## From OO, to OO

Subtyping as a Cross-cutting Language Feature

Paul Zhu

School of Software, Tsinghua University

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# Today

- **1** Extending  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$   $(\lambda_{<:})$ 
  - Records
  - Bottom Types
- Bounded Quantification (F<:)</p>
  - Kernel and Full System
  - Properties
- Variances
- 4 Intersection & Union Types

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# Motivating Example

Declare two classes, where A inherits B:

```
class B
class A extends B
```

A method whose argument has type B

```
def foo(x: B): Int = ???
```

could also be called with an expression of type A:

```
val a = new A
foo(a)
```

#### Remarks:

- "A extends B" means what it says: all members of B are also members of A.
- Invoking foo(a) is safe because a has all members of B.

# **Opinions**

- Many people think that inheritance is the core of OO. But it shouldn't be, as Grady Booch once said, "Inheritance is highly overrated".
- On the other side, subtyping is a key feature of inheritance.

The fundamental problem addressed by a type theory is to insure that programs have meaning. The fundamental problem caused by a type theory is that meaningful programs may not have meanings ascribed to them. The quest for richer type systems results from this tension.

- Mark Mannasse

## Subtype Relation

A subtyping is a pre-order relation, i.e., a binary relation that is reflexive and transitive. Formally, we write S <: T to pronounce "S is a subtype of T", or "T is a supertype of S".

S-Refl
$$\overline{S} <: S$$
  
S-Trans $\overline{S} <: U \quad U <: T$   
 $\overline{S} <: T$ 

# $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ with Subtyping $(\lambda_{<:})$

Term 
$$t ::= x \mid (t_1 t_2) \mid (\lambda x : T.t)$$
  
Type  $T ::= B \mid T \mid T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ 

- Evaluation rules are same with  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ .
- Subtyping rules: S-Refl, S-Trans and

S-Top 
$$S$$
-Arrow  $T_1 <: S_1 S_2 <: T_2 S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ 

• Typing rules:

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# Record Extension with Subtyping $(\lambda_{<:}^{\{\}})$

Term 
$$t ::= \cdots \mid \{l_1 = t_1, \dots, l_n = t_n\} \mid t.l_i$$
  
Type  $T ::= \cdots \mid \{l_1 : T_1, \dots, l_n : T_n\}$ 

### New subtyping rules:

# Type Checking in $\lambda_{<:}^{\{\}}$

```
subtype(S, T) = if T = T then true
else if S = S_1 \rightarrow S_2 and T = T_1 \rightarrow T_2
then subtype(T_1, S_1) \land subtype(S_2, T_2)
else if S = \{k_1 : S_1, \dots, k_m : S_m\} and T = \{l_1 : T_1, \dots, l_n : T_n\}
then dom(T) \subseteq dom(S) \land \forall i. \exists 1 \leqslant j \leqslant m.(k_i = l_j \land subtype(S_i, T_j))
else false
```

#### Theorem

(Soundness and completeness)  $S <: T \iff \text{subtype}(S, T) = \text{true}$ . (Termination) The algorithm subtype terminates on all inputs.

# Algorithmic Subtyping

The above type checking algorithm could also be described as an algorithmic subtyping relation, of the form  $\triangleright S <: T$ , pronounced "S is algorithmically a subtype of T":

SA-Top 
$$SA-Arrow$$
  $SA-Arrow$   $SA$ 

#### Theorem

(Soundness and completeness)  $S <: T \iff \triangleright S <: T$ .

(Termination) The algorithmic subtyping derivation terminates on all inputs.

# Properties of $\lambda_{\leq:}^{\{\}}$

#### Lemma

(Inversion lemma)

(1) If  $S <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ , then S has the form  $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ , with  $T_1 <: S_1$  and  $S_2 <: T_2$ .

(2) If  $S <: \{I_1 : T_1, \ldots, I_n : T_n\} \triangleq T$ , then S has the form  $\{k_1 : S_1, \ldots, k_m : S_m\}$ , such that  $dom(T) \subseteq dom(S)$  and  $S_i <: T_i$  for every  $k_i = I_i$ .

#### **Theorem**

(Progress) For any term t and type T, if  $\vdash t : T$ , then either t is a value, or  $t \Rightarrow t'$  for some term t'.

#### Theorem

(Preservation) If  $\vdash$  t : T and t  $\Rightarrow$  t', then  $\vdash$  t' : T.

Obviously, type uniqueness is violated.

