

# Object-Oriented Programming

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# **What is object-oriented programming?**

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# 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

## Python class definition

```
class point:  
    def __init__(self, x, y):  
        self.x = x;  
        self.y = y;
```

## Object creation

```
a = point(1.2, 3.4)
```

# 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	<code>type Point struct ...</code>	<code>Point(1.2, 3.4)</code>
Julia	<code>struct Point ...</code>	<code>Point(1.2, 3.4)</code>
Rust	<code>struct Point ...</code>	<code>Point(1.2, 3.4)</code>
OCaml	<code>class point ...</code>	<code>object ... end</code> or <code>new point ...</code>



# 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 (“*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

```
class circle:
    ...
    def area(self):
        r = self.r
        return pi * r * r

class rect:
    ...
    def area(self):
        return self.w * self.h
```

- dispatch, based on whether `s` is `circle` or `rect`

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

# A single dispatch in Julia

- multiple definitions of `area` method in Julia

```
function area(c :: Circle)    function area(r :: Rect)
    pi * c.r * c.r            r.w * r.h
end                            end
```

- dispatch, based on whether `s` is `circle` or `rect`

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

# Multiple dispatch in Julia

- 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) ...
```

# Power of dynamic dispatch

- dynamic dispatch allows a single piece of code to work on many different kinds of data. e.g.,
- the following Python code

```
def sum(a, v0):  
    v = v0  
    for x in a:  
        v += x  
    return v
```

which is equivalent to

# Power of dynamic dispatch

```
def sum(a, v0):  
    v = v0  
    it = a.__iter__()  
    try:  
        while True:                # = for x in a  
            x = it.__next__()  
            v = v.__iadd__(x)        # v += x  
    except StopIteration:  
        pass  
    return v
```

works for *any* `a` (and `v0`) satisfying the following

# Power of dynamic dispatch

- `v0` has a method `__iadd__(x)`, which takes a parameter and returns anything that also has a method `__iadd__(x)`, which takes a parameter and returns anything that also has a method `__iadd__(x)`, which ...
- `a` has a method `__iter__()`, which
  - returns anything that has a method `__next__()`, which returns anything for which `v.__iadd__` works, ... (details omitted) ..., and
  - eventually raises `StopIteration`



# Power of dynamic dispatch

- this is the reason why Python's for loop works for lots of data
  - lists, tuples, strings, dictionaries,
  - file handles,
  - numpy arrays
  - database query results,

and you can *define* your data structure for which the same code just works

# Type Systems

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# 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:  
    s.area()
```

# Runtime vs. static type checking

- some languages perform type checking *during* execution (*runtime type checking*), which aborts the program with error messages when detected
  - Python, Javascript, Julia, ...
- some languages (*statically typed* languages) perform type checking *before* execution (*static* or *compile-time type checking*), which refuses to execute programs containing certain errors
  - C, C++, Java, Go, OCaml, Rust, ...

# Static type checking and type safety

- some statically typed languages *guarantee* that no runtime type errors will happen for programs that pass static type checking (*type safe* languages)
  - Go, OCaml, Rust, ...
- 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

# Static type checking and type safety

- some languages do *not guarantee* no runtime type errors despite static type checking
  - some employ complementary runtime type checks, too (Java)
  - some forgo runtime type checks altogether; when a type error happens at runtime, it may cause *segmentation fault* or even worse, *data corruption* (C, C++)
    - you will see why later in the course (assembly languages and compilers)

# A static type checking example (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`
  - ▶ `l : list of circle`
  - ▶ `c : circle`
  - ▶ `c.area() : float`
- this program is **(well-)typed** and never causes a runtime error



# An example containing an error

```
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
  - ▶ l : list of string
  - ▶ p : pair of int
  - ▶ p.area() : **error** (area on pair of int)

# Is type safety difficult to achieve?

- in a 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
- Q : what's wrong with simply typed languages?

# Why simply typed languages do not suffice?

- they are *inflexible* and hinder *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

```
l = [rect(..), circle(..)]    n_elems([1,2,3])
for s in l:                    n_elems(["a", "b", "c"])
    s.area()
```

- 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

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# 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)  $\Rightarrow$  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 “ $\forall \alpha. \text{array of } \alpha \rightarrow \text{int}$ ”), 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)
```

```
smaller(rect(..), circle(..))  
smaller(circle(..), rect(..))
```

- $s0, s1 : \text{shape}$
- $\Rightarrow s0.\text{area()}, s1.\text{area()} : \text{float}$
- $\Rightarrow s0.\text{area()} < s1.\text{area()} : \text{boolean}$
- $\Rightarrow s0 \text{ if } \dots \text{ else } s1 : \text{shape}$

# 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  $T$ )
  - 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 substitution principle*)
  - ex: “shape  $\leftarrow$  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)
- 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:  $\text{rect} \leq \text{shape}$ ,  $\text{circle} \leq \text{shape}$
- if we think of a type as a set,  $\leq$  represents a subset relation
- the exact definition of  $\leq$  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.),  $T \leq S$  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
- $\text{rect} \leq \text{shape}$  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 ≤ 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,

$\text{rect} \leq \text{shape}$

$\Rightarrow \text{type of eq in rect} \leq \text{type of eq in shape}$

$\Rightarrow \text{rect} \rightarrow \text{bool} \leq \text{shape} \rightarrow \text{bool}$

- in general,  $a' \rightarrow b' \leq a \rightarrow b$  holds when
  - $b' \leq b$  and  $a' \geq a$  (next slide)

$\Rightarrow \text{shape} \leq \text{rect}$  (false)

# Subtype relationship between functions

- $a' \rightarrow b' \leq a \rightarrow b$  holds when
  - $b' \leq b$  and  $a' \geq a$
- recall substitution principle (\*)
  - assume  $f' : a' \rightarrow b'$  and  $f : a \rightarrow b$ ,
  - and ask when  $f \leftarrow f'$  is safe?
- it is when “ $f'$  can take any data  $f$  can take ( $a$ )”. i.e.,
  - $a' \geq a$  ( $a'$  is a *supertype* of  $a$ )

# Covariant and contravariant

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

# Taxonomy of subtype relationships

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



# Taxonomy of subtype relationships

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

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

- with Go structural subtyping,  $\text{Rect} \leq \text{Shape}$  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),  $\text{Rect} \leq \text{Shape}$  is established by explicitly stating `impl Shape for Rect`, allowing the assignment below

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

- 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)