



# Programming Language Design

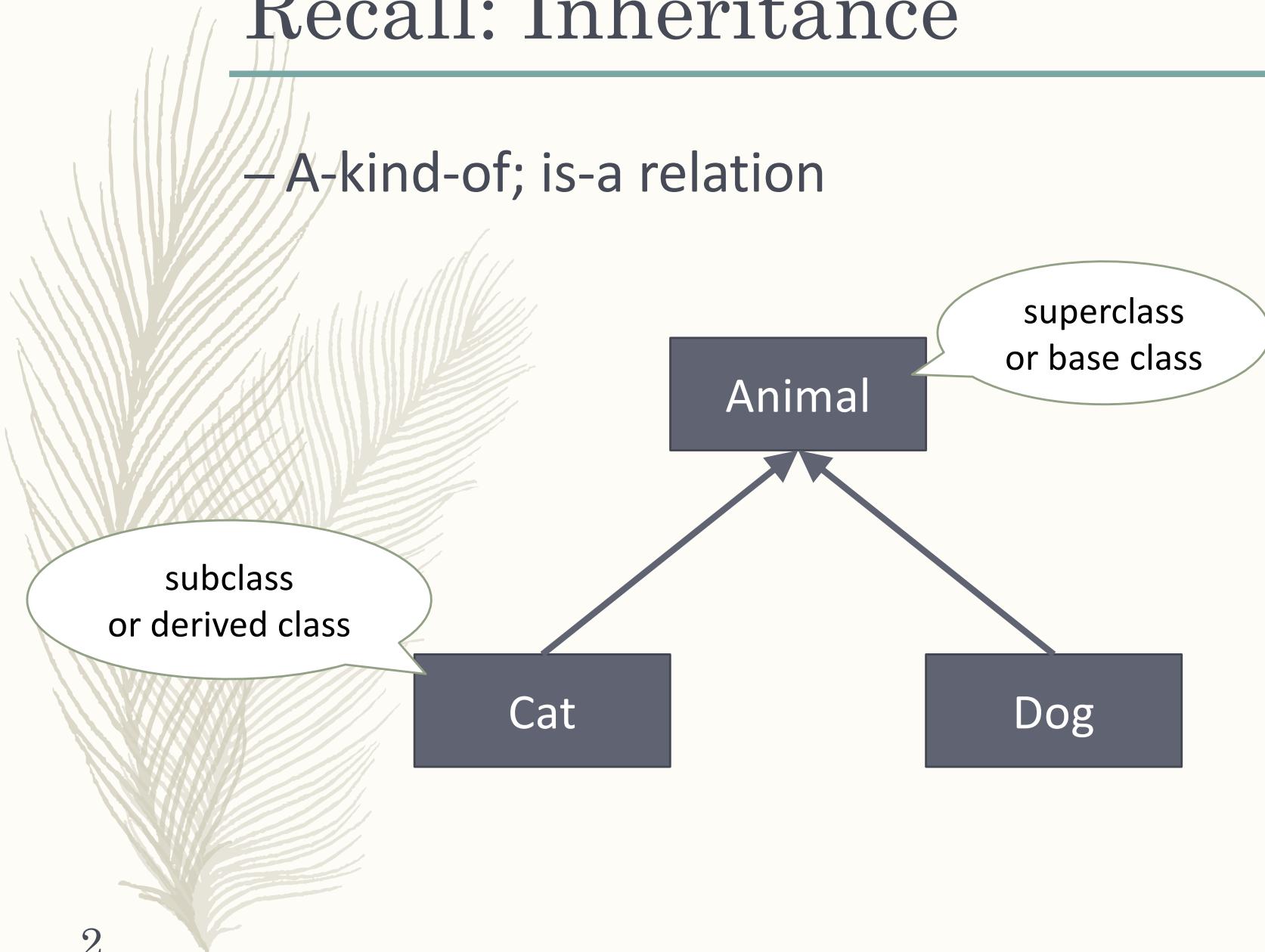
---

12/2 Delegation,  
Polymorphism,  
and Multimethods

# Recall: Inheritance

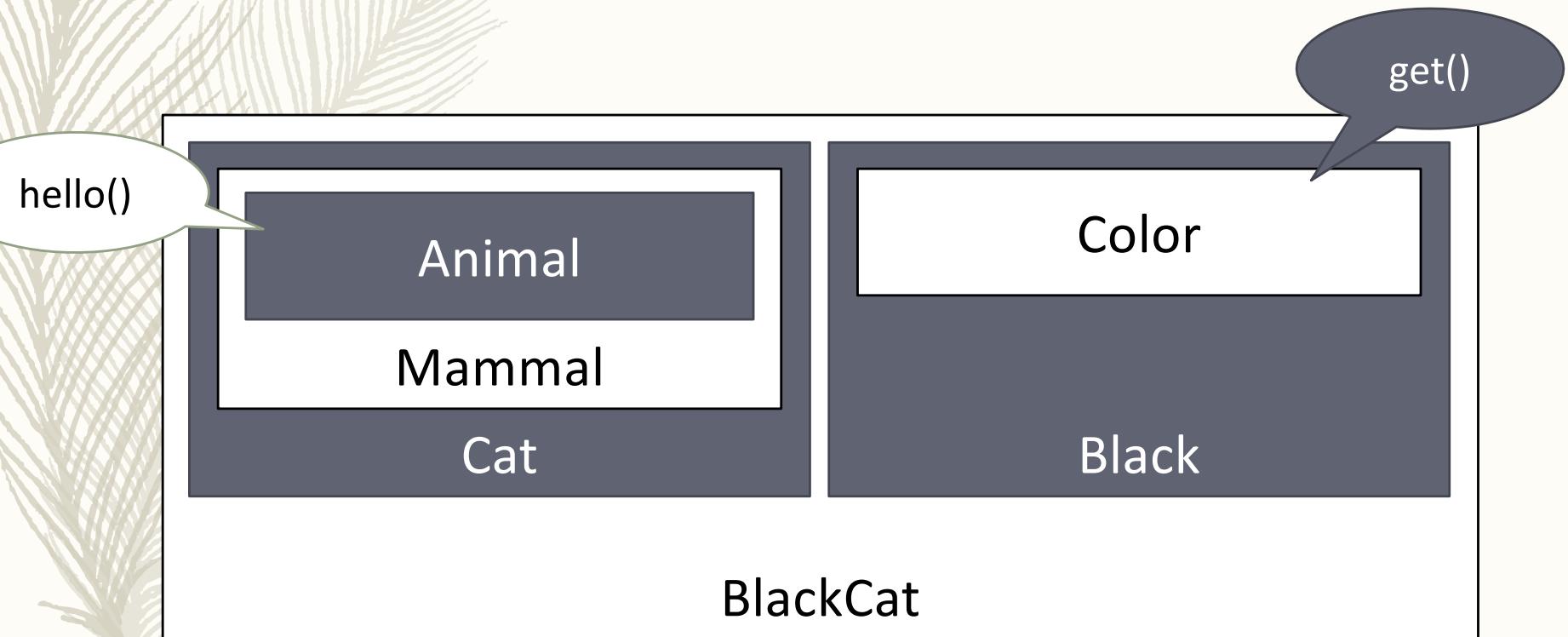
---

- A-kind-of; is-a relation



# Recall: Multiple inheritance (cont.)

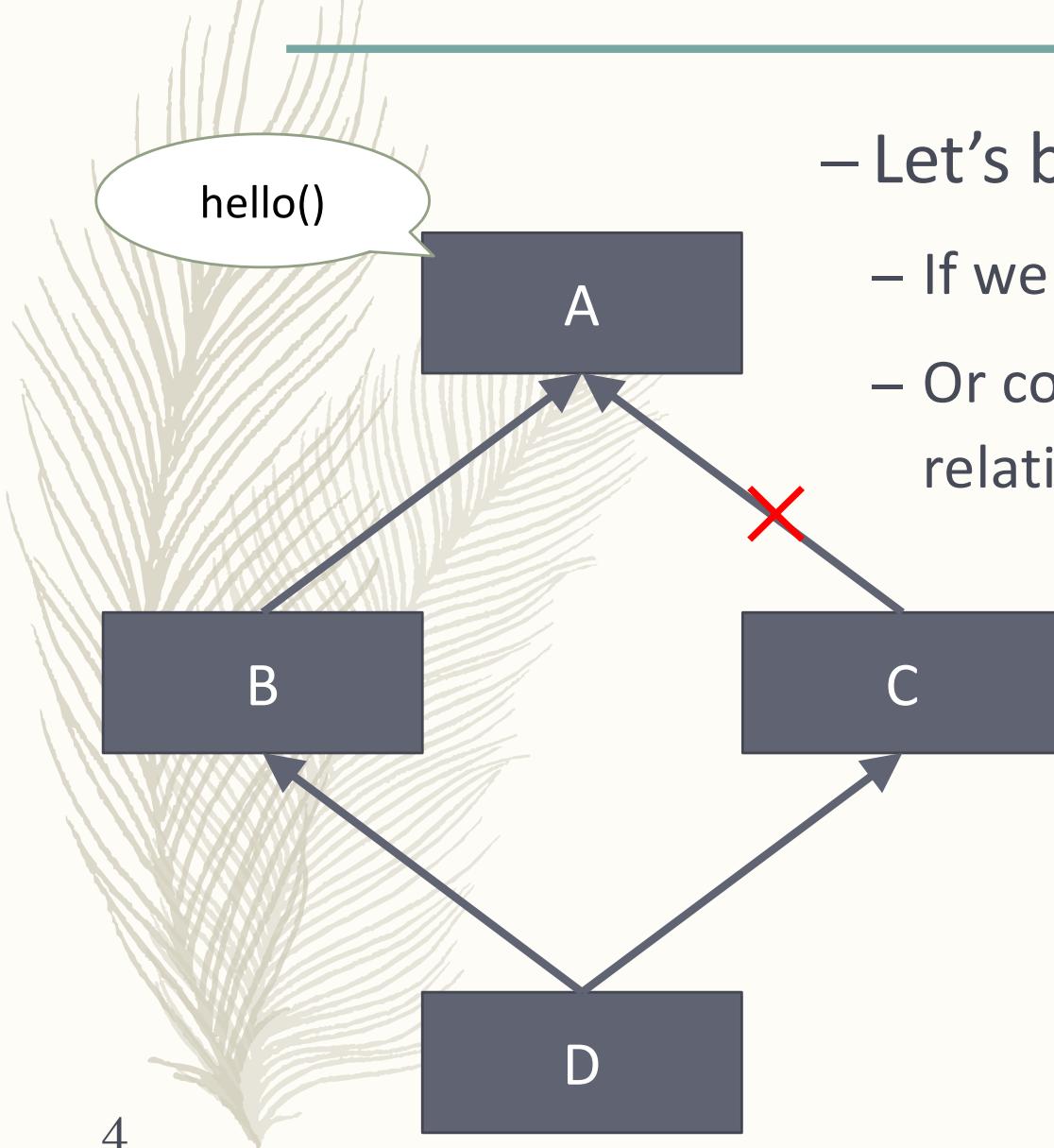
```
BlackCat b = new BlackCat();  
b.hello(); /* the one inherit from Mammal,  
           which inherit from Animal */  
b.get(); // the one inherit from Color
```



