Homework 5 – Fall 2023

In this homework, you'll explore more concepts from data palooza: garbage collection, typing, scoping, and type conversions. Some questions have multiple, distinct answers which would be acceptable, so there might not be a "right" answer: what's important is your ability to justify your answer with clear and concise reasoning that utilizes the appropriate terminology discussed in class. Each question has a time estimate; you'll know you're ready for the exam when you can solve them roughly within their time constraints.

We understand, however, that as you learn these questions may take more time. For that reason, only **starred red** questions need to be completed when you submit this homework (the rest should be used as exam prep materials). Note that for some multi-part questions, not all parts are marked as red so you may skip unstarred subparts in this homework.

You must turn in a PDF file with your answers via Gradescope - you may include both typed and handwritten solutions, so long as they are legible and make sense to our TAs. Make sure to clearly label each answer with the problem number you're solving so our TAs can more easily evaluate your work.

Classify That Language (Late Night Edition)

We're such huge fans of "Classify That Language", so we've brought you a special episode in this homework.

1.

a. ** (2 min.) Consider the following code snippet from a language that a former TA worked with in his summer internship:

```
user_id = get_most_followed_id(group) # returns a string
user_id = user_id.to_i
# IDs are zero-indexed, so we need to add 1
user_id += 1
puts "Congrats User No. #{user_id}, you're the most followed
user in group #{group}!"
```

Without knowing the language, is the language dynamically or statically typed? Why?

This is Ruby. It is dynamically typed:

- **get_most_followed_id returns a string**
- **you could guess that .to_i is an integer conversion, so the type of user_id is changing in the program**
    - **but, even if you didn't know that…**
- **we are performing integer addition to user_id, so at this point user_id has definitely changed types from string to integer**

b. ** (5 min.) Here's an (adapted) example from a lesson that the TA taught a couple of years ago on a "quirky" language:

```
function boop() {
  if (true) {
    var x = 2;
    beep();
  }
  console.log(x);
}
function beep() {
  x = 1;
}
boop();
console.log(x);
// this prints:
// 2
// Error: x is not defined
```

Briefly explain the scoping strategy this language seems to use. Is it similar to other languages you've used, or different?

Hint: Try writing the same function in C++.

This answer is as instructive as we can make it; a more concise answer would get full marks on a test!

This is JavaScript. First, we can immediately note that this language seems to use lexical scoping. If it was dynamically scoped, the first `console.log(x)` would print 1, since that's the last place (in the program) that `x` was set. In a dynamically scoped language like bash, this would have logged 1. Thus, we can infer that this language scopes variables to some lexical construct (a function, a block, or something else).

Furthermore, we note that this language is *not* Brewin' – if it was (and only had

global variables), then the second `console.log(x)` wouldn't error. But, it does – and thus, our job is to figure out what the lexical scope is.

What's curious is that the `console.log` in boop prints 2, and not an undefined variable error. Languages like C++ (and most mainstream languages) lexically scope to blocks (e.g., if-else, while, for-loop blocks). Since the declaration is not in the same block as the print statement, this would be an error in C++. In contrast, JavaScript's `var` keyword scopes to functions. This behaves similarly to Python (try it!). For full marks on a test, we'd expect you to note this.

An aside: JavaScript is one of the only mainstream languages that has *different scoping rules* depending on what keyword you use. If you're curious, check out the MDN docs on `let` (the other general declaration).

c. ** (2 min.) This block of code from a mystery language compiles and outputs properly.

```
fn main() {
  let x = 0;
  {
    let x = 1;
    println!(x);  // prints 1
  }

  println!(x);    // prints 0

  let x = "Mystery Language";
  println!(x);    // prints 'Mystery Language'
}
```

We'll note that even though it doesn't look like it, **this language is statically typed.** With that in mind, what can you say about its variable scoping strategies? How is it

similar or different to other languages you've used?

Hint: The scope of `let x = 0;` is only lines 2, 7, 8, and 9.

This is Rust; the example is almost directly copied from the Wikipedia page on shadowing.

This language is lexically scoped: if it wasn't, the second print statement would also print "1". It seems to lexically scope based on blocks, similar to C++ (see part c).

However, the really interesting part happens on line 10: we somehow are allowed to redefine a variable with the same identifier, *and it has a different type!* In a statically typed language, this is only really possible if we treat them as different variables. The logical conclusion of this is that Rust must allow variable shadowing *in the same scope* (a relatively unique feature); we can confirm this by reading the docs on shadowing.

So the definition of `x` on line 10 is actually creating a new variable `x` of type `String`, which hides the old variable `x` of type `Int` defined on line 2. Both variables still exist on lines 10/11, but only the most recently defined `x` is accessible (the original `x` is shadowed and no longer accessible!). Note: This is super unusual - most of the time when we see the ability to "change a type" of a variable, we're dealing with a dynamically-typed language.

