

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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OOP vs. Functional Decomposition

Breaking things down

- In functional (and procedural) programming, break programs down into *functions that perform some operation*
- In object-oriented programming, break programs down into *classes that give behavior to some kind of data*

Beginning of this unit:

- These two forms of *decomposition* are *so exactly opposite* that they are two ways of looking at the same “matrix”
- Which form is “better” is somewhat personal taste, but also depends on *how you expect to change/extend software*
- For some operations over two (multiple) arguments, functions and pattern-matching are straightforward, but with OOP we can do it with *double dispatch* (multiple dispatch)

The expression example

Well-known and compelling example of a common *pattern*:

- Expressions for a small language
- Different variants of expressions: ints, additions, negations, ...
- Different operations to perform: **eval**, **toString**, **hasZero**, ...

Leads to a matrix (2D-grid) of variants and operations

- Implementation will involve deciding what “should happen” for each entry in the grid *regardless of the PL*

| | eval | toString | hasZero | ... |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|-----|
| Int | | | | |
| Add | | | | |
| Negate | | | | |
| ... | | | | |

Standard approach in ML

| | <code>eval</code> | <code>toString</code> | <code>hasZero</code> | ... |
|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----|
| <code>Int</code> | | | | |
| <code>Add</code> | | | | |
| <code>Negate</code> | | | | |
| ... | | | | |

- Define a *datatype*, with one *constructor* for each variant
 - (No need to indicate datatypes if dynamically typed)
- “Fill out the grid” via **one function per column**
 - Each function has one branch for each column entry
 - Can combine cases (e.g., with wildcard patterns) if multiple entries in column are the same

[See the ML code]

Standard approach in OOP

| | <code>eval</code> | <code>toString</code> | <code>hasZero</code> | ... |
|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----|
| <code>Int</code> | | | | |
| <code>Add</code> | | | | |
| <code>Negate</code> | | | | |
| ... | | | | |

- Define a *class*, with one *abstract method* for each operation
 - (No need to indicate abstract methods if dynamically typed)
- Define a *subclass* for each variant
- So “fill out the grid” via **one class per row** with one method implementation for each grid position
 - Can use a method in the superclass if there is a default for multiple entries in a column

[See the Ruby code] [*Optional*: See the Java code]

A big course punchline

| | eval | toString | hasZero | ... |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|------------|
| Int | | | | |
| Add | | | | |
| Negate | | | | |
| ... | | | | |

- FP and OOP often doing the same thing in *exact* opposite way
 - Organize the program “by rows” or “by columns”
- Which is “most natural” may depend on what you are doing (e.g., an interpreter vs. a GUI) or personal taste
- Code layout is important, but there is no perfect way since software has many dimensions of structure
 - Tools, IDEs can help with multiple “views” (e.g., rows / columns)

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Adding Operations or Variants

Extensibility

| | eval | toString | hasZero | noNegConstants |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------|
| Int | | | | |
| Add | | | | |
| Negate | | | | |
| Mult | | | | |

- For implementing our grid so far, SML / Racket style usually by column and Ruby / Java style usually by row
- But beyond just style, this decision affects what (unexpected?) software *extensions* need not change old code
- **Functions** [see ML code]:
 - Easy to add a new operation, e.g., **noNegConstants**
 - Adding a new variant, e.g., **Mult** requires modifying old functions, but ML type-checker gives a to-do list if original code avoided wildcard patterns

Extensibility

| | eval | toString | hasZero | noNegConstants |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------|
| Int | | | | |
| Add | | | | |
| Negate | | | | |
| Mult | | | | |

- For implementing our grid so far, SML / Racket style usually by column and Ruby / Java style usually by row
- But beyond just style, this decision affects what (unexpected?) software *extensions* are easy and/or do not change old code
- **Objects** [see Ruby code]:
 - Easy to add a new variant, e.g., **Mult**
 - Adding a new operation, e.g., **noNegConstants** requires modifying old classes, but **[optional:]** Java type-checker gives a to-do list if original code avoided default methods

The other way is possible

- Functions allow new operations and objects allow new variants without modifying existing code *even if they didn't plan for it*
 - Natural result of the decomposition

Optional:

