Object-Oriented Languages

- Object-oriented languages extend imperative languages with:
  1. A classification scheme that allows us to specify is-a as well as has-a relationships. Has-a is supported by Pascal, where we can declare that one data item has another item (a record variable has-a record field). Object-Pascal, Oberon, etc, extends this capability with inheritance which allows us to state that one data item is (an extension of) another item.
  2. Late binding, which allows us to select between different implementations of the same abstract data type at run-time.

Object-Oriented Languages...

- Polymorphism, which is the ability of a variable to store values of different types. OO languages support a special kind of polymorphism, called inclusion polymorphism, that restricts the values that can be stored in a variable of type \( T \) to values of type \( T \) or subtypes of \( T \).
- Data encapsulation. Data (instance variables) and operations (methods) are defined together.
- Templates and objects. A template (class or prototype) describes how to create new objects (instances of abstract data types).

Compiling OO Languages

- Runtime type checking (a variable of type \( \text{ref } T \) may only reference objects of type \( T \) or \( T \)'s subtypes).
- Because of the polymorphic nature of OO languages, we can’t always know (at compile-time) the type of the object that a given variable will refer to at run-time. When we invoke a method we can’t actually know which piece of code we should execute. Finding the right piece of code is called method lookup. It can be done by name (Objective-C) or number (C++).
- Most OO languages rely on dynamic allocation. Garbage collection is a necessary part of the runtime system of a compiler for an OO language (C++ non-withstanding). This requires runtime type description.
Object-Oriented Example

```
TYPE Shape = CLASS
    x, y : REAL;
  METHOD draw(); BEGIN ⋯; END;
  METHOD move(X, Y:REAL); BEGIN x := x+X; END;
END;
TYPE Square = Shape CLASS
    side : REAL;
  METHOD draw(); BEGIN ⋯; END;
END;
TYPE Circle = Shape CLASS
    radius : REAL;
  METHOD draw(); BEGIN ⋯; END;
  METHOD area():REAL; BEGIN ⋯ END;
END;
```

Example in Java

```
// Example in Java
class Shape {
    double x, y;
    void draw(); { ⋯ }
    void move(double X, double Y); {x = x+X; }}
class Square extends Shape {
    double side;
    void draw(); { ⋯} }
class Circle extends Shape {
    double radius;
    void draw(); { ⋯ }
    double area(); { ⋯ }}
```

Example in Modula-3 (A)

```
(* Example in Modula-3 *)
TYPE Shape = OBJECT
    x, y : REAL
  METHODS
    draw() := DefaultDraw; move(X, Y : REAL) := Move;
END;
TYPE Square = Shape OBJECT
    side : REAL
  METHODS
    draw() := SquareDraw
END;
TYPE Circle = Shape OBJECT
    radius : REAL
  METHODS
    draw() := CircleDraw; area() := ComputeArea
END;
```

Example in Modula-3 (B)

```
(* Example in Modula-3 (continued) *)
PROCEDURE Move (Self : Shape; X, Y : REAL) =
    BEGIN ⋯ END Move;
PROCEDURE DefaultDraw (Self : Shape) =
    BEGIN ⋯ END DefaultDraw;
PROCEDURE SquareDraw (Self : Square) =
    BEGIN ⋯ END SquareDraw;
PROCEDURE CircleDraw (Self : Circle) =
    BEGIN ⋯ END CircleDraw;
PROCEDURE ComputeArea (Self : Circle) : REAL =
    BEGIN ⋯ END ComputeArea;
```
Example in Oberon-2

TYPE Shape = RECORD x, y : REAL END;
Square = RECORD (Shape) side : REAL END;
Circle = RECORD (Shape) radius : REAL END;
PROCEDURE (Self : Shape) Move (X, Y : REAL) = BEGIN ... END Move;
PROCEDURE (Self : Shape) DefaultDraw () = BEGIN ... END DefaultDraw;
PROCEDURE (Self : Square) SquareDraw () = BEGIN ... END SquareDraw;
PROCEDURE (Self : Circle) CircleDraw () = BEGIN ... END CircleDraw;
PROCEDURE (Self : Circle) ComputeArea () : REAL = BEGIN ... END ComputeArea;

Record Layout

Single inheritance is implemented by *concatenation*, i.e. the instance variables of class C are
1. the variables of C’s supertype, followed by
2. the variables that C declares itself.

The offsets of the variables that C inherits from its supertype will be the same as in the supertype itself.

