



编程语言的设计原理

Design Principles of Programming Languages

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Chap 18: Case Study: Imperative Objects

Embedding or Formalizing

What is Object-Oriented Programming?

Object / Class

Implementation



Functional Programming

- Lambda-calculus
- Records
- General recursion
- Mutable references
- Subtyping

What about Other **Programming Paradigms**?

- Imperative programming
- Object-oriented programming
- Logic programming



Two Approaches to Defining a Language

Embedding in Lambda-Calculus

- Use lambda-calculus to encode programming idioms
- Can be thought as “syntax sugars”
- This chapter: **use lambda-calculus to approximate object-oriented programming**

Formalizing from Scratch

- Axiomatize the syntax, evaluation, and typing
- Follow the methodology in this course
- Next chapter: **formalize a subset of Java from scratch**



Embedding



Embedding Imperative Programming

WIKIPEDIA: “Imperative programming uses statements to change a program’s state.”

Remark

Mutable references model **state changes** in lambda-calculus.

<code>int a = 1;</code>	\implies	<code>let a = ref 1 in</code>
<code>a = a + 1;</code>	\implies	<code>a := !a + 1;</code>
<code>return a;</code>	\implies	<code>!a</code>

Question

What about loops?

```
while (i < n) {  
  int c = a + b;  
  a = b; b = c; i = i + 1;  
}
```



Embedding Imperative Programming

Remark

Recall **general recursion** via **fix** operator with **fix** $f \equiv f$ (**fix** f).

Evaluation and Typing Rules of **fix**

$$\frac{}{\mathbf{fix} (\lambda x:T_1.t_2) \longrightarrow [x \mapsto (\mathbf{fix} (\lambda x:T_1.t_2))]t_2} \text{E-FIXBETA}$$

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\mathbf{fix} t_1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{fix} t'_1} \text{E-FIX}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fix} t_1 : T_1} \text{T-FIX}$$

Question

How to embed loops in lambda-calculus using general recursion?



Embedding Imperative Programming

```
while (i < n) {  
  int c = a + b;  
  a = b; b = c; i = i + 1;  
}
```

⇒

```
loop_gen =  
  λ loop:(Unit→Unit). λ _:Unit.  
    if !i < !n then  
      let c = ref (!a + !b) in  
      ( a := !b ; b := !c ; i := !i + 1 ;  
        loop unit )  
    else  
      unit;  
▶ loop_gen : (Unit→Unit)→Unit→Unit;  
loop = fix loop_gen;  
▶ loop : Unit→Unit;  
loop unit;  
▶ unit : Unit;
```

SUMMARY

Lambda-calculus with mutable references and general recursion can encode imperative programming.



What is Object-Oriented Programming?



Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

WIKIPEDIA: “OOP is based on objects, which can contain data (as fields) and code (as methods).”

Example (Points in the Plane)

Consider implementing points as objects.

- **Data:** the representations of the point, e.g., cartesian form (x, y) , polar form (r, θ) , etc.
- **Code:** the operations for the point, e.g., its distance from the origin, its belonging quadrant, etc.

A set of operations (i.e., the **interface**) can be implemented differently based on the representations, e.g.:

$$\text{dist}_{\text{cart}}(x, y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\text{dist}_{\text{pol}}(r, \theta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} r$$

PRINCIPLE (I)

Multiple representations: Same interface can have different implementations.



Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

Example (Points in the Plane)

A point's internal data should be **hidden** from outside.

Let us implement a function that checks whether a point lies in the unit circle.

$$\text{is_in_unit_circle}(p) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{dist}(p) < 1)$$

The function uses the `dist` method from the interface of points.

Thus, it works for **both** the cartesian form **and** the polar form.

PRINCIPLE (II)

Encapsulation: Internal representation is hidden.



Embedding Objects in Lambda-Calculus

Remark

Recall that “object = **internal data** + **interface methods**.”

We use **mutable references** to encode data and **records** to organize interface.