- Functions can support new variants somewhat awkwardly “if they plan ahead”
 - *Not explained here: Can use type constructors to make datatypes extensible and have operations take function arguments to give results for the extensions*
- Objects can support new operations somewhat awkwardly “if they plan ahead”
 - *Not explained here: The popular Visitor Pattern uses the double-dispatch pattern to allow new operations “on the side”*

Thoughts on Extensibility

- Making software extensible is valuable and hard
 - If you know you want new operations, use FP
 - If you know you want new variants, use OOP
 - If both? Languages like Scala try; it's a hard problem
 - Reality: The future is often hard to predict!
- Extensibility is a double-edged sword
 - Code more reusable without being changed later
 - But makes original code more difficult to reason about locally or change later (could break extensions)
 - Often language mechanisms to make code *less* extensible (ML modules hide datatypes; Java's **final** prevents subclassing/overriding)

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Binary Methods with Functional Decomposition

Binary operations

| | <code>eval</code> | <code>toString</code> | <code>hasZero</code> | ... |
|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----|
| <code>Int</code> | | | | |
| <code>Add</code> | | | | |
| <code>Negate</code> | | | | |
| ... | | | | |

- Situation is more complicated if an operation is defined over multiple arguments that can have different variants
 - Can arise in original program or after extension
- Function decomposition deals with this much more simply...

Example

To show the issue:

- Include variants **String** and **Rational**
- (Re)define **Add** to work on any pair of **Int**, **String**, **Rational**
 - Concatenation if either argument a **String**, else math

Now just defining the addition operation is a *different* 2D grid:

| | Int | String | Rational |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Int | | | |
| String | | | |
| Rational | | | |

ML Approach

Addition is different for most `Int`, `String`, `Rational` combinations

- Run-time error for non-value expressions

Natural approach: pattern-match on the pair of values

- For *commutative* possibilities, can re-call with `(v2, v1)`

```
fun add_values (v1,v2) =  
  case (v1,v2) of  
    (Int i, Int j) => Int (i+j)  
  | (Int i, String s) => String (Int.toString i ^ s)  
  | (Int i, Rational(j,k)) => Rational (i*k+j,k)  
  | (Rational _, Int _) => add_values (v2,v1)  
  | ... (* 5 more cases (3*3 total): see the code *)  
  
fun eval e =  
  case e of  
    ...  
  | Add(e1,e2) => add_values (eval e1, eval e2)
```

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Binary Methods with OOP: Double Dispatch

Example

To show the issue:

- Include variants **String** and **Rational**
- (Re)define **Add** to work on any pair of **Int**, **String**, **Rational**
 - Concatenation if either argument a **String**, else math

Now just defining the addition operation is a *different* 2D grid:

| | Int | String | Rational |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Int | | | |
| String | | | |
| Rational | | | |

Worked just fine with functional decomposition -- what about OOP...

What about OOP?

Starts promising:

- Use OOP to call method **add_values** to one value with other value as result

```
class Add
  ...
  def eval
    e1.eval.add_values e2.eval
  end
end
```

Classes **Int**, **MyString**, **MyRational** then all implement

- Each handling 3 of the 9 cases: “add **self** to argument”

```
class Int
  ...
  def add_values v
    ... # what goes here?
  end
end
```

First try

- This approach is common, but is “not as OOP”
 - *So do not do it on your homework*

```
class Int
  def add_values v
    if v.is_a? Int
      Int.new(v.i + i)
    elsif v.is_a? MyRational
      MyRational.new(v.i+v.j*i,v.j)
    else
      MyString.new(v.s + i.to_s)
    end
  end
end
```

- A “hybrid” style where we used dynamic dispatch on 1 argument and then switched to Racket-style type tests for other argument
 - Definitely not “full OOP”

Another way...

- `add_values` method in `Int` needs “what kind of thing” `v` has
 - Same problem in `MyRational` and `MyString`
- In OOP, “always” solve this by calling a method on `v` instead!
- But now we need to “tell” `v` “what kind of thing” `self` is
 - We know that!
 - “Tell” `v` by calling different methods on `v`, passing `self`
- Use a “programming trick” (?) called *double-dispatch*...

Double-dispatch “trick”

- `Int`, `MyString`, and `MyRational` each define all of `addInt`, `addString`, and `addRational`
 - For example, `String`'s `addInt` is for adding concatenating an integer argument to the string in `self`
 - 9 total methods, one for each case of addition
- `Add`'s `eval` method calls `e1.eval.add_values e2.eval`, which dispatches to `add_values` in `Int`, `String`, or `Rational`
 - `Int`'s `add_values: v.addInt self`
 - `MyString`'s `add_values: v.addString self`
 - `MyRational`'s `add_values: v.addRational self`So `add_values` performs “2nd dispatch” to the correct case of 9!

