Lecture #17: More Special Effects—Exceptions and OOP

Exceptions and Continuations

- Exception-handling in programming languages is a very limited form of continuation.
- Execution continues after a function call that is still active when exception raised.
- Java provides mechanism to return a value with the exception, but this adds no new complexity.

Approach I: Do Nothing

- Some say keep it simple; don't bother with exceptions.
- Use return code convention:

Example: C library functions often return either 0 for OK or non-zero for various degrees of badness.

- Problems:
 - Forgetting to check.
 - Code clutter.
 - Clumsiness: makes value-returning functions less useful.
 - Slight cost in always checking return codes.

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Approach II: Non-Standard Return

• First idea is to modify calls so that they look like this:

```
call _f
  jmp OK
  code to handle exception
OK:
  code for normal return
```

- To throw exception:
 - Put type of exception in some standard register or memory location.
 - Return to instruction after normal return.
- Awkward for the ia32 (above). Easier on machines that allow returning to a register+constant offset address [why?].
- Exception-handling code decides whether it can handle the exception, and does another exception return if not.
- Problem: Requires small distributed overhead for every function call.

Approach III: Stack manipulation

• C does not have an exception mechanism built into its syntax, but uses library routines:

```
jmp_buf catch_point;
                                                                     Callee's
                                                                      frame
void Caller () {
   if (setjmp (catch_point) == 0) {
                                               Caller's
                                                                      other
      normal case, which eventually
                                               FP, SP,
      gets down to Callee
                                                                     frames
                                              addr of
   } else {
                               catch_point:
       handle exception
                                             setimp call
                                                                     Caller's
                                              & others
                                                                      frame
}
                                                                         :
void Callee () {
   // Throw exception:
   longjmp (catch_point, 42);
}
```

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Approach IV: PC tables

- Sun's Java implementation uses a different approach.
- Compiler generates a table mapping instruction addresses (program counter (PC) values) to exception handlers for each function.
- If needed, compiler also leaves behind information necessary to return from a function ("unwind the stack") when exception thrown.
- To throw exception E:

while (current PC doesn't map to handler for E) unwind stack to last caller

- Under this approach, a **try-catch** incurs no cost unless there is an exception, but
- Throwing and handling the exception more expensive than other approaches, and
- Tables add space.

Approach III: Discussion

- On exception, call to setjmp appears to return twice, with two different values.
- Does not require help from compiler,
- But implementation is architecture-specific.
- Overhead imposed on every setjmp call.
- If used to implement try and catch, therefore, would impose cost on every try.
- Subtle problems involving variables that are stored in registers:
 - The jmp_buf typically has to store such registers, but
 - That means the value of some local variables may revert unpredictably upon a longjmp.

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New Topic: Dynamic Method Selection and OOP

- "Interesting" language feature introduced by Simula 67, Smalltalk, C++, Java: the virtual function (to use C++ terminology).
- Problem:
 - Arrange classes in a hierarchy of types.
 - Instance of subtype "is an" instance of its supertype(s).
 - In particular, inherits their methods, but can override them.
 - A dynamic effect: Cannot in general tell from program text what body of code executed by a given call.
- Implementation difficulty (as usual) depends on details of a language's semantics.
- Some things still static:
 - Names of functions, numbers of arguments are (usually) known
 - Compiler can handle overloading by inventing new names for functions. E.g., G++ encodes a function $f(int \times)$ in class Q as $_ZN1Q1fEi$, and $f(int \times)$ in ty) as $_ZN1Q1fEii$.

