

OCaml Objects and Classes

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Classes and Objects

Classes can be defined using the **class** and **object** keywords.

```
class point =  
  object  
    val mutable x = 0  
    method get_x = x  
    method move d = x ← x + d  
  end;;  
  
class point :  
  object val mutable x : int method get_x  
  : int method move : int → unit end
```

- Class bodies are evaluated at creation time.

Initializing Classes

Classes can be initialized using the **new** keyword.

```
let x0 = ref 0;;
```

```
class point =  
  object  
    val mutable x = incr x0; !x0  
    method get_x = x  
    method move d = x ← x + d  
  end;;
```

```
new point#get_x;;  
- : int = 1
```

```
new point#get_x;;  
- : int = 2
```

Initializing Classes with Parameters

Parameters can be specified after the class name.

```
class adjusted_point x_init =  
  let origin = (x_init / 10) * 10 in  
  object  
    val mutable x = origin  
    method get_x = x  
    method get_offset = x - origin  
    method move d = x ← x + d  
  end;;
```

- Class bodies can contain expressions.

Referencing Self

If a reference to **self** is to be used, it must be explicitly bound.

- Binding will occur at invocation time.

```
let ints = ref [];
```

```
class my_int =  
  object (self)  
    method n = 1  
    method register = ints := self :: !ints  
  end;;
```

Referencing Self

If a reference to **self** is to be used, it must be explicitly bound.

- Binding will occur at invocation time.

```
let ints = ref [];
```

```
class my_int =  
  object (self)  
    method n = 1  
    method register = ints := self :: !ints  
  end;;
```

*Error: This expression has type < n : int; register : 'a; .. >
but an expression was expected of type 'b
Self type cannot escape its class*

- Error caused by external an reference to **self**.

Initializers

Initializers can be used to evaluate an expression immediately after the object is built.

```
class adjusted_point x_init =  
  let origin = (x_init / 10) * 10 in  
  object (self)  
    val mutable x = origin  
    method get_x = x  
    method get_offset = x - origin  
    method move d = x ← x + d  
    method print = print_int self#get_x  
    initializer print_string "new point at ";  
      self#print; print_newline()  
  end;;
```

```
let p = new printable_point 17;;  
new point at 10
```

- Initializers cannot be overridden and are evaluated sequentially.

Immediate Objects

Objects can be created without a class.

```
let minmax x y =  
  if x < y then object method min = x method max = y end  
  else object method min = y method max = x end;;
```

```
val minmax : 'a → 'a → < max : 'a; min : 'a > = <fun>
```

- (+) Immediate objects can appear within expressions.
- (-) No type abbreviation.
- (-) Cannot inherit from immediate objects.

Virtual Methods

In OCaml, one can define **virtual methods** as well as **virtual instance variables**.

```
class virtual abstract_point =  
  object  
    val mutable virtual x : int  
    method get_x = x  
    method virtual move : int → unit  
  end;;
```

```
class point x_init =  
  object  
    inherit abstract_point  
    val mutable x = x_init  
    method move d = x ← x + d  
  end;;
```

- A class containing virtual methods or virtual instance variables must be flagged *virtual*, and cannot be *instantiated*.

A **private method** donot appear in the *object interface*.

```
class restricted_point x_init =  
  object (self)  
    val mutable x = x_init  
    method get_x = x  
    method private move d = x ← x + d  
    method bump = self #move 1  
  
  end;;
```

Type: < get : int; bump : unit > (in the context of type expression)

- Private methods are inherited, i.e., they are visible in subclasses.
- Private methods can be made public in a subclass.
- Private methods can also be virtual and is defined like, *method private virtual identifier : type*.

Subtyping and Coercions

Subtype: A type t_1 is a subtype of t_2 , written $t_1 <: t_2$, if values of type t_1 can be used where values of type t_2 are expected. Example,

type animal = $\langle \textit{eat} : \textit{unit} \rangle$

type dog = $\langle \textit{eat} : \textit{unit}; \textit{bark} : \textit{unit} \rangle$

Then subtyping relation $\textit{dog} <: \textit{animal}$ holds.

There are two forms of Subtyping:

- 1 **width subtyping:** It means if a subtype t_1 implements all the methods (and possibly more) of t_2 with the same method types.
- 2 **depth subtyping:** It is defined as: “If each method type s_i is a subtype of method type t_i , then the object type $\langle f_{1..n} : s_{1..n} \rangle$ is a subtype of the object type $\langle f_{1..n} : t_{1..n} \rangle$. [Hic08]”

Subtyping and Coercions (Cont..)

Coercions, in OCaml is never implicit or automatic. In a coercion ($obj : t_1 :> t_2$), there are two necessary conditions:

- 1 the expression obj should have type t_1 ; and
- 2 type t_1 must be a subtype of t_2 .

