CS-XXX: Graduate Programming Languages Lecture 22 — Class-Based Object-Oriented Programming Dan Grossman 2012	<section-header> PL Issues for OOP? OOP lets you: Build some extensible software concisely Exploit an intuitive analogy between interaction of physical entities and interaction of software pieces It also: Raises tricky semantic and style issues worthy of careful PL study Is more complicated than functions Not necessarily worse, but is writing lots of accessor methods "productive"? This lecture: No type-system issues Next lecture: Static typing for OOP, static overloading, multimethods </section-header>
So what is OOP?	Class-based OOP
<pre>OOP "looks like this", but what's the essence? class Point1 extends Object { field x; get_x() { self.x } set_x(y) { self.x = y } distance(p) { p.get_x() - self.get_x() } constructor() { self.x = 0 } } class Point2 extends Point1 { field y; get_y() { self.y } get_x() { 34+super.get_x() } constructor() { super(); self.y = 0; } }</pre>	 In (pure) <i>class-based OOP</i>: 1. Everything is an object 2. Objects communicate via messages (handled by methods) 3. Objects have their own state 4. Every object is an instance of a class 5. A class describes its instances' behavior
<pre>Dure OOP Cn make "everything an object" (cf. Smalltalk, Ruby,) . Just like "everything a function" or "everything a string" or class True extends Boolean { myIf(x,y) { x.m(); } class False extends Boolean { myIf((new Object() { m() {})}, (new Object() { m() {})}) Essentially identical to the lambda-calculus encoding of booleans . Opsures are just objects with one method, perhaps called "apply", and a field for each free variable</pre>	 OOP can mean many things Why is this approach such a popular way to structure software? An ADT (private fields)? Inheritance, method/field extension, method override? Implicit this / self? Dynamic dispatch? Subtyping? All the above (plus constructor(s)) with 1 class declaration? Design question: Better to have small orthogonal features or one "do it all" feature? Anyway, let's consider how "unique to OO" each is

OOP as ADT-focused Simple Example Fields, methods, constructors often have visibilities type int_stack val empty_stack : int_stack What code can invoke a method / access a field? Other methods in same object? other methods in same class? a subclass? within val push : int -> int_stack -> int_stack some other boundary (e.g., a package)? any code? Visibility an orthogonal issue, so let's assume public methods push 42 empty_stack (any code) and private fields (only methods of that object) for simplicity class IntStack { ... // fields Hiding concrete representation matters, in any paradigm constructor() {...} For simple examples, objects or modules work fine push(Int i) {...} But OOP struggles with binary methods . . . } new IntStack().push(42); Inheritance and Override **Binary-Method Example** type choose_bag Subclasses: val singleton : int -> choose_bag 1. inherit fields and methods of superclass val union : choose_bag -> choose_bag -> choose_bag 2. can override methods val choose : choose_bag -> int (* choose element uniformly 3. can use super calls (a.k.a. resends) at random *) class ChooseBag { ... // fields Can we code this up in OCaml? constructor(Int i) { ... } No: Field-name reuse (let's ignore that) ChooseBag union(ChooseBag that) { ... } No: Static type system without subtyping (let's ignore that) Int choose() { ... } No: Because of the key semantic difference of OOP ... } but let's try anyway with "plain old" records of functions and ML implementation straightforward, e.g., use an int list recursion ... ► OOP implementation *impossible* unless add more methods (wider interface) or make fields less private (less OOP) • Notice union is a "binary method" (any n > 1 problematic) CS-XXX 2012 Lecture 2 CS-XXX 2012. Lecture 22 Problems Attempting Inheritance let point1_constructor () = Small problems: let x = ref 0 in Have to change point2 code when point1 changes. let rec self = But OOP has many "fragile base class" issues too $\{ get_x = (fun () \rightarrow !x); \}$ No direct access to "private fields" of super-class set_x = (fun y -> x := y); distance = (fun p -> p.get_x() - self.get_x()) } in self Big problem: Distance method in point2 code does not behave how it does (* note: adding get_y prevents type-checking in OCaml *) in OOP! let point2_constructor () = We do not have late-binding of self (i.e., dynamic dispatch) let r = point1_constructor () in Claim: The essence of OOP (versus records of closures) is a let y = ref 0 in fundamentally different rule for what self maps to in the let rec self = environment! { get_x = (fun () -> 34 + r.get_x()); set_x = r.set_x; distance = r.distance; = (fun () -> !y) } in self get_y Dan Grossman CS-XXX 2012. Lecture 22 Dan Grossma S-XXX 2012. Lecture 22