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I. Fully Dynamic Approach

• Regular Python is completely dynamic:

```
class A:
  x = 2
  def f (self): return 42
a = A (); b = A ()
print a.x, a.f() # Prints 2 42
a.x = lambda r, z: r.w * z
a.f = 13: a.w = 5
print a.x(a, 3), a.f, a.w # Prints 15 13 5
print b.x(b, 3), b.f, b.w # Error (x not a function)
                       # Prints 2
A.x = lambda (self): 19
A.f = 2
A.v = 1
c = A ()
print c.x (), c.f, c.v # Prints 19, 2, 1
print b.x (), b.f, b.v # Prints 19, 2, 1
```

Implementing the Dynamic Approach

- Simple strategy: just put a dictionary in every instance, and in class.
- Create an instance by making fresh copy of class's dictionary.
- Check for value of attribute in object's dictionary, then in that of its class, superclass, etc.
- All checking at runtime.
- All objects (or pointers) carry around dynamic type.

Characteristics of Dynamic Approach

- Each class instance is independent. Contents of class definition merely used until a new value is assigned to an attribute of the instance.
- New attributes can be added freely to instances or to class.
- In other variants of this approach, there are no classes at all, only instances, and we get new instances by cloning existing objects, and possibly then adding new attributes.

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Pros and Cons of Dynamic Approach

- Extremely flexible
- Conceptually simple
- Implementation easy
- Space overhead: every instance has pointers to all methods
- Time overhead: lookup on each call
- No static checking

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II. Straight Single Inheritance, Dynamic Typing

- Each class has fixed set of methods and instance variables
- Methods have fixed definition in each class.
- Classes can inherit from single superclass.
- Otherwise, types of parameters, variables, etc., still dynamic
- Basically technique in Smalltalk, Objective C.

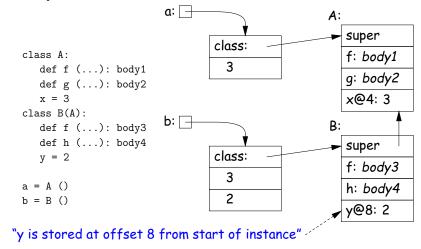
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Pros and Cons of Smalltalk Approach

- Only need to store modifiable things—instance variables—in instances.
- Data structure can be a bit faster at accessing than fully dynamic method
- But still, not much static checking possible, and
- Some lookup of method names required.

Implementing the Smalltalk-like Approach

- Instances need not carry around copies of function pointers.
- Instead, each *class* has a data structure mapping method names to functions, and instance-variable names to offsets from the start of the object.



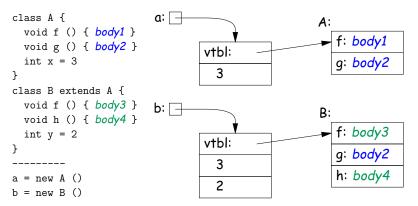
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Single Inheritance with Static Types

- Consider Java without interfaces. Type can inherit from at most one immediate superclass.
- For an access, x.w, insist that compiler knows a supertype of x's dynamic type that defines w.
- Insist that all possible overridings of a method have compatible parameter lists and return values.
- Use a technique similar to previous one, but put entries for all methods (whether or not overridden) in each class data structure.
- Such class data structures are called "virtual tables" or "vtables" in C++ parlance.

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Implementation of Simple Static Single Inheritance



- No need to store offsets of x and y; compiler knows where they are.
- Also, compiler knows where to find 'f', 'g', 'h' virtual tables.
- Important: offsets of variables in instances and of method pointers in virtual tables are known constants, the same for all subtypes.
- So compiler knows how to call methods of b even if static type is A!

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Interface Implementation I: Brute Force

• One approach is to have the system assign a different offset globally to each different function signature

(Functions f(int x) and f() have different function signatures)

• So in previous example, the virtual tables can be:

A :	В:	C :
0: unused	0: pntr to B.g	0: unused
4: unused	4: pntr to B.h	4: unused
8: pntr to A.f	8: pntr to B.f	8: unused
A2:	B2:	
0: unused	0: pntr to B.g	
4: unused	4: pntr to B.h	
8: pntr to A.f	8: pntr to B.f	

- No slowing of method calls.
- But, Total size of tables gets big (some optimization possible).
- And, must take into account all classes before laying out tables.
 Complicates dynamic linking.

