Object-Oriented Languages

Chapter 9

Classes

A class is a blueprint for creating objects

```
class Rectangle {
    public double height, width;
    public double area() {
        return height * width;
    }
}
```

- This is Java code; the equivalent C++ code is very similar
- Class members: methods and fields

Objects

- The central concept of object-oriented programming
- In C++ and Java, they are instances of classes, created through new
 - E.g., when expression new Rectangle() is evaluated, a new object of class Rectangle is created and initialized
 - "instance" = "object"
 - "class X is instantiated" = "an instance of X is created"

References in Java/Pointers in C++

 Objects are manipulated indirectly through object references (pointers)

- x is a variable of type "reference to Rectangle objects"
- C++: Rectangle* x; x = new Rectangle();
 - x is a variable of type "pointer to Rectangle objects"

Creation of Objects

- During the evaluation of x = new Rectangle()
 - A new instance (object) of class Rectangle is created on the heap
 - A reference (pointer) to this instance is produced
 - This is the result of evaluating the new expression
 - The appropriate constructor of the class is called to initialize the new object
 - x is assigned this reference (pointer) value
 - e.g. the value may be the address of the first byte of the object's memory
 - or the value may be some internal handle to the actual object (e.g., index in some internal table, which itself contains the address of the first byte)

Destruction of Objects

- C++: each new must have a corresponding delete
 x = new Rectangle(); ... delete x;
- Java: dead objects are reclaimed automatically by a garbage collector (GC)
 - x = new Rectangle(); // after you stop using the object, GC may figure out it is dead
- C++ destructors: called when the programmer manually destroys the object with delete
 - class Rectangle { ... ~Rectangle() {...} // destructor }
- Java finalizers: called when the object is collected
 - class Rectangle { ... void finalize() {...} // finalizer }

Members: Fields and Methods

- Two separate kinds: instance members and static members
 - Instance members: each instance of the class has a separate copy of this member

```
Rectangle a, b, c;

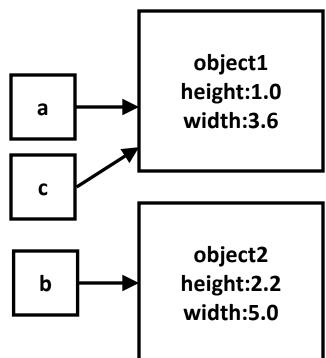
a = new Rectangle();

b = new Rectangle();

a.height = 1.0; a.width = 3.6;

b.height = 2.2; b.width = 5.0;

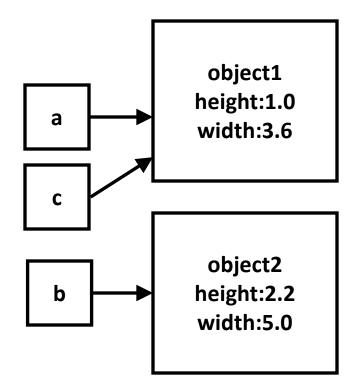
c = a;
```



Members: Fields and Methods (C++)

- C++: x->f is shorthand (syntactic sugar) for (*x).f
 - Expression x evaluates to pointer value that points to the object; expression *x evaluates to the actual object; *x->f evaluates to the field f of that object (f is not static – why?)

```
Rectangle *a, *b, *c;
a = new Rectangle();
b = new Rectangle();
a->height = 1.0; a->width = 3.6;
b->height = 2.2; b->width = 5.0;
c = a;
```



Instance Methods

- An instance method operates on objects
- Method m is invoked on the object double area() { return height*width;}

in reality, this is syntactic sugar for

```
double area(Rectangle this) { // Java
    return this.height * this.width; }
double area(Rectangle* this) { // C++
    return this->height * this->width; }
```

- There is an implicit formal parameter this: a reference to the object on which the method was invoked
 - Calls x.area() and x->area() are, in essence, calls area(x)