## **Exercises**

- How many different supertypes does  $\{l_1 : \top, l_2 : \top\}$  have?  $\{l_1 : \top\}, \{l_2 : \top\}, \{\}, \{l_1 : \top, l_2 : \top\}, \{l_2 : \top, l_1 : \top\}, \top$ .
- Can you find an infinite descending chain in the subtype relation?  $\{\} <: \{l_1 : \top\} <: \{l_1 : \top, l_2 : \top\} <: \cdots$
- What about an infinite ascending chain?  $\{\} \to \top <: \{l_1 : \top\} \to \top <: \{l_1 : \top, l_2 : \top\} \to \top <: \cdots$
- Is there a type that is a subtype of every other type?
   No. By inversion lemma.
- Is there an arrow type that is a supertype of every other arrow type?
   No. If there were such an arrow type T<sub>1</sub> → T<sub>2</sub>, then T<sub>1</sub> would have to be a subtype of every other type, which we have just seen is impossible.

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$$\lambda_{<:}^{\{\}}$$
 with Bottom Types

Type 
$$T ::= \cdots \mid \bot$$

New subtyping rule:

S-Bot
$$\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \bot <: T$$

#### Remarks:

- There are no closed values of type  $\bot$ . Suppose there is one, say v, then  $\vdash v : \top \to \top$ , which is impossible.
- ullet In practice,  $oldsymbol{\perp}$  indicates no return value, or whatever value.

# Top & Bottom Types in Scala

```
// top types
abstract class Any
class AnyRef extends Any // AnyRef = java.lang.Object
final class AnyVal extends Any
// bottom types
abstract final class Nothing extends Any
def ???: Nothing = throw new NotImplementedError
def methodToBeImplemented(x: Int): Int = ???
```

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# System F with Subtyping $(F_{<:}^{\text{kernel}})$ I

Term 
$$t ::= x \mid (t_1t_2) \mid (\lambda x : T.t) \mid t \mid T \mid \lambda X <: T.t$$
  
Type  $T ::= B \mid X \mid T \mid T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \mid \forall X <: U.T$   
Context  $\Gamma ::= \varnothing \mid \Gamma, X : T \mid \Gamma, X <: T$ 

• Subtyping rules now have form  $\Gamma \vdash S <: T$ 

S-Refl
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash S <: U \qquad \Gamma \vdash U <: T}{\Gamma \vdash S <: T}$$
S-Trans
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash S <: U \qquad \Gamma \vdash U <: T}{\Gamma \vdash S <: T}$$
S-Tvar
$$\frac{X <: T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash X <: T}$$
S-Arrow
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash T_1 <: S_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash S_2 <: T_2}{\Gamma \vdash S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$
S-V
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash (\forall X <: U \vdash S <: T)}{\Gamma \vdash (\forall X <: U . S) <: (\forall X <: U . T)}$$

# System F with Subtyping $(F_{<:}^{\text{kernel}})$ II

### • Typing rules:

T-Var 
$$\frac{X: I \in I}{\Gamma \vdash X: T}$$

T-App  $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1: T \to T' \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2: T}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1 \ t_2): T'}$ 

T-TApp  $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t: \forall X <: U.T' \quad \Gamma T <: U}{\Gamma \vdash t \ [T]: T'[X:=T]}$ 

T-Abs 
$$\frac{\Gamma, x: T \vdash t: T'}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x: T.t): T \to T'}$$
T-TAbs 
$$\frac{\Gamma, X <: U \vdash t: T}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda X <: U.t: \forall X <: U.T}$$
T-Sub 
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t: S}{\Gamma \vdash t: T}$$

## Scoping

The scoping of type variables is yet not obvious from the typing rules above. Consider the following typing contexts (given Nat and Bool are base types):

$$\Gamma_1 \triangleq X <: \top, y : X \rightarrow \mathsf{Nat}$$

$$\Gamma_2 \triangleq y : X \rightarrow \mathsf{Nat}, X <: \top$$

$$\Gamma_3 \triangleq X <: \{a : \mathsf{Nat}, b : X\}$$

$$\Gamma_4 \triangleq X <: \{a : \mathsf{Nat}, b : Y\}, Y <: \{c : \mathsf{Bool}, d : X\}$$

Which should be considered to be well-scoped?

- $\Gamma_1$  is well-scoped.
- $\Gamma_2$  and  $\Gamma_4$  are ill-scoped.
- $\Gamma_3$  could be well-scoped using *F-bounded quantification*.