- 3 – Here we simply regard it as a container without thinking about the order

# Recall: Still allow multiple inheritance?

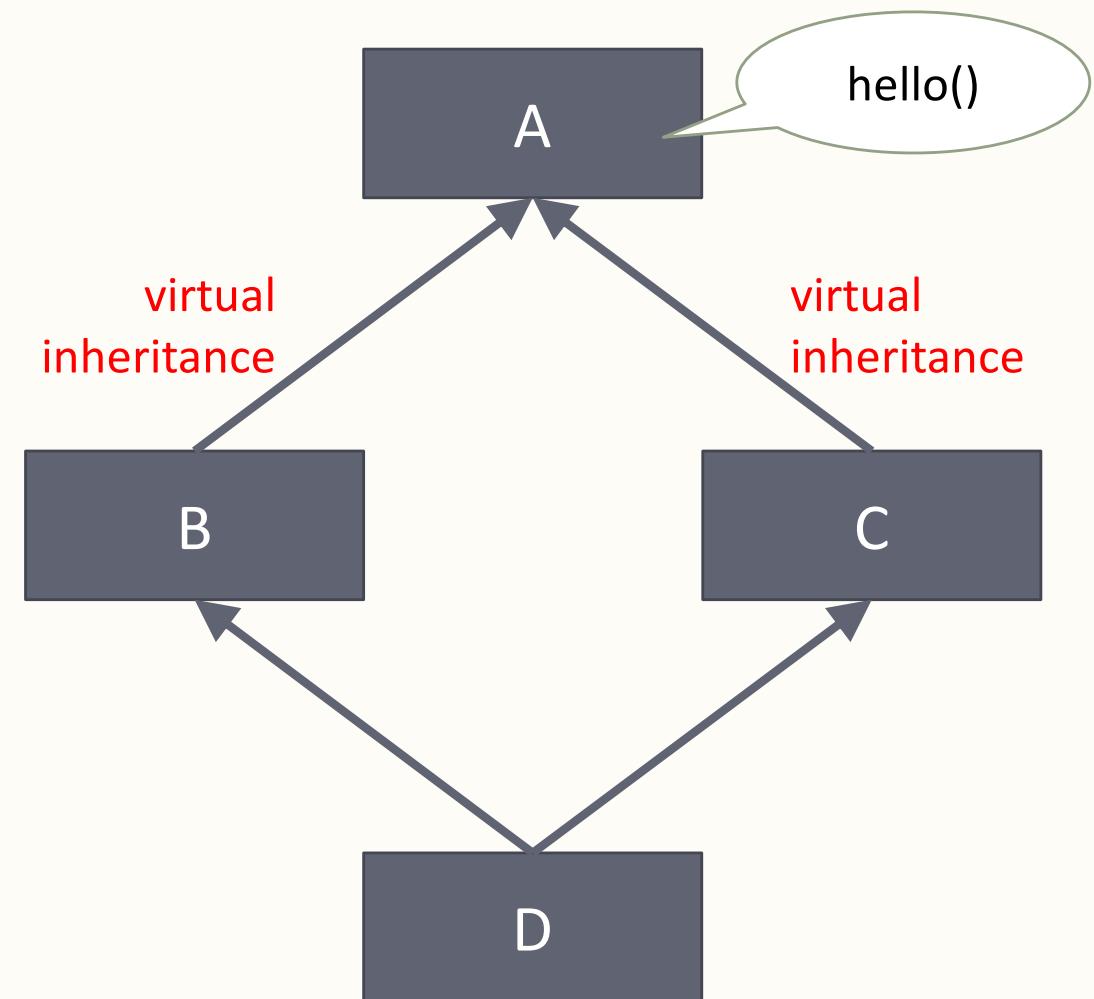
---



- Let's back to diamond problem
  - If we can break the relation?
  - Or convert to another type of relation?

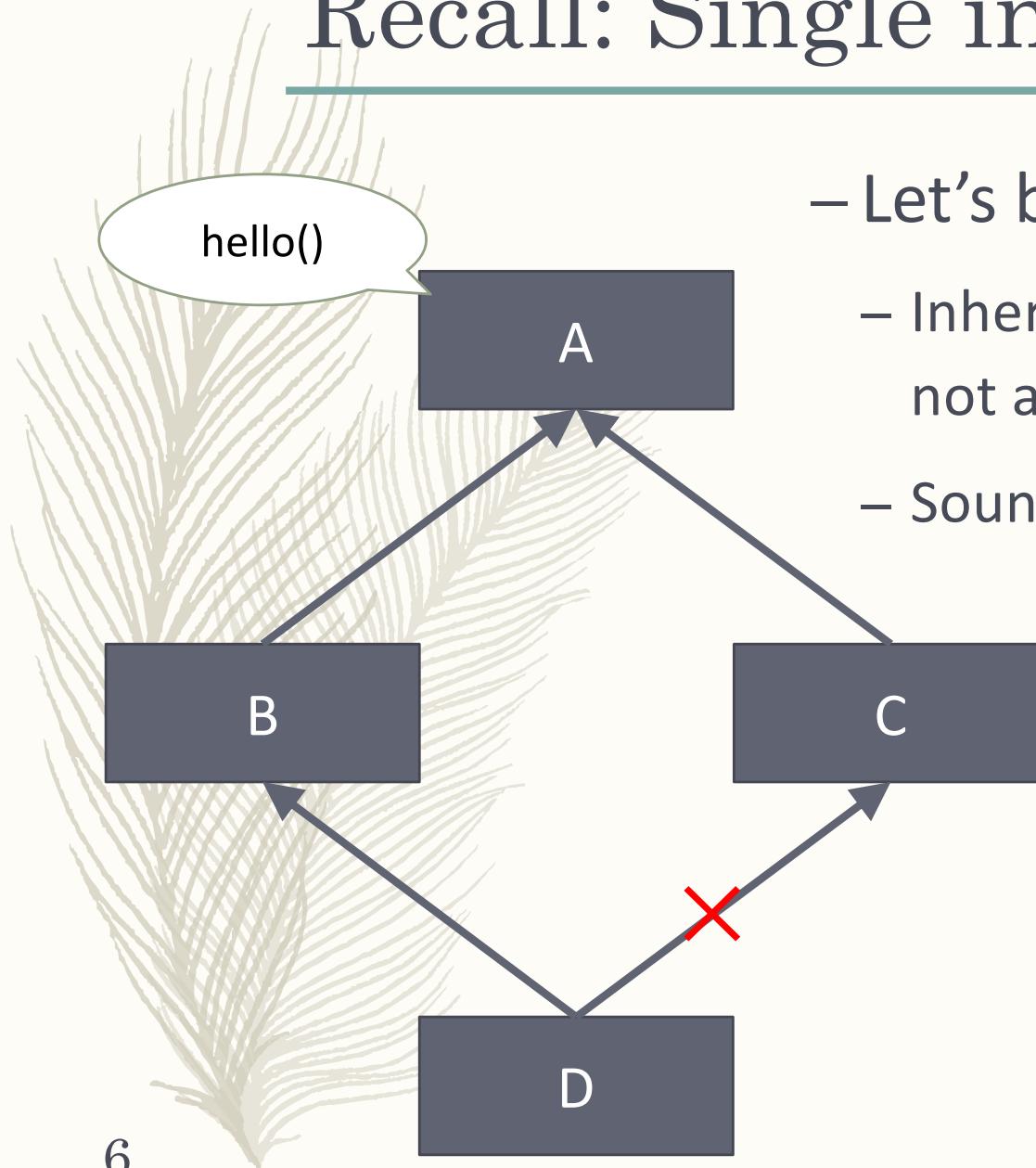
# Recall: Virtual inheritance in C++

- Resolve it by declaring **ALL** the inheritance relation as virtual
- Note that we must use virtual for **B** and **C**, not D



# Recall: Single inheritance

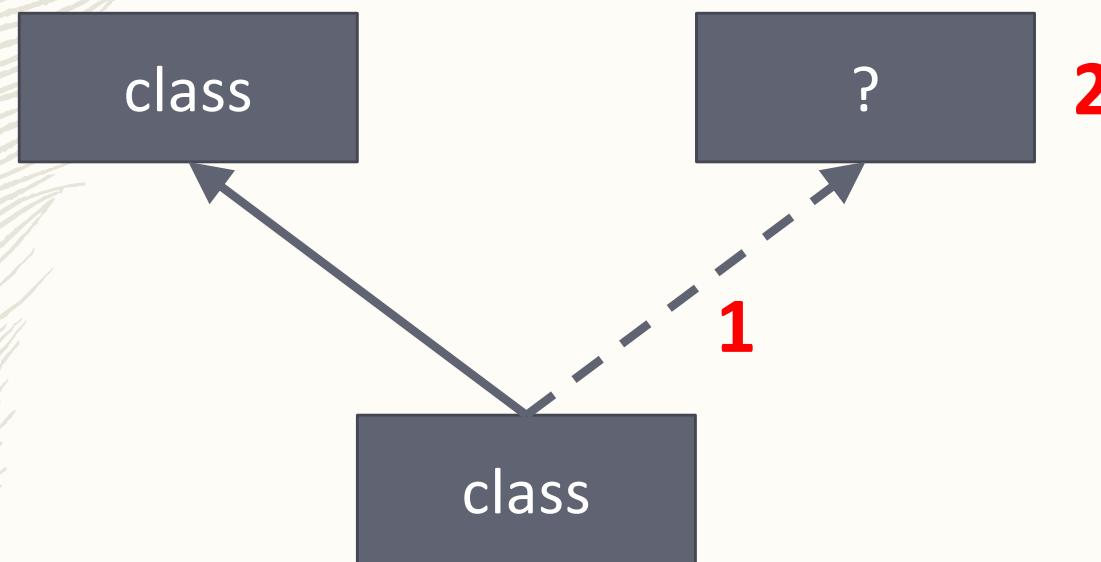
---

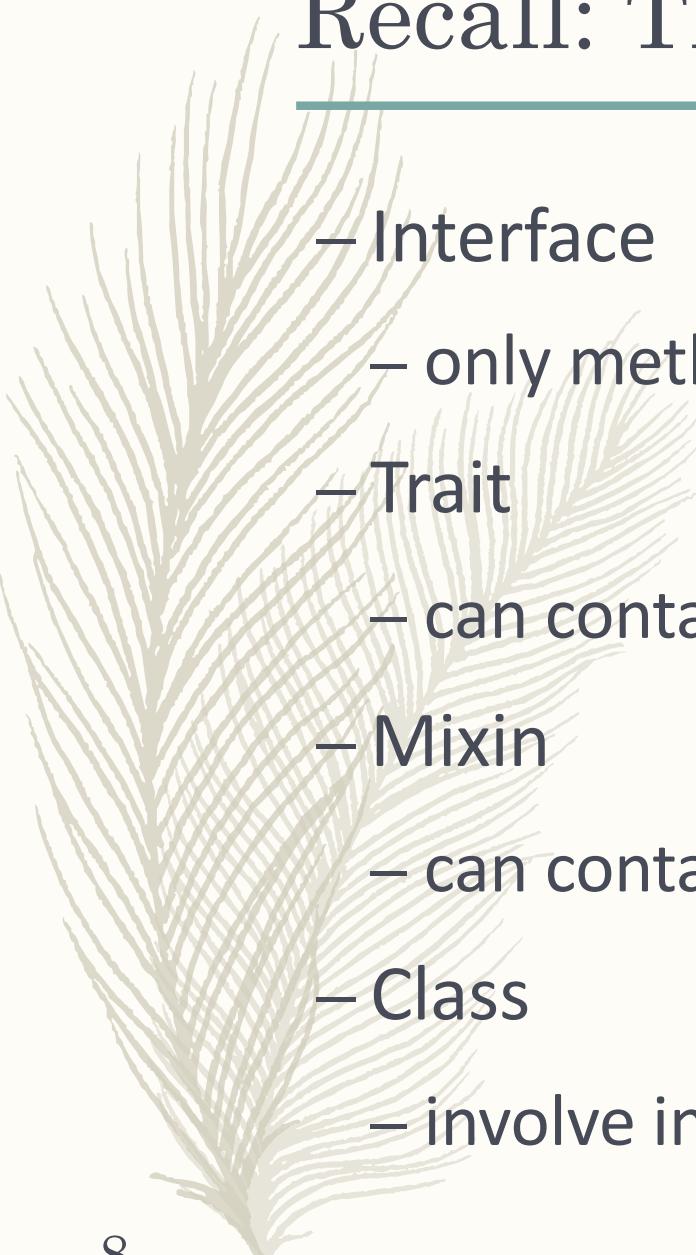


- Let's back to diamond problem
  - Inheriting from multiple classes is not allowed
  - Sounds reasonable?

