

Fast Escape Analysis for Region-based Memory Management

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Abstract

We present an algorithm for escape analysis inspired by, but more precise than, the one proposed by Gay and Steensgaard [11]. The primary purpose of our algorithm is to produce useful information to allocate memory using a region-based memory manager. The algorithm combines intraprocedural variable-based and interprocedural points-to analyses. This is a work in progress towards achieving an application-oriented trade-off between precision and scalability. We illustrate the algorithm on several typical programming patterns, and show experimental results of a first prototype on a few benchmarks.

Key words: Escape analysis. Dynamic memory management.

1 Introduction

Garbage collection (GC) [14] is not used in real-time embedded systems. The reason is that temporal behavior of dynamic memory reclaiming is extremely difficult to predict. Several GC algorithms have been proposed for real-time embedded applications (e.g., [12,17,16,13]). However, these approaches are not portable (as they impose restrictive conditions on the underlying execution platform), do require additional memory, and/or do not really ensure predictable execution times.

An appealing solution to overcome the drawbacks of GC algorithms, is to allocate objects in regions (e.g., [18]) which are associated with the lifetime of a computation unit (typically a thread or a method). Regions are freed when the corresponding unit finishes its execution. This approach is adopted, for

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instance, by the Real-Time Specification for Java (RTSJ) [2], where regions can be associated to runnables, and by [10], which implements a library and a compiler for C. These region-based approaches define APIs which can be used to explicitly and manually handle allocation and deallocation of objects within a program. However, care must be taken when objects are mapped to regions in order to avoid dangling references. Thus, programming using such APIs is error-prone, mostly because determining objects' lifetime is difficult.

An alternative to programming memory management directly using an API consists in *automatically* transforming a program so as (a) to replace (whenever possible) “new” statements by calls to the region-based memory allocator, and (b) to place appropriate calls (i.e., guaranteeing absence of dangling references) to the deallocator. Such an approach requires to analyze the program behavior to determine the lifetime of dynamically allocated objects. In [8], analysis is based on profiling, while [9,4] rely on static (points-to and escape) analysis.

Escape analysis aims at conservatively determining if an object *escapes from* or is *captured by* a method. Intuitively, an object escapes a method when its lifetime is longer than the method's lifetime, so it can not be collected when the method finishes its execution. An object is captured by the method when it can be safely collected at the end of its execution.

Several approaches to escape analysis for Java have been proposed, most of which aim at allocating objects on the stack, and removing unnecessary synchronizations. [1] works on the bytecode, which brings in an additional complexity due to the stack-based model. [5,19] use points-to analysis to determine if an object escapes a method through a path in the points-to graph. [11] proposes a fast but very conservative escape analysis, based on solving a simple system of linear constraints obtained from a *Static Single Assignment* (SSA) form [7] of the program.

For region-based allocation in Java, we are aware of two works. [9] exploits method-call chains and escape analysis to dynamically map allocation sites to regions associated with methods. [4] defines a points-to analysis to determine regions of objects with similar lifetimes (with instruction-level resolution, as opposed to method-level).

In this paper, we present an algorithm for escape analysis inspired by, but more precise than, the one proposed in [11]. The primary purpose of our algorithm is to produce useful information to allocate memory using a region-based memory manager. The algorithm combines intraprocedural variable-based and interprocedural points-to analyses. This is a work in progress towards achieving an application-oriented trade-off between precision and scalability. We illustrate the algorithm on several typical programming patterns, and show experimental results of a first prototype on a few benchmarks.

2 The algorithm

In this section we describe our escape analysis algorithm in detail. We assume the program is in static single assignment form (SSA) [7], that is, every variable is assigned only once in the program. The transformation of the program into SSA comes at a cost, but gives to a flow-insensitive analysis the power of a flow-sensitive one. Our algorithm is mainly based on local variables, instead of on a complex points-to graph, which would be much more expensive to build and to work with. The analysis is based on abstract interpretation [6] and computes several properties for local variables and methods.

2.1 Properties

2.1.1 *escape*

For each local variable v of a method, $\text{escape}(v) \in \text{Escape}$, where *Escape* is the lattice in figure 1(a), says whether v may *escape* from its method, that is, if an object pointed to by v is referenced in a way such that its lifetime may exceed the method.