## Bounded & Unbounded

- In  $F_{\leq :}^{\text{kernel}}$ , the unbounded universal type  $\forall X.T$  we have seen in F has disappeared.
- The reason is that we do not need it, as "unbounded" is interpreted as "bounded by T". Thus, we specify an abbreviation:

$$\forall X.T \triangleq \forall X <: \top.T$$

# Full System $(F_{<:}^{\text{full}})$

In S- $\forall$  rule of  $F_{\leq:}^{\text{kernel}}$ , the bounds of the two quantifiers being compared must be identical. If we think of a quantifier as a sort of arrow type (whose elements are functions from types to terms), we could extend this rule to allow the bounds to be distinct:

S-
$$\forall$$
  $\Gamma \vdash U_2 <: U_1 \qquad \Gamma, X <: U_2 \vdash S <: T \ \Gamma \vdash (\forall X <: U_1.S) <: (\forall X <: U_2.T)$ 

Recall that

S-Arrow 
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash T_1 <: S_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash S_2 <: T_2}{\Gamma \vdash S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$

## Type Bounds in Scala

In Scala, type parameters can be restricted to be a subtype/supertype of some type.

```
// Implicit conversions from a Java Array into collection.Mutable.ArrayOps
implicit def refArrayOps[T <: AnyRef](xs: Array[T]): ArrayOps[T] =
   new ArrayOps.ofRef[T](xs)

// getOrElse method in Option
sealed abstract class Option[+A] extends Product with Serializable {
   @inline final def getOrElse[B >: A](default: => B): B = { /* ... */ }
}
```

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## Properties of $F_{<:}$

In both the kernel and full system, the following two properties hold:

#### Theorem

(Progress) For any term t and type T, if  $\vdash t$ : T, then either t is a value, or  $t \Rightarrow t'$  for some term t'.

#### Theorem

(Preservation) If  $\vdash t : T$  and  $t \Rightarrow t'$ , then  $\vdash t' : T$ .

# Type Checking in $F_{<:}^{\text{kernel}}$

This time, the algorithmic subtyping relation needs a typing context, i.e., of the form  $\Gamma \triangleright S <: T$ :

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{SA-Top} & \text{SA-Top} \\ \hline \Gamma \triangleright S <: S \\ \\ \text{SA-Trans} & S <: U \in \Gamma \quad \Gamma \triangleright U <: T \\ \hline \Gamma \triangleright S <: T \\ \\ \text{SA-V} & \hline \Gamma \triangleright (\forall X <: U \triangleright S <: T \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{SA-Arrow} & \Gamma \triangleright T_1 <: S_1 \quad \Gamma \triangleright S_2 <: T_2 \\ \hline \Gamma \triangleright S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

#### Theorem

(Soundness and completeness)  $\Gamma \vdash S <: T \iff \Gamma \triangleright S <: T$ . (Termination) The algorithmic subtyping derivation terminates on all inputs.

# Type Checking in $F_{<:}^{\text{full}}$

We only need to update the SA-∀ rule:

SA-
$$\forall$$
  $\Gamma \triangleright U_2 <: U_1 \quad \Gamma, X <: U_2 \triangleright S <: T$   
 $\Gamma \triangleright (\forall X <: U_1.S) <: (\forall X <: U_2.T)$ 

#### Theorem

(Soundness and completeness)  $\Gamma \vdash S <: T \iff \Gamma \triangleright S <: T$ .

# Type Checking in $F_{\leq :}^{\text{full}}$ is Diverging

### An example (Ghelli, 1995):

- Let  $\neg S \triangleq \forall X <: S.X$ .
- By S- $\forall$ , we see that  $\Gamma \vdash \neg S <: \neg T \iff \Gamma \vdash T <: S$ .
- Let  $T \triangleq \forall X. \neg (\forall Y <: X. \neg Y)$ .
- To show

$$X_0 <: T \triangleright X_0 <: \forall X_1 <: X_0. \neg X_1$$
,

we end up in an infinite regress of larger and larger subgoals, say it reduces to

$$X_0 <: T, X_1 <: X_0 \triangleright X_0 <: \forall X_2 <: X_0. \neg X_2,$$

which makes the derivation diverge.

# Type Checking in $F_{<}^{\text{full}}$ is Undecidable

Worse yet, it can be shown that there is no subtyping algorithm that is sound and complete and that terminates on all inputs:

#### Theorem

(Pierce, 1994) For every two-counter machine, there exists a subtyping statement such that it is derivable in  $F_{\xi}^{full}$  iff the execution of the two-counter machine halts.