Methods Calls

 Calling an instance method: there is an object on which we are calling it

```
- x.m() in Java, x->m() in C++
```

```
Rectangle *a, *b, *c;

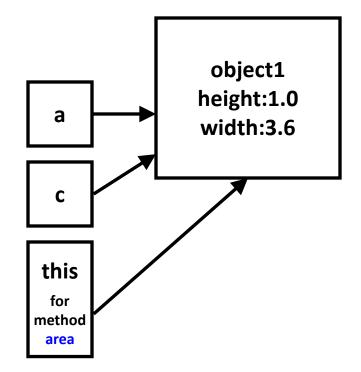
a = new Rectangle();

a->height = 1.0;

a->width = 3.6;

c = a;

double result = c->area();
```



Method Overloading (Java)

- A class may have more than one method with the same name
 - the name is "overloaded"
- All overloaded methods must have different signatures
 - Signature: method name + types of formal parameters
- double area() { ... } → signature area()
- double area(int precision) { ... } → signature area(int)

Constructors

 Constructors are used to set up the initial state of new objects

```
public Rectangle(double height, double width) {
    this.height = height; this.width=width; }
```

- x = new Rectangle(1.1, 2.3);
 - A new object is created: with default values 0.0 in Java, and undefined values in C++
 - The constructor is invoked on this object; the fields are initialized with 1.1 and 2.3
 - A reference to the object is assigned to x

Inheritance

- class B extends A { ... }
 - Single inheritance: only one superclass (Java)
- class B : public A1, A2, A3 { ... }
 - Multiple inheritance: several superclasses (C++)
- Every member of A is inherited by B
 - If a field f is defined in A, every object of class B has an f field
 - If a method m is defined in A, this method can be invoked on an object of class B
- B may declare new members

Example

```
class Rectangle {
 private double height, width;
 public Rectangle(double h, double w) { ... }
 public double getHeight() { return height; }
 public double getWidth() { return width; }
 public double area() { ... } }
class SwissRectangle extends Rectangle {
 private int hole_size;
 public SwissRectangle(double h, double w, int hs) { ... }
 public void shrinkHole() { hole_size--; }
 public double area() { ... } // overridden }
```

Constructors and Inheritance

- Constructors are not inherited
- A constructor in a subclass B must invoke a constructor in the superclass A
 - (this is a bit of an oversimplification)
- The constructor of superclass A initializes the part of the "object state" that is declared in A
 - Sets up values for fields declared in A and inherited by the subclasses

Inheritance of Methods

- If a subclass declares a method with the same name but a different signature, we have overloading
 - Either method can be invoked on an instance of the subclass
- If a subclass declares a method with the same signature, we have overriding
 - Only the new method applies to instances of the subclass

Polymorphism of References

- Reference variables for A objects also may points to B objects
 - -Ax = new B() in Java; A*x = new B() in C++
- Simplistic view: the type of x is pointer (reference) to instances of A
- Correct view: pointer to instances of A or instances of any subclass of A
 - If C is a subclass of B, variable x can also point to instances of C
 - Poly (many) morph (form) ism

Method Invocation – Compile Time

- What happens when we have a method invocation of the form x.m(a,b)?
- Two very different things are done
 - At compile time, by the Java compiler (javac)
 - At run time, by the Java Virtual Machine
- At compile time, a target method is associated with the invocation expression
 - Terms: compile-time target, static target
 - The static target is based on the declared type of x

Method Invocation – Compile Time

```
class A { void m(int p, int q) {...} ... }
class B extends A { void m(int r, int s) {...} ... }
A x;
x = new B();
x.m(1,2);
```

- Since x has declared type A, the compile-time target is method m in class A
- javac encodes this in the bytecode (classname.class)
 - virtualinvoke x,<A: void m(int,int)>

Method Invocation – Run Time

- The Java virtual machine loads the bytecode and starts executing it
- When it tries to execute instruction virtualinvoke x,<A: void m(int,int)>
 - Looks at the class Z of the object referenced by x
 - Searches Z for a method with signature m(int,int) and return type void
 - If Z does not have it, goes to Z's superclass, and so on upwards, until a match is found

