# Lecture 12 – Garbage Collection

COSE212: Programming Languages

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2023 Fall





- 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  $a \in \mathbb{A}$ 

#### 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

#### 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





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 = [
y \mapsto a_0
f \mapsto a_1
]

A : a_0 a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots

M = 3 v 6 8 \dots
```

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





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A : a_0 a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots
M = 3 v 6 8 \dots
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where 
$$v = \langle \lambda x. x = x + y; x * x, [y \mapsto a_0] \rangle$$

Then, how to **detect** and **deallocate** unreachable memory cells?



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```

```
\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!



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

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



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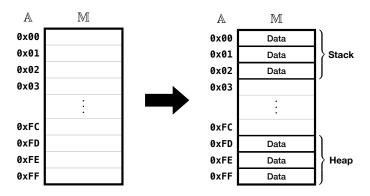
- Stack for local variables and function parameters
- **Heap** for **dynamically allocated** memory cells

$\mathbb{A}$	M
0x00	
0x01	
0x02	
0x03	
	:
0xFC	
0xFD	
0xFE	
0xFF	



We can divide the memory into two parts:

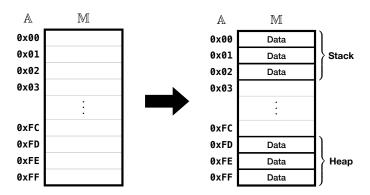
- Stack for local variables and function parameters
- **Heap** for **dynamically allocated** memory cells





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
```

A	$\mathbb{M}$	
0x00	1	а
0x01		
0x02		
0x03		
0x04		
	:	
0xFE		
0xFF		
		•





```
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
```

```
Α
           M
0×00
                      а
0x01
           42
                      х
0x02
           0xFF
0x03
0x04
0xFE
0xFF
```

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



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
```

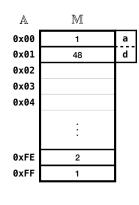
A	$\mathbb{M}$		
0x00	1	а	
0x01	42	х	
0x02	0xFF	у	f
0x03	5	z	
0x04			
0xFE	2		
0xFF	1		
		_	

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
```



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	f
0x01	0	acc	
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>
```

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

It fails with a **stack overflow** error.





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

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

It fails with a **stack overflow** error.

However, is it really necessary to keep all the stack frames?





```
def sum(x: Int, acc: Int): Int =
  if (x < 1) acc
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  sum(1000, 0)</pre>
```

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

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>
```

A	$\mathbb{M}$		
0x00	1000	х	f
0x01	0	acc	
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>
```

```
A M

0x00 999 x

0x01 1000 acc f

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 f

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).

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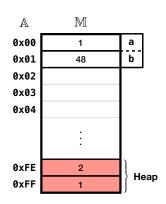
Reference Counting Mark-and-Sweep GC Copying GC (Two-Space GC) Other GC Algorithms





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 */
```



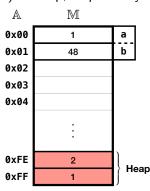
Unfortunately, we still cannot deallocate memory cells (e.g., 0xFE and 0xFF) dynamically allocated in the **heap** rather than the **stack**.





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 OxFE
 int z = g(2);
 int k = y->k;
 return x + k + z;
int g(int b) {
 Box* c = new Box(b); // alloc OxFF
 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 OxFE
 int z = g(2);
  int k = y->k; delete y; // dealloc 0xFE
 return x + k + z;
int g(int b) {
 Box* c = new Box(b); // alloc OxFF
  int k = c->k; delete c; // dealloc OxFF
 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); \dots
```

• **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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 Stack and Heap Tail-Call Optimization (TCO)

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



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



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Let's learn several GC algorithms:

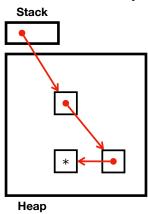
- Reference counting
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- Others

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



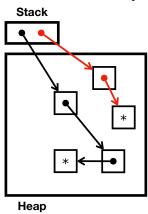
From now on, we will use the **graphical representation** of memory cells:

```
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
```



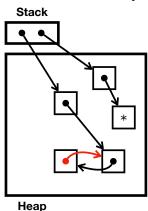


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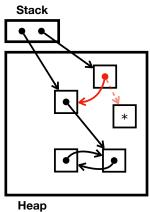


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b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



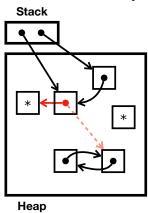


```
case class A(var x: A)
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b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



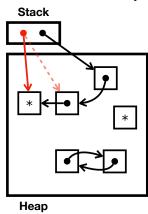


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



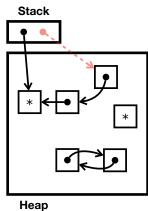


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case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