Example (Counters)

A counter object provides two methods:

- `get`: return the current counter value.
- `inc`: increment the counter.

```
c = let x = ref 1 in
      {get = λ_:Unit. !x,
       inc = λ_:Unit. x := succ(!x)};
► c : {get:Unit→Nat, inc:Unit→Unit}
```

Example (Counters)

Invoke a method of an object = extract a field of its interface record and apply.

```
c.inc unit;  
▶ unit : Unit  
c.get unit;  
▶ 2 : Nat  
(c.inc unit; c.inc unit; c.get unit);  
▶ 4 : Nat
```

For convenience, let us define $\text{Counter} = \{\text{get}:\text{Unit}\rightarrow\text{Nat}, \text{inc}:\text{Unit}\rightarrow\text{Unit}\}$.

Question (In-Class Exercise)

Can you define $\text{inc3} : \text{Counter}\rightarrow\text{Unit}$ that increments a counter three times?

Question

Can we define `newCounter` that generates a new counter? What should be its type?

```
newCounter =  
  λ_:Unit. let x = ref 1 in  
    {get = λ_:Unit. !x,  
     inc = λ_:Unit. x := succ(!x)};  
▶ newCounter : Unit→Counter
```

Question

Can we change the internal representation of the counters?

```
c = let r = {x=ref 1} in  
  {get = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),  
   inc = λ_:Unit. r.x := succ(!(r.x))};  
▶ c : Counter
```

Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)



SUMMARY

OOP principles so far:

- I **Multiple representations**: same interface can have different implementations.
- II **Encapsulation**: internal representation is hidden.

Question

Is that all?



What is Object-Oriented Programming? (cont.)



Code Reusing

Remark

OOP is good at **code reusing**: objects of different representations can be manipulated by the same code.

```
c = let x = ref 1 in
  {get = λ_:Unit. !x,
   inc = λ_:Unit. x := succ(!x)};
```

- ▶ `c : Counter`
- `inc3 c;`
- ▶ `unit : Unit`

```
c = let r = {x=ref 1} in
  {get = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),
   inc = λ_:Unit. r.x := succ(!(r.x))};
```

- ▶ `c : Counter`
- `inc3 c;`
- ▶ `unit : Unit`

Question

Given a function `inc3 : Counter → Unit`, can it be applied to values of other types?

Remark

We can use **subtyping**, i.e., if `d : T` for some `T <: Counter`, the term `inc3 d` is well-typed.



Subtyping

PRINCIPLE (III)

Subtyping: Object-interface subtyping enables cross-interface code reusing.

Example (Counters)

Consider counters that can be reset:

```
ResetCounter = {get:Unit→Nat, inc:Unit→Unit, reset:Unit→Unit};  
newResetCounter =  
  λ_:Unit. let r = {x=ref 1} in  
    {get   = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),  
     inc   = λ_:Unit. r.x := succ(!(r.x)),  
     reset = λ_:Unit. r.x := 1};
```

► newResetCounter : Unit→ResetCounter

Because `ResetCounter <: Counter`, we can apply `inc3` to reset-counters:

```
let d = newResetCounter unit in (inc3 d; d.reset unit; inc3 d; d.get unit);  
► 4 : Nat
```



Code Reusing (cont.)

Question

The definitions of `newCounter` and `newResetCounter` are almost identical.
Can we describe the common functionality in one place?

PRINCIPLE

A type = a set of **classes**, each with a distinct internal representation.
Recall that “the type of points = the class with cartesian form + the class with polar form.”

Example (Counters)

```
CounterRep = {x : Ref Nat};
counterClass =
  λ r:CounterRep.
    {get = λ _:Unit. !(r.x),
     inc = λ _:Unit. r.x := succ(!(r.x))};
▶ counterClass : CounterRep → Counter
```



Inheritance

Example (Counters)

We can reuse methods from `counterClass` to define a new class `resetCounterClass`:

```
resetCounterClass =  
  λ r:CounterRep.  
    let super = counterClass r in  
    {get   = super.get,  
     inc  = super.inc,  
     reset = λ_:Unit. r.x := 1};  
▶ resetCounterClass : CounterRep → ResetCounter
```

In other words, `resetCounterClass` **inherits** `get` and `inc` **from** `counterClass`.

