Object-Oriented Programming

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What is object-oriented programming?

What is object-oriented programming?

... Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm based on the concept of **objects**. Objects can contain data (called fields, attributes or properties) and have actions they can perform (called procedures or **methods** and implemented in code).

— Wikipedia

Classes and objects: taxonomy

- *class-based* : in many languages, you first define a *class* (\approx template of objects)
 - an object is made from a class (object = instance of a class)
 - ► C++, Python, Go, Julia, Rust
- *prototype-based* or *classless*: in other languages, you can create an object with or without defining a class
 - an object can be made by a generic object expression or from a class
 - Javascript, OCaml

Classes and objects: examples

Classless object creation: example

```
Javascript
 let a = { "x" : 1.2, "y" : 3.4 }
OCaml (classless)
 let a = object method x = 1.2 method y = 3.4 end
OCaml (with class)
 class point (x : float) (y : float) =
   object method x = x method y = y end;;
 let a = new point 1.2 3.4
```

Relevant keywords/syntax in our languages

language	class definition	object creation
Go	type Point struct	Point(1.2, 3.4)
Julia	struct Point	Point(1.2, 3.4)
Rust	struct Point	Point(1.2, 3.4)
OCaml	class point	object end

Methods

- method \approx function or procedures in any other language
- so what is different?
 - multiple definitions of a method of the same name can exist
 - e.g., an area method for rectangle, circle, triangle, etc.
 - *dynamic dispatch*: when calling a method, which one gets called depends on which objects it is called for

Dynamic dispatch: taxonomy

- *single dispatch*: many languages determine which method gets called by the type of a *single* argument (object)
 - it is called a "receiver" object
 - ► C++, Python, Go, OCaml, Rust
- *multiple dispatch*: some languages determine which method gets called by the types of *multiple* arguments (objects)
 - Julia

Single dispatch: example

multiple definitions of area method in Python

• dispatch, based on whether s is circle or rect

```
shapes = [circle(...), rect(...)]
for s in shapes:
    s.area() # method call
```

An equivalent Julia example

• multiple definitions of area method in Julia

• dispatch, based on whether s is circle or rect

```
shapes = [Circle(...), Rect(...)]
for s in shapes
  area(s)
end
```

Multiple dispatch

- let's say we define a method contains (a, b) that computes whether a contains b
- Julia allows you to define it based on *both a* and *b*

```
function contains(c0 :: Circle, c1 :: Circle) ...
function contains(c0 :: Circle, r1 :: Rect) ...
function contains(r0 :: Rect, c1 :: Circle) ...
function contains(r0 :: Rect, r1 :: Rect) ...
```

Type Systems

Types

- *types* in programming languages \approx *kind* of data. e.g.,
 - ▶ integers, floating point numbers, array of integers, ...
 - there are user-defined types (e.g., circle, rect, etc.)
- the type of data generally determines what operations are valid on it, e.g.,
 - ► s.area(...) is valid if s is a circle, rect, or other type that defines an area method
 - ▶ a[i] = x is valid if a is an array, or other type that supports indexed assignment (...[...] =)

Type errors at runtime

- at runtime, each data naturally has its type (dynamic type or runtime type)
- when an operation not defined on the runtime type of data is applied, a *runtime type error* results.
- e.g., Python code below gets an error in the third iteration

```
shapes = [circle(...), rect(...), (3,4)]
for s in shapes:
   print(s.area())
```

Runtime type errors are disastrous

- some languages perform *runtime type checking*, which detects runtime type errors and gracefully aborts the program with error messages
 - Python, Javascript, Julia
- some languages do not perform runtime type checking, which may cause *segmentation fault* or even worse, *data corruption*
 - ► C, C++

Static types and static type checking

- other languages guarantee, *prior to execution*, that no runtime type errors will happen (*static type checking*)
- it generally works by
 - calculating the static or compile-time type of each expression, and
 - judging the validity of each operation by static types,
 - before execution

An example (in a hypothetical Python-like language)

```
l = [circle(..), circle(..)]
 for c in l:
   c.area()

    static types ("expr: type" means expr has type)

  ► circle(...) : circle
  ► [circle(...), circle(...)]: list of circle
  ▶ 1 : list of circle
  c : circle
  c.area():float
```

• this program is *(well-)typed* and never causes a runtime error

Another example

```
l = [(3,4), (5,6)]
 for p in l:
   p.area()

    static types

  ► (3,4): pair of int
  ► [(3,4),(5,6)]: list of pair of int
  ▶ 1 : list of string
  ▶ p : pair of int
  p.area():error (area on pair of int)
```

(A bit pedantic) taxonomy

- languages performing static type checking are generally called statically typed
- not all statically typed languages *guarantee* absense of runtime type errors
 - ► C, C++, Java
- statically typed languages that do are called type safe
 - Go, OCaml, and Rust (without unsafe) are type safe

Is type safety difficult to achieve?

