

## IR Code Generation (Part II)

Object-oriented language issues.

- *Classes and Objects*
  - *Storage allocation*
  - *Static class variables*
  - *Dynamic class variables*
- *Method Invocations*
  - *Static methods*
  - *Static-binding methods*
  - *Dynamic-binding methods*
  - *MINI's method invocation*
- *Others*
  - *Local variables and parameters*
  - *Non-local (class) variables*
  - *Activation record size*
  - *This pointer*
- *Advanced Topics*
  - *Multiple inheritance*
  - *Membership testing*

## Storage Allocation for Class Objects

*Observations:*

- Static class variables are established per class; they should be allocated to a single static place
- Dynamic class variables are cloned every time a class object is created; they should be stored in the allocated space for the object.

*General Strategies:*

- A *class descriptor* for each class —
  - pointer(s) to parent class descriptor(s)
  - pointers to (local) methods
  - storage for static variables

Alternatively, these items can be allocated individually with proper IDs attached to indicate their association to the class, e.g. using class name as a prefix.

- An *object record* for each class object —
  - pointer to class descriptor
  - storage for (local) class variables
  - storage for inherited variables

## Object Record Layout

An object record contains space not only for variables belong to *this* class, but also for variables belong to ancestor classes.

How should the variables be laid out so that their offsets can be computed statically by the compiler? For *single-inheritance* languages, we have a solution.

*The Prefixing Method:*

*When a class B extends a class A, those variables of B that are inherited from A are laid out in a B record at the beginning, in the same order they appear in an A record.*

Since a subclass always extends the set of variables defined in its base class, compiler can consistently assign each variable a *fixed (static) offset* in the object record; this offset will be the same in every object record for that class and any of its subclasses.

Compiled methods can then reference variables by offset rather than by name.

## An Example

```
class A { int i=1, j=2; }
class B extends A { int m=3, n=4; }
class C extends A { int k=5; }
class D extends C { int l=6; }
```

```
class Test {
    ...
    A a = new A();
    B b = new B();
    C c = new C();
    D d = new D();
    ...
}
```

A's record: B's record: C's record: D's record:

i	i	i	i
j	j	j	j
	m	k	k
	n		l

## Deciding Object's Size

To decide an object's size, the corresponding class's inheritance information (i.e. the total size of inherited variables) must be known.

*Solution* — When processing class declarations, collect class inheritance info and store it in class's symbol table entry.

*Example:*

class decls	object sizes
class A { int i=1, j=2; }	2*wdSize
class B extends A { int m=3, n=4; }	A's size + 2*wdSize
class C extends A { int k=5; }	A's size + 1*wdSize
class D extends C { int l=6; }	C's size + 1*wdSize

class Test {	
A a = new A();	// allocate 2*wdSize
B b = new B();	// allocate 4*wdSize
C c = new C();	// allocate 3*wdSize
D d = new D();	// allocate 4*wdSize
}	

What if the declarations are not in the right order?

```
class D extends C { int l=6; }
class C extends A { int k=5; }
class B extends A { int m=3, n=4; }
class A { int i=1, j=2; }
```

*Solution* — Perform a topological sort on class decls based on inheritance relationship, then collect the size info.

## Deciding Class Variables' Offsets

Once objects' sizes are known, class variables offsets can be computed easily:

The offset of a subclass's first instance variable equals the parent class's object size.

*Example:*

class decls	variable offsets
class A {	
int i=1,	0
j=2;	wdSize
}	
class B extends A {	
int m=3,	2*wdSize
n=4;	3*wdSize
}	
class C extends A {	
int k=5;	2*wdSize
}	
class D extends C {	
int l=6;	3*wdSize
}	

## Class Variables' Initialization

According to Java's semantics, an instance variable will always be initialized, either by the user or by the compiler.

The difficulty is that the initialization happens when a new class object is created (could be anywhere in a program) while the user-provided initialization information is the class declaration section.

*Solution* — Collect class variable initialization info while processing class decls and store the info in class variable's symbol table entry. (If there no user-provided init value, a default value is stored.)

*Example:*

class decls	offsets	init exps
<hr/>		
class A {		
int i=1,	0	1
j=2;	wdSize	2
}		
class B extends A {		
int m=3,	2*wdSize	3
n=4;	3*wdSize	4
}		
class C extends A {		
int k=5;	2*wdSize	5
}		
class D extends C {		
int l=6;	3*wdSize	6
}		
<hr/>		

## New Objects

**E → 'newObject' Id**

*Issues:*

- *Object size* — look up symbol table for info
- *Variable offsets* — calculate from object size
- *Variable initialization* — look up symbol table for info