# Recall: Single inheritance (cont.)

- How to resolve such problems?
  1. Let some links (inheritance) be different
  2. Let some units (classes) be different
    - *Introduce a new thing that is different from class*

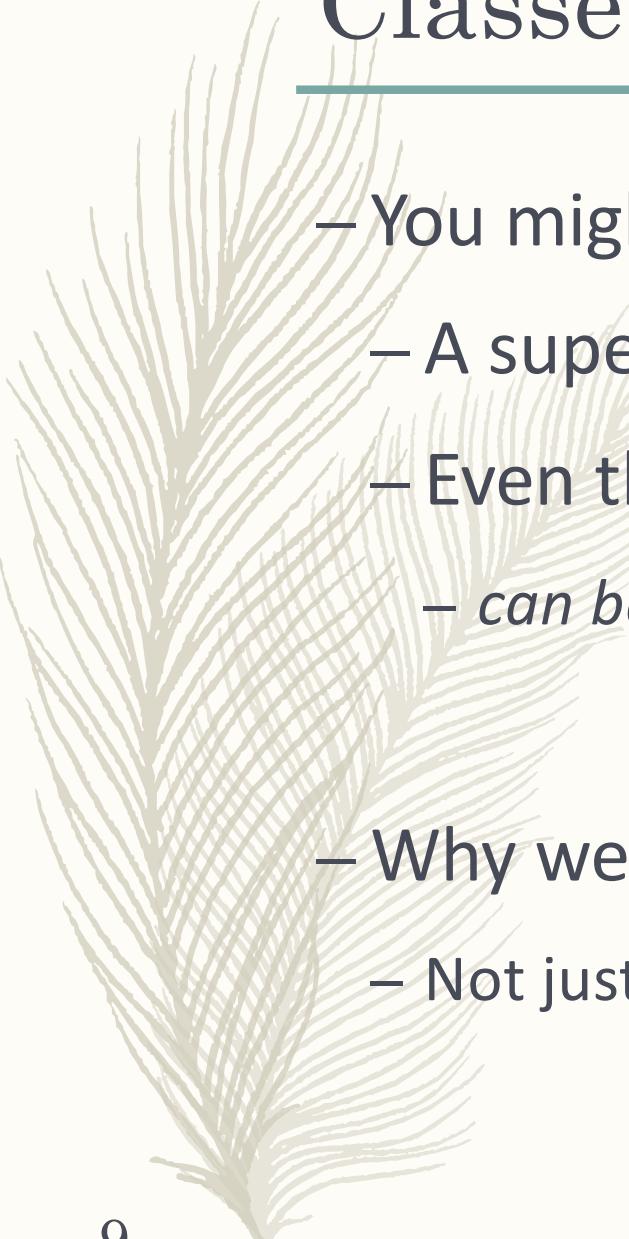




# Recall: The difference between them

---

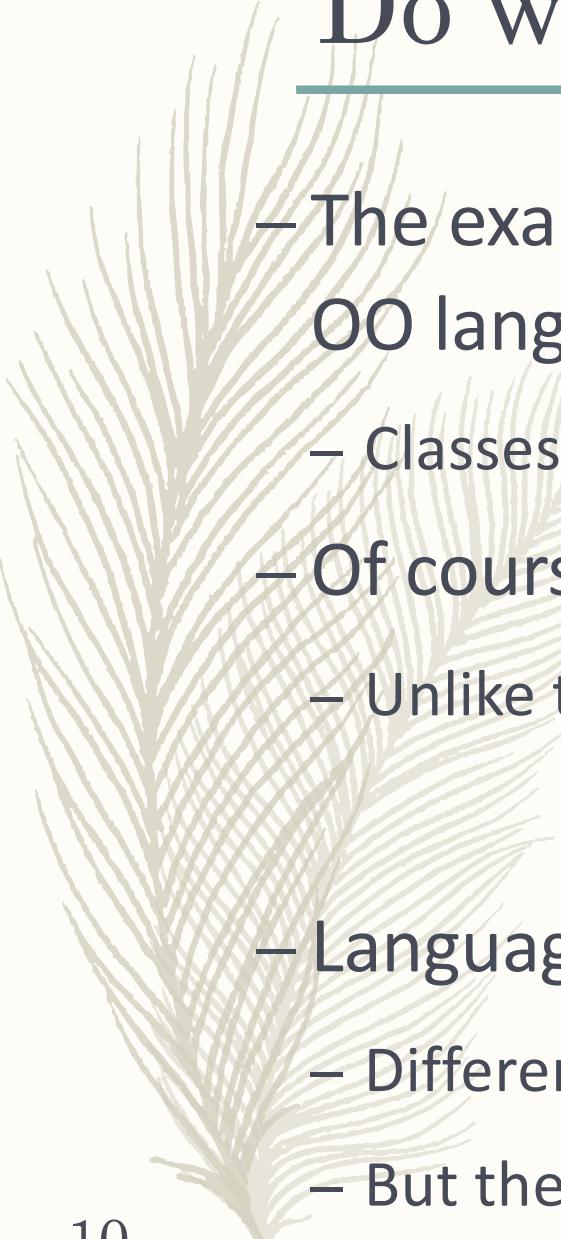
- Interface
  - only method signatures
- Trait
  - can contain method implementations
- Mixin
  - can contain states
- Class
  - involve in inheritance



# Classes are always there!

---

- You might notice that in the given example
  - A superclass is used along with mixins
  - Even though mixins can also have states??
    - *can be mixed in to create a new object*
- Why we still mix in a class with a mixin?
  - Not just mix in a mixin with a mixin??



# Do we really need classes?

---

- The examples we saw are written in class-based OO languages
  - Classes are their way to create objects
- Of course mixins can be used without classes
  - Unlike traits, they can hold states
- Language support
  - Different languages might support them in a various way
  - But the basic ideas are the same

# Another style of OOP

---

- Write object-oriented programs with classes
  - Class-based OOP
  - E.g. Smalltalk, C++, Java, C#, Python
- Without classes?
  - Prototype-based OOP
  - Introduced by Self
    - Followed by Common Lisp, JavaScript, etc.

## Reference

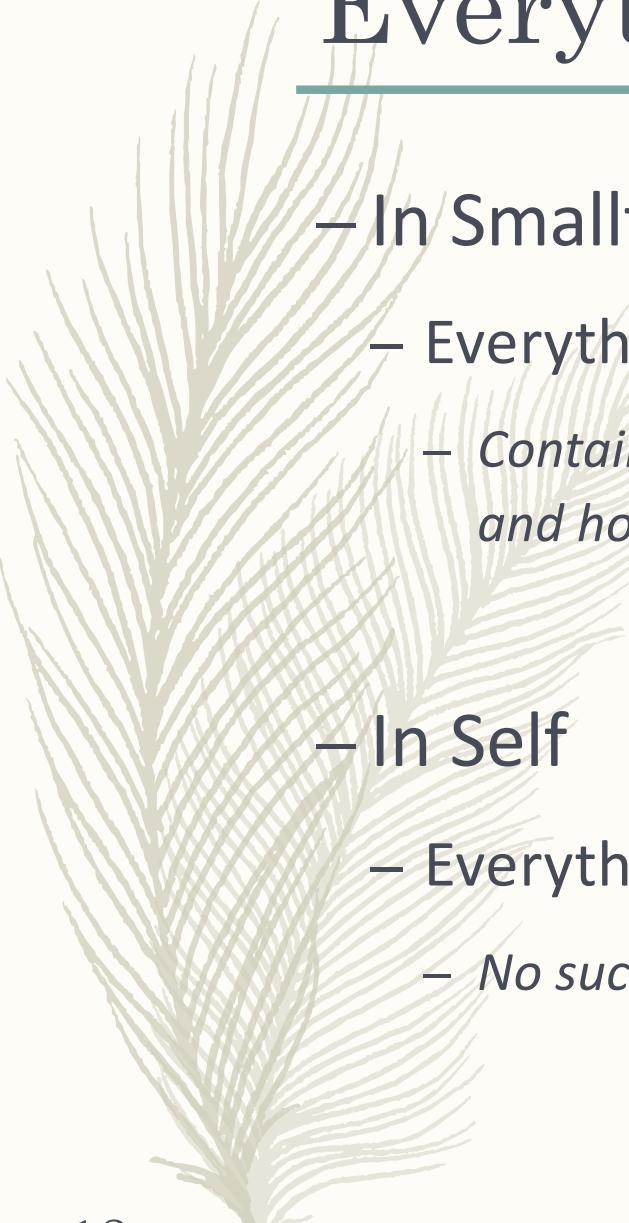
- David Ungar and Randall B. Smith. Self: The Power of Simplicity. In OOPSLA '87, 1987.
- Randall B. Smith and David Ungar. Programming as an Experience: The Inspiration for Self. In ECOOP'95, 1995.



# The Self language

---

- Simplicity
  - Based on prototypes, slots, and behavior
  - Dynamically typed as Smalltalk
- Simpler relationships
  - Class-based
    - *is-a, instance of*
    - *kind-of, subclass of*
  - Self
    - *inherits from*



# Everything is an object

---

- In Smalltalk
  - Everything is an object
    - *Containing a pointer to its class, which describes its format and holds its behavior*
  - In Self
    - Everything is also an object, but
      - *No such a class pointer used in Smalltalk*



# How it works without class?

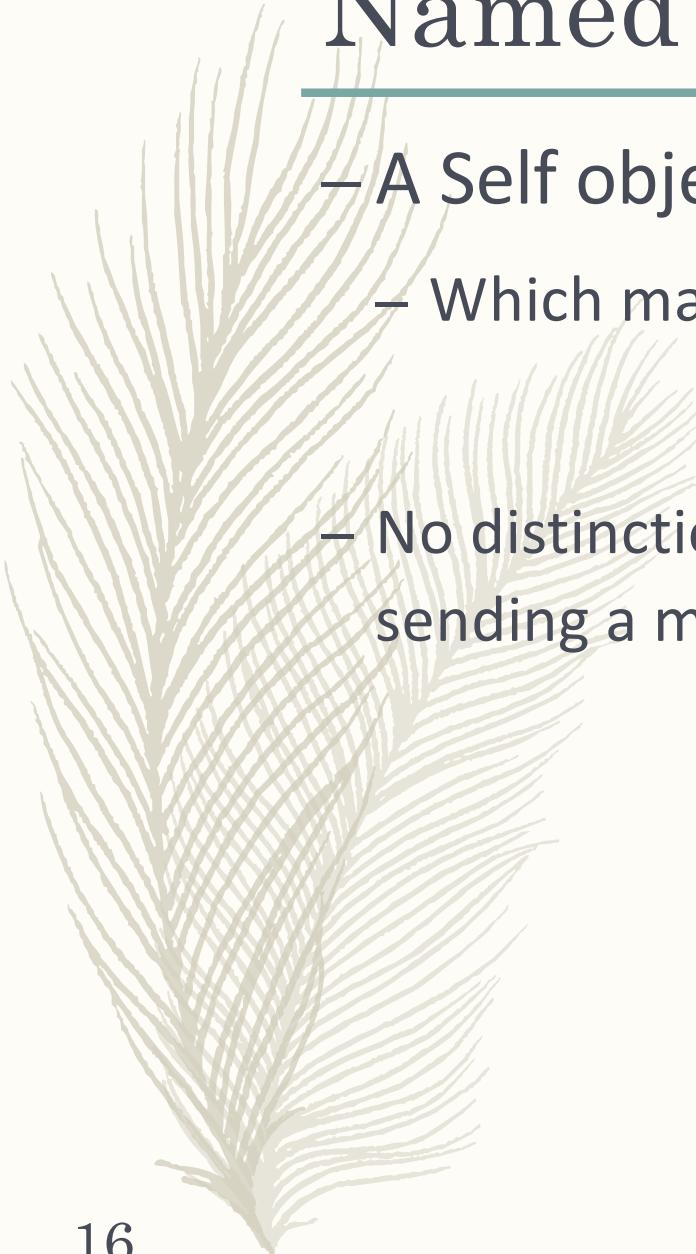
---

- Message sending
  - Class-based
    - Search the **method** for that message
    - If not found
      - continues via the **class pointer**
  - Self
    - Search the **slot** for that message
    - If not found
      - continues via a **parent pointer**

# How it works without class? (cont.)

---

- Object creation
  - Class-based
    - *Executing a “plan”*
    - Self
      - *Cloning (copying) an example*
      - *No need to create a class even for only one object instance*
      - *No metaclass, no metametaclass, ...*



# Named slots

---

- A Self object contains named slots
  - Which may store either state or behavior
- No distinction between accessing a variable and sending a message



# Named slots (cont.)

---

- No variables?!
  - To access “x” variable on an object
    - *Send a message “x” to it*
    - *Find the “x” slot*
    - *Evaluate the object found therein*
      - The result is the number since the “x” slot contains a number
  - To change the contents of the “x”
    - *Send a message “x:” with a number as the argument*
    - *The slot named “x:” containing the assignment primitive*

# Delegation

---

- Self replaces inheritance with delegation
  - A message to an object can be delegated to another object
  - Allow runtime function invocation on a specific object instance
- JavaScript follows these concepts

# Object creation in JavaScript

---

- Create a prototype

```
function Animal(name) {  
    this.name = name;  
}
```

- Create an object based on the prototype

```
var x = new Animal("x");
```

# Add field or method

---

- Add a field to an object

```
x.hello = "hello";
```

- Add a method to an object

```
x.hello = function() {  
    print(name + ": hello");  
};
```

# Add to the prototype

---

- Add a field to a prototype

```
Animal.prototype.weight = 10;
```

- Add a method to a prototype

```
Animal.prototype.weight = function() {  
    return 10;  
};
```

# Function object

---

- A method on an object is actually a function object

```
function Animal(name) {  
    this.name = name;  
    this.hello = function() {  
        print(name + ": hello");  
    };  
}  
var x = new Animal("x");
```

