

# Object-Oriented Programming Languages

---

Read: Scott, Chapter 10.1-  
10.4

# Lecture Outline

---

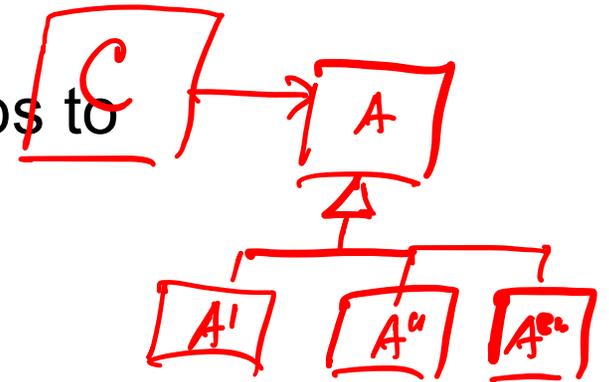
- *Object-oriented programming*
- *Encapsulation and inheritance*
- *Initialization and finalization*
- *Subtyping and dynamic method binding*
  
- *Polymorphism*

# Benefits of Object Orientation

---

## ■ Abstraction

- **Classes** bridge the gap between concepts in the problem domain and software
- E.g., domain concept of **Customer** maps to **class Customer**



## ■ Encapsulation

- Classes provide interface but hide data representation
- Easier to understand and use
- Can be changed internally with minimal impact

## ■ Reuse

- Inheritance and composition are mechanisms for reuse

## ■ Extensibility

# Encapsulation and Inheritance

---

- Access control modifiers – public, private, and others
  - What portion of the class is visible to users?
  - **Public**, **protected** or **private** visibility
  - Java: Has **package** as default; **protected** is slightly different from C++
  - C++: Has **friend** classes and functions
  - Smalltalk and Python: all members are public

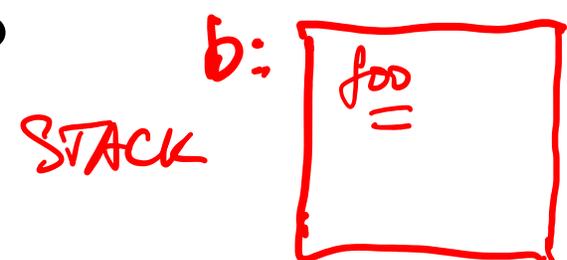
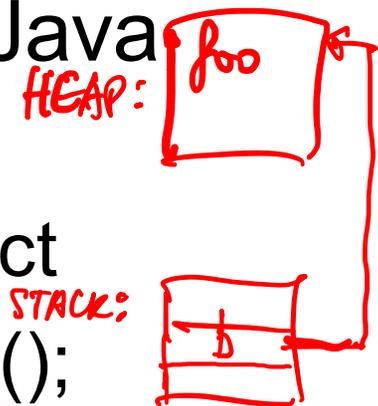
# Encapsulation and Inheritance

---

- With inheritance
  - What control does the superclass have over its fields and methods? There are different choices
  - C++: a subclass can restrict visibility of superclass members
  - C#, Java: a subclass can neither increase nor restrict visibility of superclass members

# Initialization and Finalization

- Reference model for variables used in Java, Smalltalk, Python
  - Every variable is a **reference** to an object
  - **Explicit** object creation: `foo b = new foo();`
- Value model for variables used in C++, Modula-3, Ada-95
  - A variable can have a value that **is** an object
  - Object creation may be **implicit**: e.g. `foo b;`
- How are objects destroyed?



# Question

---

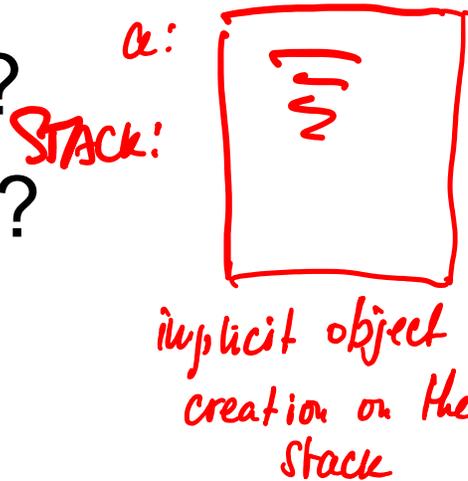
- Consider the following code:

```
A a; // a is a local variable of type A
```

```
a.m(); // We call method m on a
```

What happens in C++?