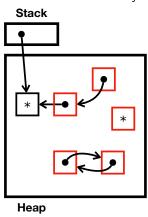
```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





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

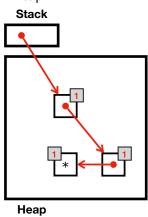
- 1 Initialize the reference count of each cell to 0.
- When a reference to a cell is created, increment its reference count.
- **3** When a reference to a cell is deleted, **decrement** its reference count.
- When the reference count of a cell reaches 0, deallocate the cell.

Many programming languages use reference counting to implement GC:

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

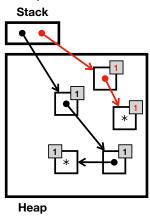


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null))) *
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```

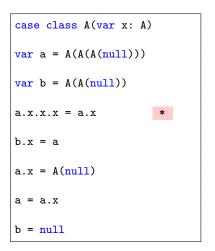


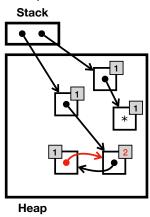


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```

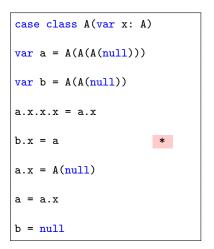


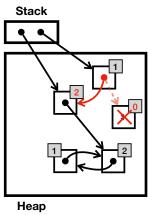






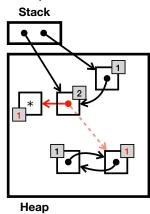




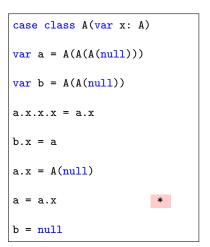


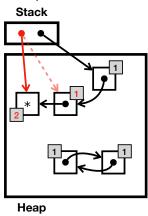


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



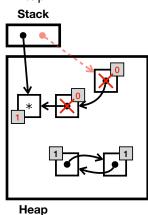








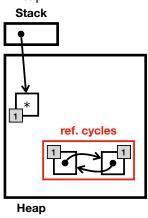
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a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





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

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case class A(var x: A)
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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.

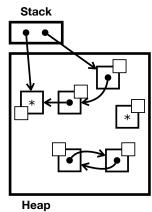


Mark-and-Sweep GC is one of tracing GC algorithms that traverses the heap to find unreachable objects when it is triggered under some conditions.

- 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).
- Deallocate (sweep) all memory cells that are still marked as unreachable (white).

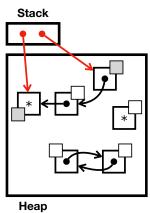


```
case class A(var x: A)
var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



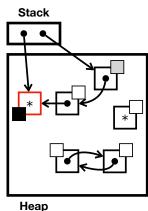


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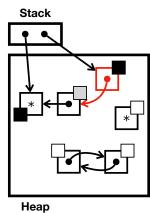


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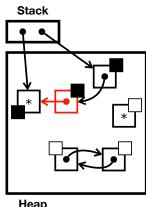


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a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```





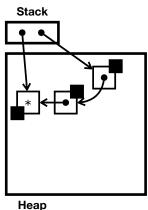
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var a = A(A(A(null)))
var b = A(A(null))
a.x.x.x = a.x
b.x = a
a.x = A(null)
a = a.x
b = null
```



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.

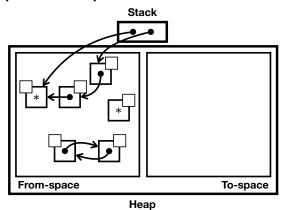
#### Cons:

- 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.

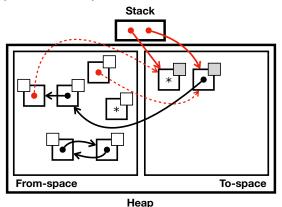


- Allocation It allocates memory cells only in from-space.
- Deallocation It deallocates all the unreachable objects as follows:
  - Mark all memory cells as unreachable (white).
  - 2 Copy all memory cells referenced by roots as unscanned (gray) and copy them from the from-space to the to-space
  - **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.

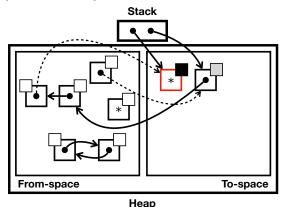




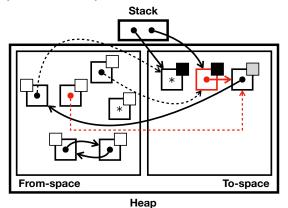




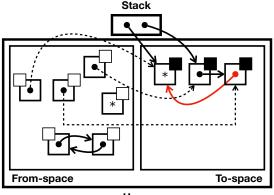






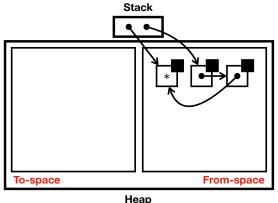






Heap







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 (no fragmentation) in a compact form. 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 allocate memory cells.

#### 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

## 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, Java<sup>1</sup>, Python<sup>2</sup>
- Concurrent GC e.g., Java<sup>3</sup>, Golang<sup>4</sup>
- Ownership, Borrowing, and Lifetimes e.g., Rust<sup>5</sup>
- Escape Analysis e.g., Java<sup>6</sup>
- etc.

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

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

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

<sup>4</sup> https://tip.golang.org/doc/gc-guide

<sup>5</sup> 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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