Method Invocation – Run Time

- The run-time (dynamic) target: "lowest" method that matches the signature and the return type of the static target method
 - "Lowest" with respect to the inheritance chain from Z to java.lang.Object
- Once the JVM determines the run-time target method, it invokes it on the object that is referenced by x
- Terms: virtual dispatch, method lookup

Virtual Methods in C++

- Since x has declared type A*, the compile-time target is method m in class A
- The run-time target is m in B
 - Without the keyword virtual, the run-time target will be the same as the compile-time target

Terminology

- Invocation x.m(a,b) "sends a message m" to the object referenced by x
 - This object is the receiver object
 - The method that contains call x.m(a,b) belongs to the sender object
- Dynamic binding of the message/call (virtual dispatch): mapping the message (i.e., the call) to a method
- Polymorphic call: more than one possible runtime target

Abstract Classes and Methods

- Abstract class: instances of it cannot be created
 - Only instances of its subclasses
- Abstract methods
 - No code: just name, parameter types, and return type
 - Abstract methods must be overridden in subclasses, by concrete methods
 - "concrete" = "non-abstract"

Abstract Classes

- Abstract class: class that contains abstract methods
 - abstract void m(int x); // Java
 - virtual void m(int x) = 0; // C++
- We cannot say new X() if X is abstract. Why?
- An abstract method can be the compile-time target of a method call
 - But not the run-time target, obviously
- Sometimes non-abstract classes are referred to as "concrete classes"

Interfaces in Java

- Very similar to abstract classes in which <u>all</u> methods are abstract
- A Java class has only one superclass, but can implement many interfaces
 - class Y extends X implements A, B { ... }
- A reference variable can be of interface type, and can refer to any instance of a class that implements the interface
- An interface method can be the compile-time target of a method call

Example

```
interface X { void m(); } -
interface Y { void n(); }
abstract class A implements X {
      void m() { ... }
      abstract void m2();
class B extends A implements Y {
      void m2() { ... }
      void n() {...}
X x = new B(); x.m();
Y y = new B(); y.n();
                                       compile-time
A = new B(); a.m2();
                                       targets
```

Static Methods and Fields

- Static field: a single copy for the entire class
- Static method: not invoked on an object
 - Just like a regular procedure (function) in a procedural language (e.g., C, Pascal, etc.)
- Terminology
 - static method/field = class method/field
 - instance method/field = non-static method/field

```
Classic Example (Java)
class X { ...
      private static int num = 0;
      // constructor
      public X() { num++; }
      public static int numInstances()
            { return num; }
in main:
X x1 = new X(); X x2 = new X();
                               returns 2
int n = X.numInstances();
```

```
Classic Example (C++)
class X { ...
      private: static int num;
      public: X();
      public: static int numInstances();
int X::num = 0;
X::X() { num++; }
int X::numInstances() { return num; }
in main:
X^* x1 = new X; X^* x2 = new X;
int num = X::numInstances(); returns 2
```

```
Example: Singleton Pattern (Java)
class Logger {
  private Logger() { }
 private static Logger instance = null;
  public static Logger getInstance() {
      if (instance == null)
            instance = new Logger();
      return instance;
client code: Logger.getInstance().writeLog(...)
```

Objects in C++: Pointers vs. Values

```
main() { ...
     Rectangle* x; // Pointer variable on the call stack
     x = new Rectangle(2.3,7.8); // New object on the heap
     Rectangle y(4.5,0.1); // Object variable on the call stack
    // y's constructor called when execution reaches the declaration
    double z = f(x,y);
    // y's destructor called at the end of the method
double f(Rectangle* a, Rectangle b) {
    // a: Pointer variable on the call stack
    // b: Object variable on the call stack
    // Parameter passing: the copy constructor of b is called
    // Equivalent to a call b.Rectangle(y)
     return a->width + b.height;
```

- A default copy constructor provided by the compiler: copies field-by-field
- The programmer may choose to implement her own copy constructor
 - Rectangle(Rectangle& other) { ... }

