

## CSE583: Programming Languages

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## Administrivia

- Assignments; reducing from 5 to 4
  - #2 – due 2/11 (on OO)
  - #3 – due 2/25 (on logic/constraint)
  - #4 – due 3/10 (on domain-specific, visual languages, etc.)
- More paper topics listed
- Returning assignment #1
- First term paper back next Tuesday

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## Lecture schedule

- Tonight and next week (2/1 & 2/8): OO
- Following two weeks (2/15 & 2/22): logic and constraint
- Next to last week (2/29): visual programming, literate programming
- Last week (3/7): domain-specific languages (me or Tom Ball)

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## Object oriented programming languages

- Basic background and introduction
  - A number of you have surely done more OO programming than me
  - Definitely comment early and often!
- A deeper look at
  - types, multiple inheritance, etc.
- Quick looks at a few classic and interesting languages

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## A few OO languages

- Simula-67: where it all started
- Smalltalk-80: popularized OO
- C++: OO for the hacking masses
- Java: OO for the web and ???
- CLOS: Powerful OO with Lisp
- Others? Yeah, lots

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## Object Oriented

- OO programming
- OO design
- OO modeling
- OO analysis
- OO databases
- ...

gOOd's  
middle name

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## Dimensions of OO

Primary focus in this course

- **Programming language design**
  - What features are there, and why?
- **Programming language implementation**
  - Are these features implemented with sufficient efficiency?
- **Software engineering**
  - Do these language features help improve software quality or reduce costs?

## OO has three key thrusts

- **Abstract data types (ADTs)**
  - A way to structure programs
- **Inheritance**
  - A way to exploit the relationships between ADTs
- **Dynamic binding**
  - Run-time selection of appropriate implementation

## Anything else central to OO?

- Or any of these three that aren't central to OO?



## Abstract data types

- **An instance of Parnas' information hiding principle**
  - How to choose among alternative modularizations
  - Identify aspects of a program that are likely to change, and those that are likely to be stable
  - Capture the stable parts in interfaces, and the likely to change parts in implementations
  - (There's a bit more to it)

## Information hiding



- **Clients cannot rely on knowledge of the implementation, just it's specification**
- **The implementation can change without affecting the clients**

## ADTs

- **The changeable part of the program is identified to be**
  - the representation of the data and
  - the implementation of the operations
- **The interface is the stable part**
  - The "signature" is the syntactic definition of the interface
  - Semantics are usually given informally

## ADTs

- The representation and the operations are packaged together
  - The representation and implementation details are encapsulated and hidden from clients
- An ADT is a kind of module, but one that (usually) allows clients to instantiate multiple instances of the ADT
- Ada packages, Modula modules, etc.

## Aside: any weaknesses of information hiding?



- If you took 584 from me, you must remain silent :-)
- Weakness of information hiding fall onto ADTs, too

## Classes

- To the first order, an ADT is called a class in an OO language
  - Data structures are called objects and instances
  - Operations are called methods
  - Data inside the class are called instance variables
- (Later, some discussion of class vs. type)

## The classic example: a stack

```
class Stack[T] {
  push(item:T):void
  pop():T
  top():T
  size():int
}

s:Stack[int] := new Stack[int];
s.push(3);
s.push(5);
print(s.pop());
```

Polymorphic

Message send:  
"Ask the object to do something"

Method

Instantiation

## Two implementations

```
class Stack[T] {
  private:
  items:array[10] of T;
  public:
  push(item:T):void {
    items[top] := item;
    top := top + 1;
  }
  pop():T {
    top := top - 1;
    return items[top];
  }
  size():int {return top;}
}

class Stack[T] {
  private:
  items:list[T] := nil;
  public:
  push(item:T):void {
    items.add_first(item);
  }
  pop():T {
    return items.remove_first();
  }
  size():int {return items.length();
}
}
```

Method implementation

## Inheritance

- Define new class as an incremental modification of an existing class
- Perhaps the most recognizable aspect of OO languages and programs
  - ADTs but no inheritance does not usually earn the OO moniker

## Inheritance

- New class is *subclass* of the original *superclass*
- By default, subclass inherits the superclass' methods and instance variables
- Can add more methods and instance variables in the subclass
- Can override (replace) methods in the subclass
  - But usually cannot override instance variables