More on late binding The big debate Late-binding, dynamic dispatch, and open recursion are all essentially synonyms. The simplest example I know: Open recursion: Code reuse: improve even by just changing odd Functional (even still O(n)) Superclass has to do less extensibility planning let $c1() = let rec r = {$ even = fun $i \rightarrow if i > 0$ then r.odd (i-1) else true; Closed recursion: odd = fun i \rightarrow if i > 0 then r.even (i-1) else false } in r Code abuse: break even by just breaking odd let c2() = let r1 = c1() in Superclass has to do more abstraction planning let rec r = {even = r1.even; odd i = i % 2 == 1 } in r OOP (even now O(1)): over "the right default" class C1 { int even(i) { if i>0 then odd(i-1) else true } int odd(i) { if i>0 then even(i-1) else false } } class C2 extends C1 { int odd(i) { i % 2 == 1 } } CS-XXX 2012. Lectu

Where We're Going

Now we know overriding and dynamic dispatch is the interesting part of the expression language

Next:

- How exactly do we define method dispatch?
- How do we use overriding for extensible software?
- Next lecture: Static typing and subtyping vs. subclassing

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Reality: Both have proved very useful; should probably just argue

Defining Dispatch

Focus on correct definitions, not super-efficient compilation techniques

Methods take "self" as an argument

- (Compile down to functions taking an extra argument)
- So just need self bound to the right thing

Approach 1:

- Each object has 1 "code pointer" per method
- For new C() where C extends D:
 - Start with code pointers for D (inductive definition!)

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- ▶ If C adds m, add code pointer for m
- If C overrides m, change code pointer for m
- self bound to the (whole) object in method body

Dispatch continued

Approach 2:

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- Each object has 1 "run-time tag"
- ▶ For new C() where C extends D, tag is C
- self bound to the (whole) object in method body
- Method call to m reads tag, looks up (tag,m) in a global table

Both approaches model dynamic-dispatch and are routinely formalized in PL papers. Real implementations a bit more clever

Difference in approaches only observable in languages with run-time adding/removing/changing of methods

Informal claim: This is hard to explain to freshmen, but in the presence of overriding, no simpler definition is correct

Else it's not OOP and overriding leads to faulty reasoning CS-XXX 2012. Lecture 22

Overriding and Hierarchy Design

Subclass writer decides what to override to modify behavior

Often-claimed unchecked style issue: overriding should specialize behavior

But superclass writer often has ideas on what will be overridden

Leads to abstract methods (must override) and abstract classes:

- An abstract class has > 0 abstract methods
- Overriding an abstract method makes it non-abstract
- Cannot call constructor of an abstract class

Adds no expressiveness (superclass could implement method to raise an exception or loop forever), but uses static checking to enforce an idiom and saves you a handful of keystrokes

Overriding for Extensibility **Example Continued** A PL example: class AddExp extends class Exp { class Exp { Exp e1; abstract Exp eval(Env); Exp e2; abstract Typ typecheck(Ctxt); Exp eval(Env e) { abstract Int toInt(); new IntExp(e1.eval(e).toInt().add(} e2.eval(e).toInt())); } class IntExp extends class Exp { Typ typecheck(Ctxt c) { Int i; if(e1.typecheck(c).equals(new IntTyp()) && Exp eval(Env e) { self } e2.typecheck(c).equals(new IntTyp())) Typ typecheck(Ctxt c) { new IntTyp() } new IntTyp() Int toInt() { i } else constructor(Int _i) { i=_i } throw new TypeError() } } Int toInt() { throw new BadCall() } } Variants and Operations: "The Expression Problem" Extending the example • Given a type with several variants/subtypes and several Now suppose we want MultExp functions/methods, there's a 2D-grid of code you need: No change to existing code, unlike ML In ML, we would have to "prepare" with an "Else of 'a" Int | Negate | Add | Mult variant and make Exp a type-constructor eval In general, requires very fancy acrobatics typecheck toString Now suppose we want a toString method OOP and FP just lay out the code differently! Must change all existing classes, unlike ML ▶ In OOP, we would have to "prepare" with a "Visitor pattern" Which is more convenient depends on what you're doing and In general, requires very fancy acrobatics how the variants/operations "fit together" Extensibility has many dimensions — most require forethought! Often, tools let you view "the other dimension" See picture... ▶ Opinion: Dimensional structure of code is greater than 2–3, so we'll never have exactly what we want in text CS-XXX 2012. Lecture 22 Dan Gr S-XXX 2012 Lecture Yet more example Now consider actually adding MultExp If you have MultExp extend Exp, you will copy typecheck from AddExp If you have MultExp extend AddExp, you don't copy. The AddExp implementer was not expecting that. May be brittle; generally considered bad style. Best (?) of both worlds by *refactoring* with an abstract BinIntExp class implementing typecheck. So we choose to change AddExp when we add MultExp. This intermediate class is a fairly heavyweight way to use a helper function Dan Grossman CS-XXX 2012, Lecture 22