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## Motivating Questions

- Suppose we know that S <: T, should [S] <: [T] (where  $[\cdot]$  indicates a list type)?
- Is the answer applicable to other situations of generic types?

### Three Kinds of Variances

### A type constructor is

- covariant if it preserves the ordering of types (S <: T impiles X[S] <: X[T]);
- contravariant if it reverses this ordering (S <: T impiles X[T] <: X[S]);
- invariant if neither of the above applies.

#### In Scala and Java:

Variances	Scala	Java
Covariant	+T	? extends T
Contravariant	-T	? super T
Invariant	T	T

### Functions Under the Hood

Recall that

S-Arrow 
$$T_1 <: S_1 \quad S_2 <: T_2 \ S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2$$

In scala, a function is implemented as a trait:

```
trait Function1[-T1, +R] extends AnyRef {
  def apply(v1: T1): R
class B
class A extends B
val foo: B => Int = new Function1[B, Int] {
  def apply(x: B) = ???
val a = new A
foo(a)
```

## Comparer is Contravariant

Suppose we have a comparer for comparing two objects of some class A. Then we should also have this comparer for all the subclasses of A. In C#, this is achieved by declaring the IComparer interface as a contravariant.

```
public interface IComparer<in T> {
  int Compare(T left, T right);
}
```

### Sink for Contravariant

In real-world event-driven software systems, when an event is fired, all its "super levels" should also be notified. To achieve this, we can declare the trait Sink as a contravariant.  $^1$ 

```
trait Event
trait UserEvent extends Event
trait SystemEvent extends Event
trait ApplicationEvent extends SystemEvent
trait ErrorEvent extends ApplicationEvent
trait Sink[-In] { def notifv(o: In) }
def appEventFired(e: ApplicationEvent, s: Sink[ApplicationEvent]) = s.notify(e)
def errorEventFired(e: ErrorEvent. s: Sink[ErrorEvent]) = s.notifv(e)
```

Paul Zhu (School of Software)

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>http://blog.petruescu.com/programming/types/scala-types-contravariance/

## Sink is Contravariant

```
trait SystemEventSink extends Sink[SystemEvent]
val ses = new SystemEventSink {
  override def notify(o: SystemEvent): Unit = ???
trait GenericEventSink extends Sink[Event]
val ges = new GenericEventSink {
  override def notify(o: Event): Unit = ???
// You can call:
appEventFired(new ApplicationEvent {}. ses)
errorEventFired(new ErrorEvent {}, ges)
appEventFired(new ApplicationEvent {}. ges)
```

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## Motivation

- A type can be interpreted as a set, which contains all closed values of that type.
- Since we have intersection and union operations on sets, can we add them to types?

# Intersection Types

The inhabitants of an intersection type  $T_1 \cap T_2$  are terms belonging to both  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , formulated by the following subtyping rules:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S-}\cap \text{Proj1} & \text{S-}\cap \text{Proj2} \\ \hline T_1 \cap T_2 <: T_1 \\ \\ \text{S-}\cap \text{Form} & S <: T_1 \quad S <: T_2 \\ \hline S <: T_1 \cap T_2 \end{array}$$

Remark: in words of lattice theory,  $\cap$  is a *meet* operator.

# Intersection Types in Dotty<sup>2</sup>

```
trait Resettable { def reset(): this.type }
trait Growable[T] { def add(x: T): this.type }
def f(x: Resettable & Growable[String]) = {
 x.reset()
 x.add("first")
trait A { def children: List[A] }
trait B { def children: List[B] }
class C extends A with B {
  def children: List[A \& B] = ???
val x: A \& B = new C
val ys: List[A & B] = x.children
// Since List is covariant. List[A] & List[B] = List[A & B]
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>http://dotty.epfl.ch/

# Union Types

The inhabitants of a union type  $T_1 \cup T_2$  are terms belonging to either  $T_1$  or  $T_2$ , formulated by the following subtyping rules:

S-
$$\cap$$
Form1  $T_1 <: T_1 \cup T_2$  S- $\cap$ Form2  $T_2 <: T_1 \cup T_2$  S- $\cap$ Proj  $T_1 <: S \qquad T_2 <: S \qquad T_1 \cup T_2 <: S$ 

Remark: in words of lattice theory,  $\cup$  is a *join* operator.

# Union Types in Dotty

