# CS 326 Programming Languages, Concepts and Implementation

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Data Types

## Language Specification

- General issues in the design and implementation of a language:
  - Syntax and semantics
  - Naming, scopes and bindings
  - Control flow
  - Data types
  - Subroutines

## Data Types

- Why are types useful?
- Implicit context

```
a + b
```

 integer or floating-point addition, depending on the types of operands

var p ^integer;

new (p);

- allocate the "right size", depending on the pointer type
- in C++: call the appropriate constructor

- Checking
  - make sure that certain meaningless operations do not occur
  - cannot check everything, but enough to be useful

## Type Systems

- A type system consists of:
  - Mechanism for defining types (syntax, semantics)
  - Rules for:
    - type equivalence (when are the types of two values the same?)
    - type compatibility (when can a value of type A be used in a context that expects type B?)
    - type inference (what is the type of an expression, given the types of the operands?)
- Type checking ensure that a program obeys the compatibility rules
- Type clash violation of compatibility rules

## Type Systems

#### A language may have:

- Strong typing language prevents you from applying an operation to data for which it is not appropriate
- Static typing language has strong typing, and it does type checking at compile time
- Dynamic typing type checking done at run time

#### Examples:

- Scheme strong typing, but dynamic
- Smalltalk strong typing, but dynamic (operations <=> messages sent to objects)
- Ada strong and static typing
- Pascal "almost" strong and "almost" static typing
- C weaker than Pascal, but static (not much done at run time)
- Java strong typing, part done at compile time, part at run time

## Definition of Types

- Several ways to think about types:
  - Denotational collection of values for a domain
  - Constructive internal structure of data, described down to the level of fundamental types
    - built-in types (integer, character, real, etc), also called primitive or predefined types
    - composite types (array, record, set, etc)
  - Abstraction interface that specifies the operations that can be applied to objects
- Denotational formal way of thinking → denotational semantics
- Constructive widely used, introduced by Algol
- Abstraction object-oriented way of thinking, introduced by Simula-67 and Smalltalk

## Classification of Types

#### Discrete (ordinal) types

- countable domains
- well defined notions of predecessor and successor
- character, integer, boolean, enumeration, subrange

#### Non-discrete

real, rational, complex

#### Scalar (simple) types

- each value conceptually corresponds to one number (either discrete or not)
- discrete types, reals

#### Composite types

- have internal structure, defined in terms of simpler types
- arrays, records, sets, lists

## Scalar Types

#### Boolean

- implemented on one byte,  $1 \rightarrow \text{true}$ ,  $0 \rightarrow \text{false}$ 

#### Character

- one byte ASCII encoding
- two bytes ("wide characters") Unicode character set (Java)

#### Integer

- length may not be specified by language vary with implementation
- signed or unsigned varieties

#### Fixed point

- represented as integers, but with implied decimal point at a specified position
- currency values: 129.99

## Scalar Types

- Floating point (real)
  - internally represented as sign s, mantissa m and exponent exp
  - value =  $(-1)^s \times m \times 2^{exp}$
- Complex
  - pair of floating point numbers real and imaginary parts
- Rational
  - pair of integers numerator and denominator

# **Enumeration Types**

Introduced in Pascal:

```
type weekday = (sun, mon, tue, wed, thu, fri, sat);
```

- Values are ordered allows for comparisons: mon < tue</li>
- Predecessor and successor: tomorrow := succ (today);
- Enumeration-controlled loops:

```
for today := mon to fri do begin ...
```

Index in arrays:

```
var daily_attendance : array [weekday] of integer;
daily_attendance [mon] := 40;
```

Ordinal value:

```
ord (sun) => 1
```

# Subrange Types

- Subrange contiguous subset of values from a discrete base type
- Also introduced in Pascal:

```
type test_score = 0..100;
workday = mon..fri;
```

- Why are subranges useful (why not just use integers)?
  - easier to read/document programs
  - semantic checks to ensure values are within range
  - efficient representation
    - test\_score can be represented on a single byte

# Composite Types

#### Record (structure)

- introduced in Cobol
- collection of fields, with (potentially different) simpler types
- mathematical formulation: type of a record → Cartesian product of field types

#### Variant record

- only one field is valid at any moment
- type of a variant record → union of field types

#### Array

- components have the same type
- type of an array → function that maps an index type to a component type

# Composite Types

- Set
  - collection of distinct elements of a base type
- Pointer
  - reference to an object of the pointer's base type
- Lists
  - sequence of elements, no indexing
  - implemented as linked lists
- Files
  - notion of current position
  - usually accessed in sequential order