How to Save a Lifetime

2.

a. ** (5 min.) Consider this Python code:

```
num_boops = 0
def boop(name):
  global num_boops
  num_boops = num_boops + 1
  res = {"name": name, "booped": True, "order": num_boops }
  return res

print(boop("Arjun"))
print(boop("Sharvani"))
```

For `name`, `res`, and the object bound to `res`, explain:

- What is their scope?
- What is their lifetime?
- Are they the same/different, and why?

For `name`: the scope and the lifetime of the variable itself are the same (starting from the parameter name, and ending at the return statement). This is not the same as the string that is bound to `name`, which has a lifetime that exists before, during, and after the function call.

For `res`: the scope and the lifetime are the same (starting from the declaration, and ending at the return statement). Note that, even though the object's lifetime persists after the return statement, the identifier/variable `res` doesn't!

For the object bound to `res`: the lifetime starts within the `boop` function, but extends until the end of the program – since we then print the result! Note that this is *different* from the lifetime of `res`. For values, we don't really have a concept of a scope.

b. ** (3 min.) Consider this C++ code:

```
int* n;
{
  int x = 42;
  n = &x;
}
std::cout << *n;
```

This is undefined behavior. In the language of scoping and lifetimes, why would that be the case?

C++ is lexically scoped, so the scope of the variable x ends with the closing brace. In addition, for local variables in C++, the lifetime and scope of variables is the same! So, after the program reaches the closing brace, the lifetime of x – and, the memory it refers to – is over.

Since n points to the same memory address as x, after the closing brace we're accessing a value whose lifetime already ended. Essentially, this is a dangling pointer! This demonstrates one way in which C/C++ are weakly typed.

Aside: Rust's Reference and Borrow system (the "borrow-checker") prevents errors of this type! This lets Rust provide "compile-time memory safety".

c. (4 min.) It turns out, this code tends to work and print out the expected value of 42 – even though it is undefined behavior. Why might that be the case?

Hint: This has to do with *something else* covered in data palooza!

This has to do with C++'s memory management model and optimizations. Broadly (and in most programming languages), when a variable's scope and lifetime ends, the memory *holding* its value isn't zeroed out. Instead, it just stays there! Usually, it'll only get changed once that piece of memory is "given" to another variable. On top of that, there's no garbage collector, so memory isn't constantly being reallocated. And, we haven't made another addition to the stack. So, it's likely that the memory that holds 42 still does hold the same bits when we print it.

This is still undefined behavior, and you shouldn't write code like this!

3. ** We learned in class that C++ doesn't have garbage collection. But it does have a concept called smart pointers which provides key memory management functionality. A smart pointer is an object (via a C++ class) that holds a regular C++ pointer (e.g., to a dynamically allocated value), as well as a reference count. The reference count tracks how many different copies of the smart pointer have been made:
    - Each time a smart pointer is constructed, it starts with a reference count of 1.
    - Each time a smart pointer is copied (e.g., passed to a function by value), it increases its reference count, which is shared by all of its copies.
    - Each time a smart pointer is destructed, it decrements the shared reference count.

    When the reference count reaches zero, it means that no part of your program is using the smart pointer, and the value it points to may be "deleted." You can read

more about smart pointers in the Smart Pointer section of our Data Palooza slides.

In this problem, you will be creating your own smart-pointer class in C++!

Concretely, we want our code to look something like this

```
auto ptr1 = new int[100];
auto ptr2 = new int[200];
my_shared_ptr m(ptr1); // should create a new shared_ptr for ptr1
my_shared_ptr n(ptr2); // should create a new shared_ptr for ptr2
n = m; // ptr2 should be deleted, and there should be 2
shared_ptr pointing to ptr1
```

We want our shared pointer to automatically delete the memory pointed to by its pointer once the last copy of the smart pointer is destructed. For this, we need our shared pointer class to contain two members, one that stores the pointer to the object, and another that stores a reference count. The reference count stores how many pointers currently point to the object.

You are given the following boilerplate code:

```
class my_shared_ptr
{
private:
  int * ptr = nullptr;
  ______ refCount = nullptr; // a)

public:
  // b) constructor
  my_shared_ptr(int * ptr)
  {
  }
```

```
  // c) copy constructor
  my_shared_ptr(const my_shared_ptr & other)
  {
  }

  // d) destructor
  ~my_shared_ptr()
  {
  }

  // e) copy assignment
  my_shared_ptr& operator=(const my_shared_ptr & obj)
  {
  }
};
```

a. ** (4 min.) The type of `refCount` cannot be `int` since we want the counter to be shared across all `shared_ptrs` that point to the same object. What should the type of `refCount` be in the declaration and why?

