

Garbage collection

CSCI.GA-2110-001 Summer 2011 For most languages, the amount of memory used by a program cannot be determined at compile time

• earlier versions of FORTRAN are exceptions!

Some features that require dynamic memory allocation:

- recursion
- pointers, explicit allocation (e.g., new)
- higher order functions

Types of Allocation

Static – absolute address retained throughout program's execution.

- Static variables
- Global variables
- Certain fixed data (e.g., string literals)
- Stack last-in, first-out ordering.
 - Subroutine arguments
 - Local variables
 - Runtime system data structures (displays, etc.)
- Heap general storage, for allocation at arbitary times.
 - Explicitly or automatically allocated
 - Resizable types (e.g., String)
 - Java class instances
 - All objects and data structures in Python

In imperative languages, space for local variables and parameters is allocated in activation records, on the *stack*.

The lifetime of such values follows a LIFO discipline – when the routine returns, we don't need its locals or arguments any more.

The lifetime (aka *extent*) of local variables may be longer than the lifetime of the procedure in which they were created.

These are allocated on the *heap*.

Heap

The heap is finite – if we allocate too much space, we will run out. Solution: deallocate space when it is no longer necessary. Methods:

- Manual deallocation, with e.g., free, delete (C, Pascal)
- Automatic deallocation via garbage collection (Java, C#, Scheme, ML, Perl)
 - Semi-automatic deallocation, using destructors (C++, Ada)
 - Automatic because that the destructor is called at certain points automatically
 - Manual because that the programmer writes the code for the destructor

Manual deallocation is dangerous (because not all current references to an object may be visible).

Allocation

Two basic methods:

- free list typically for manual and semi-automatic deallocation
- heap pointer typically for automatic deallocation

Free list method:

- a linked list of unused blocks of memory is maintained (the *free list*)
 Allocation: a search is done to find a free block of adequate size; it's removed from the free list
 - first-fit, best-fit
- **Deallocation**: the block is placed on the free list

Problems:

may take some time to find a free block of the right size
 memory eventually becomes fragmented

Heap pointer method:

- initially, the heap pointer is set to bottom of heap
- Allocation: the heap pointer is incremented an appropriate amount
- Deallocation: defragmentation eventually required

Problems:

requires moving of live objects in memory

Basic garbage collection algorithms:

- reference counting usually done by programmer
 mark/sweep needs run-time support
 - variant: compacting
 - variant: non-recursive
- copying needs run-time support
 - variant: incremental
 - variant: generational

An object x is *live* (i.e., can be referenced) if:

- **x** is pointed to by some variable located
 - on the stack (e.g., in an activation record)
 - in static memory
- there is a register (containing a temporary or intermediate value) that points to x
- there is another object on the heap (e.g., y) that is live and points to x
- All live objects in the heap can be found by a graph traversal:
- start at the *roots* local variables on the stack, static memory, registers.
 any object not reachable from the roots is *dead* and can be reclaimed

Mark/sweep

each object has an extra bit called the *mark bit* mark phase: the collector traverses the heap and sets the mark bit of each object encountered

sweep phase: each object whose mark bit is not set goes on the free list

definition name for each root pointer p do GC()mark(p); sweep(); if p->mark /= 1 then $p \rightarrow mark = 1;$ mark(p) for each pointer field p->x do $mark(p \rightarrow x);$ for each object x in heap do sweep() if x.mark = 0 then insert(x, free_list); else x.mark = 0;

Copying

- heap is split into 2 parts: FROM space, and TO space
 objects allocated in FROM space
- when **FROM** space is full, garbage collection begins
- during traversal, each encountered object is copied to TO space
- when traversal is done, all live objects are in TO space
- now we flip the spaces **FROM** space becomes **TO** space and vice versa
- Note: since we are moving objects, any pointers to them must be updated This is done by leaving a *forwarding address*

heap pointer method used for allocation – fast

Copying

name	definition
GC()	<pre>for each root pointer p do p := traverse(p);</pre>
traverse(p)	<pre>if *p contains forwarding address then p := *p; // follow forwarding address return p; else { new_p := copy (p, TO_SPACE); *p := new_p; // write forwarding address for each pointer field p->x do new_p->x := traverse(p->x); return new_p; }</pre>

Generational GC

- a variant of a copying garbage collector
 Observation: the older an object gets, the longer it is expected to stay around.
 - Why?
 - many objects are very short-lived (e.g., intermediate values)
 - objects that live for a long time tend to make up central data structures in the program, and will probably be live until the end of the program
- Idea: instead of 2 heaps, use many heaps, one for each "generation"
 - younger generations collected more frequently than older generations (because younger generations will have more garbage to collect)
 - when a generation is traversed, live objects are copied to the next-older generation
 - when a generation fills up, we garbage collect it

Reference Counting

The problem:

- we have several references to some data on the heap
- we want to release the memory when there are no more references to it
- may not have "built-in" garbage collection

Idea: Keep track of how many references point to the data, and free it when there are no more.

- set reference count to 1 for newly created objects
- increment reference count whenever we make a copy of a pointer to the object
- decrement reference count whenever a pointer to the object goes out of scope or stops pointing to the object
 - when an object's reference count becomes 0, we can free it

Reference Counting

Advantages:

- Memory can be reclaimed as soon as no longer needed.
- Simple, can be done by the programmer for languages not supporting GC.

Disadvantages:

- Additional space needed for the reference count.
- Will not reclaim circular references.
- Can be inefficient (e.g., if many objects are reclaimed at once).

Comparison

Costs of various methods:

- L = amount of storage occupied by live data M = size of heap
- Mark/sweep: O(L) + O(M) = O(M) since M > L
 Copying: O(L) experimental data for LISP: L ≈ 0.3 * M

Harder to compare with reference counting, but mark/sweep and copying are generally *faster*.

C++: Important events in the lifetime of an object

Event	what gets called (declaration)
Creation	C () // constructors
Pass by value	C (const C&) //copy constructor
Assignment	C& operator= (const C&)
Destruction	~C () // destructor

A chief reason C++ has destructors is to enable implementation of *reference counting*.

Reference Counting: Example

```
class C {
public:
   C () : p(NULL) { }
   C (const C& c) : p(c.p) { if (p) p->refCount++; }
   ~C () { if (p && --p->refCount == 0) delete p; }
   C& operator = (const C&);
   . . .
private:
   struct RefCounted {
      int refCount;
      . . .
      RefCounted (...) : refCount(1), ... { ... }
   };
   RefCounted *p;
}
```

Reference Counting: assignment

```
const C& C::operator= (const C& c) {
  if (c.p)
    c.p->refCount++;
  if (p)
    p->refCount--;
  p = c.p;
  return *this;
}
```



What about languages not designed for GC? (hostile environments)

It turns out that strong typing is not necessary for garbage collection.

Approach: traverse the stack, static memory, heap and *guess* whether bit patterns "look like" a pointer.

- If memory beginning at address x was previously allocated and there is no pointer-like memory address pointing to x, then deallocate the block at x.
 If some bit pattern in memory points to x, do not deallocate x.
- Worst case: some objects may not be deallocated.