# Chapter 13

# Implementing the Object-Oriented Paradigm

In this chapter we will discuss some of the difficulties involved in implementing those features of Leda that are relevant to the object-oriented paradigm.

## 13.1 Memory Layout

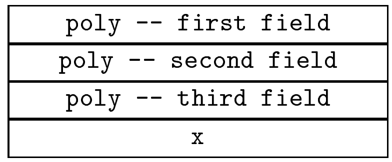
In Chapter 10 we introduced the concept of a polymorphic variable. That is, in an object-oriented language it is possible to declare a variable which can hold a number of different types of values over the course of execution. The only limiting restriction in this regard is that all such values must be instances of classes which inherit from a single common ancestor class, which must be the class used in the declaration of the polymorphic variable. In Chapter 12 we discussed some of the many uses for such values.

The presence of polymorphic variables introduces a number of interesting problems for the language implementor, problems which are not found in the implementation of more conventional languages. The first such difficulty we will consider is concerned with the allocation of memory space for variables and for values.

In a conventional language, variables are allocated a fixed amount of space in a fixed location in memory, or in a fixed location in a block of memory called an *activation record* that is allocated once at the beginning of a function invocation, and released when a function terminates.

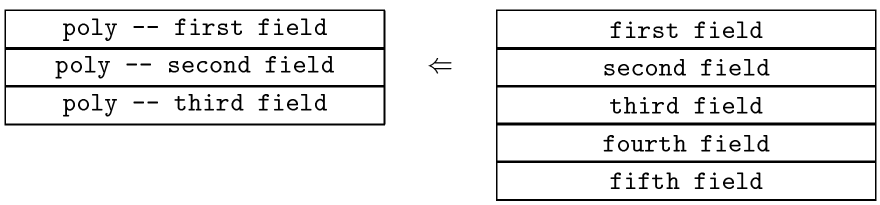
Suppose, for example, that we imagine a function which uses one local integer variable named `x`, and also declares one local variable named `poly` which is a record containing three integer data fields. An activation record for such a procedure might look as follows:[1]

[1]In practice activation records also contain space for parameter values, and for various "bookkeeping"

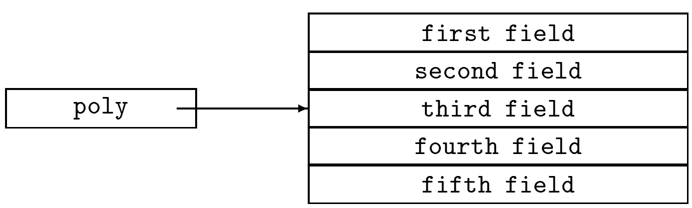



Now imagine that `poly` is not a simple record structure, but is instead a polymorphic variable declared as being an instance of a class which defines three integer data fields. The defining characteristic of polymorphic variables was that they can hold *values* that were generated from subclasses. So next imagine that a subclass of the class from which `poly` was declared defines two additional integer data fields, and that an attempt is made to assign a value generated by this subclass to the variable `poly`.

The value on the right of the assignment contains five integer data fields. The memory allocated to `poly` contains space only for three integer data fields. Simply put, the problem is that we are trying to store more information into a fixed size box than it can hold:




The solution in Leda is to eliminate altogether the idea that a variable defines a fixed size box.[2] Instead, all variables are in reality pointers. When a value is assigned to a variable, only this pointer field is changed. The value to which it points can then be any size whatsoever, with no limitations being imposed at compile time.




Unfortunately, a negative consequence of this decision is that it naturally leads to the pointer semantics for assignment which, as we noted at the beginning of Chapter 10, can occasionally be somewhat confusing.

values, such as return address fields. These details are unimportant for our discussion here.

[2]Note that this is not the only solution. The language C++, for example, takes an entirely different approach, simply slicing off the extra fields during assignment.