# Type Checking

- Relation between an object type and the context where it is used:
  - Type equivalence
  - Type compatibility
  - Type inference
- Type equivalence vs. type compatibility:
  - equivalence are the types the same?
  - minimal implementation use an object only if the object type and the type expected by the context are equivalent
  - too restrictive → use compatibility
- Compatibility issues:
  - conversion (casting) explicit
  - coercion implicit
  - non-converting cast does not change the bits, just interpret them as another type

## Type Equivalence

- Two ways to define type equivalence:
  - Structural equivalence same components, put together in the same way
  - Name equivalence each definition introduces a new type
- Structural equivalence
  - Algol 68, Modula-3, C, ML
  - early Pascal
- Name equivalence
  - more popular lately
  - Java, standard Pascal, Ada

## Structural Equivalence

Are the following equivalent?

```
type T1 = record
   a, b : integer
     end;
type T2 = record
   a:integer
   b:integer
     end;
type T3 = record
   b:integer
   a : integer
     end;
```

- T1 and T2 yes
- T2 and T3 in ML no, in most other languages yes

# Structural Equivalence

Implementation-level way of thinking about types:

```
type student = record
   name, address : string
   age : integer
type school = record
   name, address : string
   age : integer

x : student
y : school

x := y;
```

- Should this be an error?
  - probably yes, although the types are structurally equivalent

## Name Equivalence

- In general: different names → different types
  - Problem handling type aliases:

```
TYPE stack element = INTEGER;
MODULE stack;
IMPORT stack element;
EXPORT push, pop;
PROCEDURE push (elem : stack element);
PROCEDURE pop (): stack_element;
VAR x : stack element;
x = pop + 1;
```

Here stack\_element and integer should be equivalent

## Name Equivalence

- Problem handling type aliases:

```
TYPE celsius_temp = REAL;

fahrenheit_temp = REAL;

VAR c : celsius_temp;

f : fahrenheit_temp;

...

s := c;

f := c;
```

- Here celsius\_temp and fahrenheit\_temp should not be equivalent
- But college and school may be

## Name Equivalence

- Variants:
  - Strict name equivalence aliased types considered distinct
  - Loose name equivalence aliased types considered equivalent
- Most languages use loose name equivalence (Pascal)
- Ada allows the programmer to decide whether an alias is a derived type or a subtype:

```
type celsius_temp is new real;
type fahrenheit_temp is new real;
```

- Subtype equivalent to its parent (base) type, and to its sibling types
- Derived type a new type

# Type Equivalence

Example: cell:

- Structural equivalence all six variables have same type
- Strictanameesguigalence
  - r, u have same type
- Loose name equivalence
  - r, s, u have same type

type alink = pointer to

type blink = alink;

p, q: pointer to cell;

r : alink;

s : blink;

t : pointer to cell;

u : alink;

## Announcements

- Readings
  - Chapters 7, 8

```
a := expr
a + b
f (arg1, arg2, ... argN)
```

- Assume that the type provided and the type expected are required to be the same
- Need to use casts explicit conversions
- Does it involve additional code at run-time?

#### Several cases:

- Types would be structurally equivalent, but language uses name equivalence
  - types use same representation
  - conceptual conversion → no additional code
- Types have different sets of values, but same representation
  - subranges
  - if the provided type has some values that the expected type does not
    - checks at run-time, but no conversion of representation
- Types have different representations
  - conversion of representation required
  - checks sometimes required (overflow, etc)

#### Example (Ada):

```
n : integer;
r : real;
                                         -- 0..100
t:test_score;
c : celsius_temp;
                                         -- real
t := test_score (n)
                               run-time sheck required
                               nothing --
n := integer (t)
                               conversion
r := real (n)
                               conversion and check
n := integer (r)
                               nothing --
r := real (c)
c := celsius_temp (r)
                               nothing
```

- Non-converting type cast change of type without altering the underlying bits
  - interpret the bits of a value as if they were of another type
- Examples:
- Memory allocation algorithms
  - heap → a very large array of characters (bytes)
  - reinterpret portions of the heap as various data structures
- High-performance numeric computations
  - reinterpret a float as an integer or record
  - extract the sign, mantissa, exponent

- Non-converting type cast example:
- In C interpret the bits in an integer as a float:

```
int n;
float f;
...
f = *((float *) &n); // can achieve this effect with pointers
```