A variable v escapes because it is returned ($\text{escape}(v) = \text{RETURNED}$) or it is copied into a global variable ($\text{escape}(v) = \text{STATIC}$). When a variable is stored into an object field ($\text{escape}(v) = \text{FIELD}$), v may escape through a chain of references. Determining whether v escapes in this case, requires further analysis that will be explained later. The \top value stands for variables that escape by *several* ways, or when the analysis cannot compute a tighter information (e.g., when v is used as a parameter in a non-analyzed method). For example, in the program shown on figure 1(b) $\text{escape}(a) = \text{STATIC}$, $\text{escape}(b) = \perp$, $\text{escape}(c) = \text{RETURNED}$, $\text{escape}(d) = \top$.

Notice that $\text{escape}(v) = \perp$ is not sufficient to say that the object pointed to by v is local to the method. It only means that the method does not create any *new* reference path from the outside of the method to the object, but the object may *already* be reachable from outside. This is the case for variable b in figure 1(b) which is an alias of the static variable s .

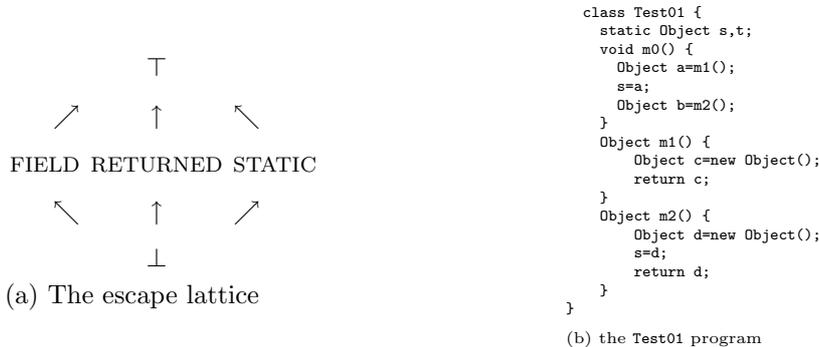


Fig. 1. The *Escape* lattice and the `Test01` program

2.1.2 *mfresh*

Let $MFresh$ be the lattice: $\perp \leq \text{RETURNED} \leq \top$. For each method m , $\text{mfresh}(m) \in MFresh$ describes how objects returned by m escape: $\text{mfresh}(m) = \perp$ when m does not return any object (it may be `void`, or return some primitive type value); $\text{mfresh}(m) = \top$ when returned values are already known to escape from m in a different way; $\text{mfresh}(m) = \text{RETURNED}$ when m returns an object (or several objects) which does (do) not escape otherwise. If there is no other path leading to this object (see section 2.2.2), the caller of m can *capture* it.

2.1.3 *sites*

Let $Sites$ be $\mathcal{P}(\text{AllocationSites} \cup \{\text{UNKNOWN}\})$, where AllocationSites is the set of all allocation sites in the program. For each local variable v , $\text{sites}(v) \in Sites$ contains all allocation sites that can create an object referenced by v . $\text{sites}(v)$ can always be computed at the unique (thanks to SSA) statement where v is defined. To be conservative, if we cannot determine *all* the sites that v can point to (e.g., because of a not analyzed method call), a “fake” allocation site `UNKNOWN` is added to $\text{sites}(v)$. In the program of figure 1(b), $\text{sites}(a) = \text{sites}(c) = \{[m1:c=new \text{Object}]\}$, and $\text{sites}(b) = \text{sites}(d) = \{[m2:d=new \text{Object}]\}$.

2.1.4 *msites*

For each method m , $\text{msites}(m)$ is an element of $Sites$, saying where objects returned by m come from. In the program of figure 1(b), $\text{msites}(m0) = \emptyset$, $\text{msites}(m1) = \{[m1:c=new \text{Object}]\}$, and $\text{msites}(m2) = \{[m2:d=new \text{Object}]\}$. Notice that, if $\text{mfresh}(m) = \text{RETURNED}$, then objects from $\text{msites}(m)$ are possibly *captured* by callers of m , but it is not certain. In some complex situations, there can still be a path of references leading to these objects. For example in the program shown on figure 6(a), the `e` variable is *not* captured by $m0$.