# Modify prototype affects its objects

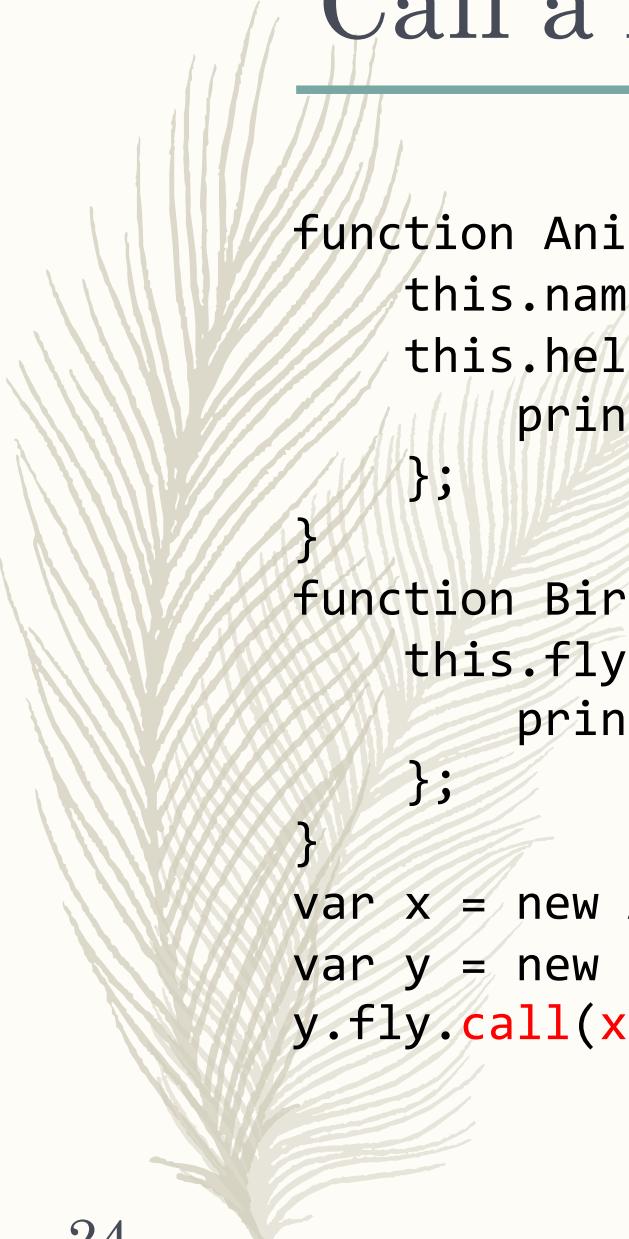
---

- Since the message “weight” cannot be found on x and then passed to its prototype!

```
function Animal(name) {  
}  
var x = new Animal("x");  
print(x.weight);      // undefined  
  
Animal.prototype.weight = 10;  
var y = new Animal("y");  
print(y.weight);      // 10  
  
print(x.weight);      // 10
```

# Call a function object

---

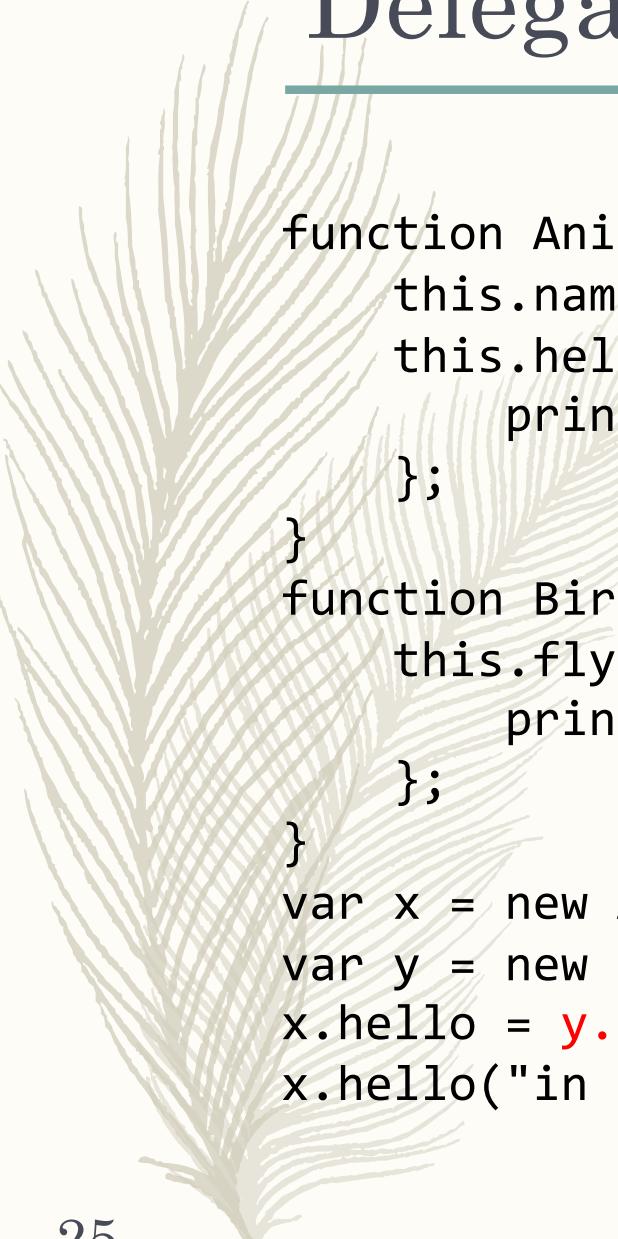


```
function Animal(name) {  
    this.name = name;  
    this.hello = function() {  
        print(name + ": hello");  
    };  
}  
function Bird() {  
    this.fly = function(where) {  
        print(this.name + " fly " + where);  
    };  
}  
var x = new Animal("x");  
var y = new Bird("y");  
y.fly.call(x, "in the sky"); // "x fly in the sky"
```

- “call” can be used to invoke a method with “this”!

# Delegate a method call

---



```
function Animal(name) {  
    this.name = name;  
    this.hello = function() {  
        print(name + ": hello");  
    };  
}  
function Bird() {  
    this.fly = function(where) {  
        print(this.name + " fly " + where);  
    };  
}  
var x = new Animal("x");  
var y = new Bird("y");  
x.hello = y.fly;  
x.hello("in the sky"); // "x fly in the sky"
```

- It is also possible to delegate a method call to another method



# What is polymorphism?

---

- polymorphous (also polymorphic)
  - “*having many forms, styles, etc during the stages of development*”
    - Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 5<sup>th</sup> edition
  - “*having or passing through many stages of development*”
    - Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 9<sup>th</sup> edition

# Ad-hoc polymorphism

---

- An example: the polymorphic + operator
  - When calling + on two operands, dispatch to concrete implementation
    - *Based on the types of the operands*
- Also known as overloading


$$\begin{aligned} 1 \textcolor{red}{+} 2 &= 3 \\ 1.0 \textcolor{red}{+} 2.0 &= 3.0 \\ "1" \textcolor{red}{+} "2" &= "12" \end{aligned}$$

# Parametric polymorphism

---

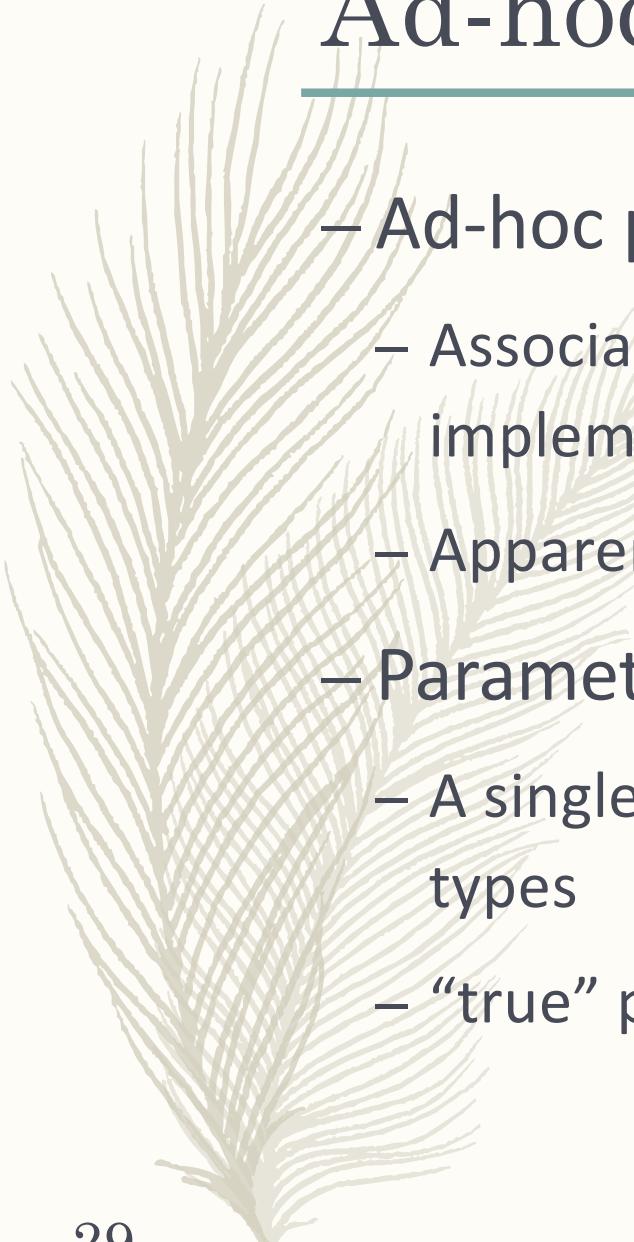
- An example: drop the first element in a List
  - When calling drop on a List, the precise input type never comes into play
  - *Acts uniformly on a range of types*

```
def drop[A](l: List[A]): List[A] = l.tail
```

```
val result1 = drop(List(1, 2, 3))
```

```
val result2 = drop(List("one", "two", "three"))
```

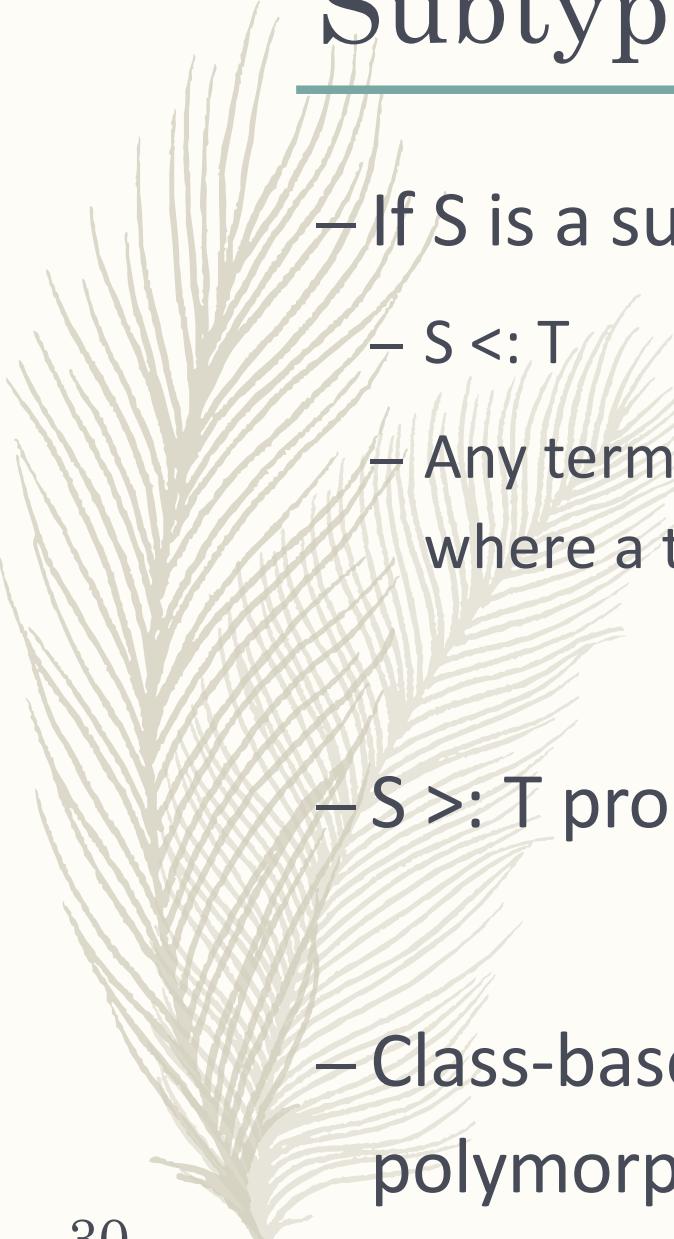
- Also known as generics



# Ad-hoc vs. Parametric

---

- Ad-hoc polymorphism
  - Associate a single function symbol with a set of implementation
  - Apparent, synthetic
- Parametric polymorphism
  - A single generic function which works for a variety of types
  - “true” polymorphism