Implementation Techniques for Java

- The compiler takes as input source code
 - Oracle/Sun provides a standard compiler; others can build their own compilers if they want
 - Typically, class A is stored in file A.java
 - Exception: nested classes
- Compiler output: Java bytecode
 - A.java -> A.class
 - A standardized platform-independent representation of Java code
 - Essentially, a programming language that is understood by the Java Virtual Machine

Rectangle.class

```
class Rectangle extends java.lang.Object {
  public double height; public double width;
  Rectangle();
  public double area();
Rectangle()
 0 aload 0
 1 invokespecial #3 <Method java.lang.Object()>
 4 return
double area()
 0 aload_0
 1 getfield #4 <Field double height>
 4 aload 0
 5 getfield #5 <Field double width>
 8 dmul
 9 dreturn
```

Execution Model

- Java bytecode is executed by a Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
 - Oracle/Sun provides several kinds of JVMs for various platforms (e.g., Solaris, Wintel, etc.)
 - Several other vendors for JVMs
 - E.g., IBM sells a JVM that is performance-tuned for enterprise server applications
- Platform independence: as long as there are JVMs available, the exact same Java bytecode can be executed anywhere

JVM

- There are two ways to execute the bytecode
- Interpretation: the VM just executes each bytecode instruction itself
 - Initial JVMs used this model
- Compilation: the VM uses its own internal compiler to translate bytecode to native code for the platform
 - The native code is executed by the platform
 - Faster than interpretation

Compilation Inside a VM

- Just-in-time: the first time some bytecode needs to be executed, it is compiled to native code on the fly
 - Typically done at method level: the first time a method is invoked, the compiler kicks in
 - Problems: compilation has overhead, and the overall running time may actually increase
- Profile-driven compilation
 - Start executing through interpretation, but track "hot spots" (e.g., frequently executed methods), and after a certain threshold is reached, point compile them

Lifetimes and Memory Management

- Static allocation: address determined once and retained throughout the execution of the program
 - E.g., static fields in C++, Java
- Stack-based allocation: local variables of methods, plus the formal parameters (incl. this)
- Heap-based allocation: space allocated and deallocated manually by the programmer
 - C: A* a = (A*) malloc(sizeof(A)); ... free (a);
 - C++: A* a = new A(); ... delete a;
 - Java: A a = new A(); but deallocation is done automatically, through garbage collection

Garbage Collection

- Slides based on course materials by Prof. Kathryn McKinley, UT Austin and Microsoft Research
- Explicit (manual) memory management
 - More code to maintain
 - Correctness
 - Free an object too soon crash
 - Free an object too late waste space
 - Never free at best waste, at worst fail
 - Efficiency can be very high
 - Gives programmers more control over the run-time behavior of the program

Garbage Collection

- Automatic management through garbage collection
 - Reduces programmer burden: less user code compared to manual memory management
 - Eliminates sources of errors
 - Less user code to get correct
 - Protects against some classes of memory errors: no free(), thus no premature free(), no double free(), or forgetting to free()
 - Not perfect, memory can still leak
 - Programmers still need to eliminate all pointers to objects the program no longer needs
 - Integral to modern object-oriented languages
 - Java, C#, PHP, JavaScript
 - Mainstream
 - Challenge: performance