# Type Compatibility and Coercion

```
var a, b : real;
c : integer;
...
a := b + c;
```

- Most languages do not require equivalence of types in every context, but just compatibility
- Coercion implicit conversion, if types are compatible

#### In Ada:

- type S is compatible with type T if and only if:
  - S and T are equivalent
  - one is a subtype of the other
  - both are subtypes of the same type
  - both are arrays, with same numbers and types of elements in each dimension

#### C

lots of coercions, some involve loss of precision (truncation)

## Type Inference

- What is the type of an expression, given the types of the operands?
- Simple case
  - Same type as the (coerced) operands
- Complex case
  - A new type
  - Operations on subranges
  - Operations on composite objects
- More complex case
  - Types are not declared at all, so they need to be inferred
  - ML, Miranda, Haskell

- Records allow data of heterogeneous types to be manipulated together
  - Called structures in Algol 68, C, C++, Common Lisp
  - C++ structures special form of classes (with all members public)
  - Java no structures, only classes
- Example (Pascal):

Access to fields:

Pascal, C: copper.name

Fortran: copper%name

Cobol, Algol 68: name of copper

ML:#name copper

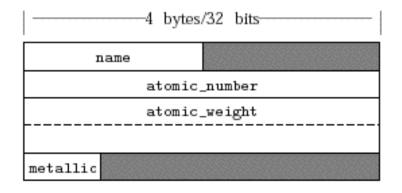
Common Lisp: (element-name copper)

```
type two_chars = packed array [1..2] of char;
type element = record
    name : two_chars;
    atomic_number : integer;
    atomic_weight : real;
    metallic : Boolean
end;

var copper : element;
```

- Memory layout fields are usually stored next to each other
- Access in the symbol table, for each field keep its offset from beginning of structure

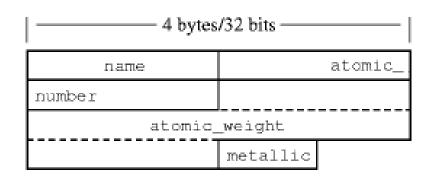
```
type element = record
    name : two_chars;
    atomic_number : integer;
    atomic_weight : real;
    metallic : Boolean
end;
```



- Alignment restrictions → generate "holes"
- Size of the record in memory 20 bytes

Packed records – available in Pascal, to eliminate holes

```
type element = packed record
    name : two_chars;
    atomic_number : integer;
    atomic_weight : real;
    metallic : Boolean
end;
```



- Size of the record in memory 15 bytes
- Drawback:
  - sacrifice speed for space
  - need multiple instructions (in target code) to access atomic\_number and atomic-weight

Assignment – allowed in most languages (bit-by-bit copy):

```
my_element := copper;
```

- Problem:
  - if some fields are pointers to dynamically allocated objects, only the pointers are copied, not the objects
- Comparison generally not allowed
- Problem why a bit-by-bit comparison will not work?
  - holes may contain random garbage
- Potential solution:
  - fill all holes with zero at allocation time time consuming

#### Consider the following:

```
ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1].name := 'Al';
ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1].atomic_number := 13;
ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1].atomic_weight := 26.98154;
ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1].metallic := true;
```

#### Simplify with with (in Pascal):

```
with ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1] do
begin
   name := 'Al';
   atomic_number := 13;
   atomic_weight := 26.98154;
   metallic := true
end;
```

```
with ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1] do
begin
   name := 'Al';
   atomic_number := 13;
   atomic_weight := 26.98154;
   metallic := true
end;
```

- How would you do this in C (no with)?
  - Use a pointer:

```
p = & ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1];
p->name = 'Al';
p->atomic_number = 13;
p->atomic_weight = 26.98154;
p->metallic = 1;
```

- Problems with with (in Pascal):
  - cannot "open" two records of the same type simultaneously
  - naming conflicts, if field names coincide with variable names
  - lack of clarity, if nested with statements are used

Modula-3 – introduces an alias:

```
WITH e = ruby.chemical_composition.elements[1] DO
    e.name := 'Al';
    e.atomic_number := 13;
    e.atomic_weight := 26.98154;
    e.metallic := true;
END;
```

Several records can be accessed simultaneously:

```
WITH e = whatever, f = whatever DO
e.field1 := f.field1;
e.field2 := f.field2;
END:
```

 Modula-3 also allows with statements to create aliases for other objects than records:

```
WITH d = complicated_expression DO

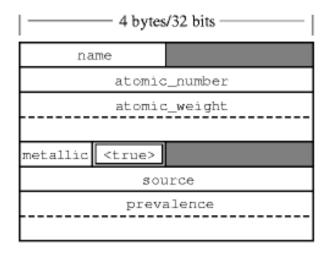
IF d <> 0 then val := n/d ELSE val := 0
```