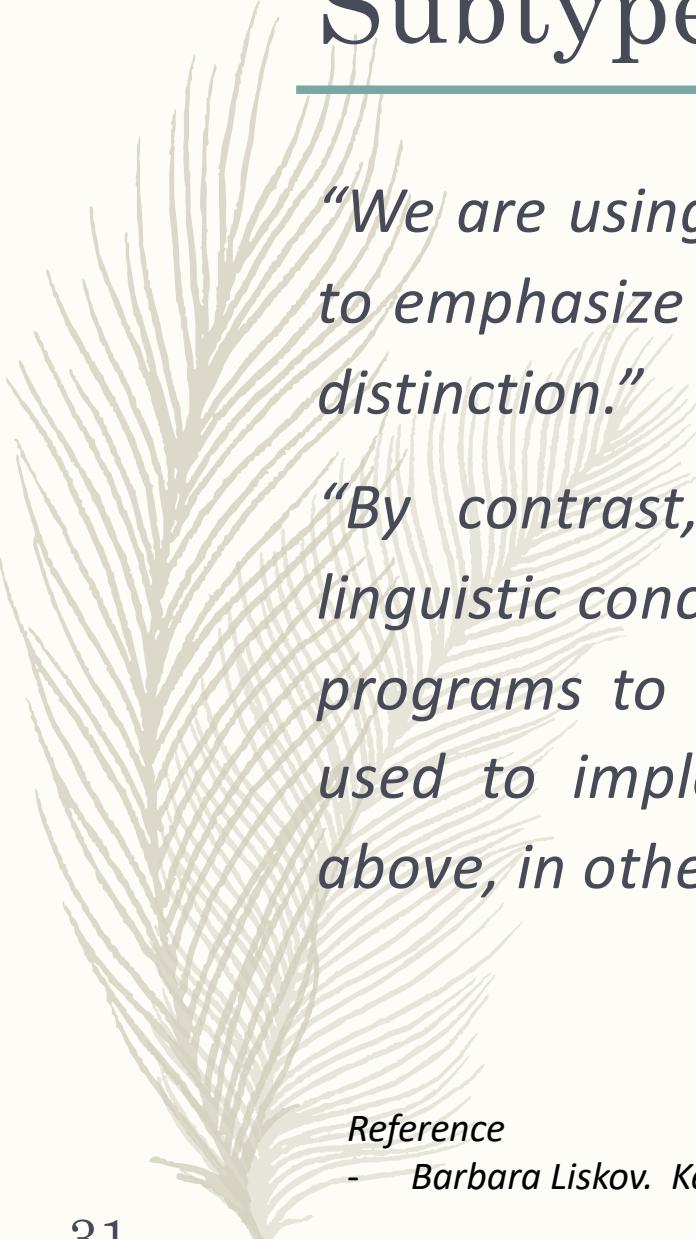
# Subtyping polymorphism

---

- If  $S$  is a subtype of  $T$ 
  - $S <: T$
  - Any term of type  $S$  can be safely used in a context where a term of type  $T$  is expected
- $S >: T$  pronounced “ $S$  is a supertype of  $T$ ”
- Class-based OOP provides subtype polymorphism in the form of subclassing

# Subtype? Subclass?

---

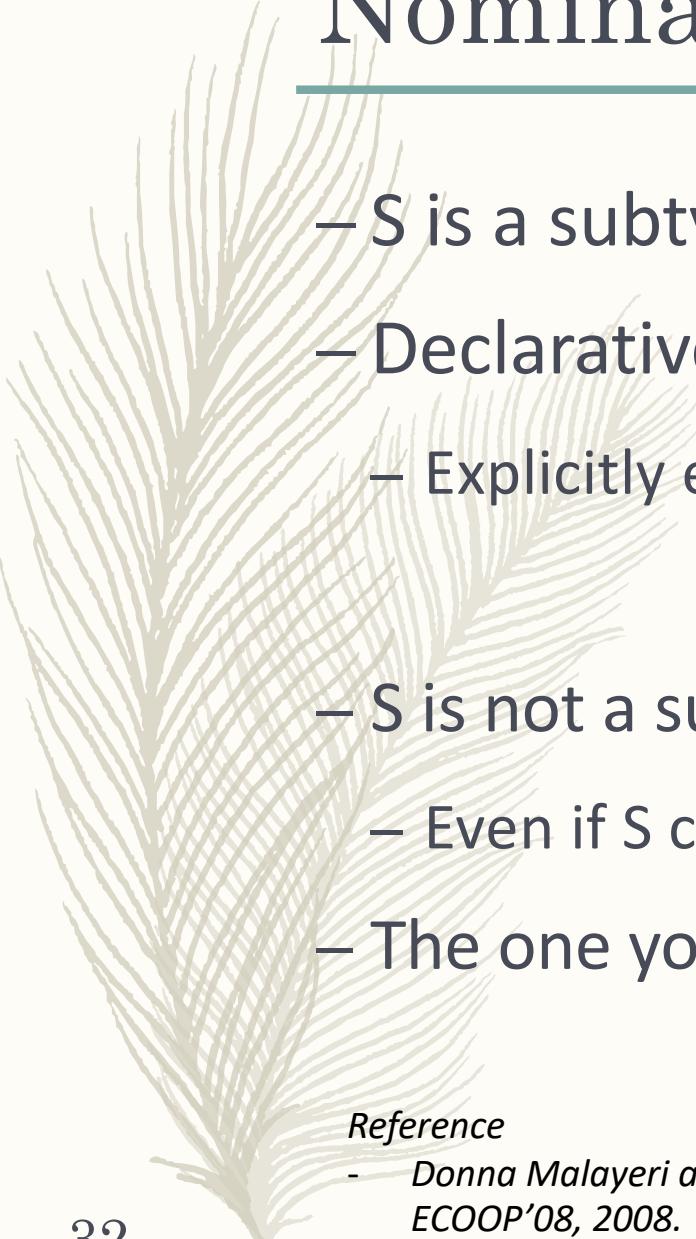


*“We are using the words ‘subtype’ and ‘supertype’ here to emphasize that now we are talking about a semantic distinction.”*

*“By contrast, ‘subclass’ and ‘superclass’ are simply linguistic concepts in programming languages that allow programs to be built in a particular way. They can be used to implement subtypes, but also, as mentioned above, in other ways.”*

## *Reference*

- Barbara Liskov. Keynote Address - Data Abstraction and Hierarchy. In OOPSLA'87, 1987.



# Nominal typing

---

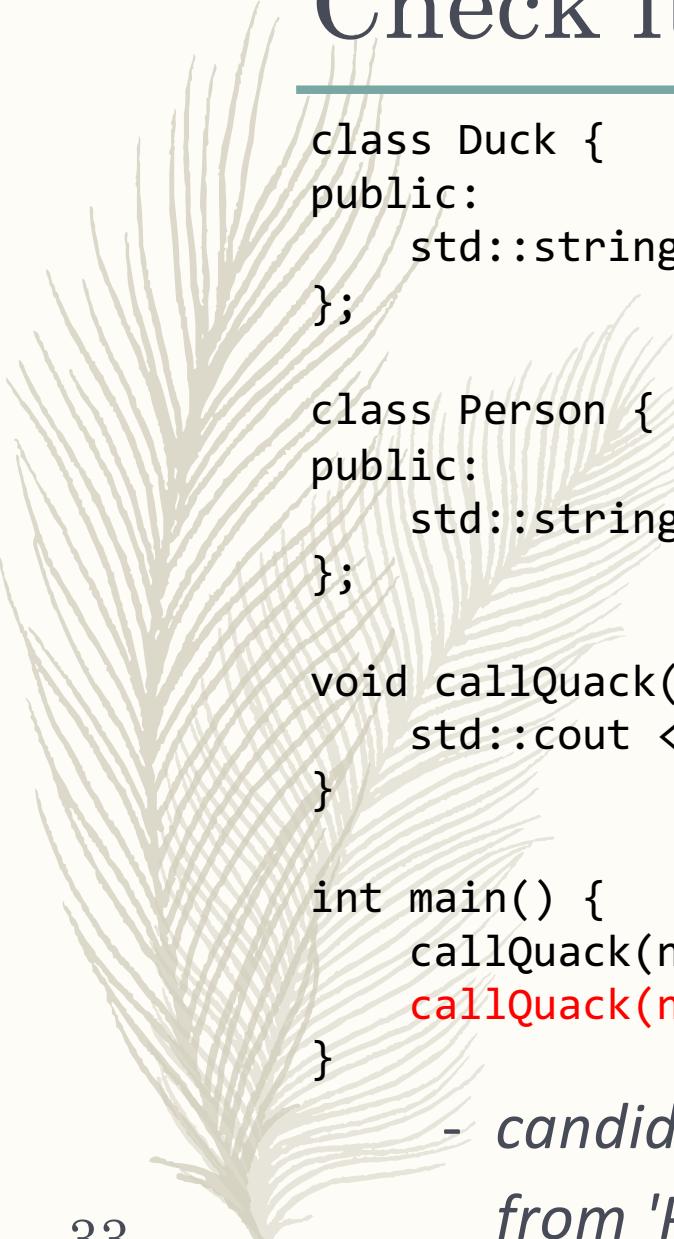
- S is a subtype of T if and only if it is declared
- Declarative
  - Explicitly express design intention
- S is not a subtype of T if it is not declared
  - Even if S can do anything T can do
- The one you see in class-based OO languages

*Reference*

- *Donna Malayeri and Jonathan Aldrich. Integrating Nominal and Structural Subtyping. In ECOOP'08, 2008.*

# Check it according to declaration

---



```
class Duck {  
public:  
    std::string quack() { return "Quack!"; }  
};  
  
class Person {  
public:  
    std::string quack() { return "I am not a duck..."; }  
};  
  
void callQuack(Duck* duck) {  
    std::cout << duck->quack() << std::endl;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    callQuack(new Duck());  
    callQuack(new Person()); // compilation error!!  
}
```

- *candidate function not viable: no known conversion from 'Person \*' to 'Duck \*' for 1st argument*

# Duck typing

---

- “In other words, don't check whether it IS-a duck: check whether it QUACKS-like-a duck, WALKS-like-a duck, etc, etc, depending on exactly what subset of duck-like behaviour you need to play your language-games with.”
- A style of type checking, done at runtime
- In JavaScript, Python, Ruby

## *Reference*

- <https://groups.google.com/forum/?hl=en#!msg/comp.lang.python/CCs2oJdyuzc/NYjla5HKMOIJ>

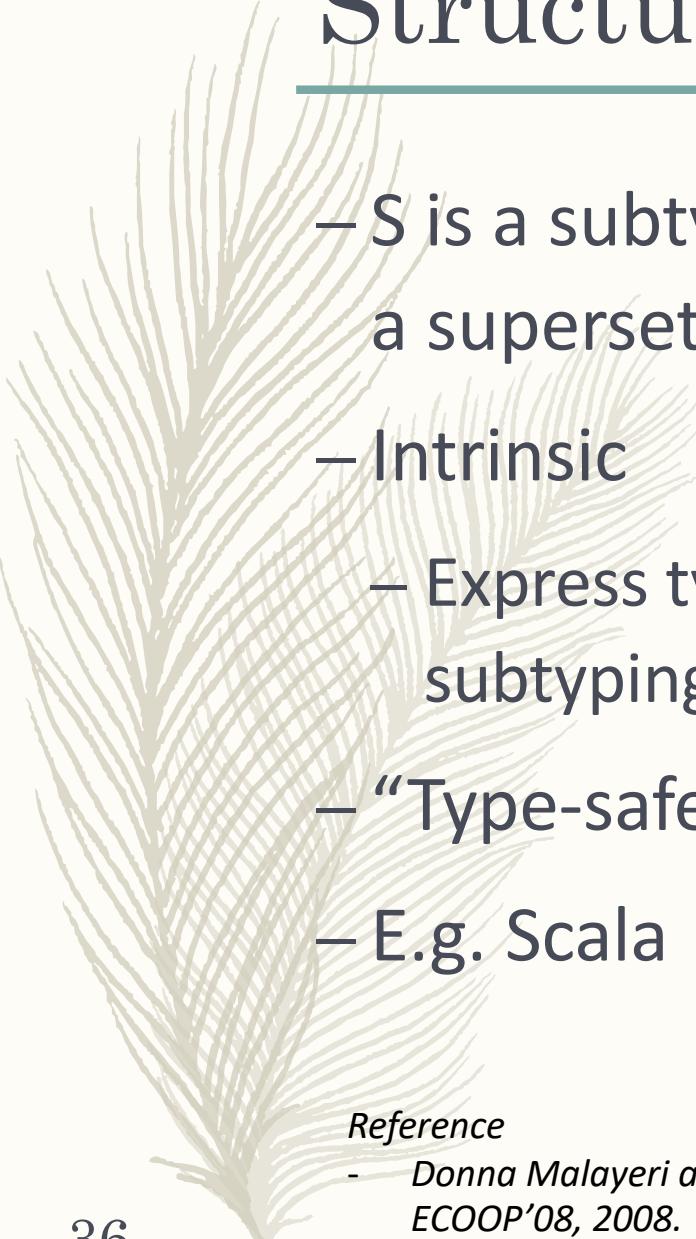
# Check only the behaviors

---



```
class Duck:  
    def quack(self):  
        return 'Quack!'  
  
class Person:  
    def quack(self):  
        return 'I am not a duck...'  
  
def callQuack(duck):  
    print(duck.quack())  
  
callQuack(Duck())      // Quack!  
callQuack(Person())    // I am not a duck...
```

- It works since the Person object has quack method!