2.1.5 *isdereferenced*

$\text{isdereferenced}(v)$ is true iff v , or one of its aliases, is *dereferenced* in m . That is, $v.f$ appears in the right-hand side of an assignment.

2.1.6 *usedasparameter*

$\text{usedasparameter}(v)$ is true iff v , or one of its aliases, is used as a concrete parameter in a method call.

2.1.7 *def*

For each variable v , $\text{def}(v)$ says how v was defined.

2.1.8 *fielduse*

fielduse shows reference relations between local variables. For each v in m , $\text{fielduse}(v)$ is the set of variables u in m such that v may be an alias of $u.f$ (for some field f). fielduse is mainly useful when a variable v escapes by a `FIELD`:

for example, if $\text{escape}(v) = \text{FIELD}$, but all variables of $\text{fielduse}(v)$ are captured by m , then so is v .

2.1.9 the *mrefs* graph

When objects are passed through several methods, knowledge about local variables is often not sufficient to determine objects' lifetimes, that's why a reference graph is needed. Our reference graph is very simple, in order to minimize the algorithmic cost of the analysis. *mrefs* is a subset of $\text{AllocationSites} \times \text{Fields} \times \text{AllocationSites}$, where $(\alpha, f, \beta) \in \text{mrefs}$ means: "an object created in α , may point, with its f field, to an object created in β ".

2.1.10 *side*

The main goal of our analysis is to determine in which regions to allocate objects. Each method m has an associated *region*, containing objects which do not escape m . To determine the region, we compute for each variable v of m , where objects pointed to by v live, namely, $\text{side}(v)$:

- $\text{side}(v) = \text{INSIDE}$, when objects pointed to by v are *captured* by m . If they are created by m , they can be allocated in m 's region. If they are created by callees, m can *ask* for them to be allocated in its region, as is described in [9];
- $\text{side}(v) = \text{OUTSIDE}$, when objects pointed to by v live *longer* than m . If they are created by m , they must be allocated outside its stack frame. But such an object may be captured by a caller n of m , in this case m can allocate the object in n 's region.

An example is presented on figure 6(a): the `RefObject` allocated by $m2$ is captured by $m1$. Our analysis detects this situation by computing $\text{side}(a) = \text{OUTSIDE}$ and $\text{side}(c) = \text{INSIDE}$.

2.2 The rules

The algorithm works in two phases. First, it determines for each variable the values of `escape`, `sites`, `isdereferenced`, `usedasparameter`, `fielduse`, `def`, it builds the *mrefs* graph and computes `msites` and `mfresh` values. To compute these values, the algorithm solves the least fixpoint in Figures 2 and 3.

In a second phase, the algorithm uses these values to compute, for each variable, its `side` value, as presented on figure 4. It is the combination of `side` and `sites` that will enable us to instrument the bytecode in order to use a region memory allocator for captured sites.

2.2.1 First phase

Most of these rules are simple. They are only intraprocedural information propagation. The only complicated rule is the one on figure 3, which handles method calls. This is not trivial, because we do not want to perform a full