PRINCIPLE (IV)

Inheritance: classes provide a mechanism to organize inheritance-based code reusing.

In-Class Exercise



Question (Exercise 18.6.1)

Write a subclass of `resetCounterClass` with an additional method `dec` that subtracts one from the current value stored in the counter.

You may test your new class using the `fullref` checker.



Adding Instance Variables

Question

How to define a class of “backup counters” whose `reset` method resets their state to whatever value it has when we last called the method `backup`, instead of resetting it to a constant value?

```
BackupCounter = {get:Unit→Nat, inc:Unit→Unit, reset:Unit→Unit, backup:Unit→Unit}
```

We need an extra instance variable to store the backed-up value:

```
BackupCounterRep = {x : Ref Nat, b : Ref Nat}
```

```
backupCounterClass =
```

```
  λ r:BackupCounterRep.
```

```
    let super = resetCounterClass r in
```

```
      {get    = super.get,
```

```
        inc   = super.inc,
```

```
        reset = λ_:Unit. r.x := !(r.b),
```

```
        backup = λ_:Unit. r.b := !(r.x)};
```

```
▶ backupCounterClass : BackupCounterRep→BackupCounter
```

Calling Superclass Methods



Question

When defining a class, can we extend its superclass's behavior with something extra?

```
funnyBackupCounterClass =  
  λ r:BackupCounterRep.  
    let super = backupCounterClass r in  
      {get      = super.get,  
       inc      = λ_:Unit. (super.backup unit; super.inc unit),  
       reset    = super.reset,  
       backup   = super.backup};  
▶ funnyBackupCounterClass : BackupCounterRep → BackupCounter
```




Classes with Self

Question

Can we allow the methods of a class to refer to each other?

Suppose that we want to implement counters with a set method:

$$\text{SetCounter} = \{\text{get}:\text{Unit}\rightarrow\text{Nat}, \text{set}:\text{Nat}\rightarrow\text{Unit}, \text{inc}:\text{Unit}\rightarrow\text{Unit}\}$$

And we want to implement `inc` in terms of `get` and `set`.

```
setCounterClass =  
  λ r:CounterRep.  
    {get = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),  
     set = λ i:Nat. r.x := i,  
     inc = λ_:Unit. set (succ (get unit))};
```

Question

How to resolve such a mutually recursive record of functions?

Classes with Self



Remark

Recall **general recursion** via **fix** operator with **fix** $f \equiv f$ (**fix** f).

```
setCounterClass =  
  λ r:CounterRep.  
    fix  
      (λ self:SetCounter.  
        {get = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),  
          set = λ i:Nat. r.x := i,  
          inc = λ_:Unit. self.set (succ (self.get unit))});  
▶ setCounterClass : CounterRep→SetCounter
```



Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

SUMMARY

OOP principles so far:

- I **Multiple representations**: same interface can have different implementations.
- II **Encapsulation**: internal representation is hidden.
- III **Subtyping**: Object-interface subtyping enables cross-interface code reusing.
- IV **Inheritance**: classes provide a mechanism to organize inheritance-based code reusing.

Question

Is that all?



What is Object-Oriented Programming? (cont. again)



Dynamic Dispatch

Example (Counters)

We sometimes want to allow the methods of a **superclass** to call the methods of a **subclass**.

```
InstrCounter = {get:Unit→Nat, set:Nat→Unit, inc:Unit→Unit, accesses:Unit→Nat};
InstrCounterRep = {x : Ref Nat, a : Ref Nat};
instrCounterClass =
  λ r:InstrCounterRep.
    fix
      (λ self:InstrCounter.
        let super = setCounterClass r in
          {get      = super.get,
           set      = λ i:Nat. (r.a := succ(!(r.a)); super.set i),
           inc      = super.inc,
           accesses = λ _:Unit. !(r.a)});
  ▶ instrCounterClass : InstrCounterRep→InstrCounter
```

However, the **inc** method from the superclass will **not** call the **set** method of the subclass.



Late Binding of Self

PRINCIPLE (V)

Open recursion: `self` gets bound during object creation instead of class definition.