Interfaces

- Java allows interface inheritance of any number of interface types (introduces no new bodies).
- This complicates life: consider

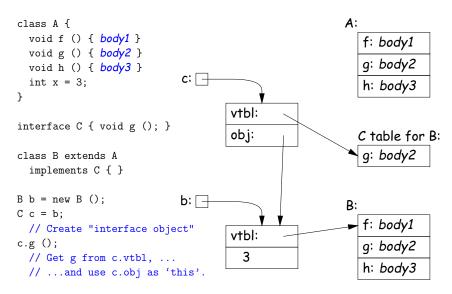
- We can compile A and B without knowledge of C, A2, B2.
- How can we make the virtual table of A2 and B2 compatible with each other so that f is at same known offset regardless of whether dynamic type of C is A2 or B2? (Above isn't hardest example!)

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Interface Implementation II: Make Interface Values
Different

- \bullet Another approach is to represent values of static type C (an interface type) differently.
- Converting value x2 of type B2 to C then causes C to point to a two-word quantity:
 - Pointer to x2
 - Pointer to a cut-down virtual table containing just the f entry from B2 (at offset 0).
- Means that converting to interface requires work and allocates storage.

Interface Implementation II, Illustrated



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Full Multiple Inheritance

- Java allows multiple inheritance only via interfaces.
- Important point: interfaces don't have instance variables.
- Instance variables basically mess everything up for multiple inheritance, assuming we want to keep constant offsets to instance variables.

- If aD is a D, then aD.f expects that 'this' points to an A, aD.g expects that it points to a B, but aD.h expects it to point to a D.
- How can these all be true??

Improving Interface Implementation II

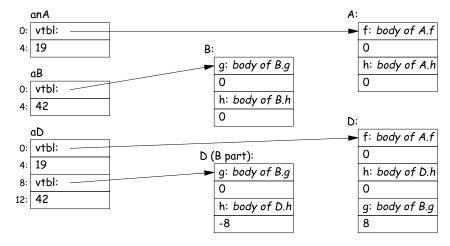
- How can we avoid doing allocation to create value of interface type C?
- One method: extend the virtual table of all types to include an interface vector.
- Each entry in this vector identifies an interface the type implements, plus the table (e.g. "C table for B" in last slide).
- ullet To implement 'C c = b' from last slide, just copy pointer b, as for the usual cases when assigning to a variable whose type is a supertype of the value assigned.
- \bullet To implement 'c.g()' from last slide, find the "C table" in the interface vector for object pointed to be c and fetch the entry for g. Just call as usual.
- Question for the reader: How best to design the interface vector?
 - Want fetching of c.g to be fast,
 - So best to avoid having to actually perform a search at execution time. How?

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Implementing Full Multiple Inheritance I

- Idea is to extend the contents of the virtual table with an offset for each method.
- Offset tells how to adjust the 'this' pointer before calling.
- For the classes from the last slide:



Implementing Full Multiple Inheritance I (contd.)

- To call aD.g,
 - Fetch function address of g from D table.
 - Call it, but first add 8 to pointer value of ${\tt aD}$ so as to get a pointer to the "B part" of ${\tt aD}$.
- When aD.g eventually calls h (actually this.h),
 - 'this' refers to the "B part" of aD.
 - Its virtual table is "D (B part)" in the preceding slide.
 - Fetching h from that table gives us $D.h, \dots$
 - ... which we call, after first adding the -8 offset from the table to "this."
 - Thus, we end up calling D.h with a "this" value that points to aD, as it expects.

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Implementing Full Multiple Inheritance II

- First implementation slows things down in all cases to accommodate unusual case.
- Would be better if only the methods inherited from B (for example) needed extra work.
- Alternative design: use stubs to adjust the 'this' pointer.
- Define $B.g_1$ to add 8 to the 'this' pointer and then call B.g; and $D.h_1$ to subtract 8 and then call D.h.:

