CS410P/510 Programming Language Compilation Winter 2024 Lecture on Garbage Collection

BASIC GARBAGE COLLECTION

Garbage Collection (GC) is the automatic reclamation of heap records ("**objects**") that will never again be accessed by the program.

GC is widely used in languages that support heap allocation, because the alternative—explicit deallocation—is tedious, error-prone, and often non-modular.

Historically, GC was perceived to be "expensive" because of its runtime overheads, but in most cases the expense is worth it! (Also, explicit deallocation isn't free either.)

In particular, GC is universally used for languages with closures and complex data structures that are **implicitly** heap-allocated.

We view GC as part of an **allocation service** provided by the runtime environment to the user program, usually called the **mutator**. When the mutator needs heap space, it calls an allocation routine, which in turn performs garbage collection activities if needed.

SIMPLE MODEL: HEAP OF "CONS" CELLS



GC MODEL

Assume heap consists of **two-word cells** and each element of a cell is a **pointer** to another cell. (We'll deal with arbitrary size objects and distinguishing pointers from non-pointers later.)

There may also be pointers into the heap from the stack and global variables; these constitute the **root set**.

At any given moment, the system's **live data** are the heap cells that can be reached by **some** series of pointer traversals starting from a member of the root set.

Garbage is the heap memory containing non-live cells. (Note that this is a slightly conservative definition.)

REFERENCE COUNTING

The most straightforward way to recognize garbage and make its space reusable for new cells is to use **reference counts**.

We augment each heap cell with a **count field** that records the total number of pointers in the system that point to the cell. Each time we create or copy a pointer to the cell, we increment the count; each time we destroy a pointer, we decrement the count.

If the reference count ever goes to 0, we can reuse the cell by placing it on a **free list**.



To allocate a new cell, we take the head of the free list.

Pros: conceptually simple; immediate reclamation of storage

Cons: extra space; extra time (every pointer assignment has to change/check count); can't collect "cyclic garbage"

MARK AND SWEEP

There's no real need to remove garbage as long as unused memory is available. So GC is typically deferred until the **allocator** fails due to lack of memory. The collector then takes control of the processor, performs a collection—hopefully freeing enough memory to satisfy the allocation request—and returns control to the mutator. This approach is known generically as "stop and collect."

There are several options for the collection algorithm. Perhaps the simplest is called **mark and sweep**, which operates in two phases:

- First, **mark** each live data cell by tracing all pointers starting with the root set.
- Then, **sweep** all unmarked cells onto the free list (also unmarking the marked cells).

Code follows...

```
struct cell {
  int mark:1;
  struct cell *c[2];}
struct cell *free;
struct cell heap[HEAPSIZE];
struct cell *roots[ROOTS];
/* Initially all cells are on free list (linked using c[0]). */
void init_heap() {
  for (i=0; i < HEAPSIZE-1; i++)</pre>
    heap[i].c[0] = &(heap[i+1]);
 heap[HEAPSIZE-1].c[0] = 0;
  free = \&(heap[0]);
}
struct cell *allocate() {
  struct cell *a;
  if (!free) { /* no more room => */
    gc(); /* try gc */
    if (!free) /* still no more room */
      die();
 };
  a = free;
  free = free->c[0];
 return a;
}
```

```
void gc() {
  for (i = 0; i < ROOTS; i++)</pre>
    mark(roots[i]);
  sweep();
}
void mark(struct cell *cell) {
  if (!cell->mark) {
    cell->mark = 1;
    mark(cell->c[0]);
    mark(cell->c[1]);
   }
}
void sweep() {
  for (i = 0; i < HEAPSIZE; i++)
    if (heap[i].mark)
      heap[i].mark = 0;
    else {
      heap[i].c[0] = free;
      free = &(heap[i]);
    }
}
```

Here mark traverses the live data graph in depth-first order, and potentially uses **lots** of stack! A standard trick called **pointer reversal** avoids this.

COPYING COLLECTION

Mark and sweep has several problems:

- It does work proportional to the size of the entire heap.
- It leaves memory fragmented.
- It doesn't cope well with non-uniform cell sizes.

An alternative that solves these problems is **copying collection**. The idea is to divide the available heap into 2 **semi-spaces**. Initially, the allocator uses just one space; when it fills up, the collector **copies** the live data (only) into the other space, and reverses the role of the spaces.

Copying **compacts** live data, which improves locality and may be good for virtual memory and caches.



MAINTAINING THE GRAPH OF LIVE DATA

Copying collection must fix up **all** pointers to copied data. To do this, it leaves a **forwarding pointer** in the "from" space after the copy is made.



COPYING COLLECTION DETAILS

A copying collector typically traverses the live data graph **breadth first**, using "to" space itself as the search "queue."