Example (Counters)

In the definition of `setCounterClass`, we make `self` a parameter:

```
setCounterClass =  
  λ r:CounterRep.  
    λ self:SetCounter.  
      {get = λ_:Unit. !(r.x),  
       set = λ i:Nat. r.x := i,  
       inc = λ_:Unit. self.set (succ (self.get unit))};  
▶ setCounterClass : CounterRep → SetCounter → SetCounter
```

```
newSetCounter =  
  λ_:Unit. let r = {x=ref 1} in fix (setCounterClass r);  
▶ newSetCounter : Unit → SetCounter
```

Late Binding of Self

Example (Counters)

```
instrCounterClass =  
  λ r:InstrCounterRep.  
    λ self:InstrCounter.  
      let super = setCounterClass r self in  
        {get      = super.get,  
         set      = λ i:Nat. (r.a := succ(!(r.a)); super.set i),  
         inc      = super.inc,  
         accesses = λ _:Unit. !(r.a)};  
▶ instrCounterClass : InstrCounterRep → InstrCounter → InstrCounter
```

```
newInstrCounter =  
  λ _:Unit. let r = {x=ref 1, a=ref 0} in fix (instrCounterClass r);  
▶ newInstrCounter : Unit → InstrCounter
```

Does it really work?



```
newInstrCounter unit
→* let r = {x=ref 1, a= ref 0} in fix (instrCounterClass r)
→* fix (instrCounterClass <ifields>)
→* fix (λ self:InstrCounter. let super = setCounterClass <ifields> self in <imethods>)
→* let super = setCounterClass <ifields> (fix <f>) in <imethods>
→* let super = (λ self:SetCounter. <smethods>) (fix <f>) in <imethods>
→* let super = (λ self:SetCounter. <smethods>)
      (let super = setCounterClass <ifields> (fix <f>) in <imethods>)
in <imethods>
→* ...
```

Problem

In the **call-by-value** evaluation order, the derivation above will infinitely unroll (**fix** <f>).

Solution

Use dummy lambda abstractions to control the evaluation order.



Late Binding of Self, Correctly

Example (Counters)

```
setCounterClass =  
  λ r:CounterRep.  
    λ self:Unit→SetCounter. λ _:Unit.  
      {get = λ _:Unit. !(r.x),  
       set = λ i:Nat. r.x := i,  
       inc = λ _:Unit. (self unit).set (succ ((self unit).get unit))};  
▶ setCounterClass : CounterRep→(Unit→SetCounter)→Unit→SetCounter  
  
newSetCounter =  
  λ _:Unit. let r = {x=ref 1} in fix (setCounterClass r) unit;  
▶ newSetCounter : Unit→SetCounter
```



Late Binding of Self, Correctly

Example (Counters)

```
instrCounterClass =  
  λ r:InstrCounterRep.  
    λ self:Unit→InstrCounter. λ _:Unit.  
      let super = setCounterClass r self unit in  
        {get      = super.get,  
         set      = λ i:Nat. (r.a := succ(!(r.a)); super.set i),  
         inc      = super.inc,  
         accesses = λ _:Unit. !(r.a)};  
▶ instrCounterClass : InstrCounterRep→(Unit→InstrCounter)→Unit→InstrCounter  
  
newInstrCounter =  
  λ _:Unit. let r = {x=ref 1, a=ref 0} in fix (instrCounterClass r) unit;  
▶ newInstrCounter : Unit→InstrCounter
```



Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)

SUMMARY

OOP principles:

- I **Multiple representations**: same interface can have different implementations.
- II **Encapsulation**: internal representation is hidden.
- III **Subtyping**: Object-interface subtyping enables cross-interface reusing.
- IV **Inheritance**: classes provide a mechanism to organize inheritance-based code reusing.
- V **Open recursion**: `self` gets bound during object creation instead of class definition.

Aside (Efficiency)

Instead of computing the “method table” just once when an object is created, we will **re-compute it every time** we invoke a method!

Section 18.12 in the book shows how this can be repaired by using **mutable references** instead of **fix** to “tie the knot” in the method table.