$\alpha: v := \text{new}$ $\alpha \in \text{sites}(v)$	$\text{escape}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{STATIC}$ $\text{mrefs} \sqsupseteq \{\text{UNKNOWN} \longrightarrow s, s \in \text{sites}(v_i)\}$
$v := \varphi(v_1..v_n)$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{PHI}$ $\forall i = 1..n$ $\text{sites}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{sites}(v_i)$ $\text{escape}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{escape}(v_i)$ $\text{escape}(v_i) \sqsupseteq \text{escape}(v)$ $\text{isdereferenced}(v) \geq \text{isdereferenced}(v_i)$ $\text{isdereferenced}(v_i) \geq \text{isdereferenced}(v)$ $\text{usedasparameter}(v) \geq \text{usedasparameter}(v_i)$ $\text{usedasparameter}(v_i) \geq \text{usedasparameter}(v)$ $\text{fielduse}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{fielduse}(v_i)$ $\text{fielduse}(v_i) \sqsupseteq \text{fielduse}(v)$	$v := s$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{STATIC}$ $\text{sites}(v) \ni \text{UNKNOWN}$
$v := p$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{PARAM}$ $\text{sites}(v) \ni \text{UNKNOWN}$ other properties: similar to φ -expression	$v := \text{constant}$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{CONSTANT}$ $\text{sites}(v) \ni \text{UNKNOWN}$
$v := v_1$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{COPY}$ other properties: similar to φ -expression	$v := v_1.f$ $\text{def}(v) = \text{FIELD}$ $\text{isdereferenced}(v_1) \geq \text{true}$ $\text{sites}(v) \sqsupseteq \{s \mid \exists s' \in \text{sites}(v_1), s' \xrightarrow{f} s\}$ If $\text{UNKNOWN} \in \text{sites}(v_1)$ $\text{sites}(v) \ni \text{UNKNOWN}$
$v_1.f := v$ $\text{escape}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{FIELD}$ $\text{fielduse}(v) \ni v_1$ $\text{mrefs} \sqsupseteq \{s_1 \xrightarrow{f} s_2, s_1 \in \text{sites}(v_1), s_2 \in \text{sites}(v_2)\}$	$\text{return}_m v$ $\text{escape}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{RETURNED}$ $\text{mfresh}(m) \sqsupseteq \text{escape}(v)$ $\text{msites}(m) \sqsupseteq \text{sites}(v)$
$s := v$	

Fig. 2. Escape analysis rules

$v := v_0.m(v_1..v_n)$ $\forall m$ that may be invoked here If $\text{istobeprocessed}(m)$ $\text{sites}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{msites}(m)$ If $\text{mfresh}(m) \neq \text{RETURNED}$ $\text{escape}(v) \sqsupseteq \text{mfresh}(m)$ $\forall i = 0..n$ $\text{usedasparameter}(v_i) \geq \text{true}$ Let p_i the i -th formal parameter of m $\text{isdereferenced}(v_i) \geq \text{isdereferenced}(p_i)$ If $\neg \text{escape}(p_i) \in \{\text{RETURNED}, \perp\}$ $\text{escape}(v_i) \sqsupseteq \top$ $\text{mrefs} \sqsupseteq \{\text{UNKNOWN} \longrightarrow s, s \in \text{sites}(v_i)\}$ If $\text{isdereferenced}(p_i) = \text{true}$ $\text{mrefs} \sqsupseteq \{\text{UNKNOWN} \longrightarrow s \mid \exists s' \in \text{sites}(v_i), s' \longrightarrow s\}$ else $\text{sites}(v) \ni \text{UNKNOWN}$ $\forall i = 0..n$ $\text{usedasparameter}(v_i) \geq \text{true}$ $\text{isdereferenced}(v_i) \geq \text{true}$ $\text{escape}(v_i) \sqsupseteq \top$ $\text{mrefs} \sqsupseteq \{\text{UNKNOWN} \longrightarrow s, s \in \text{sites}(v_i)\}$	
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Fig. 3. Escape analysis rules (cont)

points-to analysis, neither to be too conservative about method calls.

Our analysis is designed to process arbitrary portions of an application. That is why we have an `istobeprocessed` predicate, that tells if a method must be analyzed or not. If not, for example because the method is native, or unavailable, we must be conservative about it.

For a not analyzed method, we assume that all parameters escape, and are referenced by the `UNKNOWN` site.

On the other hand, if the method *is* analyzed, then we can be more precise. Obviously, we have $\text{sites}(v) \supseteq \text{msites}(m)$, that is, v will point to any object returned by m . If these objects have escaped ($\text{mfresh}(m) \neq \text{RETURNED}$), then the return value is not capturable either. ($\text{escape}(v) \supseteq \text{mfresh}(m)$)

To process the parameters of m , we match the formal parameters (p_i) with the concrete ones (v_i): if p_i escapes from m , v_i is considered as escaping from the current method, and we put an edge from `UNKNOWN` to all sites pointed to by v_i . If p_i does not escape but `isdereferenced` in m , then we cannot be precise about those references without performing a points-to analysis. In this case, we conservatively consider that all children of v_i escape.