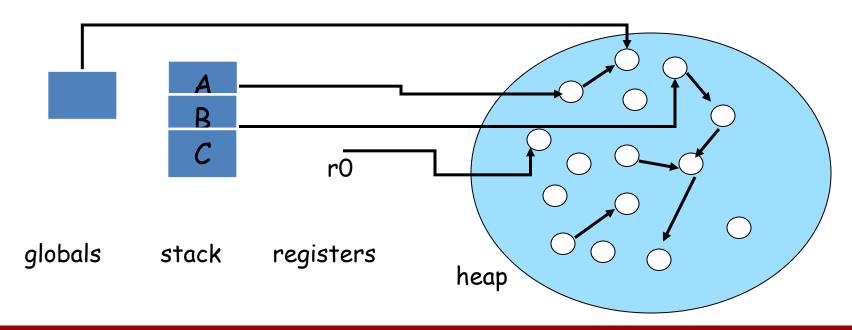
Key Issues

- For both mechanisms
 - Fast allocation
 - Fast reclamation
 - Low fragmentation (wasted space)
 - How to organize the memory space
- Garbage collection
 - Discriminating live objects and garbage
 - Live object will be used in the future
 - Prove that object is not live (i.e., dead), and deallocate it
 - Deallocate as soon as possible after last use

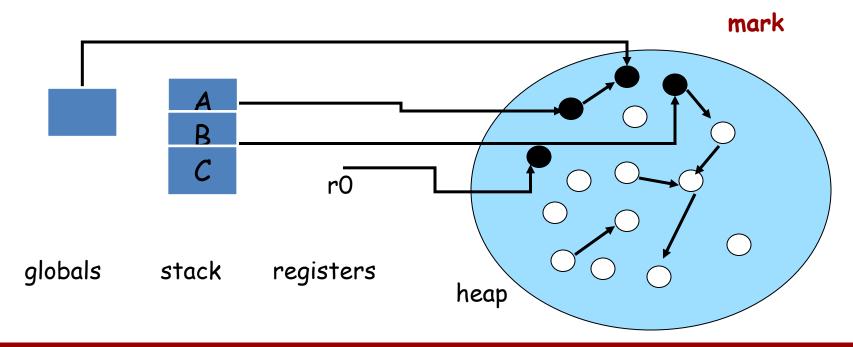
What is Garbage?

- In theory, any object the program will never reference again
 - But compiler & runtime system cannot figure that out
- In practice, any object the program cannot reach is garbage
 - Approximate liveness with reachability
- Managed languages couple GC with "safe" pointers
 - Programs may not access arbitrary addresses in memory (e.g., Java/C# vs. C/C++)
 - The compiler can identify and provide to the garbage collector all the pointers, thus enforcing "Once garbage, always garbage"
 - Runtime system can move objects by updating pointers

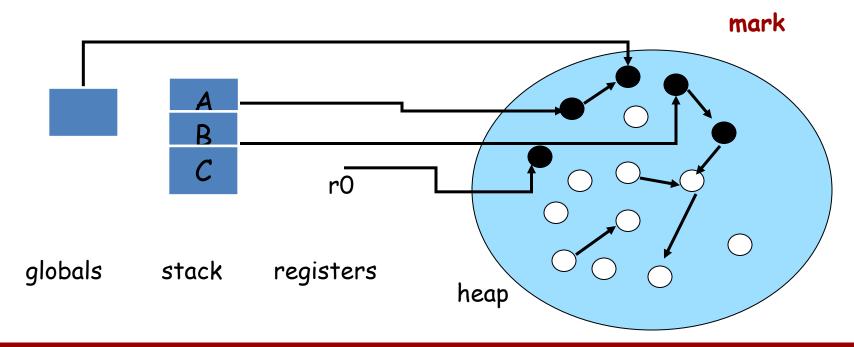
- The runtime memory management system examines all global variables, stack variables, and live registers that could refer to objects on the heap (i.e., the roots of reachability)
- We can trace these pointers through the heap (following object fields that themselves point to heap objects) to find all reachable objects



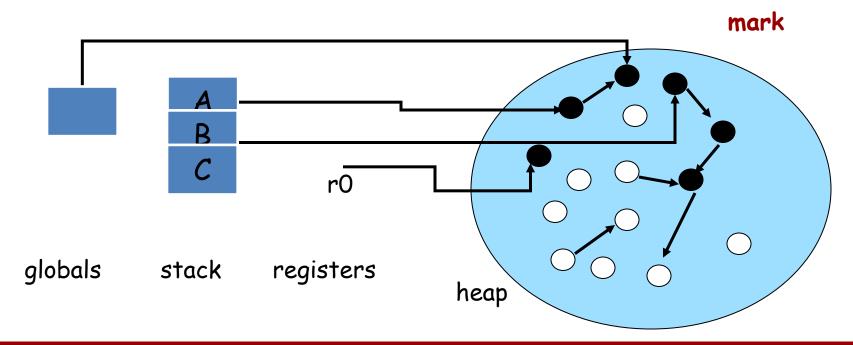
- Tracing collector
 - Marks the objects reachable from the roots as live objects, and then performs a reachability computation from them