`refCount` should be a pointer to an `int` (or equivalent type like `unsigned int`). This is because the `refCount` must be shared across multiple objects.

To see why, consider the case where there are multiple `shared_ptrs` pointing to a single object. If the `refCount` were just a simple `int`, then there would be no way for the `refCount` of other `shared_ptrs` to be updated concurrently. By having an `int` pointer, all of the `shared_ptrs` that point to the same object also share the same reference counter.

b. ** (2 min.) Fill in the code inside the constructor:

```
my_shared_ptr(int * ptr)
{
  this->ptr = ptr;
  refCount = new int(1);
}
```

c. ** (2 min.) Fill in the code inside the copy constructor:

```
my_shared_ptr(const my_shared_ptr & other)
{
  ptr = other.ptr;
  refCount = other.refCount;
  (*refCount)++;
}
```

d. ** (2 min.) Fill in the code inside the destructor:

Hint: You only need to delete the object when the reference count hits 0.

```
~my_shared_ptr()
{
  (*refCount)--;
  if (*refCount == 0)
  {
    if (nullptr != ptr)
      delete ptr;
    delete refCount;
  }
}
```

e. ** (5 min.) Fill in the code inside the copy assignment operator:

```
my_shared_ptr& operator=(const my_shared_ptr & obj)
{
  if (this == &other)
    return *this;

  (*refCount)--;
  if (*refCount == 0)
  {
    if (nullptr != ptr)
      delete ptr;
    delete refCount;
  }

  // Assign incoming object's data to this object
  this->ptr = obj.ptr; // share the underlying pointer
  this->refCount = obj.refCount;

  // if the pointer is not null, increment the refCount
  (*this->refCount)++;

  return *this;
}
```

4. ** These questions test you on concepts involving memory models and garbage collection. These are similar to interview questions you may get about programming languages!

   a. ** (5 min.) Rucha and Ava work for SNASA on a space probe that needs to avoid collisions from incoming asteroids and meteors in a very short time frame (let's say, < 100 ms).

They're trying to figure out what programming language to use. Rucha thinks that using C, C++, or Rust is a better idea because they don't have garbage collection.

Finish Rucha's argument: why would you not want to use a language with garbage collection in a space probe?

This is a more fleshed-out argument of what's on Slide 128 of Data Palooza. This answer is more instructive than what we'd expect on an exam.

This SNASA probe is a mission-critical, real-time software system. In the problem, we've imposed that the collision-avoidance routine needs to always run in a specific time frame. In these situations, we want totally predictable or deterministic behavior: no matter how many times we run the same code, the same thing should always happen, in the same amount of time.

Garbage collection is non-deterministic/unpredictable behavior: at any point in the program, memory pressure or a clock-cycle GC algorithm could pause execution and perform garbage collection. This could make the collision avoidance routine take longer than 100ms, and would lead to a very, very expensive mistake. So, we would want to avoid this behavior, and use a language without garbage collection. With manual memory management, we know that manual allocation/deallocation happens in a relatively constant time frame.

b. ** (5 min.) Ava disagrees and says that Rucha's concerns can be fixed with a language that uses reference counting instead of a mark-and-* collector, like Swift. Do you agree? Why or why not?

Fun fact: NASA has very aggressive rules on how you're allowed to use memory management. `malloc` is basically banned!

No, we disagree. Even though reference counting is a different flavor of garbage collection from mark-and-sweep and mark-and-compact, it still is garbage collection. The reclamation of memory can trigger side effects, which still pause execution.

To cite one example, if an object's reference count goes to zero, and the object refers to thousands or millions of other objects (e.g., in a dictionary it holds), that will cause those objects' reference counts to also go to zero. Thus garbage collection of a single object could cascade into millions of collected objects, taking milliseconds or more.

c. ** (5 min.) Kevin is writing some systems software for a GPS. He has to frequently allocate and deallocate arrays of lat and long coordinates. Each pair of coordinates is a fixed-size tuple, but the number of coordinates is variable (you can think of them as random).

Here's some C++-like pseudocode:

```
struct Coord {
  float lat;
  float lng;
};

function frequentlyCalledFunc(count) {
  Array[Coord] coords = new Array[Coord](count);
}
```

He's trying to decide between using C# (has a mark-and-compact GC) and Go (has a mark-and-sweep GC). What advice would you give him?

There are two key insights for this question:

1. **Arrays in most languages are contiguous memory blocks**
2. **Since we're rapidly allocating and deallocating random-length arrays, we'll get "holes" of random sizes in memory, of different sizes: this leads to memory fragmentation.**

As soon as you see memory fragmentation, you should immediately jump to the core goal of mark-and-compact: avoiding memory fragmentation. With mark-and-compact, the compaction shifts all the allocated blocks to be one contiguous space, removing the holes (temporarily). So, Kevin may want to use C#!