*Pseudo IR Code:*

---

```
t1,t2,t3: new Temps;
E.s := [ <stmts embedded in var inits>; // maybe empty
          t1 := <#vars> * wdSize;           // info from symbol table
          t2 := malloc(t1);                // t2 points to obj record
          t3 := 0;                        // t3 points 1st var
          t2[t3] := <init-val1>;         // info from symbol table
          t3 := t3 + wdSize;              // t3 points 2nd var
          t2[t3] := <init-val2>;         // info from symbol table
          ...
      ]
E.t := t2;
```

---

## An Example

```

class test {
    public static void main(String[] a) {
        A a = new A();
        B b = new B();
    }
}
class B extends A {
    int m = 3;
    int n = 4;
    int k;      // no init value
}
class A {
    int i = 1; int j = 2;
}

IR_PROGRAM
main (locals=2, max_args=1) {
[MOVE (TEMP 100) (CALL (NAME malloc) ( (BINOP * (CONST 2) (NAME wSZ))))]
[MOVE (MEM (TEMP 100)) (CONST 1)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 100) (NAME wSZ))) (CONST 2)]
[MOVE (VAR 1) (TEMP 100)]
[MOVE (TEMP 101) (CALL (NAME malloc) ( (BINOP * (CONST 5) (NAME wSZ))))]
[MOVE (MEM (TEMP 101)) (CONST 1)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 101) (NAME wSZ))) (CONST 2)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 101) (BINOP * (CONST 2) (NAME wSZ)))) (CONST 3)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 101) (BINOP * (CONST 3) (NAME wSZ)))) (CONST 4)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 101) (BINOP * (CONST 4) (NAME wSZ)))) (CONST 0)]
[MOVE (VAR 2) (TEMP 101)]
}

```

## Accessing Object's Instance Variables

**[E → E1 ‘.’ Id]**

Obtain object's address from E1 and variable offset from Id.

```

class t4 {
    public static void main(String[] a) {
        A a = new A();
        B b = new B();
        System.out.println(a.i+a.j+b.x+b.y);
    }
}
class B { int x = 1; int y = 2; }
class A { int i = 3; int j = 4; }

```

### IR\_PROGRAM

```

main (locals=2, max_args=0) {
[MOVE (TEMP 100) (CALL (NAME malloc)
    ( (BINOP * (CONST 2) (NAME wSZ))))]
[MOVE (MEM (TEMP 100)) (CONST 3)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 100) (NAME wSZ))) (CONST 4)]
[MOVE (VAR 1) (TEMP 100)]
[MOVE (TEMP 101) (CALL (NAME malloc)
    ( (BINOP * (CONST 2) (NAME wSZ))))]
[MOVE (MEM (TEMP 101)) (CONST 1)]
[MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 101) (NAME wSZ))) (CONST 2)]
[MOVE (VAR 2) (TEMP 101)]
[CALLST (NAME prInt) ( (BINOP + (BINOP + (BINOP +
    (MEMBER (VAR 1) 0) // 1st var of a (i)
    (MEMBER (VAR 1) 1)) // 2nd var of a (j)
    (MEMBER (VAR 2) 0)) // 1st var of b (x)
    (MEMBER (VAR 2) 1)))] // 2nd var of b (y)
}

```

## Static Methods

Static methods can be invoked *only* through class names.  
However, inheritance needs to be taken into consideration.

*Example:*

```
class c1 {  
    static void print(int i) {  
        System.out.println(i);  
    }  
    public static void main(String[] a) {  
        c2.print(123);  
    }  
}  
class c2 extends c1 { ... }
```

Given  $C.f()$ , the compiler can:

1. Search  $C$ 's definition to see if the method  $f$  is defined there, if not, search the parent's class definition. Repeat this step until the method is found.
2. Generate code for accessing the method.

## Static-Binding Methods

Method binding approach is a choice of language design — some languages use static binding (e.g. C++), some use dynamic binding (e.g. Java).

Static-binding methods are invoked through variables that represent objects.

Given  $v.f()$ , the compiler can:

1. From  $v$ 's declaration, figure out the  $v$ 's class type (say  $C$ ).
2. Search  $C$ 's definition to see if the method  $f$  is defined there, if not, search the parent's class definition. Repeat this step until the method is found.
3. Generate code for accessing the method.

## Dynamic-Binding Methods

With dynamic-binding, given  $v.f()$ , the method to be invoked may not be the one defined in the declared class of variable  $v$ . E.g.

```
class A { public void foo() {...} ... }
class B extends A { public void foo() {...} ... }
A a = new B();
a.foo();
```

The declared type of  $a$  is **A**, yet the version of **foo** to be invoked by **a.foo()** should be the one defined in **B**.

So the previous approach won't work.

### Simple Approach:

- Keep a static *method table* in each class descriptor —
  - the table contains both local *and* inherited methods
  - for overriding methods, only the overriding version is kept in the table
- Compile method invocations into indirect jumps through fixed offsets in this table:
  1. Starting from the object's record, follow pointer to class descriptor;
  2. Look up the method table for the method's address;
  3. Jump to the address.