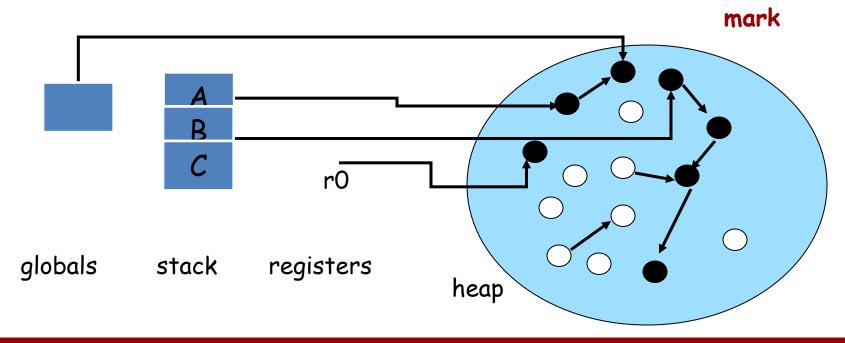
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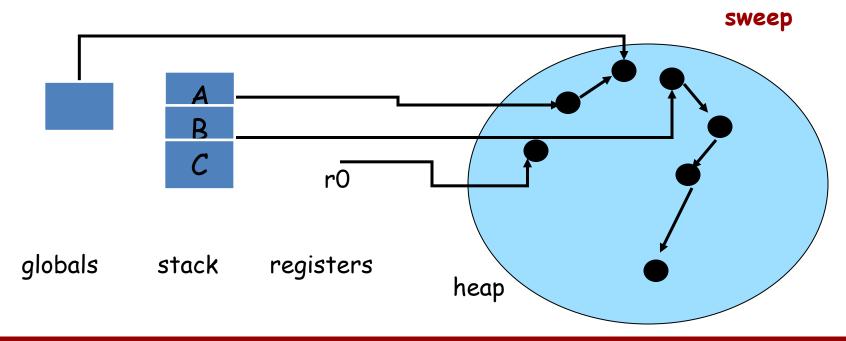
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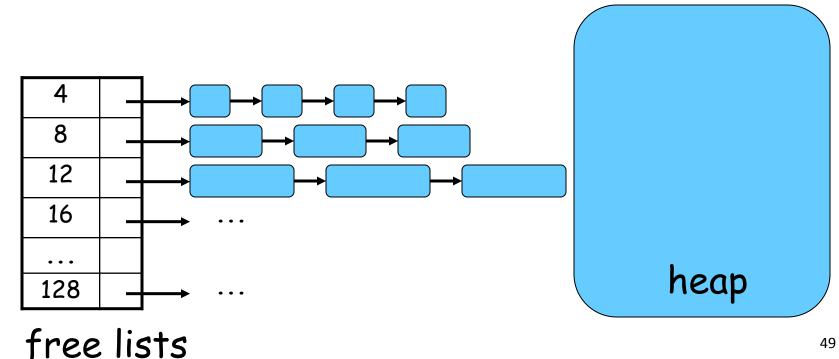
- Tracing collector
 - Marks the objects reachable from the roots as live objects, and then performs a reachability computation from them
- All unmarked objects are dead