## Example

```
class Rectangle {
private:
    center:Point;
    h,w:int;
public:
    area():int
        {return h*w;}
    draw(screen:ODev):void
        {...}
    move(newc:Point):void
        {...}
...
}
```

```
class ColorRectangle
    inherits Rectangle {
private:
    color:Color;
public:
    draw(screen:ODev):void
        {...}
}
```

```
r:Rectangle := new
    Rectangle;
cr:ColorRectangle := new
    ColorRectangle;
print.r.area();
print.cr.area();
r.draw();
cr.draw();
```

## Benefits of inheritance

- Achieve more code sharing by factoring code into common superclass
  - Encourages development of rich libraries of related data structures
  - Increases reuse
- May model real world scenarios well
  - Use class to model different things
  - Use inheritance for classification of things
    - Subclass is a special case of superclass

## Classic hierarchies

- A *square* is-a *rectangle* is-a *polygon* is-a *2D-shape*
- A *domestic cat* (species) is-a *lesser cat* (genus) is-a *cat* (family) is-a *meat-eater* (order) is-a (class) *mammal*
  - mammalia.carnivora.felidae.felis.cattus
  - Herding cats is not for wusses

## Rich OO hierarchies

- Smalltalk-80, Java JDK, ...

```
•Magnitude
•Association
•Character
•Date
•Number
  •Float
  •Fraction
  •Integer
  •LargeNegativeInteger
  •LargePositiveInteger
  •SmallInteger
•Time
```

```
• class java.awt.Component (implements
  java.awt.image.ImageObserver,
  java.awt.MenuContainer, java.io.Serializable)
  • class java.awt.Button
  • class java.awt.Canvas
  • class java.awt.Checkbox (implements
  java.awt.ItemSelectable)
  • class java.awt.Choice (implements
  java.awt.ItemSelectable)
  • class java.awt.Container
    • class java.awt.Panel
    • class java.applet.Applet
    • class java.awt.ScrollPane
    • class java.awt.Window
    • class java.awt.Dialog
    • class java.awt.FileDialog
```

## The world is not perfectly hierarchical

- An elephant is a mammal
- An elephant is a gray thing
  - Unless it is albino
- An elephant is a big thing
- An elephant has four legs
  - Unless it lost one
- ...leads to issues in multiple inheritance...

## Pitfalls of inheritance

- Often overused, especially by novices
- Code gets fragmented into small, factored pieces
- Tracing control logic of code is harder
- Simple extension and overriding may be too limited
  - Ex: exceptions in classification hierarchies

## Dynamic binding

- Allow subclass to be used wherever a superclass is expected
  - Allows reuse of superclass' code
- When message is sent, proper operation is located and invoked

```
r:Rectangle := ...
cr:ColorRectangle := ...
r := cr;
...
r.draw();
```

which draw is invoked?

## Dynamic binding (more)

- This is a new kind of polymorphism: subtype (inclusion) polymorphism
  - We'll come back to this later
- Dynamic binding requires run-time class information for each object
  - Needed to figure out proper method to invoke
- Also known as message passing, virtual function calling, generic function application

## Method lookup

- Given a message `obj.msg(args)`
- Start with run-time class `C` of `obj` (the "receiver")
- If `msg` is defined in `C`, invoke it
- Otherwise, recursively search in the superclass of `C`
- If a match is never found, report run-time error ("Do not understand")
  - In a statically typed OO language, this error will never be reported

## Example: displaying shapes in list

```
forall s:Shape in scene do
  if s.is_rectangle() then
    rectangle(s).draw();
  elseif s.is_square() then
    square(s).draw();
  elseif...
  else
    error("unknown shape");
  fi
end
```

```
forall s:Shape in scene do
  s.draw();
end
```

Add new shapes?

## Benefits of dynamic binding

- Allows subtype polymorphism and class-specific methods
- Allows new subclasses to be added without modifying clients
- More important than inheritance?