## 13.2 Dynamic Allocation

It is common that a value can be created and bound to a variable in a way that ensures the value will outlive the context in which it is created. This can occur, for example, if a value is assigned to a variable from a surrounding context. To illustrate, consider the following program, which uses the functional version of the list abstraction from Chapter 4:

```
var
    aList : List[integer];

    function escape ();
    begin
        aList := List[integer](17, emptyList);
    end;
```

The value created inside the function `escape` must exist even after the function has returned. It is for this reason that very few values created in Leda can be allocated in a stack-like fashion, as is common in languages such as Pascal or C. Instead, all values in Leda are dynamically allocated on a heap, and must be reclaimed by a memory management mechanism, such as a garbage collection system.

## 13.3 Class Pointers

An important property of polymorphic variables is that the selection of which of many possible versions of an overridden function to invoke in any particular situation depends upon the actual, run-time or *dynamic* type held by such a variable, and not on the defined, or *static* type with which it was declared. Thus, it is a requirement of all object-oriented languages that all such values possess at least a rudimentary form of "self-knowledge" concerning their own type, and be able to use this knowledge in the selection of a function to execute.

In Leda this self-knowledge is embodied in a data field that declared in class `object`, and thus is common to all objects (see Figure 13.1). This field is declared as an instance of class `Class`. Class `Class` maintains information specific to each defined class. In particular, this information includes the name of the class as a string, the number of data fields defined in each class (that is, the size of each instance), and a pointer to the parent class.

The method `isInstance` takes as argument a value, and returns true if the value is an instance of a given class (either directly or through inheritance). To do this, the function makes use of the relational operators, which have been redefined to indicate the class-subclass relationship. The less-than operator takes two classes, and returns true if the parent class of the left argument, or any ancestor of this parent, is the same as the right argument. The default meaning of the equality operator indicates whether the two arguments (that is,

```
class object;
var
    classPtr : Class;    { pointer describing object }

    ...
end;

class Class of ordered[Class];
var
    name : string;
    size : integer;
    parent : Class;

    function asString()->string;
    begin
        return name;
    end;

    function less (arg : Class)->boolean;
    begin
        if self == arg then    { equal, not less }
            return false;
        if parent == arg then
            return true;
        return parent <> self & parent < arg;
    end;

    function isInstance (val : object)->boolean;
    begin
        return val.classPtr <= self;
    end;
end;

function typeTest [T : object] (val : object, aClass : Class)->T;
begin
    if aClass.isInstance(val) then
        return cfunction Leda_object_cast(val)->T;
    return NIL;
end;
```

Figure 13.1: The class pointer and the class `Class`

two classes) are identically the same. As we saw in Chapter 12, the remaining relational operators are all defined in terms of these two functions.

The function `isInstance` uses the ability to do relational tests on classes in order to determine if an argument value is an instance of the receiver class. The `isInstance` function is utilized in one of the more unusual functions provided as part of the standard run-time library. This function is named `typeTest`, and is used to perform "reverse polymorphism"; that is, to take a value declared as holding an instance of a parent class, and determine whether or not it is, in fact, maintaining a value generated from a given child class. The `cfunction` invoked to perform the type conversion in this situation performs no action, and merely serves to foil the type checking mechanism. If the argument value is not an instance of the given class, then the undefined value `NIL` is returned.

## 13.4 Subclasses as Extensions

Data fields defined within a class in Leda are handled in a similar fashion to data fields in records in languages such as Pascal or C. That is, the data fields are simply catenated together in a contiguous fashion in memory, end to end, to yield a block of values which together constitute the state of the object. For example, suppose an object represents an instance of a class `A` in which are defined three data values, `x`, `y` and `z`. We can imagine `A` looking something like the following:

| |
|---|
| classPtr |
| x |
| y |
| z |

An important feature of subclassing is that a child class strictly extends the number of data fields held by each instance, never decreases this size. Furthermore, and just as importantly, we can arrange so that the location of each field inherited from a parent class is found in the same location relative to the start of the object, regardless of the class from which the instance was generated. That is, suppose we now imagine a subclass of `A` named `B` which defines three new data fields `p`, `q` and `r`, and a second subclass of `A` named `C` which defines two fields `m` and `n`. A value from each of these classes can be imagined as looking something like the following:

| *instance of A* | *instance of B* | *instance of C* |
|---|---|---|
| `classPtr` | `classPtr` | `classPtr` |
| `x` | `x` | `x` |
| `y` | `y` | `y` |
| `z` | `z` | `z` |
| | `p` | `m` |
| | `q` | `n` |
| | `r` | |

It is because the location of the inherited data fields are known to be fixed, regardless of the class from which the items were generated, that the compiler is able to produce code for functions defined in the parent classes. That is, class `A` can define functions which manipulate the three values `x`, `y` and `z`. These functions will continue to operate even if they are manipulating an instance of `B` or `C`, instead of an instance of class `A`.