What happens in Java?



*a:* 

The diagram shows a red rectangle containing the word 'NULL' in red capital letters. To the left of the rectangle, the text 'a:' is written.

*We need explicit object creation*  
*a = new A();*

# More on Implicit Creation in C++

---

- C++ requires that an appropriate constructor is called for every object implicitly created on the stack, e.g., `A a;`
- What happens here: `foo a;`
  - Compiler calls zero-argument constructor `foo::foo()`
- What happens here: `foo a(10, 'x');`
  - Calls `foo::foo(int, char)`

# More on Implicit Creation in C++

---

- What happens here:

```
foo a;
```

```
foo c = a;
```

- Calls `foo::foo()` at `foo a;`; calls copy constructor `foo::foo(foo&)` at `foo c = a;`
- `=` operator here stands for initialization, not assignment!

# More on Implicit Creation in C++

---

- What happens here:

```
foo a, c; // declaration
```

```
c = a; // assignment
```

- Calls `foo::foo()` twice at `foo a, c;`  
calls assignment operator  
`foo::operator=(foo&)` at `c = a;`
- `=` operator here stands for assignment!

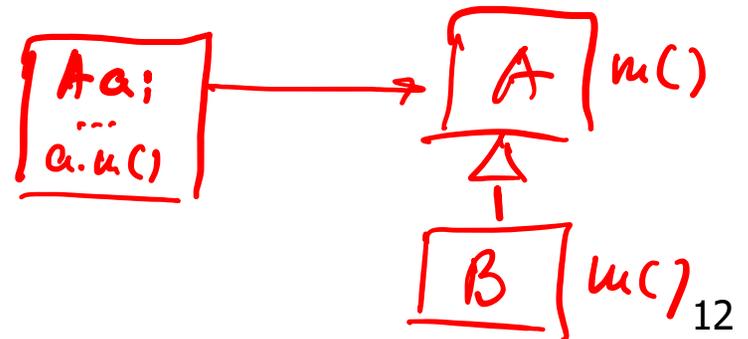
# Lecture Outline

---

- *Object Oriented programming*
- *Encapsulation and inheritance*
- *Initialization and finalization*
- *Subtyping and dynamic method binding*
  
- *Polymorphism*

# Subtyping and Dynamic Method Binding

- **Subtyping and subtype polymorphism** - the ability to use a subclass where a superclass is expected
- Thus, **dynamic method binding** (also known as **dynamic dispatch**) - the ability to invoke a new refined method in a context where an earlier version is expected
  - E.g., class B is a Java subclass of A
  - `A a; ... a.m();`



# Subtyping and Dynamic Method Binding

---

- Advantages? FLEXIBLE
- Disadvantages? PERFORMANCE
- C++: static binding is default; dynamic binding is specified with keyword **virtual**
- Java: dynamic binding is default; static binding is specified with **final**

# Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

---

- Covered extensively in Principles of Software
- Enables extensibility and reuse
  - E.g., we can extend a type hierarchy with no modification to the client of hierarchy
  - Reuse through inheritance or composition
- Subtype polymorphism enables the **Open/closed principle (credited to Bertrand Meyer)**:  
Software entities (classes, modules) should be **open** for extension but **closed** for modification

# Example

---

- Application draws shapes on screen
- Possible solution in C

```
typedef enum { circle, square, triangle } ShapeType;  
  
struct Shape { ShapeType t };  
struct Circle  
    { ShapeType t; double radius; Point center; };  
struct Square  
    { ShapeType t; double side; Point topleft; };  
struct Triangle { ...
```

# Example

---

```
void DrawAll(struct Shape *list[], int n) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        struct Shape *s = list[i];
        switch (s->t) {
            case square: DrawSquare(s); break;
            case circle: DrawCircle(s); break;
            } case triangle: DrawTriangle(s);
        }
    }
}
```

What problems do you see here?