## Pitfalls of dynamic binding

- Makes logic of program harder to follow
- Adds run-time overhead
  - Space for run-time class information
  - Time to do method lookup
    - But only an indirect jump, not a search

## Time for questions and comments

- Specific questions about OO: why, what, how?
- Observations from experience about what aspects of OO are most crucial



## Types

- Under what conditions are instances of two types the same?
  - Constrains assignment (and related operations) in most languages
- Arises even in “old” imperative languages like Pascal

## Name vs. structural equivalence

```
record cartesian {x,y: float};
record polar (r,theta: float);
a,b: cartesian;
c: polar;
...
a := b;
c := b;
a.x := c.theta;
```

## Polymorphism

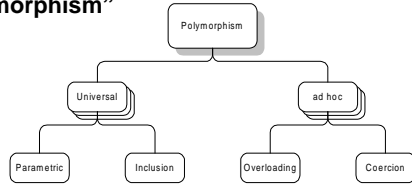
- A walk through some definitions
- Many from the OO FAQ on the web
- It's more than just definitions
  - At the same time, many of the definitions are definitely tricky (or worse)

## Strachey (1967)

- "Parametric [true] polymorphism is obtained when a function works uniformly on a range of types; these types normally exhibit some common structure
- "Ad-hoc polymorphism is obtained when a function works, or appears to work, on several different types (which may not exhibit a common structure) and may behave in unrelated ways for each type"

## Cardelli and Wegner (1985)

- Expand on Strachey's definition by adding "inclusion (or subtype) polymorphism"



## Definitions

- **Polymorphic Languages:**
  - Some values and variables may have more than one type
- **Polymorphic Functions:**
  - Functions whose operands (actual parameters) can have more than one type
- **Polymorphic Types:**
  - types whose operations are applicable to operands of more than one type

## More definitions

- **Parametric Polymorphism:**
  - A polymorphic function has an implicit or explicit type parameter that determines the type of the argument for each application of that function
    - Ex: A list of ints is not a list of strings, but they are both lists
- **Inclusion Polymorphism:**
  - An object can be viewed as belonging to many different classes that need not be disjoint; that is, there may be inclusion of classes
    - Ex: a ColorRectangle is also a Rectangle

## Universal polymorphism

- Parametric and inclusion are closely related
  - Implementation approaches are distinct, however
- Parametric polymorphism is referred to as **generics**
  - Each generic instantiation can create a specialized version of the code
    - Ex: STL (standard template library)
- In a "true polymorphic system", only a single implementation is used

## Inheritance (Cardelli/Wegner)

- Subtyping on record types corresponds to the concept of inheritance (subclass) in languages, especially if records are allowed to have functional components
  - [These functional components in records are methods]

## How do we determine if a type A is a subtype of a type B?

- $A \leq B$  means A is a subtype of B
- Consider types as records
  - A must have all the fields that B has; A can have more fields
- For all fields in common,  
 $f_A \leq f_B$

## Example

```
type object = (age : int)
type vehicle =
  (age : int,
   speed : int)
type machine =
  (age : int,
   fuel : string)
type car =
  (age : int,
   speed : int,
   fuel : string)

type 2V-garage =
  (v1 : vehicle,
   v2 : vehicle)
type 2C-garage =
  (v1 : car,
   v2 : car,
   j : junk)
type 2M-garage =
  (v1 : machine,
   v2 : machine)
```

## OO languages have methods, too

- How does subtyping play here
- Again, the question is, under what conditions is it meaningful to apply a function to an argument?
- The basic rule is:
  - Given
    - $f: S \rightarrow T$
    - $a: S'$  and  $S' \leq S$
  - Then
    - $f(a)$  is meaningful and  $f(a): T$

## Example

- Consider any function  $g: t \rightarrow \text{car}$ 
  - Ex: `serial_number: int → car`
- Since  $g$  returns a `car`, it necessarily also returns a `vehicle`, since `car ≤ vehicle`
- That means that  $(t \rightarrow \text{car}) \leq (t \rightarrow \text{vehicle})$ 
  - because `car ≤ vehicle`

## Further example

- Now consider
  - `speed: vehicle → int`
- We can use this to determine the speed of a `car` (because it is-a `vehicle`)
- This means that
  - $(\text{vehicle} \rightarrow \text{int}) \leq (\text{car} \rightarrow \text{int})$  because `car ≤ vehicle`
- Or, more generally
  - $(\text{vehicle} \rightarrow t) \leq (\text{car} \rightarrow t)$  because `car ≤ vehicle`

## Note carefully

- The reversal of the two examples, depending on whether the subtype relation is on the left or the righthand side of the function arrow
- Cardelli argues this leads to the basic rule for subtyping of functions:
  - if  $S' \leq S$  and  $T \leq T'$   
then  $S \rightarrow T \leq S' \rightarrow T'$
  - Because you can generally constrain the domain of a function and unconstrain the range of a function, without harming the function