[Definitely see the code]

Why showing you this

- Honestly, partly to belittle full commitment to OOP
- To understand dynamic dispatch via a sophisticated idiom
- Because required for the homework
- To contrast with *multimethods* (optional)

Optional note: Double-dispatch also works fine with static typing

- See Java code
- Method declarations with types may help clarify

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Optional: Multimethods

Being Fair

Belittling OOP style for requiring the manual trick of double dispatch is somewhat unfair...

What would work better:

- **Int**, **MyString**, and **MyRational** each define three methods all named **add_values**
 - One **add_values** takes an **Int**, one a **MyString**, one a **MyRational**
 - So 9 total methods named **add_values**
 - **e1.eval.add_values e2.eval** picks the right one of the 9 at run-time using the classes of the two arguments
- Such a semantics is called *multimethods* or *multiple dispatch*

Multimethods

General idea:

- Allow multiple methods with same name
- Indicate which ones take instances of which classes
- Use dynamic dispatch on arguments in addition to receiver to pick which method is called

If dynamic dispatch is essence of OOP, this is more OOP

- No need for awkward manual multiple-dispatch

Downside: Interaction with subclassing can produce situations where there is “no clear winner” for which method to call

Ruby: Why not?

Multimethods a bad fit (?) for Ruby because:

- Ruby places no restrictions on what is passed to a method
- Ruby never allows methods with the same name
 - Same name means overriding/replacing

Java/C#/C++: Why not?

- Yes, Java/C#/C++ allow multiple methods with the same name
- No, these language do *not* have multimethods
 - They have *static overloading*
 - Uses static types of arguments to choose the method
 - But of course run-time class of receiver [odd hybrid?]
 - No help in our example, so still code up double-dispatch manually
- Actually, C# 4.0 has a way to get effect of multimethods
- Many other languages have multimethods (e.g., Clojure)
 - They are not a new idea

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Multiple Inheritance

What next?

Have used classes for OOP's essence: inheritance, overriding, dynamic dispatch

Now, what if we want to have more than *just 1 superclass*

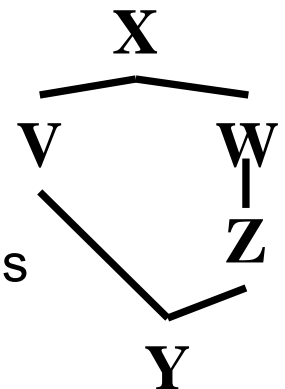
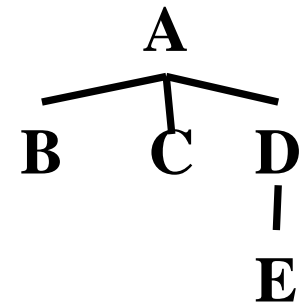
- *Multiple inheritance*: allow > 1 superclasses
 - Useful but has some problems (see C++)
- Ruby-style *mixins*: 1 superclass; > 1 method providers
 - Often a fine substitute for multiple inheritance and has fewer problems (see also Scala *traits*)
- Java/C#-style *interfaces*: allow > 1 types
 - Mostly irrelevant in a dynamically typed language, but fewer problems

Multiple Inheritance

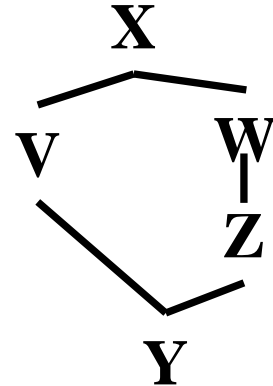
- If inheritance and overriding are so useful, why limit ourselves to one superclass?
 - Because the semantics is often awkward (this topic)
 - Because it makes static type-checking harder (not discussed)
 - Because it makes efficient implementation harder (not discussed)
- Is it useful? Sure!
 - Example: Make a **ColorPt3D** by inheriting from **Pt3D** and **ColorPt** (or maybe just from **Color**)
 - Example: Make a **StudentAthlete** by inheriting from **Student** and **Athlete**
 - With single inheritance, end up copying code or using non-OOP-style helper methods

Trees, dags, and diamonds

- Note: The phrases *subclass*, *superclass* can be ambiguous
 - There are *immediate* subclasses, superclasses
 - And there are *transitive* subclasses, superclasses
- Single inheritance: the *class hierarchy* is a tree
 - Nodes are classes
 - Parent is immediate superclass
 - Any number of children allowed
- Multiple inheritance: the class hierarchy no longer a tree
 - Cycles still disallowed (a directed-acyclic graph)
 - If multiple paths show that *X* is a (transitive) superclass of *Y*, then we have *diamonds*



What could go wrong?