## 13.5 Virtual Dispatch Tables

A feature similar to the extension of subclass data areas from the data areas generated by parent classes is involved in the technique used to implement the mechanism of function overriding. The actual representation of an instance of class `Class` includes more than simply the data fields defined in that class, but is extended to include, as well, fields containing pointers to functions which are implemented in the given class. That is, the instance of class `Class` containing information about the class `boolean` in the standard library looks something like the following:

| |
|---|
| `classPtr` |
| `name = "boolean"` |
| `size = 2` |
| `parent = equality[boolean]` |
| `object.asString` |
| `object.sameAs` |
| `object.notSameAs` |
| `equality.equals` |
| `equality.notEquals` |
| `boolean.not` |
| `boolean.or` |
| `boolean.and` |

The data fields `classPtr`, `name`, `size`, and `parent` are generated by the variable declarations in class `object` and `boolean`. The remaining fields do not contain data values, but pointers to functions. The first three are pointers to functions implemented in class `object`, the next two are derived from functions defined in class `equality`, while the last three are associated with functions in class `boolean`. This table of functions is traditionally known as a *virtual dispatch table* (This is because in other object-oriented languages overridden functions are described as "virtual", and the table is used to dispatch execution on such functions.)

Subclasses can inherit functions, they can override existing functions, and they can implement new functions. The class `True`, for example, inherits a number of functions from class `boolean`, and overrides four. The virtual dispatch table generated for this class would look as follows:

| |
|---|
| classPtr |
| name = "True" |
| size = 2 |
| parent = boolean |
| True.asString |
| object.sameAs |
| object.notSameAs |
| equality.equals |
| equality.notEquals |
| True.not |
| True.or |
| True.and |

There are several features to note. The first is that inherited and overridden functions are found in the same location in both the table generated for class `boolean` and that generated for class `True`. In exactly the same way that the common location of data areas permits a compiler to generate code that will work for any data value derived from a given class, the same feature in the class table means that to invoke an inherited function it is simply sufficient to execute the function found at a fixed location in the class table. Furthermore, to override a function it is sufficient to simply replace the pointer in the class table with the pointer to the new function. All functions that are not so replaced are then inherited without change.

An invocation of a function inherited in a class structure is converted, using this mechanism, into an invocation of the function found by indexing the virtual dispatch table by a fixed amount that can be determined at compile time. For example, to produce the printable representation of a value the dispatch table is indexed into location 4 (index values start at zero). The function found there will be the operation appropriate for the value being manipulated, whether the value is a boolean, an integer, a string, or any other type. Note that in each of these cases a different function will be invoked, as each class overrides the method `asString` in a different manner.

## Notes and Bibliography

I discuss a variety of different implementation techniques for object-oriented languages in more detail in my earlier book on object-oriented programming [Budd 91b]. Other explanations can be found in [Cox 86, Ellis 90].

Many object-oriented languages include a feature called "multiple inheritance" with which a class can inherit features from two or more parent classes. There are three reasons why I have not included this feature in Leda. The first is that the semantics of multiple inheritance are not at all clear in all situations (see [Budd 91b] or [Sakkinen 92] for a fuller discussion of this point). The second is that in practice programs that use multiple inheritance can usually be replaced by programs that use single inheritance that are just as concise and clear, if not more so, than their multiple counterparts. Finally, the implementation of multiple inheritance is considerably more difficult than the implementation of single inheritance. In single inheritance, the initial portion of a class always has the same structure as the structure of its parent from which it inherits features. But if a class inherits from two or more classes, its initial portion can match the structure of one or the other parent, but cannot match both.