# Structural typing

---

- S is a subtype of T if its methods and fields are a superset of T's methods and fields
- Intrinsic
  - Express type requirements without defining subtyping hierarchy
  - “Type-safe duck typing”
  - E.g. Scala

*Reference*

- *Donna Malayeri and Jonathan Aldrich. Integrating Nominal and Structural Subtyping. In ECOOP'08, 2008.*

# Check if it works as promised

---

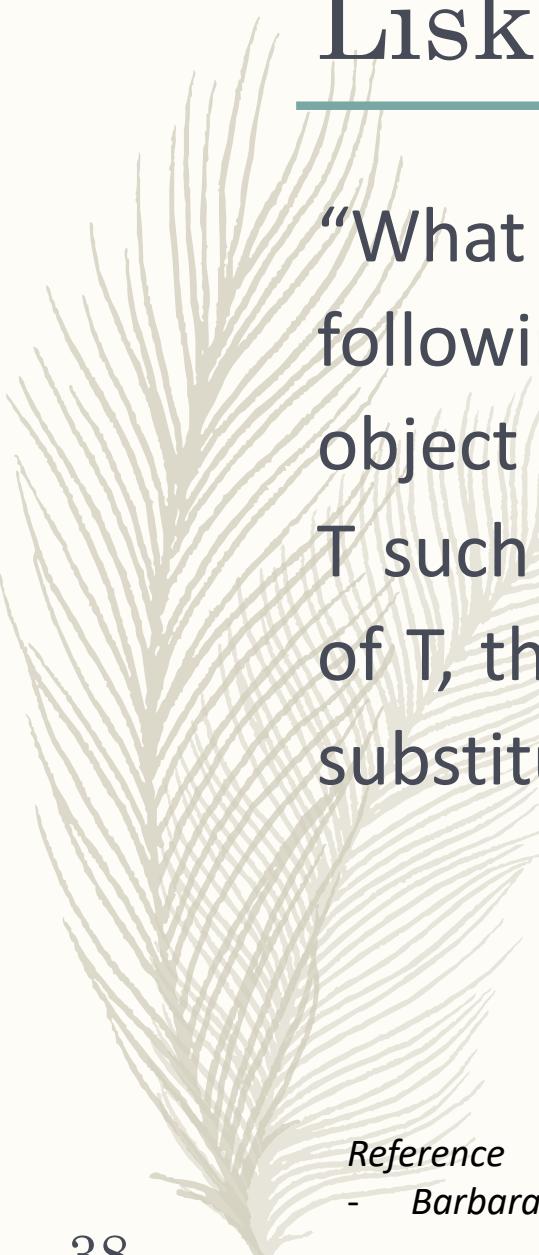


```
class Duck {  
    def quack = "Quack!"  
}  
  
class Person {  
    def quack = "I am not a duck..."  
}  
  
def callQuack(duck: {def quack: String}) {  
    println(duck.quack)  
}  
  
callQuack(new Duck)  
callQuack(new Person)
```

- In the case of duck typing, the message might be sent to an object that does not have such a method!

# Liskov substitution principle

---



“What is wanted here is something like the following substitution property: If for each object  $o_1$  of type  $S$  there is an object  $o_2$  of type  $T$  such that for all programs  $P$  defined in terms of  $T$ , the behavior of  $P$  is unchanged when  $o_1$  is substituted for  $o_2$ , then  $S$  is a subtype of  $T$ .”

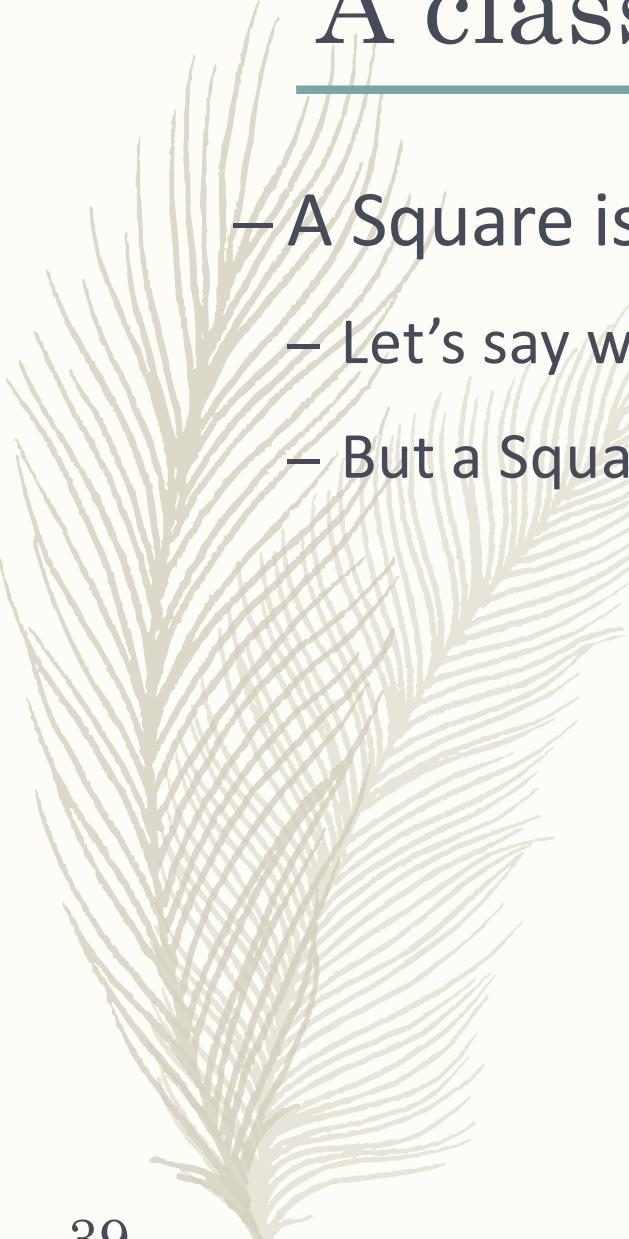
## Reference

- *Barbara Liskov. Keynote Address - Data Abstraction and Hierarchy. In OOPSLA'87, 1987.*

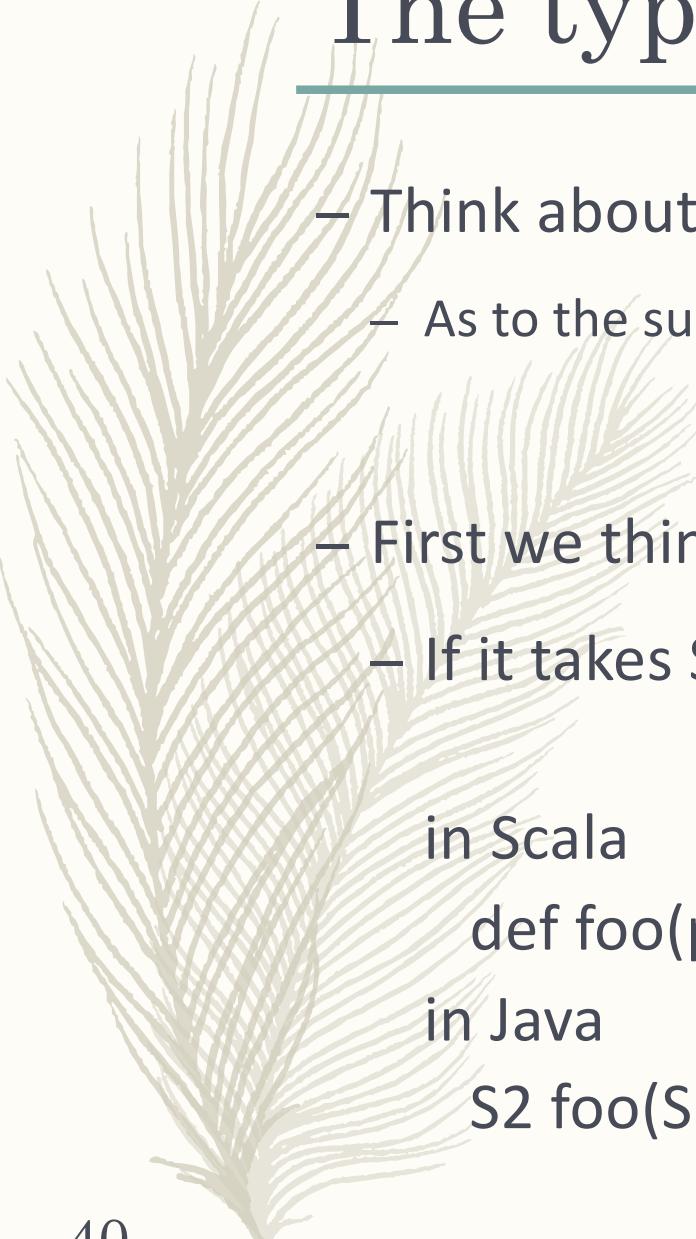
# A classic example of violation

---

- A Square is a Rectangle?
  - Let's say we want to derive Square from Rectangle...
  - But a Square is not always substitutable for a Rectangle!



```
void test(Rectangle r) {  
    r.setWidth(16);  
    r.setHeight(10);  
    assert r.getWidth() == 16;  
    assert r.getHeight() == 10;  
}  
test(new Square()); // fail!
```



# The type of a function

---

- Think about the subtype of a variable is easy
  - As to the subtype of a function?
- First we think about what the type of a function is
  - If it takes S1 and return S2, for example

in Scala

```
def foo(p: S1): S2 = { ... }
```

in Java

```
S2 foo(S1 p) { ... }
```

we say its type is “ $S1 \rightarrow S2$ ”

# The subtype of a function

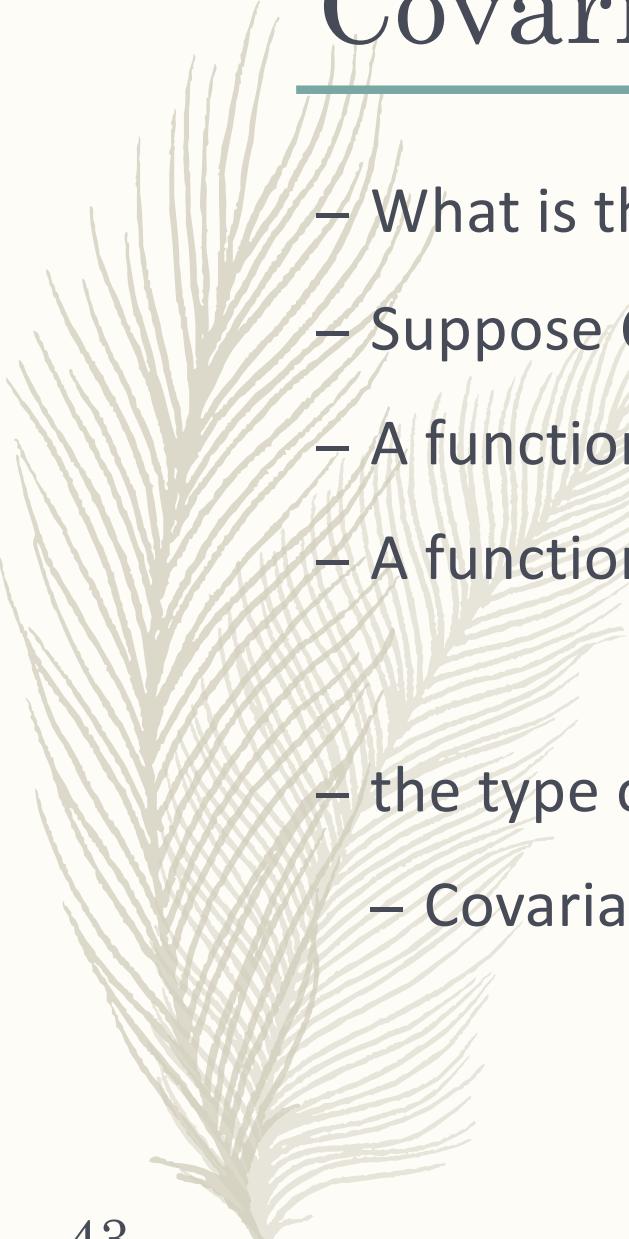
---

- Think about the subtype of a function
- To know when it is safe to use a function of one type in a context where a different function type is expected
  - i.e. when we can safely substitute a function with another function