## Dynamic Methods (cont.)

Problems with the simple approach:

- Much of the method table contents will be duplicated between a class and its base classes.
- The method tables can get very large, yet many entries may never get used.

### Alternative Approach:

- Use naive lookup scheme — starting from the object's local class descriptor, if the method can't be found there, goes up to the parent's, and so on.
- But keep a dynamic *method cache* recording the (**target class**, **code pointer**) pairs that have been discovered by recent lookups. Since the same methods tend to be called repeatedly on the same object classes, this can speed things up a lot.

Both of these “compilation” schemes are further hindered because OO environments are often very dynamic — new versions of classes can be reloaded at any time — so frequent recompilation and cache flushing may be needed.

## MINI's Method Invocation

E → E1 '.' Id ExpList

1. Extract the class name **C** out from the class object **E1**.
  2. Concatenate **C** and method name (**Id**) to form a unique label.
  3. Construct a **CALL** node with the label and an argument list.

```
class test {
    public static void main(String[] a) {
        A a = new A();
        int x = a.foo(1,2);
        a.bar(3,4);
    }
}
class A {
    public int foo(int i, int j) { return i+j; }
    public void bar(int i, int j) { System.out.println(i+j); }
}
```

```
IR_PROGRAM
main (locals=2, max_args=3) {
    [MOVE (TEMP 100) (CALL (NAME malloc) ( (NAME wSZ)))]
    [MOVE (VAR 1) (TEMP 100)]
    [MOVE (TEMP 101) (CALL (NAME A_foo)
        ( (VAR 1) (CONST 1) (CONST 2)))]
    [MOVE (VAR 2) (TEMP 101)]
    [CALLST (NAME A_bar) ( (VAR 1) (CONST 3) (CONST 4))]
}
A_foo (locals=0, max_args=0) {
    [RETURN (BINOP + (PARAM 1) (PARAM 2))]
}
A_bar (locals=0, max_args=0) {
    [CALLST (NAME prInt) ( (BINOP + (PARAM 1) (PARAM 2)))]
}
```

## Local Variables and Parameters

Both local variables and parameters are eventually stored in a method's *activation record* — space allocated on stack at runtime, and are accessed through offsets from a stack pointer.

At IR level, they are stored in two separate abstract arrays, **VAR** and **PARAM**, and are indexed by their positions in their corresponding declarations.

```
class t1 {  
    public static void main(String[] a) {  
        A a = new A(); a.sum(3,4); }  
}  
class A {  
    public void sum(int m, int n) {  
        int i = 1; int j = 2;  
        System.out.println(i+j+m+n); }  
}
```

## Accessing Class Variables

Class variables defined in a method's enclosing scopes can be accessed within the method's body.

But how does a method know about its class object's address?

```
class B {
    int x = 1; int y = 2;
}
class A extends B {
    int i = 3; int j = 4;
    public void sum() { System.out.println(i+j+x+y); }
}
```

*Solution* —

- Always pass the current object's address as the *zero-th* parameter ((PARAM 0)) to a method invocation; this special parameter is called *access link*.
- Class variables can then be accessed through offsets from the access link. We use an abstract reference form  
`(MEMBER <access link> <var's idx>)`  
to represent them.

## An Example

```
class t3 {
    public static void main(String[] a)
    { A a = new A(); a.sum(); }
}
class B {
    int x = 1; int y = 2;
}
class A extends B {
    int i = 3; int j = 4;
    public void sum() { System.out.println(i+j+x+y); }
}

IR_PROGRAM
main (locals=1, max_args=1) {
    [MOVE (TEMP 100) (CALL (NAME malloc)
        ( (BINOP * (CONST 4) (NAME wSZ))) )
    [MOVE (MEM (TEMP 100)) (CONST 1)]
    [MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 100) (NAME wSZ))) (CONST 2)]
    [MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 100) (BINOP * (CONST 2) (NAME wSZ))) )
        (CONST 3)]
    [MOVE (MEM (BINOP + (TEMP 100) (BINOP * (CONST 3) (NAME wSZ))) )
        (CONST 4)]
    [MOVE (VAR 1) (TEMP 100)]
    [CALLST (NAME A_sum) ( (VAR 1)) ]
}
A_sum (locals=1, max_args=0) {
    [CALLST (NAME prInt) ( (BINOP + (BINOP + (BINOP +
        (MEMBER (MEM (PARAM 0)) 2)
        (MEMBER (MEM (PARAM 0)) 3))
        (MEMBER (MEM (PARAM 0)) 0))
        (MEMBER (MEM (PARAM 0)) 1))))]
}
```

## Space for Method Invocation

When invoking a method at runtime, the runtime system needs to know how much space to allocation for the method's activation record.