- in the simple case, no
- specifically, it is not difficult if the static type of an expression uniquely determines its runtime type
 - we call such a language simply typed
 - in simply typed languages, each expression or variable can take values of only a single runtime type
- then what's the matter?

Why simply typed languages do not suffice?

- they are *inflexible* and hider *code reusability*. e.g.,
- cannot put elements of different types in a single container

```
l = [rect(..), circle(..)]
for s in l:
    s.area() # what is the static type of s??
```

Why simply typed languages do not suffice?

• cannot have a single function definition of an array of different types, even when element type should not matter

```
def n_elems(l): # list of what?
    n = 0
    for x in l:
        n += 1
    return n

n_elems([1,2,3])
n_elems(["a", "b", "c"])
```

Polymorphism

• in each of the examples, a single expression can take values of different types at runtime

- a variable or expression is said to be *polymorphic* when it can take values of different runtime types
- a language is said to support *polymorphism* when it allows polymorphic variables or expressions

Polymorphism and type safety

Polymorphism and type safety

- forget about type safety \Rightarrow polymorphism is easy to achieve
 - Julia, Python, Javascript, or many scripting languages
- forget about polymorphism (i.e., settle for simply typed languages) ⇒ type safety is easy to achieve
- achieving *both* polymorphism and type safety is difficult

Static type system for polymorphism

- informally, we need a static type representing multiple dynamic types
- two common approaches
- 1. *subtype polymorphism*: allows a single static type that accommodates multiple types
- 2. *parametric polymorphism*: allows a static type having *parameter(s)*, which can be instantiated into multiple types

Subtype polymorphism

• s has a static type, like "shape", that accommodates both rect and circle

```
l = [rect(..), circle(..)]
for s in l:
    s.area()
```

- in this example, we say rect (and circle) is a *subtype* of shape
- or, shape is a *supertype* of rect (and circle)
- more on this later

Parametric polymorphism

• n_elems has a static type (like " $\forall \alpha$. array of $\alpha \to \text{int}$ "), which can be instantiated into "array of int" and "array of string"

```
n_elems([1,2,3])
n_elems(["a", "b", "c"])
```

• we'll cover this more in the next week

How static type checking works with subtyping

• in the hypothetical Python-like language

```
def smaller(s0 : shape, s1 : shape) -> shape:
      return (s0 if s0.area() < s1.area() else s1)</pre>
   smaller(rect(...), circle(...))
   smaller(circle(...), rect(...))
• s0, s1:shape
• \Rightarrow s0.area(), s1.area():float
• \Rightarrow s0.area() < s1.area(): boolean
• \Rightarrow s0 if ... else s1:shape
```

The key question

- in the example above,
 - ▶ smaller(rect(...), circle(...)) is valid. i.e.,
 - passing a value of "rect" (or "circle") type to a parameter of "shape" type is allowed
- the key question:

for two types S and T when is an assignment-like operation $S \leftarrow T$ valid (safe if allowed)?

Note: assignment-like operation

- intuitively, any operation that flows a value to another place
 - ▶ assignment (left hand side : $S \leftarrow$ right hand side T)
 - \blacktriangleright passing arguments (formal arg : $S \leftarrow$ actual arg : T)
- in general, any operation where a value whose static type is T becomes a value of another expression whose static type is S
 - returning a value (return type $S \leftarrow$ returned expression : T)
 - conditional expression (result type $S \leftarrow$ then/else expression : T)

When is $S \leftarrow T$ safe?