2.2.2 Second phase

escape(v)	def(v)					
	NEW	RETVAL	PARAM STATIC	COPY PHI	FIELD	CONSTANT
\perp	(3)	(3)	OUTSIDE	(1)	(2)	OUTSIDE
FIELD	(2)	(2)	OUTSIDE	(1)	(2)	OUTSIDE
RETURNED	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE
STATIC	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE
\top	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE	OUTSIDE

$$\begin{array}{l}
 (1) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} v := \varphi(v_1..v_n) \text{ or } v := v_1 \\ \text{side}(v) \supseteq \text{side}(v_i) \\ \forall i \text{ side}(v_i) \supseteq \text{side}(v) \end{array} \right. \quad (3) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } \exists s \in \text{sites}(v) \text{ s.t. } \text{UNKNOWN} \rightsquigarrow s \\ \text{side}(v) = \text{OUTSIDE} \\ \text{else} \\ \text{side}(v) = \text{INSIDE} \end{array} \right. \\
 (2) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } \exists u \in \text{fielduse}(v) \text{ s.t. } \text{side}(u) = \text{OUTSIDE} \\ \text{or s.t. } \text{isdereferenced}(u) \wedge \text{usedasparameter}(u) \\ \text{side}(v) = \text{OUTSIDE} \\ \text{else} \\ (3) \end{array} \right.
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 4. Computation of `side(v)`

Once the fixed point is reached, the algorithm computes `side(v)` for each variable using rules shown in figure 4. This is not a one-pass computation, but a second least fixpoint, because of the (1) and (2) rules:

- The (1) rule says that, if a variable may alias another, then those two variables cannot have different `side` values.
- Similarly, the (2) rules says that if a variable v is referenced by another

variable's field (e.g. by a $u.f=v$), v cannot be captured unless u is.

2.2.3 Examples

Let us consider the example presented in fig.5(a). First, m_0 builds a small chained structure, then it calls m_1 which makes the last element (t_3) escape. As shown on fig.5(b), the analysis of m_0 understands the behavior of m_0 , but as we can only match x with t_1 , and not a with t_2 , we cannot keep track of m_1 . Nevertheless, to stay conservative, we put an edge from UNKNOWN to the site of t_2 because x is dereferenced in m_1 . Notice that, t_2 and t_3 are *usedasparameter*, because they are the *this* parameter of their constructor. That is why the only captured site is $[m_0:t_1 = \text{new RefObject}]$.

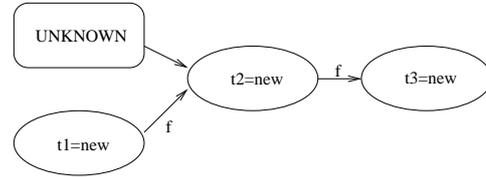
```

class RefObject {
    Object f;
}

class Test25 {
    void m0() {
        RefObject t1=new RefObject();
        RefObject t2=new RefObject();
        Object t3=new Object();
        t1.f=t2;
        t2.f=t3;
        m1(t1);
    }
    static Object s;
    void m1(RefObject x)
    {
        RefObject a=(RefObject)x.f;
        Object b=a.f;
        s=b;
    }
}

```

(a) The Test25 program



(b) mrefs graph

	escape mfresh	def	IsD	uP	fielduse	sites msites	side
m_0	\perp					\emptyset	
t_1	\perp	NEW	true	true	\square	$[m_0:t_1 = \text{new RefObject}]$	INSIDE
t_2	FIELD	NEW	false	true	$[t_1]$	$[m_0:t_2 = \text{new RefObject}]$	OUTSIDE
t_3	FIELD	NEW	false	true	$[t_2]$	$[m_0:t_3 = \text{new java.lang.Object}]$	OUTSIDE
m_1	\perp					\emptyset	
x	\perp	PARAM	true	false	\square	$[\text{UNKNOWN}]$	OUTSIDE
a	\perp	FIELD	true	false	\square	$[\text{UNKNOWN}]$	OUTSIDE
b	STATIC	FIELD	false	false	\square	$[\text{UNKNOWN}]$	OUTSIDE