Code follows...

```
struct cell {
 struct cell *c[2];
}
struct cell space[2][HALFSIZE];
struct cell *roots[ROOTS];
struct cell *free = &(space[0][0]);
struct cell *end = &(space[0][HALFSIZE]);
int from_space = 0;
int to_space = 1;
struct cell *allocate() {
  if (free == end) { /* no room */
   gc();
    if (free == end) /* still no room */
     die();
 };
 return free++;
}
```

```
gc() {
  int i;
  struct cell *scan = &(space[to_space][0]);
  free = scan;
  for (i = 0 ; i < ROOTS; i++)</pre>
    roots[i] = forward(roots[i]);
  while (scan < free) {</pre>
    scan->c[0] = forward(scan->c[0]);
    scan->c[1] = forward(scan->c[1]);
    scan++;
  };
  from_space = 1-from_space;
  to_space = 1-to_space;
  end = *(space[from_space][HALFSIZE]);
}
struct cell *forward(struct cell *p) {
  if (p->c[0] >= &(space[to_space][0]) &&
      p->c[0] < &(space[to_space][HALFSIZE]))</pre>
     return p->c[0];
  else {
    *free = *p;
    p->c[0] = free++;
    return p->c[0];
  }
}
```

COMPARISON

Copying collector does work proportional to amount of **live** data. Asymptotically, this means it does less work than mark and sweep. Let

A =amount of live data

M =total memory size before a collection.

After the collection, there is M-A space left for allocation before the next collection. We can calculate the **amortized cost** per allocated byte as follows:

$$C_{M\&S} = \frac{c_1 A + c_2 M}{M - A}$$
 for some c_1, c_2

$$C_{COPY} = \frac{c_3 A}{\frac{M}{2} - A}$$
 for some c_3

As $M \to \infty$, $C_{COPY} \to 0$, while $C_{M\&S} \to c_2$.

Of course, real memories aren't infinite, so the values of c_1, c_2, c_3 matter, especially if a significant percentage of data are live at collection (since generally $c_3 > c_1$).

CONSERVATIVE COLLECTION

Standard GC algorithms rely on precise identification of pointers.

This is hard in "uncooperative" environments, i.e., when the mutator (and its compiler) are not aware that GC will be performed. This is the normal case for C/C++ programs.

Basic problem: the mutator and collector can no longer communicate a root set.

Idea: for any scanning collector to be correct, it's essential that every pointer be found. But for non-moving collectors, it's ok to mistake a non-pointer for a pointer – the worst that happens is that some garbage doesn't get collected.

Conservative collectors scan the entire register set and stack of the mutator, and **assume** that anything that **might** be a pointer really is a pointer.

ISSUES IN CONSERVATIVE COLLECTION

• Some bit patterns that are actually integers, reals, chars, etc. will be mistaken for pointers, so the "objects" they "point" to will be treated as live data, causing **space leaks**.

• Accidental pointer identifications can be greatly decreased by careful tests, e.g., must be on a page known to be in the heap, at an appropriate alignment for objects on that page; data at "pointed-to" location must look like a heap header.

• Can further reduce false id's by not allocating on pages whose addresses correspond to data values known to be in use.

• Because they must filter large numbers of potential roots, conservative collectors tend to be slow.

• Collector must still be able to find all **potential** roots in registers and stack frames.

• Pointers must not be kept in "hidden" form by mutator code that does weird pointer arithmetic.

See the well-known **Boehm-Demers-Weiser collector**.

OBJECT LIFETIMES

Major problem with tracing GC: long-lived data get traced (scanned and/or copied) repeatedly, without producing free space.

(Weak) Generational Hypothesis: "Most data die young."

I.e., most objects become garbage a short time after they are allocated.

If we equate "age" of an object O is equated with amount of heap allocated since O was allocated, this says that most objects become garbage after a small number of other objects have been allocated.

Moreover, the longer an object stays live, the more likely it is to remain live in the future.

These are **empirical** properties of many (not necessarily all) languages/programs.

Implication : if you're looking for garbage, it's more likely to be found in recently-allocated data, e.g., in data allocated since the last garbage collection.

GENERATIONAL COLLECTION

Idea: Segregate data by age into generations.

• Arrange that the younger generations can be collected independently of the older ones.

- When space is needed, collect the youngest generation first.
- Only collect older generation(s) if space is still needed.
- Should make GC more efficient overall, since less total tracing is performed.
- Should shorten pause times (at least for young generation GCs).

Some variant of generational collection is almost universally used in serious implementations of heavily-allocating languages.

Most generational systems are copying collectors, although mark and sweep variants are possible.

In generational copying collector, data in generation n that are still live after a certain number of gc's (the **promotion threshold**) are copied into generation n + 1 (possibly triggering a collection there).