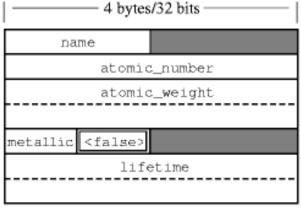
- Variant record provides several alternative fields or collections of fields (only one is valid at any time)
- In Pascal:

```
type long_string = packed array [1..200] of char;
type string_ptr = ^long_string;
type element = record
    name : two_chars;
    atomic_number : integer;
    atomic_weight : real;
    metallic : Boolean;
    case naturally_occurring : Boolean of
      true : (
        source : string_ptr;
            (* textual description of principal commercial source *)
        prevalence : real;
            (* percentage, by weight, of Earth's crust *)
      ):
      false : (
        lifetime : real;
            (* half-life in seconds of the most stable known isotope *)
end;
```

- The field naturally\_occurring is called tag or discriminant
- Each alternative is called a variant

Memory layout:





- Variants can share space
- Access to fields similar to records:

copper.atomic\_weight copper.source

- In C unions:
- Access to fields:

```
copper.atomic_weight copper.extra_fields.natural_info.source
```

```
struct element {
    char name[2];
    int atomic_number;
    double atomic_weight;
    char metallic;
    char naturally_occurring;
    union {
        struct {
            char *source;
            double prevalence;
        } natural_info;
        double lifetime;
    } extra_fields;
} copper;
```

Historically – equivalence statements in Fortran:

```
integer i
real r
logical b
equivalence (i, r, b)
```

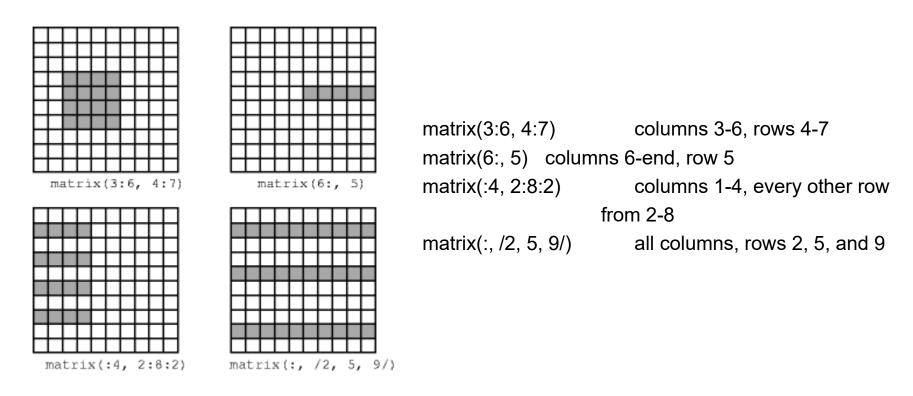
 Inform the compiler that i, r, b will never be used simultaneously → can share the same memory space

#### Safety issues:

- lack of tag (discriminant) → you don't know what is there
- if a tag is provided → ability to change the tag and the fields independently

- Array
  - sequence of elements that have the same type
  - mathematically function that maps the index type to the element type
- In most languages the index type must be discrete
- Awk and Perl allow non-discrete index types
  - associative arrays implemented with hash tables
- Access to elements
  - Pascal, C: A[3]
  - Fortran, Ada: A(3)

- Slices rectangular portions of an array
  - Fortran 90 offers extensive facilities for slicing:



 Can be extracted, assigned into each other, etc, as if they were smaller arrays

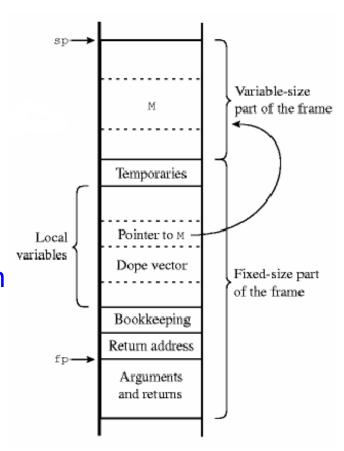
- Array operations:
- Selection of an element and assignment all languages
- Operations performed on entire arrays (or slices) Fortran
   90 and Ada:
  - equality test
  - comparison for lexicographic ordering
  - bitwise operations
  - arithmetic operations
  - mathematical functions