- If *V* and *Z* both define a method **m**, what does *Y* inherit? What does **super** mean?
 - *Directed resends* useful (e.g., **z : : super**)
- What if *X* defines a method **m** that *Z* but not *V* overrides?
 - Can handle like previous case, but sometimes undesirable (e.g., **ColorPt3D** wants **Pt3D**'s overrides to “win”)
- If *X* defines fields, should *Y* have one copy of them (**f**) or two (**v : : f** and **z : : f**)?
 - Turns out each behavior can be desirable (next slides)
 - So C++ has (at least) two forms of inheritance

3DColorPoints

If Ruby had multiple inheritance, we would want `ColorPt3D` to inherit methods that share one `@x` and one `@y`

```
class Pt
  attr_accessor :x, :y
  ...
end
class ColorPt < Pt
  attr_accessor :color
  ...
end
class Pt3D < Pt
  attr_accessor :z
  ... # override some methods
end
class ColorPt3D < Pt3D, ColorPt # not Ruby!
end
```

ArtistCowboys

This code has `Person` define a pocket for subclasses to use, but an `ArtistCowboy` wants *two* pockets, one for each `draw` method

```
class Person
  attr_accessor :pocket
  ...
end
class Artist < Person # pocket for brush objects
  def draw # access pocket
  ...
end
class Cowboy < Person # pocket for gun objects
  def draw # access pocket
  ...
end
class ArtistCowboy < Artist, Cowboy # not Ruby!
end
```

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Mixins

Mixins

- A *mixin* is (just) a collection of methods
 - Less than a class: no instances of it
- Languages with mixins (e.g., Ruby modules) typically let a class have one superclass but *include* number of mixins
- Semantics: *Including a mixin makes its methods part of the class*
 - Extending or overriding in the order mixins are included in the class definition
 - More powerful than helper methods because mixin methods can access methods (and instance variables) on **self** not defined in the mixin

Example

```
module Doubler
  def double
    self + self # assume included in classes w/ +
  end
end
class String
  include Doubler
end
class AnotherPt
  attr_accessor :x, :y
  include Doubler
  def + other
    ans = AnotherPt.new
    ans.x = self.x + other.x
    ans.y = self.y + other.y
    ans
  end
end
```

Lookup rules

Mixins change our lookup rules slightly:

- When looking for receiver `obj`'s method `m`, look in `obj`'s class, then mixins that class includes (later includes shadow), then `obj`'s superclass, then the superclass' mixins, etc.
- As for instance variables, the mixin methods are included in the same object
 - So usually bad style for mixin methods to use instance variables since a name clash would be like our **CowboyArtist** pocket problem (but sometimes unavoidable?)

The two big ones

The two most popular/useful mixins in Ruby:

- Comparable: Defines <, >, ==, !=, >=, <= in terms of <=>
- Enumerable: Defines many iterators (e.g., **map**, **find**) in terms of **each**

Great examples of using mixins:

- Classes including them get a bunch of methods for just a little work
- Classes do not “spend” their “one superclass” for this
- Do not need the complexity of multiple inheritance
- See the code for some examples

Replacement for multiple inheritance?

