```

Mark-and-Sweep







- Assume the heap has size H words; and
- Assume that *R* words are reachable.

The cost of garbage collection: O(R + C)

Advantages

- Is periodic, so does not slow down each operation in your program;
- Can be run in parallel to your program;
- Mark and sweep steps can be parallelized too;
- Requires no effort from the user.

Disadvantages

- Scanning the heap can be expensive;
- The heap may become *fragmented*: containing many small free records but none that are large enough for the next allocation.

To deal with fragmented heaps we can use *compaction*.

- Once mark-and-sweep has finished, collect all live objects at the beginning of the heap;
- Adjust pointers pointing to all moved objects;
- The adjustment depends on the amount of space freed before the object;
- This removes fragmentation and improves locality.

Runtime Automatic Deallocation Mechanisms

Stop-and-Copy

Stop-and-copy is a periodic approach to garbage collection that:

- Divides the heap into two parts;
- Only uses one part at a time;

Conceptually this results in a simple high-level algorithm:

- 1. Use the active half of the heap for all allocations;
- 2. When it runs full, copy live records to the other part; and
- 3. Switch the roles of the two parts.

A Nonrecursive List Compacting Algorithm, C. J. Cheney, Commun. ACM, 1970.

Stop-and-Copy

Consider the following snapshots of stop-and-copy before/after execution.

- next and limit indicate the available heap space; and
- Copied records are contiguous in memory.



Objects on the stack are processed one at a time as follows:

- If the object has not yet been moved to to-space, copy the object fields to to-space and update the first field of the from-space version with a *forwarding* reference to the to-space copy. Then update the objet reference from the stack to refer to the copy in the to-space.
- If the object has already been moved to to-space, update the object reference from the stack to refer to the copy in the to-space (using first field of the object which points to the copy).

Then, we simply process all the objects in the to-space, performing one of the actions above for each field of the object (which holds a reference).

Pseudo code for stop-and-copy

```
function copy()
scan = next = start of to-space
for each object obj on stack do
    obj = forward(obj)
while scan < next do
    for i=1 to |scan| do
        scan.f<sub>i</sub> = forward(scan.f<sub>i</sub>)
        scan = scan+sizeof(record scan)
```

function forward(*obj*) if $obj \in from$ -space then if $obj.f_1 \in \text{to-space then}$ // copy already made return obj.f₁ else // copy obj to new space for i=1 to |obj| do $next.f_i = obj.f_i$ $obj.f_1 = next$ **next** = **next**+sizeof(*obj*) return obj.f₁ else return obj

Stop-and-Copy

The follow are snapshots of stop-and-copy before executing and after forwarding the top-level and scanning 1 record.



before

after forwarding p, q, and r and scanning 1 record

- Assume the heap has size H words; and
- Assume that *R* words are reachable.

The cost of garbage collection is now: $\mathcal{O}(R)$

Advantages

- Allows fast allocation (no freelist);
- Avoids fragmentation;
- Collects in time proportional to *R*.

Disadvantage

- Wastes half your memory; and
- Stops the program to execute.

Runtime Automatic Deallocation Mechanisms

Pratical Considerations

In practice, we use either mark-and-sweep or stop-and-copy (and in some systems ref. counting).

This can lead to better memory management, at the cost of \sim 100 instructions for a small object.

Each algorithm can be further extended by

- Generational collection (to make it run faster); and
- Incremental (or concurrent) collection (to make it run smoother).

Observation: the young die quickly

Given this assumption, the garbage collector should:

- Focus on young records;
- Divide the heap into generations: G_0, G_1, G_2, \ldots ;
- All records in G_i are younger than records in G_{i+1} ;
- Collect G_0 often, G_1 less often, and so on; and
- Promote a record from G_i to G_{i+1} when it survives several collections.

Exploit locality

 $\cdot\,$ Keep youngest generation small enough to fit in the CPU cache

Incremental collection

- Garbage collection may cause long pauses;
- This is undesirable for interactive or real-time programs; so
- Try to interleave the garbage collection with the program execution (*e.g. Train algorithm*).

The presented garbage collection algorithms assumed that:

- \cdot We know the size of each record; and
- We know which fields are pointers.

For object-oriented languages, each record already contains a pointer to a class descriptor, so garbage collection is straightforward to implement.

For general languages, we must sacrifice a few bytes per record to indicate its size, and its organization.

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Weak references

Many programming languages/libraries provide weak references:

- C++ Standard Library: weak_ptr
- · Java: class java.lang.ref.WeakReference
- Scala: class scala.ref.WeakReference
- Python: module weakref

• . . .

In the context of garbage collection, a weak reference to an object is not enough to keep the object alive. It is as if that reference does not exist from the point of view of the garbage collection mechanism.

When garbage collection happens, all objects whose only references are **WeakReference**s will be garbage collected.

Example

```
static WeakReference<Object> foo() {
  Object referent = new Object();
  return new WeakReference(referent);
public static void main(String[] args) {
 WeakReference wr = foo():
  //System.gc();
  Object referent = wr.get();
  if (referent!= null)
    System.out.println("hasn't been garbaged collected yet");
  else
    System.out.println("has been garbaged collected");
```

System.gc() can be used as a hint to trigger garbage collection.

Weak references are a very useful feature to implement higher-level data structures such as a WeakHashMap<Key,Value>.

Any value stored in a **WeakHashMap** will only be weakly referenced in the Map. These values can be removed from the Map automatically when they are garbage collected.

In the case of a compiler, could use a **WeakHashMap** to store information about the IR. If an IR node later disappear, the information attached to it will be automatically garbage collected. **Example** :use WeakHashMap to store type information:

```
Map<Expr, Type> typeMap = new WeakHashMap();
```

Populate type information during type-checking

```
class TypeAnalyzer {
  Type visit(ASTNode node) {
    ...
    case IntLitteral it -> {
      typeMap.put(it, BaseType.INT);
      return BaseType.INT;
    }
    ...
```

If an AST node is deleted later on (*e.g.* as a result of an optimization), the associated type information is automatically removed from the weakMap when garbage collection occurs.

Programming languages usually have more kind of references. For instance in Java:

- Hard references: the one you usually use
- Weak references: objects only referred by such references are always garbage collected
- Soft references: objects only referred by such references are only garbage collected if running out of memory
 ⇒ used to implement efficient software caches
- PhantomReference: have to do with finalizers

Concluding remarks:

- Big compiler research questions;
- What's next for you?