GENERATIONAL EXAMPLE

Key problem: finding all the roots that point into generation n without scanning higher generations.

Assume 2 generations, promotion threshold = 1. Initial memory configuration after allocation of R:



Suppose a GC is now needed:



Note that S is now tenured (uncollected garbage).

Now suppose we allocate a new cell T pointed to by R, fill T with pointers to A and B, and zero the root set pointers to A and B.



If a further GC is needed, we **must** follow the inter-generational pointer from R to T.

DESIGN ISSUES

Tracking pointers from older generations to younger ones is primary added cost of generational system.

- Can only happen via **update** of a pointer in an older generation.
- Typically use a **write barrier** to catch such updates.

• Maintain **remembered set** of updated memory chunks ("cards"), where chunk size can range from single address to entire page.

• Different tradeoffs in mutator overhead vs. scan time.

Promotion policy?

• Threshold = 1 gives simpler implementation, since no need to record object age, but promotes very young objects.

How many generations?

• Two-generation systems give simpler implementation, but > 2 generations are useful if there is a spread of object lifetimes (especially if threshold = 1). May want separate areas for large, pointer-free, or "immortal" objects.

INCREMENTAL/CONCURRENT COLLECTORS

Stop-and-copy collectors suffer from arbitrarily long **pauses** during collection, which is bad for interactive applications.

Incremental collectors attempt to solve this problem by doing the collection in small pieces, no one of which takes too long. Typically do some collection work at the time of each allocation. E.g., every time a cell is allocated, collector traces k cells (for some $k > \frac{A}{M-A}$). Note: incremental \neq **real-time**.

Because collector and mutator are interleaved at fine granularity, they must **synchronize** their activities. Useful to view collector and mutator as **concurrent** threads. In fact, can usually make incremental GC algorithms run on a multiprocessor, with one or more threads devoted to doing GC.

(Reference counting is essentially a concurrent GC approach.)

CHALLENGES OF CONCURRENCY

Key problem: mutator can change set of live cells "under the feet" of the collector. Example:

Mutator	Collector
q = new	
r = new	
p = q	
	trace p; mark q live
p = r	
	trace q (ignore r)

Essential not to treat live data as garbage. **Desirable** not to treat garbage as live data.

TRICOLOR INVARIANT

To describe essential invariant for concurrent marking, think of each heap cell as having one of three **colors**:

Black - node and its immediate children have been visited already.

Grey - node has been visited, but its children might not have been, so collector must revisit this node.

White - node has not been visited yet.

Initially, all nodes are white. A scan cycle terminates when all reachable nodes are black and there are no grey nodes; at this point, all remaining white nodes are garbage.

Example: In copying collector, old-space nodes are white, new-space nodes are grey until scanned, after which they become black.

Key idea: To maintain correctness of scan, mutatator must never write a pointer directly from a black node to a white node.

Many different ways to enforce this invariant.

BAKER'S ALGORITHM (INCREMENTAL COPYING COLLECTOR)

Idea: Never let the mutator "see" a white node (i.e., an old-space pointer). That way, mutator can never write such a pointer into a black node (i.e., a new-space node).

Implementation requires a **read barrier** that traps attempts to load from old-space cells, and moves them to new-space "on the fly."

Original mutator code:

x = p - c [1];

New mutator code after insertion of read barrier:

```
x = (forward(p)) -> c[1];
```

Also arranges to allocate new cells in new-space, beyond scan boundary (i.e., colored black); this is quite conservative, but safe and simple.

Read barrier makes this algorithm very expensive in the absence of hardware support. One possible variant: use memory management hardware to implement read barrier at page level.

In a M&S collector, often use an explicit **mark stack** to record nodes that have been marked but whose children have not been:

```
struct cell *markstack[];
int msp = 0;
void gc () {
  for (int i = 0; i < ROOTS; i++) {
    roots[i]->mark = 1;
    markstack[msp++] = roots[i];
  }
  while (struct cell *cell = markstack[--msp])
    for (int child = 0; child <= 1; child++)
        if (!cell->c[child]->mark) {
            cell->c[child]->mark = 1;
            markstack[msp++] = cell->c[child];
        }
        sweep();
  }
```

In this context, unmarked cells are white, marked cells that are on the markstack are grey, and other marked cells are black.

INCREMENTAL MARK-SWEEP (CONT.)

The most direct way to prevent a black-to-white pointer from being written is to use a **write barrier** to detect such writes, and change the target object's color to grey "on the fly."

Original mutator code:

*p = q;

Mutator code with write barrier:

```
*p = q;
if (!q->mark) {
   q->mark = 1;
   markstack[msp++] = q;
}
```