```
case class UserName(name: String) {
  def lookup(admin: Admin): UserData
case class UID(id: Id) {
 def lookup(admin: Admin): UserData
def login(input: UserName | UID) = {
  val user = input match {
    case UserName(name) => name.lookup(admin)
    case UID(id) => id.lookup(admin)
```

# $\lambda_{<:}^{\{\}}$ with If-expressions

Type 
$$T ::= \cdots \mid \mathsf{Bool}$$
  
Term  $t ::= \cdots \mid \mathsf{if}\ t_1$  then  $t_2$  else  $t_3 \mid \mathsf{true} \mid \mathsf{false}$ 

New typing rules:

where  $T_2 \sqcup T_3$  is a join of  $T_2$  and  $T_3$ .

## Joins & Meets I

- A type J is called a join of a pair of types S and T, written  $J = S \sqcup T$ , if S <: J, T <: J, and for all types U, if S <: U and T <: U, then J <: U.
- A type M is called a meet of a pair of types S and T, written  $M = S \sqcap T$ , if M <: S, M <: T, and for all types L, if L <: S and L <: T, then L <: M.

#### Theorem

- (1) For every pair of types S and T, there is some type J such that  $J = S \sqcup T$ .
- (2) For every pair of types S and T with a common subtype, there is some type M such that  $M = S \sqcap T$ .

## Joins & Meets II

## Proof.

- (1) By case analysis on the shapes of S and T:
  - Case S = T = Bool: J = Bool.
  - Case  $S = S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  and  $T = T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ :  $J = (S_1 \sqcap T_1) \rightarrow (S_2 \sqcup T_2)$ .
  - Case  $S = \{k_1 : S_1, ..., k_m : S_m\}$  and  $T = \{l_1 : T_1, ..., l_n : T_n\}$ :  $J = \{j_1 : U_1, ..., j_q : U_q\}$  where  $dom(J) = dom(S) \cap dom(T)$ , and  $U_i = S_s \sqcup T_t$  for every  $j_i = k_s = l_t$ .
  - Otherwise,  $J = \top$ .



## Joins & Meets III

### Proof.

(2) We first propose an algorithm for computing M:

- Case S = T: M = T.
- Case  $T = \top$ : M = S.
- Case S = T = Bool: M = Bool.
- Case  $S = S_1 \to S_2$  and  $T = T_1 \to T_2$ :  $J = (S_1 \sqcup T_1) \to (S_2 \sqcap T_2)$ .
- Case  $S = \{k_1 : S_1, \ldots, k_m : S_m\}$  and  $T = \{l_1 : T_1, \ldots, l_n : T_n\}$ :  $U = \{j_1 : U_1, \ldots, j_q : U_q\}$  where  $dom(J) = dom(S) \cup dom(T)$ , and (i)  $U_i = S_s \sqcap T_t$  for every  $j_i = k_s = l_t$ ; (ii)  $U_i = S_s$  if  $j_i = k_s$  occurs only in S; (iii)  $U_i = T_t$  if  $j_i = l_t$  occurs only in T.
- Otherwise, fails.

Then, we can show the above algorithm never fails if S and T have a common subtype, by the lemma shown in the next page.

## Joins & Meets IV

#### Lemma

If L <: S and L <: T, then  $M = S \sqcap T$  for some M.

## Proof.

By induction on S, with a case analysis on the shapes of S and T. Suppose either is  $\top$ , the case is trivial. Otherwise, they have the same shape, or else L has inconsistent shapes by inversion lemma.

- If both are Bool, the case is trivial.
- If both are arrow types, say  $S = S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  and  $T = T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ , we only need to check if  $S_2 \sqcap T_2$  exists. By inversion lemma, we have  $L = L_1 \rightarrow L_2$  with  $L_2 <: S_2$  and  $L_2 <: T_2$ . Thus, we are done by inductive hypothesis.
- Otherwise, both are record types. We only need to check if the meet operations invoked by the algorithm always succeed. By inversion lemma, L include all labels of S and T. Moreover, for every common label, the corresponding type in L must be a common subtype of those in S and T. Again, we are done by inductive hypothesis.

# OO is More Complicated Than You Thought

Early object design books, including Designing Object-Oriented Software, speak of finding objects by identifying things (noun phrases) written about in a design specification. In hindsight, this approach seems naive. Today, we don't advocate underlining nouns and simplistically modelling things in the real world. It's much more complicated than that.

Rebecca Wirfs-Brock

Perhaps functional programming (better to be pure) is much easier than OOP!