



Object-Oriented Programming Languages

Read: Scott, Chapter 10.1-
10.4

Lecture Outline

- Object-oriented programming
- Encapsulation and inheritance
- Initialization and finalization
- Subtyping and dynamic method binding

- Polymorphism

Benefits of Object Orientation

■ Abstraction

- **Classes** bridge the gap between concepts in the application domain and software
- E.g., domain concept of **Customer** maps to **class Customer**

■ Encapsulation

- Classes provide interface but hide data representation
- Easier to understand and use
- Can be changed internally with minimal impact

■ Reuse

- Inheritance and composition provide mechanisms for reuse

■ Extensibility

Encapsulation and Inheritance

- Access control modifiers – public, private, and others
 - What portion of the class is visible to users?
 - **Public**, **protected** or **private** visibility
 - Java: Has **package** as default; **protected** is slightly different from C++
 - C++: Has **friend** classes and functions
 - Smalltalk and Python: all members are public
- With inheritance
 - What control does the superclass have over its fields and methods? There are different choices
 - C++: a subclass can restrict visibility of superclass members
 - C#, Java: a subclass can neither increase nor restrict visibility of superclass members

Initialization and Finalization

- Reference model for variables used in Java, Smalltalk, Python
 - Every variable is a **reference** to an object
 - **Explicit** object creation: `foo b = new foo();`
- Value model for variables used in C++, Modula-3, Ada-95
 - A variable can have a value that **is** an object
 - Object creation may be **implicit**: e.g. `foo b;`
- How are objects destroyed?

Question

- Consider the following code:

```
A a;      // a is a local variable of type A  
a.m();    // We call method m on a
```

What happens in C++?

What happens in Java?

More on Implicit Creation in C++

- C++ requires that an appropriate constructor is called for every object implicitly created on the stack, e.g., **A a;**
- What happens here: **foo a;**
 - Compiler calls zero-argument constructor **foo::foo()**
- What happens here: **foo a(10, 'x');**
 - Calls **foo::foo(int, char)**

More on Implicit Creation in C++

- What happens here:

```
foo a;
```

```
foo c = a;
```

- Calls `foo::foo()` at `foo a;`; calls copy constructor `foo::foo(foo&)` at `foo c = a;`
- `=` operator here stands for initialization, not assignment!

More on Implicit Creation in C++

- What happens here:

```
foo a, c;    // declaration  
c = a;      // assignment
```

- Calls `foo::foo()` twice at `foo a, c;`
calls assignment operator
`foo::operator=(foo&)` at `c = a;`
- `=` operator here stands for assignment!

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Subtyping and Dynamic Method Binding

- **Subtyping and subtype polymorphism** - the ability to use a subclass where a superclass is expected
- Thus, **dynamic method binding** (also known as **dynamic dispatch**) - the ability to invoke a new refined method, even in a context where an earlier version is expected
 - E.g., class B is a Java subclass of A
 - `A a; ... a.m();`

Subtyping and Dynamic Method Binding

- Advantages?
- Disadvantages?
- C++: static binding is default, dynamic binding is specified with keyword **virtual**
- Java: dynamic binding is default, static binding is specified with **final**

Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

- Covered extensively in Principles of Software
- Enables extensibility and reuse
 - E.g., we can extend a type hierarchy with no modification to the client of hierarchy
 - Reuse through inheritance or composition
- Subtype polymorphism enables the **Open/closed principle (credited to Bertrand Meyer)**
 - Software entities (classes, modules) should be **open** for extension but **closed** for modification

Example

- Application draws shapes on screen
- Possible solution in C

```
enum ShapeType { circle, square };  
struct Shape { ShapeType t };  
struct Circle  
    { ShapeType t; double radius; Point center; };  
struct Square  
    { ShapeType t; double side; Point topleft; };
```

Example

```
void DrawAll(struct Shape *list[], int n) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        struct Shape *s = list[i];
        switch (s->t) {
            case square: DrawSquare(s); break;
            case circle: DrawCircle(s); break;
        }
    }
}
```

What problems do you see here?

Example

■ OO Solution in Java

```
abstract class Shape { public void draw(); }  
class Circle extends Shape { ... }  
class Square extends Shape { ... }
```

```
void DrawAll(Shape[] list) {  
    for (int i=0; i < list.length; i++) {  
        Shape s = list[i];  
        s.draw();  
    }  
}
```


Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

```
abstract class Shape { public void draw(); }  
class Circle extends Shape { ... }  
class Square extends Shape { ... }  
class Triangle extends Shape { ... }
```

Extending the Java code requires no changes in **DrawAll!**
Thus, it is closed for modification.

Extending the C code triggers modifications in **DrawAll**
(and throughout the code)!

Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

- “Science” of software design teaches **Design Patterns**
- Design patterns promote design for extensibility and reuse
- Nearly all design patterns make use of subtype polymorphism!