There are two ways to perform coercion:

- 1 Single coercion: ($object :> object_type$)
- 2 Double coercion: ($object : object_type :> object_type$)

For example, if $colored_point$ is a subtype of $points$ then coercion can be done as following:

```
let colored_point_to_points cp = (cp : colored_point :> points);;
```

But, the following is not support in OCaml, as it is *narrowing coercion*.

```
(p : points :> colored_point);;
```

Subtyping and Coercions (Cont..)

- The fully explicit coercion (Double coercion) is more precise and is sometimes unavoidable.
- Single coercion ($e :> t_2$) may fail if:
 - the type t_2 is recursive, or
 - the type t_2 has polymorphic structure

The solution is to use fully explicit coercion ($e : t_1 :> t_2$).

Class Interface

Class interfaces are inferred from class definitions.

- Interfaces can be defined directly to restrict the type of a class.

```
class type restricted_point_type =  
  object  
    method get_x : int  
    method bump : unit  
  end;;
```

```
class type restricted_point_type =  
  object method bump : unit method get_x : int end
```

```
fun (x : restricted_point_type) → x;;
```

```
- : restricted_point_type → restricted_point_type = <fun>
```

- Concrete instance variables and concrete private methods can be hidden.
- Public methods and virtual members cannot be hidden.

Class Interface in Modules

Interfaces can be defined in module signatures in order to restrict the inferred signature of a module.

```
module type POINT =sig  
  class restricted_point : int →  
    object  
      method get_x : int  
      method bump : unit  
    end  
end;;
```

```
module type POINT =  
  sig  
    class restricted_point :  
      int → object method bump : unit method  
        get_x : int end  
    end
```


Inheritance

Through inheritance, one may do the following:

- add new fields and new private methods
- add new public methods
- override fields or methods, but the type can't be changed

```
class animal species =  
  object  
    method eat = Printf.printf "A %s eats.\n" species  
    method speak = Printf.printf "A %s speaks.\n" species  
  end;;
```

```
class pet ~species ~owner ~name =  
  object  
    inherit animal species  
    val owner = owner  
    method name : string = name  
    method eat =  
      Printf.printf "A %s eats.\n" name;  
      super#eat  
  end;;
```

- **Subtyping** and **inheritance** are **not related**. Inheritance is a syntactic relation between classes while subtyping is a semantic relation between types. For example, in the previous example the class '*pet*' could have been defined directly, without inheriting from the class '*animal*'; the type of pet would remain unchanged and thus still be a subtype of animal.

Multiple Inheritance

- Inheritance could be done from multiple independent classes.
- Inheritance could be done from multiple virtual classes.
- Inheritance could be done from combination of independent and virtual classes. Virtual classes also inherits the same way.

```
class floatNumber =  
  object  
    inherit comparable  
    inherit number  
    :  
  end;;
```

- Previous definitions of a method can be reused by binding the related ancestor.
- The name `super` is a pseudo value identifier that can only be used to invoke a super-class method.

Multiple Inheritance Cont..

- Repeated inheritance is allowed in OCaml, i.e., a class can inherit another, along multiple paths (diamond problem) as well as directly. Example,

```
class a =  
  object  
    method x = 1  
  end;;  
class b =  
  object  
    inherit a  
    method x = 2  
    inherit a  
  end;;  
(new b)#x;;
```

Multiple Inheritance Cont..

- Example (cont..)

```
class a =  
  object  
    val mutable x = 0  
    method set y = x ← y  
    method get = x  
  end;;  
class b =  
  object  
    inherit a as super1  
    inherit a as super2  
    method test =  
      super1#set 10;  
      super2#get  
  end;;
```

In the above example, the mutable field `x` is duplicated not included textually.

Multiple Inheritance Cont..

- OCaml policy for **multiple inheritance**:
 - 1 *textual inclusion*, if methods are visible, then follows overriding rule: if a method is defined more than once, the last definition is used.
 - 2 *Duplication*, if fields and methods are hidden (private), then follows copy rule.
- Problem with textual inclusion is that, it might be necessary to know the text of all repeated superclasses.

Parameterized Classes

Reference cells can be implemented as objects but parameterized classes are needed (for non-immediate objects).

```
class ref x_init =  
  object  
    val mutable x = x_init  
    method get = x  
    method set y = x ← y  
end;;
```

Parameterized Classes

Reference cells can be implemented as objects but parameterized classes are needed (for non-immediate objects).

```
class ref x_init =  
  object  
    val mutable x = x_init  
    method get = x  
    method set y = x ← y  
end;;
```

Error: Some type variables are unbound in this type:

```
class ref :  
  'a →  
  object  
    val mutable x : 'a  
    method get : 'a  
    method set : 'a → unit  
  end
```