(c) analysis results

Fig. 5. The Test25 program

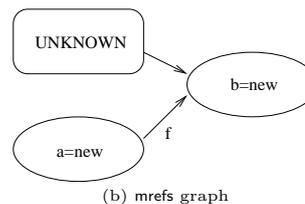
The second example, shown in figure 6(a), illustrates the *msites* property. The m_2 method allocates two objects and makes one (a) point to the other (b), which escapes. Then it returns a, which is captured by m_1 (*side(c)*=INSIDE). m_1 dereferences c to get the *Object* and returns it, but m_0 cannot capture it because of the edge from UNKNOWN to $[m_2:b = \text{new Object}]$.

```

class Test30 {
  void m0() {
    Object e=m1();
  }
  Object m1() {
    RefObject c=m2();
    Object d=c.f;
    return d;
  }
  static Object s;
  RefObject m2() {
    RefObject a=new RefObject();
    Object b=new Object();
    s=b;
    a.f=b;
    return a;
  }
}

```

(a) the Test30 program



(b) mrefs graph

	escape mfresh	def	IsD	uP	fielduse	sites msites	side
m0	⊥					∅	
e	⊥	RETVAL	false	false	∅	[m2:b = new Object]	OUTSIDE
m1	RETURNED					[m2:b = new Object]	
c	⊥	RETVAL	true	false	∅	[m2:a = new RefObject]	INSIDE
d	RETURNED	FIELD	false	false	∅	[m2:b = new Object]	OUTSIDE
m2	RETURNED					[m2:a = new RefObject]	
a	RETURNED	NEW	false	true	∅	[m2:a = new RefObject]	OUTSIDE
b	⊤	NEW	false	true	[a]	[m2:b = new Object]	OUTSIDE

(c) analysis results

Fig. 6. the Test30 program

Program	Lines	Allocation sites	Analysis time			INSIDE		G&S's analysis <i>stackable</i> variables
			escape	side	total	variables	sites	
bh	1128	41	9.430	23.51	32.481	34	21	23
bisort	340	10	7.876	11.509	19.385	7	7	7
em3d	462	26	8.551	15.706	24.257	13	11	11
health	562	28	8.454	19.414	27.868	18	13	10
mst	473	16	8.106	14.260	22.366	8	8	7
perimeter	745	13	11.357	23.944	35.301	7	7	7
power	765	21	3.628	1.159	4.787	9	9	5
treeadd	195	11	10.876	27.539	38.415	6	6	6
tsp	545	12	11.19	30.201	41.220	7	7	7
voronoi	1000	35	12.778	66.566	79.344	34	20	31

Table 1
Analysis results

3 Empirical results

We have implemented a prototype version of this algorithm using the Soot framework [15] v.2.2.1. Table 1 presents the results of our algorithm on the Jolden benchmarks [3]. The first two columns are the size of the program in lines, and the number of allocation sites. The next three columns present the time spent by our escape analysis, in seconds, not including Soot's phases:

class loading, transformation from bytecode to Jimple (Soot’s three-address stackless code), and transformation into SSA form.

The last three columns give the number of `INSIDE` variables and allocation sites, as computed by our algorithm, and the number of *stackable* variables, as computed by our implementation of G&S’s analysis [11]. Our analysis is more precise than [11] as it subsumes all its rules. That is, all *stackable* variables in the sense of [11] are `INSIDE` variables, but the converse is not true. In our experiments, we did not use any inlining of analyzed code. It is interesting to remark that without inlining, [11] does not find any stackable variable in the programs of figures 5 and 6. As noted in [11], both analyses will benefit from method inlining.

We did not have enough time to use the computed information to actually instrument the benchmarks as described in [9]. We count on doing this soon. Anyway, a preliminary implementation on another test program revealed a gain of 20% of total utilized memory, when using GC together with region-based manager, w.r.t. GC only, even if the actual region-allocated memory is about 5%.

Besides, only a subgraph of the whole call graph has been analyzed for each test case. The subgraph contains all application methods and a subset of library methods transitively invoked by the program. This explains why there are only a few allocation sites. Nevertheless, these results are interesting, because an important fraction of analyzed allocation sites are indeed computed to be captured. Our algorithm is parameterized by the set of classes to be analyzed. This allows the user to fine-tune the analysis trading precision against performance according to specific application behaviors.

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