- Shape of an array the number of dimensions and bounds (for each dimension)
  - may not be known at compile time
- Impact on allocation several cases:
- Global lifetime, static shape
  - global variables in C, Pascal
  - allocated statically
- Local lifetime, static shape
  - local variables in C, Pascal
  - allocated on stack

Allocation (cont.):

```
procedure foo (size : integer) is
M : array (1..size, 1..size) of real;
...
begin
...
end foo;
```

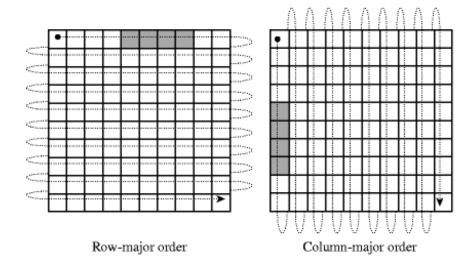
- Local lifetime, shape bound at elaboration time
  - local variables in Ada
  - allocated on stack, but with an extra level of indirection
  - the stack frame is divided into a fixedsize part and variable-size part



- Allocation (cont.):
- Arbitrary lifetime, shape bound at elaboration time
  - Java arrays (allocated with new)
  - once allocated, shape remains the same until deallocation
  - dynamic allocation on the heap
- Arbitrary lifetime, dynamic shape
  - Perl arrays
  - shape of the array can be changed during its lifetime
  - if size is increased → allocate a larger block, copy data, deallocate the old block
  - dynamic allocation on the heap

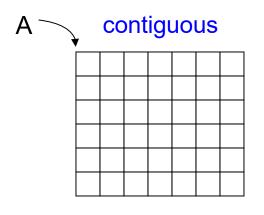
- Memory layout:
- One-dimensional arrays
  - contiguous allocation
- Multi-dimensional arrays → two strategies:
  - contiguous allocation
  - row pointers

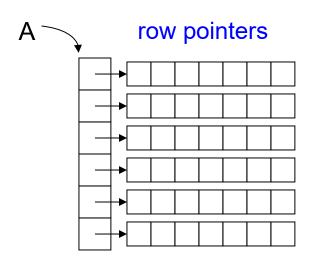
- Multi-dimensional arrays contiguous allocation
  - column-major order (in Fortran)
  - row-major order (all other languages)



- Row-major order makes array [a..b, c..d] equivalent to array [a..b]
   of array [c..d]
- Efficiency important to traverse arrays along consecutive elements (along rows in C) to maximize cache hits

Multi-dimensional arrays – row pointers





- Disadvantage
  - requires extra space for pointers
- Advantages
  - allows rows to be allocated anywhere
  - faster access, avoids multiplication good for 1970s machines with slow multiplication instructions
  - can accommodate rows of different lengths (array of strings)

Address calculations – contiguous allocation:

A : array [L1..U1] of array [L2..U2] of elem\_type;

- Let:

The address of A[i,j] is:

- Rewrite as:

- When bounds are known at compile time, part of the calculation can be done in advance
  - the part between [] can be computed at compile time

Address calculations – row pointer allocation:

```
-- assume i is in r1, j is in r2
r4 := &A
r4 := *r4[r1] -- load
r5 := *r4[r2] -- load
```

No multiplication, but more loads from memory

#### **Announcements**

- Readings
  - Chapters 7, 8
- Homework
  - HW 5 out due on April 11
  - Submission
    - at the beginning of class
    - with a title page: Name, Class, Assignment #, Date
    - preferably typed

## **Strings**

- Strings in general, implemented as arrays of characters
- Special case → easier to implement additional operations
  - always one-dimensional
  - one-byte elements
  - never contain references
- Operations
  - Assignment
  - Comparison (=, >, etc)
  - Concatenation
  - Substring reference
  - Pattern matching

# **Strings**

- Length actually two issues:
  - how much memory space is allocated for a string variable?
  - what is the length of the actual string?