# Contravariance

---

- What is the relation between the types of functions?
- Suppose  $\text{Cat} <: \text{Animal}$ 
  - A function `foo` takes a `Cat` and returns an `Integer`
  - A function `bar` takes an `Animal` and returns an `Integer`
- the type of `foo`  $>:$  the type of `bar`
- Contravariant



# Covariance

---

- What is the relation between the types of functions?
- Suppose  $\text{Cat} <: \text{Animal}$
- A function  $\text{foo}$  takes an Integer and returns an Animal
- A function  $\text{bar}$  takes an Integer and returns a Cat
  
- the type of  $\text{foo} <: \text{the type of bar}$
- Covariant

# The subtype of a function (cont.)

---

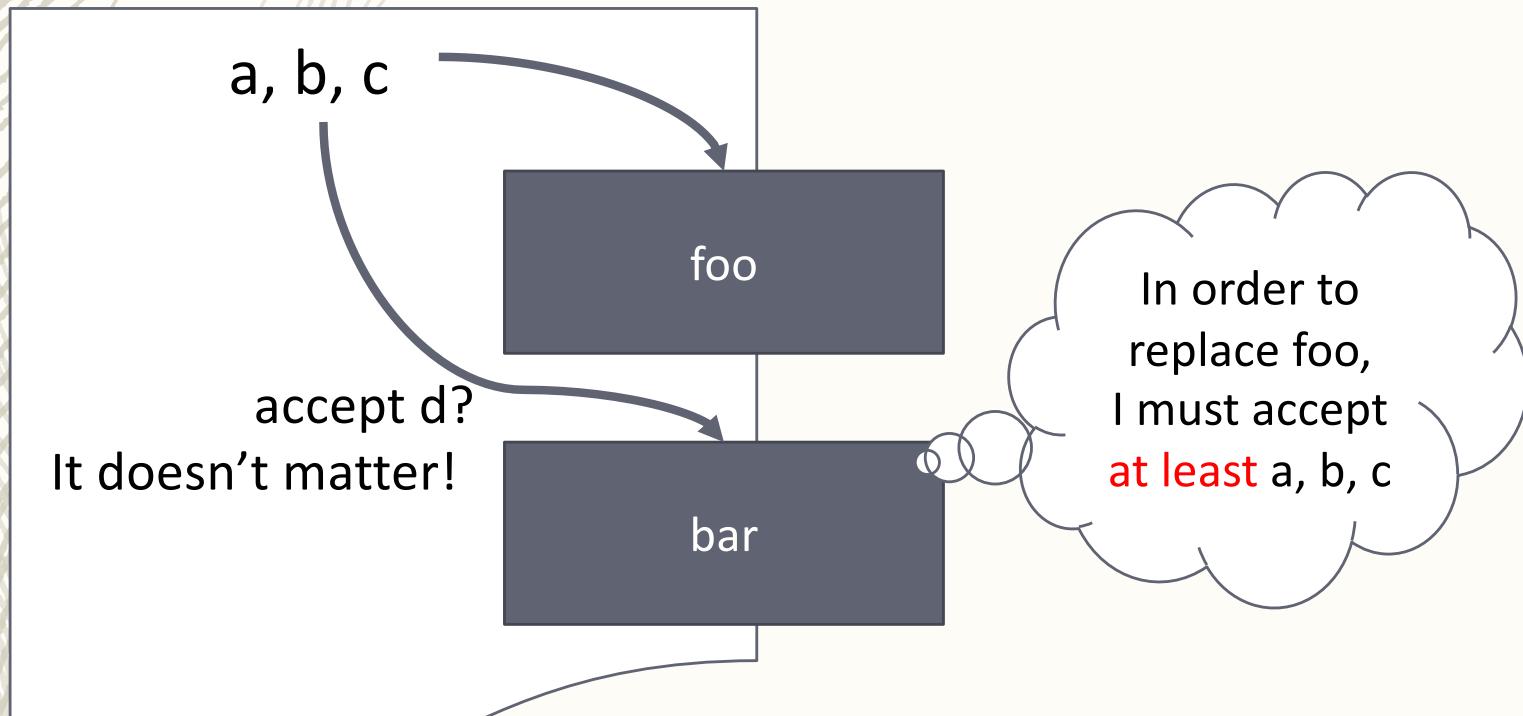
- Suppose we have a function of type  $S1 \rightarrow S2$ 
  - And we know  $T1 >: S1$  and  $T2 <: S2$
  - Then any functions of type  $T1 \rightarrow T2$  can also be viewed as having type  $S1 \rightarrow S2$
  - $T1 \rightarrow T2 <: S1 \rightarrow S2$
- Suppose we have a function of type  $S1 \rightarrow S2$ , named foo and a function of type  $T1 \rightarrow T2$ , named bar...
  - When can we replace foo with bar??

*Reference*

*Benjamin C. Pierce. Types and Programming Languages, The MIT Press.*

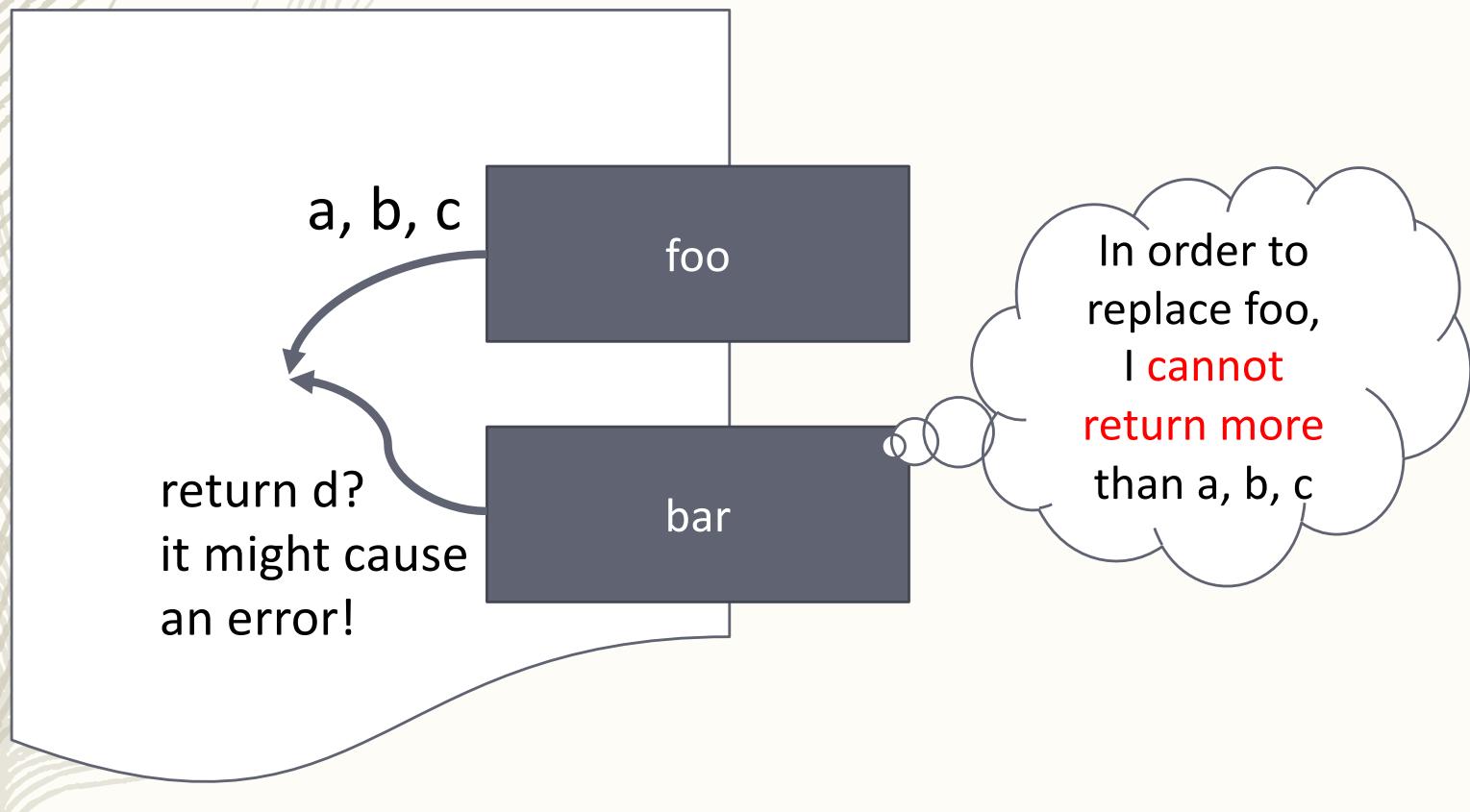
# What a subtype accepts must be looser

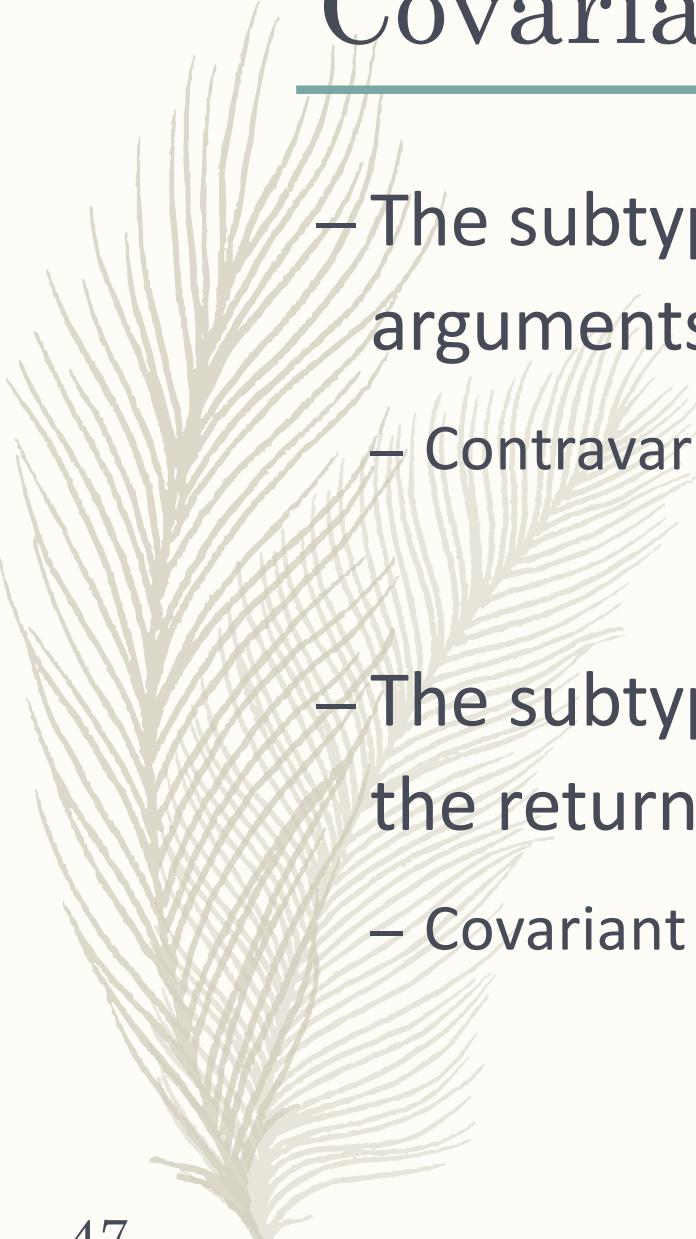
- Since the type of the elements given to foo is S1
  - bar can only accept the elements of any supertype T1 of S1



# What a subtype returns must be stricter

- Since the places using  $f$  accept elements of type  $S_2$ 
  - those places also accept elements of any subtype  $T_2$  of  $S_2$





# Covariant and contravariant

---

- The subtype relation is reversed for the arguments
  - Contravariant
- The subtype relation is the same direction for the return type
  - Covariant



# How about the type of arrays?

---

- Suppose  $\text{Cat} <: \text{Animal}$ 
  - What is the relation between  $\text{Cat}[]$  and  $\text{Animal}[]$ ?
  - Obvious it is not contravariant
    - $\text{Cat}[] >: \text{Animal}[]$  does not make sense
      - *since not every Animal[] is a Cat[]*
  - Covariant?
    - Does  $\text{Cat}[] <: \text{Animal}[]$  make sense?
      - *only when the arrays is immutable!*
      - *Otherwise, an Animal[] may contain a Dog*

# In Java, arrays are covariant

---

- Cat[] is a subtype of Animal[]
- Without covariant, how could we handle arrays?
  - void handleArray(Object[] array1, Object[] array2)  
→ only works for Object[]??
- In early versions of Java, Generics is not supported
  - before 5.0

# In Java, arrays are covariant (cont.)

---

- Invariant is safe when the arrays is mutable

```
public class Test {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Cat[] cats = new Cat[1];  
        Animal[] animals = cats;  
        animals[0] = new Dog();      // exception!  
    }  
}
```

- Looks safe but causes runtime error!
- `java.lang.ArrayStoreException`

# In Java, generics is invariant

---

- Generics in Java
  - Let class/interface be parameterized over types

```
ArrayList<String> strs = new ArrayList<String>();  
ArrayList<Object> objs = strs;      // error!
```

- error: incompatible types: ArrayList<String> cannot be converted to ArrayList<Object>

```
// if we allow it...  
objs.add(new Integer(1));  
String str = strs.get(0);      // what is it??
```

# In Scala, it depends

---

- Immutable collections such as List

- Covariant

```
val list>List[Any] = List[Int](1,2,3)    // ok
```

- Mutable collections such as Array

- Invariant

```
val arr:Array[Any] = Array[Int](1,2,3)    // error!
```

# Back to consider dispath

---

- How can we dispatch a method call?  
`obj.m(a, b, c);`
- Subtyping polymorphism
  - *Overriding*
- Ad-hoc polymorphism
  - *Overloading*
- Use them **together**?