## Contravariant typing

- This set of rules leads to the notion of contravariant typing
- Again, it ensures that if you have  $A \leq B$  and  $a: A$  and  $b: B$  then you can always safely use  $a$  where you had  $b$ , and
- you'll never have a reference to an instance variable that is unknown or to a function that is not meaningful



## Example

```
2Dpoint =  
  <x : Int,  
    y : Int,  
    equal : 2Dpoint -> Bool>  
3Dpoint =  
  <x : Int,  
    y : Int,  
    z : Int,  
    equal : 3Dpoint -> Bool>
```

## Contravariant?

- For this example, in small groups for 5 minutes, determine if  $2Dpoint \leq 3Dpoint$ ,  $3Dpoint \leq 2Dpoint$ , or neither (can't be both...why?)



## Covariance

- The covariant rule is different, swapping the function relationships
  - if  $S' \leq S$  and  $T \leq T'$  then  $S' \rightarrow T' \leq S \rightarrow T$
- This allows different programs to be written, but it cannot guarantee that a “do not understand” error will never arise
  - Eiffel uses covariance checking
  - It uses “system validity checking” to catch some type errors

## Some issues in OOP

- Basic object model
  - Hybrid vs. pure OO languages
  - Class-based vs. classless (prototype-based) languages
  - Single vs. multiple dispatching
  - Single vs. multiple inheritance
- Type checking
  - Types vs. classes
  - Subtype polymorphism

## Hybrid vs. pure object model

- In a pure object model, everything is an object
  - Not only user-defined objects, but integers, bits, floats, lists, etc.
    - $3. + (4)$
- Everything is instantiated, everything is dynamically dispatched, etc.
- This gives a terrifically consistent programming model
- Ex: Smalltalk-80, Cecil, ...

## Why hybrid?

- Primarily because of performance
  - Who wants to ask an integer to dispatch a method to add an integer to it?
  - Even “just” an added indirection can be costly, if done frequently enough
- So, hybrid languages (C++, ...) allow the programmer to choose what is an what isn't an object
  - Usually with some constraints; for example, constraining non-objects to a predefined set of types

## Class-based vs. classless languages

- Most OO languages have classes
- Some are instead classless
  - Also, prototype-based
- Why?
- The distinction between classes and objects is important but tricky
  - Classless languages eliminate the distinction
  - In principle, this gives a clearer programming model, just like a pure object model does

## How does it work? Delegation

- Given a message `obj.msg(args)`
- If `msg` is defined in `obj`, invoke it
- If not, the `msg` is passed on to another object that `obj` “delegates” to
  - In some languages, there may be more than one delegate
- If no delegate exists, then it’s an error

## How does it work?

- Usually, a programmer simulates a class hierarchy
- A “regular” object delegates to a “class” object
- A “class” object delegates to its “superclass” object

## How to create objects?

- In class-based languages, a class holds a constructor (`new` method) that creates new instances of that class
  - This isn’t always exactly right, but it’s close
- In classless languages, there is an object called a *prototype* that knows how to clone itself to create new objects

## The Smalltalk-80

- Smalltalk-80 is a class-based language
- And it has a pure object model
- That is, everything is an object, and everything has a class
- This means that a class is actually an object, since everything is an object

## Metaclasses

- If classes are objects, what is their class?
- For each class in the system, there is an associated metaclass
  - Each metaclass is constrained to have a single instance: the given class object
  - The Smalltalk system creates the associated metaclass when you create a class
- If you don’t like how classes work in Smalltalk, you can change the...metaclass class

## Single vs. multiple dispatching

- Resolving `obj.msg(args)` is generally done on the class of `obj` alone
  - The class of `args`, for instance, is immaterial
  - (This is true even in classless languages)

## But...

- This “single dispatching” can lead to contorted code
- How to handle?
  - `3+1`
  - `4.1+5.9`
  - `2+6.5`
  - `3.5+8`
- Two different code bodies
  - `+` for int, `+` for float
- Two cases inside each code body
  - One that coerces the argument, one that doesn't

## Multiple dispatch

- Allows the classes of more than just the receiver to determine which method body is invoked

## Static type checking

- Types can be separated from classes
  - Types can define signatures
  - Classes can define implementations
- `interface vs. class` in Java

## Next week

- We'll look in more detail at some languages that make many of these points more concrete