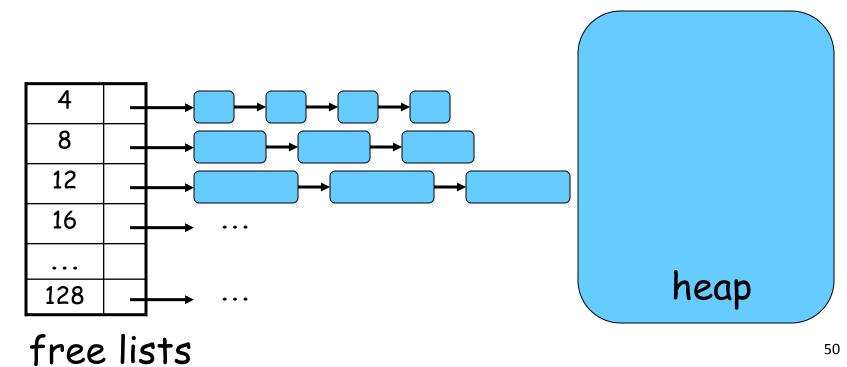
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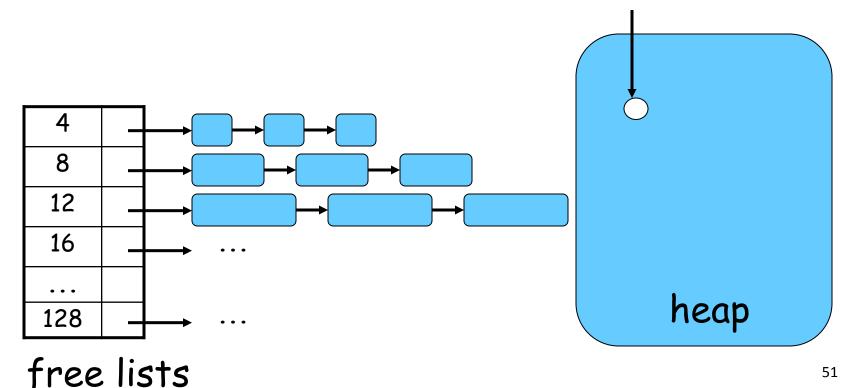
- Free-lists organized by size
 - blocks of same size, or
 - individual objects of same size
- Most objects are small < 128 bytes



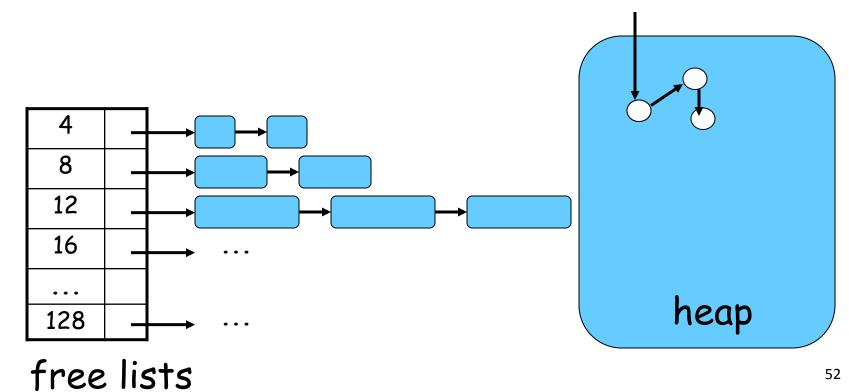
- Allocation
 - Grab a free object off the free list



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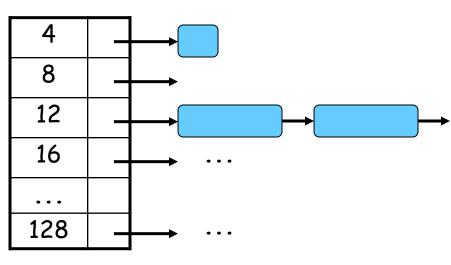