- A mixin works pretty well for **ColorPt3D**:
 - Color a reasonable mixin except for using an instance variable

```
module Color
  attr_accessor :color
end
```

- A mixin works awkwardly-at-best for **ArtistCowboy**:
 - Natural for **Artist** and **Cowboy** to be **Person** subclasses
 - Could move methods of one to a mixin, but it is odd style and still does not get you two pockets

```
module ArtistM ...
class Artist < Person
  include ArtistM
class ArtistCowboy < Cowboy
  include ArtistM
```



```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Interfaces

Statically-Typed OOP

- Now contrast multiple inheritance and mixins with Java/C#-style [interfaces](#)
- Important distinction, but interfaces are about static typing, which Ruby does not have
- So will use Java [pseudo]code after quick introduction to static typing for class-based OOP...
 - Sound typing for OOP prevents “method missing” errors

Classes as Types

- In Java/C#/etc. each class is also a type
- Methods have types for arguments and result

```
class A {  
    Object m1(Example e, String s) {...}  
    Integer m2(A foo, Boolean b, Integer i) {...}  
}
```

- If C is a (transitive) subclass of D, then C is a *subtype* of D
 - Type-checking allows subtype anywhere supertype allowed
 - So can pass instance of C to a method expecting instance of D

Interfaces are Types

```
interface Example {  
    void    m1(int x, int y) ;  
    Object m2(Example x, String y) ;  
}
```

- An interface is not a class; it is only a type
 - Does not contain method *definitions*, only their *signatures* (types)
 - Unlike mixins
 - Cannot use **new** on an interface
 - Like mixins

Implementing Interfaces

- A class can explicitly implement any number of interfaces
 - For class to type-check, it must implement every method in the interface with the right type
 - More on allowing subtypes later!
 - Multiple interfaces no problem; just implement everything
- If class type-checks, it is a subtype of the interface

```
class A implements Example {  
    public void m1(int x, int y) {...}  
    public Object m2(Example e, String s) {...}  
}  
class B implements Example {  
    public void m1(int pizza, int beer) {...}  
    public Object m2(Example e, String s) {...}  
}
```

Multiple interfaces

- Interfaces provide no methods or fields
 - So no questions of method/field duplication when implementing multiple interfaces, unlike multiple inheritance
- What interfaces are for:
 - “Caller can give any instance of any class implementing \mathbf{I} ”
 - So callee can call methods in \mathbf{I} regardless of class
 - So much more flexible type system
- Interfaces have little use in a dynamically typed language
 - Dynamic typing *already* much more flexible, with trade-offs we studied

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Optional: Abstract Methods

Connections

Answered in this segment:

- What does a statically typed OOP language need to support “required overriding”?
- How is this similar to higher-order functions?
- Why does a language with multiple inheritance (e.g., C++) not need Java/C#-style interfaces?

[Explaining Java’s [abstract methods](#) / C++’s [pure virtual methods](#)]

Required overriding

Often a class expects all subclasses to override some method(s)

- The purpose of the superclass is to abstract common functionality, but some non-common parts have no default

A Ruby approach:

- Do not define must-override methods in superclass
- Subclasses can add it
- Creating instance of superclass can cause method-missing errors

```
# do not use A.new
# all subclasses should define m2
class A
  def m1 v
    ... self.m2 e ...
  end
end
```

Static typing

- In Java/C#/C++, prior approach fails type-checking
 - No method `m2` defined in superclass
 - One solution: provide error-causing implementation

```
class A
  def m1 v
    ... self.m2 e ...
  end
  def m2 v
    raise "must be overridden"
  end
end
```

- Better: Use static checking to prevent this error...

Abstract methods

- Java/C#/C++ let superclass give signature (type) of method subclasses should provide
 - Called *abstract methods* or *pure virtual methods*
 - Cannot create instances of classes with such methods
 - Catches error at compile-time
 - Indicates intent to code-reader
 - Does *not* make language more powerful

```
abstract class A {  
    T1 m1 (T2 x) { ... m2 (e) ; ... }  
    abstract T3 m2 (T4 x) ;  
}  
class B extends A {  
    T3 m2 (T4 x) { ... }  
}
```

Passing code to other code

- Abstract methods and dynamic dispatch: An OOP way to have subclass “pass code” to other code in superclass

```
abstract class A {  
    T1 m1 (T2 x) { ... m2 (e) ; ... }  
    abstract T3 m2 (T4 x) ;  
}  
class B extends A {  
    T3 m2 (T4 x) { ... }  
}
```

- Higher-order functions: An FP way to have caller “pass code” to callee

```
fun f (g, x) = ... g e ...  
fun h x = ... f ((fn y => ...) , ...)
```

No interfaces in C++

- If you have multiple inheritance and abstract methods, you do not also need interfaces
- Replace each interface with a class with all abstract methods
- Replace each “implements interface” with another superclass

So: Expect to see interfaces only in statically typed OOP without multiple inheritance

- Not Ruby
- Not C++