Among the factors, two can be computed by compiler

- *Space reserved for holding local variables* — can be obtained easily by counting the number of local variables
- *Space reserved for preparing arguments to method calls* — requires going through the method's body and check every `call` node (excluding calls to system routines) — count the number of parameters, if the count succeeds the previous max, then update the max

```
class t1 {
    public static void main(String[] a) {
        A a = new A(); a.sum(3,4); }
}

class A {
    public void sum(int m, int n) {
        int i = 1; int j = 2;
        System.out.println(i+j+m+n); }
}

IR_PROGRAM
main (locals=1, max_args=3) {
    ...
}
A_sum (locals=2, max_args=0) {
    ...
}
```

## Adv. Topic: Multiple Inheritance

When a class can extend several parent classes, the *prefixing* layout method for class variables doesn't work any more — it is not possible to put two parents' variables both at the beginning.

Some form of ordering among the parents' variables is needed. In fact, some form of *global* ordering among *all* classes' variables is needed.

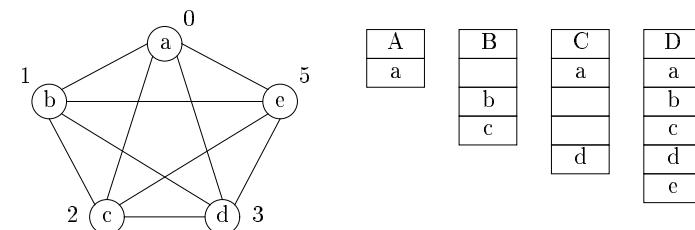
*The Global Graph Coloring Approach:*

The problem of ordering all classes' variables can be modeled as a graph-coloring problem:

- There is a node for each distinct variable name.
- There is an edge for any two variables which coexist (perhaps by inheritance) in the same class.

*Example:*

```
class A { int a = 0; }
class B { int b = 0; int c = 0; }
class C extends A { int d = 0; }
class D extends B,C { int e = 0; }
```

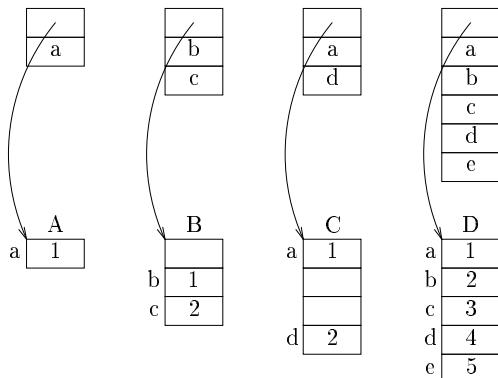


## Multiple Inheritance (cont.)

*Problem:* Empty slot in the middle of objects.

*Solution:*

- Pack variables in objects records.
- Store graph coloring result and packing info in class descriptors.



*Accessing Variables:*

1. Fetch the descriptor pointer from the object.
2. Fetch the variable-offset value from the descriptor.
3. Access the data at the appropriate offset in the object.

Methods can be looked up using the same technique.

## Adv. Topic: Class Membership

Some OO languages have a construct for testing class membership of an object at runtime:

```
x instanceof C
```

Also, for strongly-typed OO languages require runtime membership checks when there is casting involved:

```
Vector fruits = new Vector();
fruits.add(new Apple());
fruits.add(new Orange());
...
Apple a2 = (Apple) fruits.elementAt(i);
```

How to implement membership testing?

*Naive Approach:*

1. Fetch x's class descriptor; if the descriptor matches C, then return true.
2. Else fetch the parent's class descriptor and check. Repeat this step until one matches C (return true) or no more parent exists (return false).

## Class Membership (cont.)

More Efficient Approach:

- Reserve  $K$  slots in each class descriptor for a *display*, where  $K$  is max class nesting depth.
- For a class  $C$  at depth  $d$ , store pointers to class descriptors of  $C$  and  $C$ 's ancestors in slots  $d$  through 0. (This step is performed by the compiler.)  
*Fact* — After this step, in the class descriptor of any  $C$ 's subclass, the  $d$ th display slot will contain a pointer to  $C$ 's descriptor.
- To test `x instanceof C`, just check the  $j$ th display slot in `x`'s class descriptor to see if it matches with `C` (where  $j$  is the depth of `C`).

Example:

```
class A { int a = 0; }
class B extends A { int b = 0; int c = 0; }
class C extends A { int d = 0; }
class D extends C { int e = 0; }
```

A:  
ptr to Object  
ptr to A  
ptr to C

C:  
ptr to Object  
ptr to A  
ptr to C

B:  
ptr to Object  
ptr to A  
ptr to B  
ptr to C  
ptr to D

D:  
ptr to Object  
ptr to A  
ptr to C  
ptr to D