In this example, C3 inherits from C2 which inherits from C1.

C3 will have the fields from C1 followed by the fields from C2 followed by C3’s own fields. The order is significant.
Record Layout...

An OO language compiler would translate the declarations in the previous slide into something similar to this:

```
TYPE Shape = POINTER TO RECORD
  x, y: REAL;
END;
TYPE Square = POINTER TO RECORD
  x, y: REAL;
  side: REAL;
END;
TYPE Circle = POINTER TO RECORD
  x, y: REAL;
  radius: REAL;
END;
VAR S: Shape; Q: Square; C: Circle;
```

Class Templates

To support late binding, runtime typechecking, etc, each class is represented by a template at runtime. Each template has pointers to the class' methods and supertype.

```
Square's x, y fields are inherited from Shape. Their offsets are the same as in Shape.

TYPE $TemplateT = POINTER TO RECORD
  parent : $TemplateT;
  move : ADDRESS;
  draw : ADDRESS;
END;
TYPE Square = POINTER TO RECORD
  $template : $TemplateT;
  x, y : REAL;
  side : REAL;
END;
CONST Square$Template:$TemplateT = [ parent= ADDR(Shape$Template);
  move = ADDR(Shape$move);
  draw = ADDR(Square$draw); ];
```

Class Templates...

Each method is a procedure with an extra argument (SELF), a pointer to the object through which the method was invoked.

```
TYPE Shape = CLASS
  x, y : REAL;
METHOD draw (); BEGIN · · ·;
METHOD move (X, Y : REAL);
  BEGIN x := x + X; · · · END;
END;
PROCEDURE Shape$move (SELF : Shape; X,Y : REAL);
BEGIN
  SELF^.x := SELF^.x + X;
  SELF^.y := SELF^.y + X;
END;
```
Method Invocation

Sending the message `draw` to `Q`:
1. Get `Q`'s template, `T`.
2. Get `draw`'s address at offset 4 in `T`.
3. Jump to `draw`'s address, with `Q` as the first argument.

Exam Problem

In the following object-oriented program
- "TYPE U = T CLASS" means that `U` inherits from `T`.
- `NEW T` means that a new object of type `T` is created.
- All methods are *virtual*, i.e. a method in a subclass overrides a method with the same name in a superclass.

```plaintext
PROGRAM X;
  TYPE T = CLASS [ v : INTEGER; c : CHAR;
    METHOD P (x:INTEGER); BEGIN · · · END P;
    METHOD Q (x:CHAR); BEGIN · · · END Q; ];
  TYPE U = T CLASS [ x : REAL; k : INTEGER;
    METHOD R(x:INTEGER); BEGIN · · · END R;
    METHOD Q(r:REAL); BEGIN · · · END Q; ];
  VAR t : T; u : U;
BEGIN
  t := NEW T; u := NEW U;
END
```

1. Draw a figure that describes the state of the program at point ◊. It should have one element for each item stored in memory (i.e. global/heap variables, templates, method object code, etc.) and should explicitly describe what each pointer points to.
Readings and References

- Read Scott: 467–489, 497–504

Summary

For single inheritance languages, an instance of a class $C$ consists of (in order):
1. A pointer to $C$’s template.
2. The instance variables of $C$’s ancestors.
3. $C$’s instance variables.

For single inheritance languages, subtype checks can be done in $O(1)$ time.
Method invocation is transformed to an indirect call through the template.
If we can determine the exact type of an object variable at compile time, then method invocations through that variable can be turned into “normal” procedure calls.

Summary...

A template for class $C$ consists of (in order):
1. A pointer to the template of $C$’s parent.
2. The method addresses of $C$’s ancestors.
3. Addresses of $C$’s methods.
4. Other information needed by the runtime system, such as
   - The size of a $C$ instance.
   - $C$’s pre- and postorder numbers, if the $O(1)$ subtype test algorithm is used.
   - $C$’s type code.
   - A type description of $C$’s instance variables. Needed by the garbage collector.

Confused Student Email

What happens when both a class and its subclass have an instance variable with the same name?

The subclass gets both variables. You can get at both of them, directly or by casting. Here’s an example in Java:

```java
class C1 {int a;}
class C2 extends C1 {double a;}
class C {
    static public void main(String[] arg) {
        C1 x = new C1(); C2 y = new C2();
        x.a = 5; y.a = 5.5;
        ((C1)y).a = 5;
    }
}
```