- Length descriptor
  - C null character after the actual string
  - Pascal the first character (at index 0) stores the length of the string; the string begins at index 1
    - advantage easier to get the length (no need to search)
    - disadvantage cannot have strings longer than 255

#### Sets

Sets – introduced by Pascal

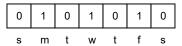
```
var A, B, C : set of char;
D, E : set of weekday;
...
A := B + C; (* union; A := {x | x is in B or x is in C} *)
A := B * C; (* intersection; A := {x | x is in B and x is in C} *)
A := B - C; (* difference; A := {x | x is in B and x is not in C} *)
```

- Other operations: equality test (=), superset test (>=), subset test (<=), membership test (in)</li>
- Type of the set elements base (universe) type

#### Sets

- Implementation:
  - Bit vector represent the set:

(monday wednesday friday)



- length in bits = number of possible values of the base type
- $k^{th}$  bit is 1  $\rightarrow$  the  $k^{th}$  value is present in the set
- $k^{th}$  bit is  $0 \rightarrow the k^{th}$  value is not present in the set
- union → bit-wise or
- intersection → bit-wise and
- difference (A B)  $\rightarrow$  A & !B
- a set of characters need a bit vector with 256 bits = 32 bytes
- problem how do you represent a set of integers?
  - will need about 500 MB
  - Pascal sets are available only for limited base types (256 values)
  - alternatives arrays, linked lists

#### Pointers and Recursive Types

- Pointers serve several purposes:
  - efficient and intuitive access to objects
  - creation of recursive data structures (linked lists)
  - dynamic storage management
- Note in general, pointers are NOT the same thing as addresses
  - pointers high-level concept (abstraction)
  - addresses low-level concept (implementation)
  - examples:
    - segmented memory: segment ID and offset within segment
    - catch dangling references: address and access key

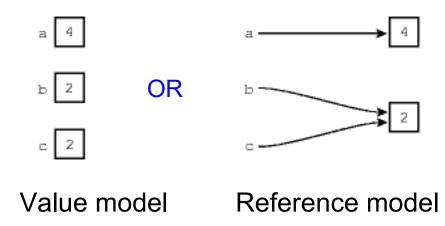
#### Pointers and Recursive Types

- Design issues:
  - Are pointers restricted to pointing at particular types?
  - Are pointers used for dynamic storage management, indirect addressing, or both?

## Syntax and Operations

- Operations
  - allocation
  - deallocation
  - assignment
  - "address of"
  - dereferencing
- Depend on the variable model:
- Consider the code:

Implementation:



## Syntax and Operations

Value model

```
A = B; // put the value of B into A
A = B; // if A and B are (explicit) pointers →
// → make A refer to the object referred by B
```

Reference model

```
A = B; // make A refer to the object referred by B 
A = 3; // should we really make a pointer to 3?
```

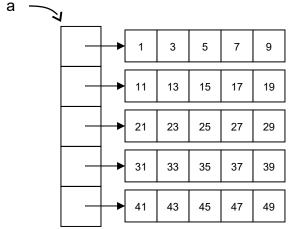
- Implementation in Clu, Smalltalk, Java:
  - Immutable objects (integers, floats, characters) keep the actual value (same as in value model)
  - Mutable objects (everything else) keep a reference to the object

#### One-dimensional arrays:

а	=>	100
a[0]	=>	1
&a[0]	=>	100
a+2	=>	108
*(a+2)	=>	5
(a+2)[1]	=>	7

Multi-dimensional arrays (row pointer allocation):

```
int **a;
int rows = 5, cols = 5;
a = (int**) malloc ( rows * sizeof(int*) );
for (i = 0; i < rows; i++)
   a[i] = (int*) malloc ( cols * sizeof(int) );
(*(a+3))[2] =>
                             35
*(a[3]+2)
                             35
*(*(a+3)+2) =>
```



To compute a[i][j] – need only i and j

a[3][2]

35

35

 Multi-dimensional arrays (contiguous allocation as onedimensional arrays):

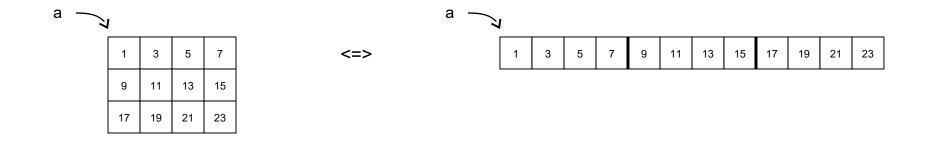
Compute the equivalent of a[2][1]:

$$a[2*cols+1] => 19$$

To compute a[i][j] – need i, j and cols

Multi-dimensional arrays (contiguous multi-dimensional allocation):

int a[3][4];



- Memory layout is actually identical to the previous case
- To compute a[i][j] programmer needs only i and j, but compiler also needs cols

- Passing parameters always a pointer is passed
- One-dimensional array:

```
int a[4];
void f (int *s)
{
    s[i] = ...
}
```

Multi-dimensional array (row pointer allocation):

```
int **a;
void f (int **s)
{
    s[i][j] = ...
}
```