# Example

---

- OO Solution in Java

```
abstract class Shape { public void draw(); }
```

```
class Circle extends Shape { ... }
```

```
class Square extends Shape { ... }
```

```
void DrawAll(Shape[] list) {
```

```
    for (int i=0; i < list.length; i++) {
```

```
        Shape s = list[i];
```

```
        s.draw();
```

```
    }
```

Programming Languages CSCI 4430, A. Milanova

# Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

---

```
abstract class Shape { public void draw(); }  
class Circle extends Shape { ... }  
class Square extends Shape { ... }  
class Triangle extends Shape { ... }
```

Extending the Java code requires no changes in **DrawAll!**  
Thus, it is closed for modification.

Extending the C code triggers modifications in **DrawAll**  
(and likely many other DrawAll-like functions).

# Benefits of Subtype Polymorphism

---

- “Science” of software design teaches **Design Patterns**
- Design patterns promote design for extensibility and reuse
- Nearly all design patterns make use of subtype polymorphism!

# Lecture Outline

---

- *Object-oriented programming*
- *Encapsulation and inheritance*
- *Initialization and finalization*
- *Subtyping and dynamic method binding*
  
- *Polymorphism*

# Polymorphism

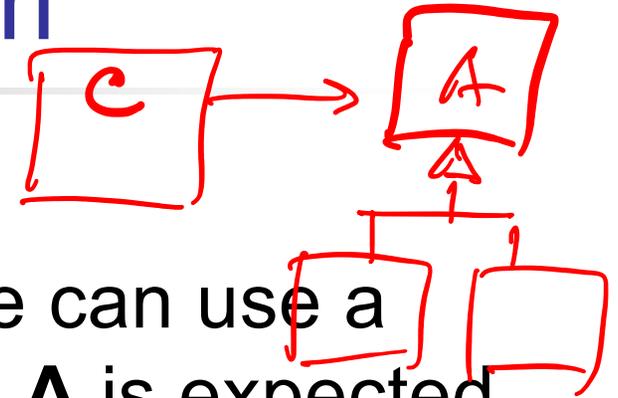
---

- Generally, refers to the mechanisms that a programming language provides, to allow for the same piece of code to be used with objects or values of multiple types
- Poly = many and morph = form
- Examples of polymorphism *length :: [a] → Int*
  - Generic functions in C++ and Haskell
  - Templates in C++, generics in Java
  - Implicitly polymorphic foldl/foldr in Scheme
  - Other

# Varieties of Polymorphism

## ■ Subtype polymorphism

- What we just discussed... Code can use a subclass **B** where a superclass **A** is expected
- Standard in object-oriented languages



## ■ Parametric polymorphism

- Code has a **type** as parameter *eg. `length :: [a] -> Int`*
- **Explicit** parametric polymorphism
- **Implicit** parametric polymorphism
- Standard in functional programming languages

## ■ Ad-hoc polymorphism (overloading)

# Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

- Occurs in Ada, Clu, C++, Java, Haskell (type classes)
- There is an **explicit type parameter**
- Explicit parametric polymorphism is also known **as genericity**

- E.g. in C++:

```
template<class V>
class list_node {
    list_node<V>* prev;
    ...
}
```

→ EXPLICIT TYPE PARAMETER  
(REPLACED AT INSTANTIATION)

```
template<class V>
class list {
    list_node<V> header;
    ...
}
```

# Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

- Usually (but not always!) implemented by creating **multiple copies** of the generic code, one for each concrete type

*generic\_code [int/V]*

```
typedef list_node<int> int_list_node;  
typedef list<int> int_list;
```

- Object-oriented languages usually provide both **subtype polymorphism** and **explicit parametric polymorphism**, which is referred to as generics

# Explicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

- Generics are tricky...
- Consider this C++ code (uses the STL):

```
std::list<int> l = {3, -1, 10};  
std::sort(l.begin(), l.end());
```

BEFORE C++20

C++20 introduced Concepts

- Compiler produces around 2K of text of error messages, referring to code in the STL
- The problem here is that the STL's `sort` requires a **RandomAccessIterator**, while the `list` container provides only a **Bidirectional Iterator**

# On Concepts in C++ and Much More

---

- Thriving in a Crowded and Changing World:  
C++ 2006–2020
- by Bjarne Stroustrup
  