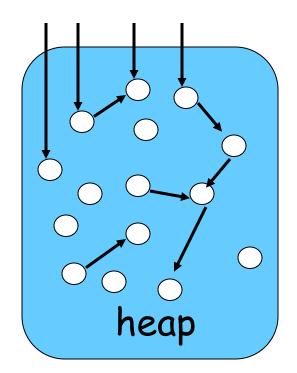
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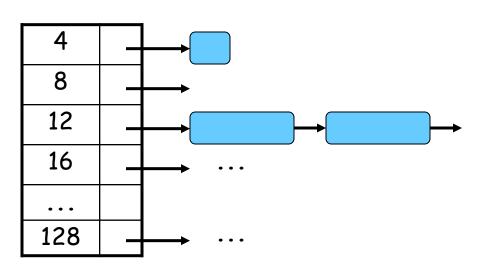
Allocation

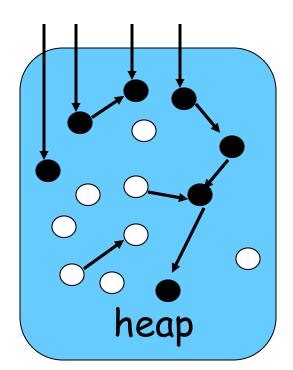
- Grab a free object off the free list
- If there is no more memory of the right size, a garbage collection is triggered
- Mark phase find the live objects
- Sweep phase put free ones on the free list



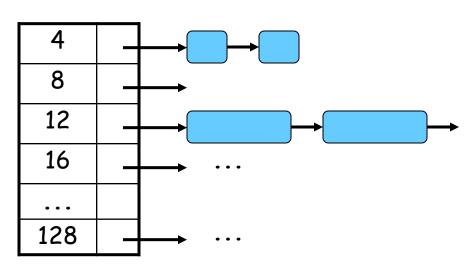


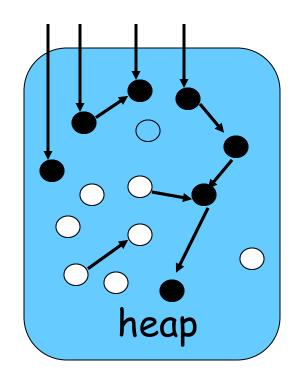
- Mark phase
 - Reachability computation on the heap, marking all live objects
- Sweep phase
 - Sweep the memory for free objects, and populate the free lists



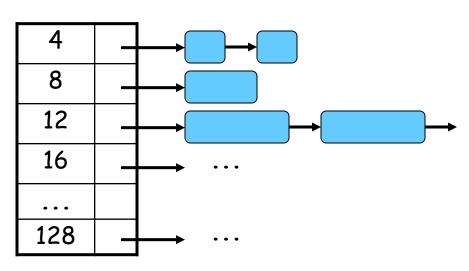


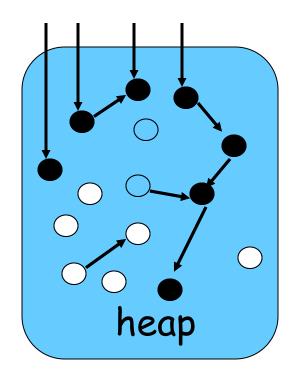
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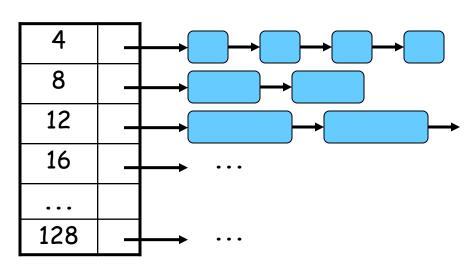


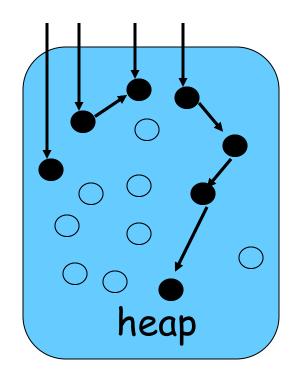
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The Big Picture

Heap organization; basic algorithmic components

Allocation Identification Reclamation Sweep-to-Free Tracing Free List (implicit) Compact Evacuate Reference Counting **Bump Allocation** (explicit)