- informally, $S \leftarrow T$ is safe when any operation applicable to S is also applicable to T (*) (Liskov substition principle)
 - ▶ ex: "shape ← rect" is safe, because operation applicable to (any) shape will be applicable to rect (whether it's true depends on how they are actually defined, of course)
- ullet intuitively, T is a kind of S
 - ex: rect (circle) is a kind of shape

Subtype

- we write $T \leq S$ and say T is a *subtype* of S (and S is a *supertype* of T) when (*) is the case
 - ex: rect \leq shape, circle \leq shape
- if we think of a type as a set, \leq represents a subset relation
- the exact definition of ≤ varies between languages, but (*)
 must hold to achieve type safety

Most generic subtype relationship

- if both S and T are record-like types (struct, class, etc.), $T \le S$ holds if the following two conditions (†) are met
 - 1. T has all the (public) methods/fields of S
 - 2. for each public method m, type of m in $T \leq$ type of m in S

Subtype relationship example (1)

- shape
 - has area() method returning float
- rect
 - has area() method returning float
 - has additional width() and height() methods
- rect \leq shape holds

Subtype relationship example (2)

- shape
 - has area() method returning float and
 - perimeter() method returning float
- rect is the same as before
- rect ≤ shape does not (should not) hold
- to see why, consider

```
s : shape = rect(..)
s.perimeter()
```

Subtype relationship tricky example (3)

- shape
 - has area() method returning float and
 - eq(s : shape) method returning bool
- rect
 - has area() method returning float,
 - has width() and height() method each returning float, and
 - eq(r : rect) method returning bool
- does rect \leq shape hold?

Subtype relationship tricky example (3)

- no, it *should not* hold
- to see why not, consider

```
s : shape = rect(..)
s.eq(circle(..))
```

• which passes circle type to a formal argument of eq (rect type)

Subtype relationship tricky example (3)

more algorithmically,

```
rect \le shape
```

- \Rightarrow type of eq in rect \leq type of eq in shape
- \Rightarrow rect \rightarrow bool \leq shape \rightarrow bool
- in general, $a' \rightarrow b' \leq a \rightarrow b$ holds when
 - $b' \leq b$ and $a' \geq a$ (next slide)
- \Rightarrow shape \leq rect (false)

Subtype relationship between functions

- $a' \rightarrow b' < a \rightarrow b$ holds when
 - b' < b and a' > a
- recall substition principle (*)
 - \blacktriangleright assume $f':a'\to b'$ and $f:a\to b$,
 - and ask when $f \leftarrow f'$ is safe?
- it is when "f' can take any data f can take (a)". i.e.,
 - $a' \ge a$ (a' is a supertype of a)

Covariant and contravariant

- in general, a type $T(\alpha)$ parameterized by α , is said to be
 - *covariant on* α if replacing α with its subtype α' yields its subtype (i.e., $\alpha' \leq \alpha \Rightarrow T(\alpha') \leq T(\alpha)$)
 - *contravariant on* α if replacing α with its supertype α' yields its subtype (i.e., $\alpha' \geq \alpha \Rightarrow T(\alpha') \leq T(\alpha)$)
- in this terminology, a function type is
 - covariant on output type $(b' \le b \Rightarrow a \to b \le a \to b')$
 - contravariant on input type $(a' \le a \Rightarrow a' \rightarrow b \le a \rightarrow b)$

Taxonomy of subtype relationships

- interface subtyping vs. concrete-type subtyping
 - concrete-type subtyping (C++, Java, OCaml)
 - \le is introduced between ordinary (concrete) types
 - interface subtyping (Go, Rust)
 - besides ordinary types, define abstract types, interfaces
 (Go), or traits (Rust)
 - − ≤ is introduced only between interfaces or between a concrete type and an interface

Taxonomy of subtype relationships

- nominal subtyping vs. structural subtyping
 - nominal (Rust)
 - \le holds only when the programmer so specified explicitly (impl trait for struct)
 - structural (Go, OCaml)
 - \le is derived automatically from definitions

```
type Shape interface { area() float64 }
type Rect struct { ... }
func (r Rect) area() float64 { ... }
```

with Go structural subtyping, Rect ≤ Shape is automatically established because Rect has an area method returning float64, allowing the following assignment

```
var s shape = rect{0, 0, 100, 100}
```

Subtyping in Rust

```
trait Shape { fn area(&self) -> f64; }
struct Rect { ... }
impl Shape for Rect {
  fn area(&self) -> f64 { ... }
}
```

• with Rust (nominal subtyping between struct and trait), Rect ≤ Shape is established by explicitly stating impl Shape for Rect, allowing the assignment below

```
let s : &dyn Shape = &Rect{ ... };
```

OCaml

- OCaml does not require type (class) definitions to make objects
- when you define class, subtype relationship is automatically derived
- nor does it require type of variables to be specified
- ... everything just *naturally* happens (learn in the notebook)