Aside: if allocation/deallocation is super frequent (could cause thrashing), a non-GC language may be more appropriate!

d. ** (5 min.) Yvonne works on a messaging app, where users can join and leave many rooms at once.

The original version of the app was written in C++. The C++ code for a `Room` looks like this:

```
class Socket { /* ... */ };
class RoomView {
  RoomView() {
    this.socket = new Socket();
  }
  ~RoomView() {
    this.socket.cleanupFd();
  }
  // ...
};
```

Recently, the company has moved its backend to Go, and Yvonne is tasked with implementing the code to leave a room.

When Yvonne tests her Go version on her brand-new M3 Macbook, she finds that the app quickly runs out of sockets (and socket file descriptors)! She's confused: this was never a problem with the old codebase, and there are no compile or runtime errors. Give one possible explanation of the problem she's running into, and what she could do to solve it.

Hint: You may wish to Google a bit about Go and destructors, and when they run to help you solve this problem.

There are three key insights for this question:

1. C++ uses destructors; destructors always run at the end of object lifetimes
2. Go uses finalizers; finalizers are only run at garbage collection, which is not deterministic!

Aside: if this was a test, we'd tell you this information.

3. The RoomView class only frees up its resource (the socket file descriptor) in its destructor. Implicitly, Yvonne's Go version would only call it in the finalizer.

Since finalizers don't always run, Yvonne's cleanup code could never run (and in this example, that's what's happening)! This is particularly likely when her machine has a ton of memory, and doesn't need to run GC frequently (or at all).

There are many ways she could solve this. The most common would be for Yvonne to explicitly call the cleanup code (this.socket.cleanupFd) manually, before the object is removed from memory. This solution is language-agnostic, and what we'd expect on a midterm.

If you're curious, there are Go-specific ways to resolve this problem. We do not expect you to know this!

1. Go allows you to run the GC manually; see the runtime package
2. A soft convention is to start a goroutine to run cleanup

5. ** (5 min.) This question is about distinguishing casts from conversions. As we learned in class, sometimes it's not so easy to figure out when a language is using a cast vs a conversion. That is, unless you actually look at its assembly output.

Consider the following program:

```
int main() {
  int a = 5;
  cout << a;
  cout << (const int) a;           // Line 1
  cout << (unsigned int) a;         // Line 2
  cout << (short) a;                // Line 3
  cout << (bool) a;                 // Line 4
  cout << (float) a;                // Line 5
}
```

When this program is compiled with g++'s -S option (`g++ -S foo.cpp`), g++ produces the following assembly language output:

```
_main:                                  ## main()
  pushq %rbp
  movq  %rsp, %rbp
  subq  $16, %rsp
# int a = 5;
  movl  $5, -4(%rbp)      # a is stored on the stack at [rbp-4]
######################
# cout << a;
  movl  -4(%rbp), %esi
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEi
######################
# cout << (const int)a;
  movl  -4(%rbp), %esi
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEi
# cout << (unsigned int)a;
  movl  -4(%rbp), %esi
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEj
# cout << (short)a;
  movl  -4(%rbp), %eax
```

```
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  movswl  %ax, %esi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEs
# cout << (bool)a;
  cmpl  $0, -4(%rbp)
  setne %al
  movzbl  %al, %esi
  andl  $1, %esi
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEb
# cout << (float)a;
  cvtsi2ssl -4(%rbp), %xmm0
  movq  __ZNSt3__14coutE@GOTPCREL(%rip), %rdi
  callq __ZNSt3__113basic_ostreamIcNS_11char_traitsIcEEElsEf
# end of main()
  xorl  %eax, %eax
  addq  $16, %rsp
  popq  %rbp
  retq
  .cfi_endproc
```

Based on this assembly language output, which of the lines (1-5) above are using casts and which are using conversions? If conversions are used, how is the C++ compiler performing the conversion?

Hint: You don't need to be an expert at assembly language to solve this problem. Simply compare the code generated for the `cout << a;` statement (which we have delineated using a plethora of octothorpes) to the other versions to look for differences. Also, try googling instructions (like `cvtsi2ssl`).

Notice that for `(const int)`, `(unsigned int)` and `(short)`, the compiler only generates `movl` instructions. This means it's essentially just copying the bits from one location to another. This means it is just performing a cast.

For `(bool)` and `(float)`, the compiler generates doesn't generate simple `movl` instructions, but instead generates code to convert the value (that's what the `cvtsi2ssl` (convert signed integer to scalar single-precision) instruction does).