- Passing parameters (cont.)
- Multi-dimensional array (contiguous multi-dimensional allocation):

- Passing parameters (cont.)
- Multi-dimensional array (allocated as one-dimensional): int \*a;

- Iteration over an array:
- Using an index:

```
int a[5];
int i;
for (i = 0 ; i < 5 ; i++)
a[i] = ...
```

Using a pointer:

```
int a[5];
int *p;
for (p = a; p < a+5; p++)
*p = ... equivalent to p[0] # ...
```

The sizeof operator:

sizeof does not generate any code - is evaluated at compile time

#### Announcements

- Readings
  - Chapters 7, 8

#### C Declarations

 C declaration rule – start at the variable name, read right as far as you can (subject to parentheses), then left, then go out a level of parentheses and repeat

#### Examples:

```
int *a[n]; array of n/pointers to integers
int (*a)[n]; pointer to array of n integers

int (*a) (int *); pointer to function taking pointer to integer as argument, and returning integer
```

## Dangling References

- How are objects deallocated?
- Storage classes:
  - static never deallocated, same lifetime as the program
  - stack deallocated automatically on subroutine return
  - heap explicit or implicit deallocation
- Explicit deallocation in Pascal:

```
dispose (my_ptr);
```

• In C:

```
free (my_ptr);
```

In C++:

- Implicit deallocation
  - garbage collection

## Dangling References

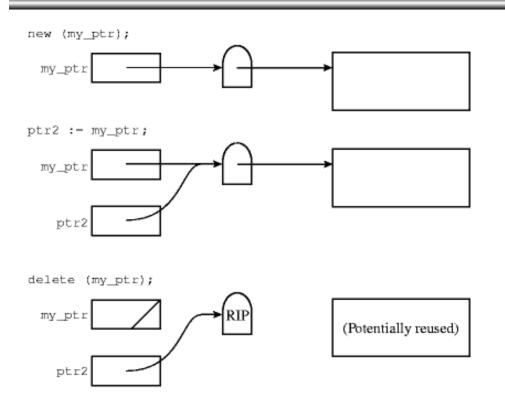
- Dangling reference a pointer that no longer points to a live object
- Produced in the context of heap allocation:

 Produced in the context of stack allocation (not in Pascal has only pointers to heap objects):

# Dangling References

- Dangling references can only be produced in languages with explicit deallocation. Why?
  - Programmer may deallocate an object that is still referred by live pointers
  - Garbage collection will check if an object still has references to it before deleting it
- Why do we need to detect dangling references?
  - Need to warn the programmer generate an error, not silently retrieve some garbage
- Mechanisms to detect dangling references
  - Tombstones
  - Locks and keys

#### **Tombstones**



 For each object allocated dynamically - also allocate a tombstone

- Extra level of indirection
  - the pointer points to the tombstone
  - the tombstone points to the object
- Deallocate an object put a special value in the tombstone

#### **Tombstones**

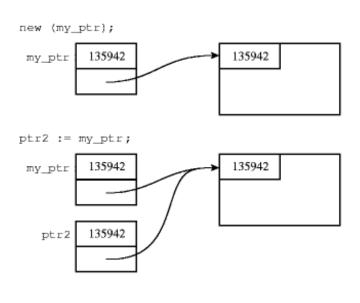
#### Properties

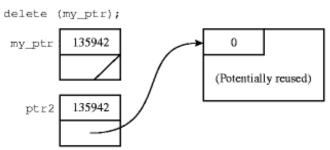
- catch all dangling references
- handle both heap and stack objects
- make storage compaction easier why?

when moving blocks, need to change only addresses in tombstones, not in the pointers

- Time complexity overhead:
  - creation of tombstones when allocating objects
  - checking validity on every access
  - double indirection
- Space complexity need extra space for tombstones
  - when are they deallocated?
  - two approaches:
    - never deallocate them
    - add a reference count to each tombstone deallocate when count is zero

## Locks and Keys





- Allocation generate a number, store it in the object (lock) and in the pointer (key)
- Access check if the key matches the lock
- Deallocation put a special value in the lock

# Locks and Keys

#### Properties

- do not guarantee to catch all dangling references why?
  - a reused block may get the same lock number however, it is a low probability
- used to handle only heap objects why?
  - to catch stack objects would need to have locks on every local variable and argument

#### Time complexity - overhead:

- comparing locks and keys on every access
- however, no double indirection

#### Space complexity

- extra space for locks in every heap object
- extra space for keys in every pointer
- however, no additional entities (tombstones) to be deallocated