# Overloading vs. Overriding

---

`obj.m(a, b, c);`

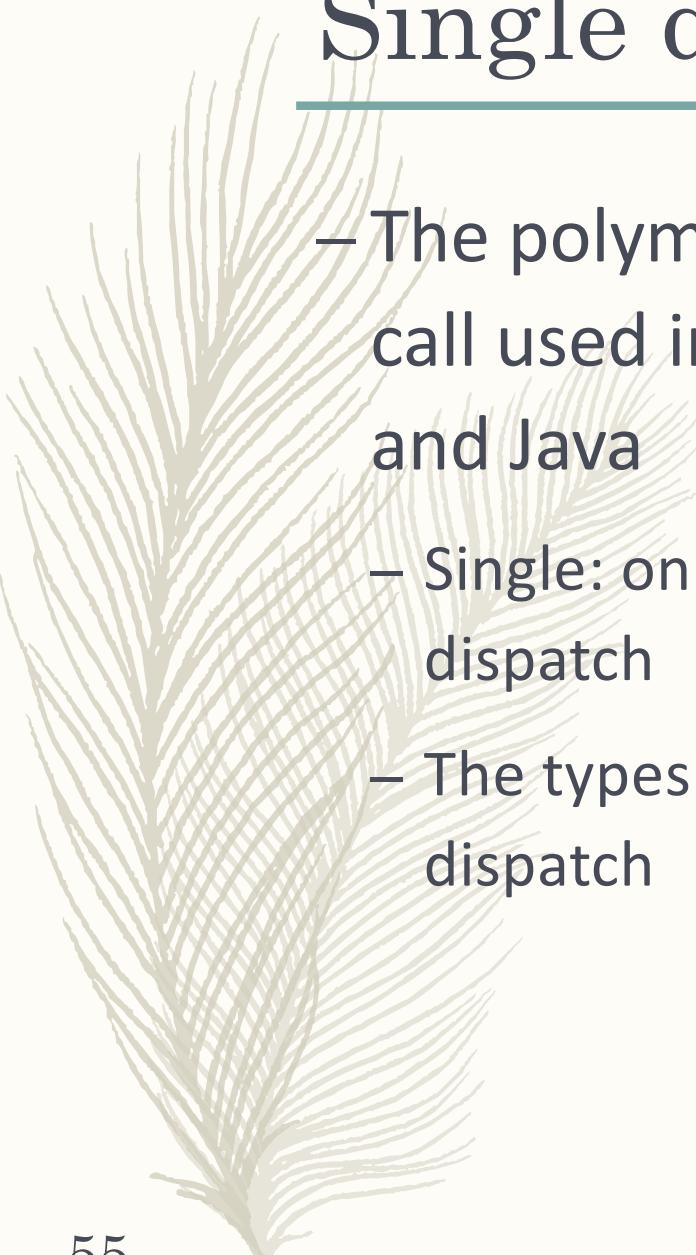
– Overriding

- At runtime, late binding
- Depends on the receiver (i.e. obj)

– Overloading

- At compile-time, **early binding**
- Depends on the types of parameters (i.e. a, b, c)

– Overriding is applied **before** overloading



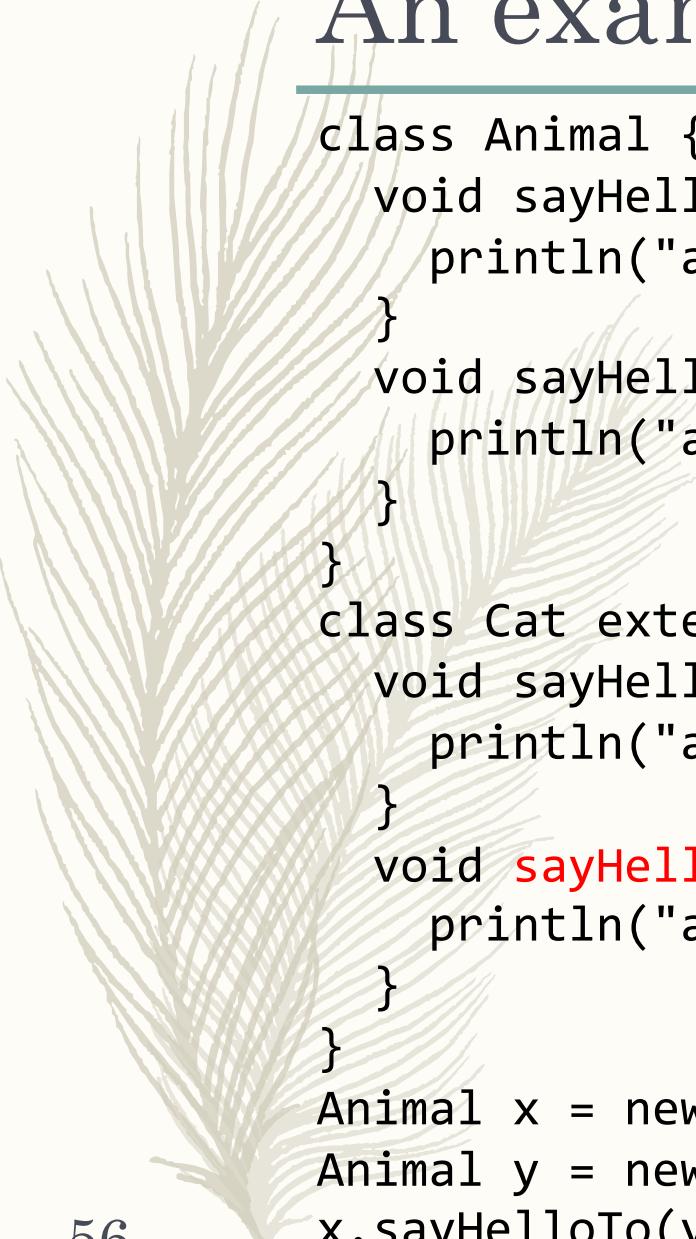
# Single dispatch

---

- The polymorphism for dispatching a method call used in languages such as Smalltalk, C++, and Java
- Single: only the type of **the receiver** is used for dispatch
- The types of parameters are not used for dynamic dispatch

# An example of single dispatch

---



```
class Animal {  
    void sayHelloTo(Animal a) {  
        println("an animal says hello to an animal.");  
    }  
    void sayHelloTo(Cat c) {  
        println("an animal says hello to a cat.");  
    }  
}  
class Cat extends Animal {  
    void sayHelloTo(Animal a) {  
        println("a cat says hello to an animal.");  
    }  
    void sayHelloTo(Cat c) { // this one??  
        println("a cat says hello to a cat.");  
    }  
}  
Animal x = new Cat();  
Animal y = new Cat();  
x.sayHelloTo(y); // what is the result?
```

# An example of single dispatch (cont.)

---

```
class Animal {  
    void sayHelloTo(Animal a) {  
        println("an animal says hello to an animal.");  
    }  
    void sayHelloTo(Cat c) {  
        println("an animal says hello to a cat.");  
    }  
}  
class Cat extends Animal {  
    void sayHelloTo(Animal a) {  
        println("a cat says hello to an animal.");  
    }  
    void sayHelloTo(Cat c) {  
        println("a cat says hello to a cat.");  
    }  
}  
Animal x = new Cat();  
Animal y = new Cat();  
x.sayHelloTo(y); // a cat says hello to an animal.
```

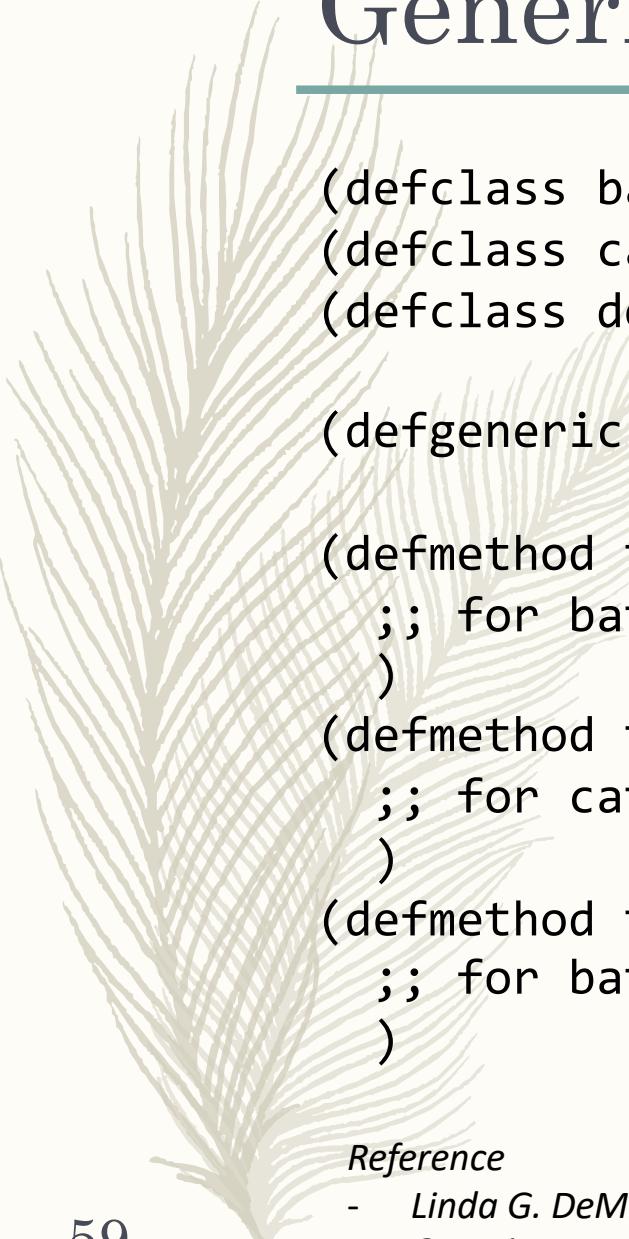
# Multiple Dispatch

---

- Dynamically dispatch based on the actual types of the arguments
  - Polymorphic on its arguments
- Multimethods
  - A set of methods supporting multiple dispatch
- Introduced in Common Lisp Object System (CLOS)

# Generic Functions

---



```
(defclass bat ()())
(defclass cat ()())
(defclass dog ()())

(defgeneric talk (a b))

(defmethod talk ((b bat) (c cat))
  ;; for bat and cat
)
(defmethod talk ((c cat) (d dog))
  ;; for cat and dog
)
(defmethod talk ((b bat) (d dog))
  ;; for bat and dog
)
```

– Packages a set of methods and select the right one to invoke

## Reference

- Linda G. DeMichiel and Richard P. Gabriel. *The Common Lisp Object System: An Overview*. In ECOOP'87, 1987.

# Generic Functions (cont.)

---

- Decouple objects and operations upon objects
- Message sending systems works well with unary operations
  - But run into problems with multiary operations
  - For example, sum a sequence of numbers
  - An object accepts a message and performs the addition

## Reference

- Linda G. DeMichiel and Richard P. Gabriel. *The Common Lisp Object System: An Overview*. In ECOOP'87, 1987.

# Next lecture

---

12/9 **Practice 6**

12/16 Aspect-Oriented Programming,  
Event-Driven Programming,  
and Context-Oriented Programming