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Polymorphism

- Generally, refers to the mechanisms that a programming language provides, to allow for the same piece of code to be used with objects or values of multiple types
- Poly = many and morph = form
- Examples of polymorphism
 - Generic functions in C++ and Haskell
 - Templates in C++, generics in Java
 - Implicitly polymorphic foldl/foldr in Scheme
 - Other

Varieties of Polymorphism

- Subtype polymorphism
 - What we just discussed... Code can use a subclass **B** where a superclass **A** is expected
 - Standard in object-oriented languages
- Parametric polymorphism
 - Code takes a **type** as parameter
 - **Explicit** parametric polymorphism
 - **Implicit** parametric polymorphism
 - Standard in functional programming languages
- Ad-hoc polymorphism (overloading)

Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

- Occurs in Ada, Clu, C++, Java, Haskell (type classes)
- There is an **explicit type parameter**
- Explicit parametric polymorphism is also known **as genericity**
- E.g. in C++:

```
template<class V>
class list_node {
    list_node<V>* prev;
    ...
}
```

```
template<class V>
class list {
    list_node<V> header;
    ...
}
```

Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

- Usually (but not always!) implemented by creating **multiple copies** of the generic code, one for each concrete type

```
typedef list_node<int> int_list_node;  
typedef list<int> int_list;
```

- Object-oriented languages usually provide both **subtype polymorphism** and **explicit parametric polymorphism**, which is referred to as generics

Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

- Generics are tricky...
- Consider this C++ code (uses the STL):

```
list<int> l;  
sort(l.begin(), l.end());
```

- Compiler produces around 2K of text of error messages, referring to code in the STL
- The problem here is that the STL's `sort` requires a **RandomAccessIterator**, while the `list` container provides only a **Bidirectional Iterator**

On Concepts in C++ and Much More

- Thriving in a Crowded and Changing World:
C++ 2006–2020
- By Bjarne Stroustrup
- <https://dl.acm.org/doi/pdf/10.1145/3386320>

In Java, Bounded Types Restrict Instantiations by Client

- Generic code can perform operations permitted by the bound

```
class MyList1<E extends Object> {  
    void m(E p) {  
        p.intValue(); //compile-time error; Object  
                       //does not have intValue()  
    }  
}  
  
class MyList2<E extends Number> {  
    void m(E p) {  
        p.intValue(); //OK. Number has intValue()  
    }  
}
```

In Java, Bounded Types Restrict Instantiations by Client

- Instantiations respect the bound

```
class MyList2<E extends Number> {  
    void m(E arg) {  
        arg.intValue(); //OK. Number has intValue()  
    }  
}  
  
MyList2<String> ls = new MyList2<String>();  
//compile-time error; String is not within  
//bounds of E  
  
MyList2<Integer> li = ...  
//OK. Integer is subtype of Number
```

In Haskell, Type Predicates Restrict Instantiation of Generic Functions

```
sum :: (Num a) => a -> List a -> a
```

```
sum n Nil = n
```

```
sum n (Cons x xs) = sum (n+x) xs
```

- `a` is an explicit type parameter
- `(Num a)` is a predicate in type definition
- `(Num a)` constrains the types we can instantiate the generic function with

Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

- Occurs in Scheme, Python and others
- There is **no explicit type parameter**, yet the code works on many different types
- Usually, there is a single copy of the code, and all type checking is delayed until runtime
 - If the arguments are of type as expected by the code, code works
 - If not, code issues a type error at runtime

Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

`(twice (lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 1)` yields ?

; twice :: (int -> int) -> int -> int

--> `(lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 1)`

--> `(lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 2`

--> yields 3

Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

`(twice (lambda (x) (cons 'a x)) '(b c))` yields ?

; twice = $([sym] \rightarrow [sym]) \rightarrow [sym] \rightarrow [sym]$

yields (a a b c)

Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

`(twice 2 3)` yields ?

--> 2 `(2 3)`

--> bombs, 2 is not a function value

map, foldl, length are all implicitly parametric

Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

```
def intersect(seq1, seq2):  
    res = []  
    for x in seq1:  
        if x in seq2:  
            res.append(x)  
    return res
```

- As long as arguments for seq1 and seq2 are of iterable type, intersect works

Let Polymorphism

- A form of explicit parametric polymorphism
- Occurs in Haskell and in ML
 - Also known as ML-style polymorphism

let $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$ in if $(f \text{ True})$ then $(f \ 1)$ else 0

--- f is a polymorphic function

--- At $(f \text{ True})$ instantiates to $\text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$ function

--- At $(f \ 1)$ instantiates to $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$ function

Let Polymorphism

let $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$ in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0

- Informally, let polymorphism restricts polymorphism to functions defined at **let** bindings
- Disallows functions that take polymorphic functions as arguments
- Formally defined by Hindley Milner system
- Allows for type inference

Let Polymorphism

let $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$ in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0

- Allows for a natural form of type inference
 - Inference “sees” the function definition at let binding before the call (use) of the function
 - Inference “generalizes” the type of the function
 - At each call in let expression body, inference replaces explicit type parameter with fresh var
- Cannot be done with a function argument

Let Polymorphism

- Contrast

(1) let $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$ in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0
vs.

(2) ($\lambda f \rightarrow$ if (f True) then (f 1) else 0) ($\lambda x \rightarrow x$)

- Let-bound vs. Lambda-bound polymorphism

The End