## Garbage Collection

- Explicit deallocation of heap objects
  - Advantages: implementation simplicity, speed
  - Disadvantages: burden on programmer, may produce garbage (memory leaks) or dangling references
- Automatic deallocation of heap objects (garbage collection)
  - Advantages: convenience for programmer, safety (no memory leaks or dangling references)
  - Disadvantages: complex implementation, run-time overhead
- Garbage collection
  - essential for functional languages frequent construction and return of objects from functions
  - increasingly used in imperative languages (Clu, Ada, Java)
  - mechanisms:
    - reference counts
    - mark-and-sweep

### Reference Counts

- How do we know when a heap object is no longer useful?
  - when there are no pointers to it
- Solution
  - in each object keep a reference counter = the number of pointers referring the object
  - when allocating the object:

```
p = new int; // refcnt of new object ← 1
```

- when assigning pointers:

```
p = r;  // refcnt of object referred by p --
// refcnt of object referred by r ++
```

when the reference count is zero → can destroy it

### Reference Counts

#### Problems:

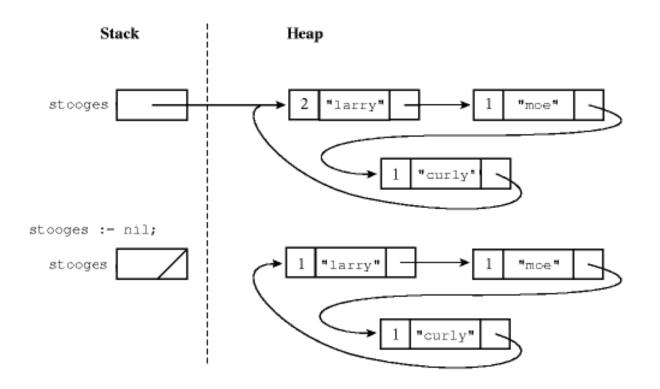
Objects that contain pointers:

Pointers declared as local variables:

- Solution use type descriptors
  - at the beginning of each record specify which fields are pointers
  - in each stack frame specify which local variables are pointers

### Reference Counts

Problem - circular lists:



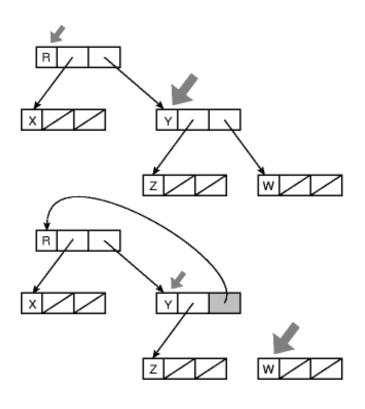
 The objects in the list are not reachable, but their reference counts are non-zero

## Mark-and-Sweep Collection

- When the free space becomes low:
  - walk through the heap, and mark each block (tentatively) as "useless"
  - 2. recursively explore all pointers in the program, and mark each encountered block as "useful"
  - 3. walk again through the heap, and delete every "useless" block (could not be reached)
- To find all pointers use type descriptors
- To explore recursively need a stack (to be able to return)
  - maximum length of stack = the longest chain of pointers
  - problem maybe not enough space for a stack (the free space is already low)
  - solution exploration via pointer reversal

### Mark-and-Sweep Collection

Exploration via pointer reversal:



- Before moving from current to next block, reverse the pointer that is followed, to refer back to previous block
- When returning, restore the pointer
- During exploration, the currently explored path will have all pointers reversed, to trace the way back

## **Storage Compaction**

- Storage compaction reduce external fragmentation
  - elegant solution stop-and-copy
- Stop-and-copy
  - achieve compaction and garbage collection and simultaneously eliminate steps 1 and 3 from mark-and-sweep
  - divide the heap in two halves
  - all allocations happen in first half
  - when memory is low
    - recursively explore all pointers in the program, move each encountered block to the second half, and change the pointer to it accordingly
    - swap the notion of first and second half

## Garbage Collection

- Stop-and-copy advantage over standard mark-and-sweep
  - no more walks ("sweeps") through the entire heap
  - overhead proportional to the number of used blocks, instead of the total number of blocks
- Significant difference between reference counts strategies and mark-and-sweep strategies
  - reference counts when an object is no longer needed, it can be immediately reclaimed
  - mark-and-sweep "stop-the-world" effect: pause program execution to reclaim all the garbage

### Announcements

- Readings
  - Chapters 7, 8