- <https://dl.acm.org/doi/pdf/10.1145/3386320>

# In Java, Bounded Types Restrict Instantiations by Client

---

- Generic code can perform operations permitted by the bound

```
class MyList1<E extends Object> {
    void m(E p) {
        p.intValue();    // compile-time error; Object
                        // does not have intValue()
    }
}

class MyList2<E extends Number> {
    void m(E p) {
        p.intValue();    // OK. Number has intValue()
    }
}
```

# In Java, Bounded Types Restrict Instantiations by Client

---

- Instantiations respect the bound

```
class MyList2<E extends Number> {
    void m(E arg) {
        arg.intValue();    // OK. Number has intValue()
    }
}
MyList2<String> ls = new MyList2<String>();
// compile-time error; String is not within
// bounds of E
MyList2<Integer> li = ...
// OK. Integer is subtype of Number
```

# In Haskell, Type Predicates Restrict Instantiation of Generic Functions

```
sum :: (Num a) => a -> List a -> a
```

```
sum n Nil = n
```

```
sum n (Cons x xs) = sum (n+x) xs
```

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

- **a** is an explicit type parameter
- **(Num a)** is a predicate in the type definition
- **(Num a)** *constrains* the types we can instantiate the generic function with

```
> sum 1 (Cons 2 Nil) ✓ 3
```

```
> sum 1 (Cons 'a' Nil) ✗
```

# Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

- Occurs in Scheme, Python and others
- There is **no explicit type parameter**, yet the code works on many different types
- Usually, there is a single copy of the code, and all type checking is delayed until runtime
  - If the arguments happen to be of the type expected by the code, the code works
  - If not, interpreter issues a type error at runtime



# Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

$(\text{twice } \overbrace{(\text{lambda } (x) (+ 1 x))}^{\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}} \overbrace{1}^{\text{Int}})$  yields ?

*twice instantiates to*

$\underbrace{(\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int})}_{\text{type of } f} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Int}}_{\text{type of } x} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Int}}_{\text{result type}}$

--> `(lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 1)`

--> `(lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 2`

--> yields 3

# Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

`(twice (lambda (x) (cons 'a x)) '(b c))` yields ?  
 $[Sym] \rightarrow [Sym]$        $[Sym]$

*twice instantiates to*

$([Sym] \rightarrow [Sym]) \rightarrow [Sym] \rightarrow [Sym]$   
*type of f*      *type of x*

yields `(a a b c)`

# Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

twice in Scheme: `(define (twice f x) (f (f x)))`

`(twice 2 3)` yields ?

--> 2 `(2 3)`

--> bombs, 2 is not a function value

map, foldl, length are all implicitly parametric

# Implicit Parametric Polymorphism

---

```
def intersect(seq1, seq2):  
    res = []  
    for x in seq1:  
        if x in seq2:  
            res.append(x)  
    return res
```

- As long as arguments for seq1 and seq2 are of an iterable type, intersect works

# Let Polymorphism

---

- A form of explicit parametric polymorphism
- Occurs in Haskell and in ML
  - Also known as ML-style polymorphism

let  $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$  in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0 ✓ 1

---  $f$  is a polymorphic function

--- At (f True) it instantiates to Bool->Bool function

--- At (f 1) it instantiates to Int->Int function

# Let Polymorphism

---

let  $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$  in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0

- Informally, let polymorphism restricts polymorphism to functions defined at **let** bindings
- Disallows functions that take polymorphic functions as arguments
- Formally defined by the Hindley Milner type system
- Allows for type inference

# Let Polymorphism

---

let  $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$  in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0

- Allows for a natural form of type inference
  - We “see” the function definition at the let binding before we see the call (use) of the function
  - Inference “generalizes” the type of the function
  - At each call in the let expression body, inference replaces explicit type parameters with fresh vars
- Cannot be done with a function argument

# Let Polymorphism

---

- Contrast

(1) let  $f = \lambda x \rightarrow x$  in if (f True) then (f 1) else 0 ✓ I

vs.

(2)  $(\lambda f \rightarrow \text{if (f True) then (f 1) else 0}) (\lambda x \rightarrow x)$  ✗

- Let-bound vs. Lambda-bound polymorphism

# The End

---