The method get has type 'a where 'a is unbound

Class Type Parameters

Class type parameters are listed between [and].

```
class [a] ref x_init =  
  object  
    val mutable x = (x_init : a)  
    method get = x  
    method set y = x ← y  
  end;;
```

```
class [a] ref :  
  'a → object val mutable x : 'a method get : 'a method set :  
  'a → unit end
```

Constrained Class Type Parameters

The type parameters in the declaration can be constrained within the class definitions body.

```
class [a] circle (c : 'a') =  
  object  
    constraint 'a = #point  
    val mutable center = c  
    method center = center  
    method set_center c = center ← c  
    method move = center#move  
  end;;
```

Inheriting Parameterized Classes

Parameterized classes can be "specialized".

```
class [a] colored_circle c =  
  object  
    constraint 'a = #colored_point  
    inherit [a] circle c  
    method color = center#color  
  end;;
```

- The type parameter must be specified when inheriting.
- Parameterized classes are polymorphic in their contents.

Polymorphic Methods

Parameterized classes on their own don't accommodate polymorphic methods.

```
class [a] intlist (l : int list) =  
  object  
    method empty = (l = [])  
    method fold f (accu : 'a') = List.fold_left f accu l  
  end;;
```

```
let l = new intlist [1; 2; 3];;
```

```
val l : 'a intlist = <obj>
```

Polymorphic Methods Cont..

```
l#fold (fun x y → x+y) 0;;
```

```
- : int = 6
```

```
l;;
```

```
- : int intlist = <obj>
```

```
l#fold (fun s x → s ^ string_of_int x ^ " ") "";;
```

```
l#fold (fun x y → x+y) 0;;
```

```
- : int = 6
```

```
l;;
```

```
- : int intlist = <obj>
```

```
l#fold (fun s x → s ^ string_of_int x ^ " ") "";;
```

Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type string

- The objects are not polymorphic as the use of fold method fixes the type.

Instead of making the class polymorphic, make the method polymorphic.

```
class intlist (l : int list) =  
  object  
    method empty = (l = [])  
    method fold : 'a. ('a → int → 'a) → 'a → 'a =  
      fun f accu → List.fold_left f accu l  
  end;;
```

```
let l = new intlist [1; 2; 3];;
```

```
l#fold (fun x y → x+y) 0;;
```

```
- : int = 6
```

```
l#fold (fun s x → s ^ string_of_int x ^ " ") "";;
```

```
- : string = "1 2 3 "
```


Recursive Classes

- *Recursive classes* are used for objects whose types are mutually recursive. Example,

```
class window =  
  object  
    val mutable top_widget = (None : widget option)  
    method top_widget = top_widget  
  end  
and widget (w : window) =  
  object  
    val window = w  
    method window = window  
  end;;
```

Here, the types are recursive but the classes are independent.

Functional Objects

Allows classes to have instance variables without assignments.

- Made possible through the $\{<...>\}$ construct.

```
class functional_point y =  
  object  
    val x = y  
    method get_x = x  
    method move d = {< x = x + d >}  
  end;;
```

```
class functional_point :  
  int →  
  object ('a) val x : int method get_x : int method move : int →  
  'a end
```

Functional Objects Cont..

```
let p = new functional_point 7;;
```

```
p#get_x;;
```

```
- : int = 7
```

```
(p#move 3)#get_x;;
```

```
- : int = 10
```

```
p#get_x;;
```

```
- : int = 7
```

- The **move** method is similar to a **binary method**.
 - A **binary method** takes an argument of the same type as **self**.
 - The **move** method takes a “copy” of the current **self** with some updates.

Object Cloning

Objects can be cloned using the **Oo.copy** library.

- Instance variables are copied, but their contents are shared.
 - eg. If the instance variable is a reference cell, the value will be shared.

```
let p = new point 5;;
```

```
val p : point = <obj>
```

```
let q = Oo.copy p;;
```

```
val q : point = <obj>
```

```
p = q, p = p;;
```

Object Cloning

Objects can be cloned using the **Oo.copy** library.

- Instance variables are copied, but their contents are shared.
 - eg. If the instance variable is a reference cell, the value will be shared.

```
let p = new point 5;;
```

```
val p : point = <obj>
```

```
let q = Oo.copy p;;
```

```
val q : point = <obj>
```

```
p = q, p = p;;
```

```
- : bool * bool = (false, true)
```

- Two objects are equal iff they are physically equal.

Cloning vs. Overriding

Cloning and overriding of objects function the same when used within objects.

```
class copy =  
  object  
    method copy = {< >}  
  end;;
```

```
class copy =  
  object (self)  
    method copy = Oo.copy self  
  end;;
```

- In OCaml, the only way to share the representation between two different objects is to expose it to the whole world. For instance, using *binary methods*.
- A solution to this problem is to use the friends concept, where, all friends (classes or functions) defined within the same module share the same abstract view (signature) but knows the concrete representation. Thus, the concrete representation can be abstracted using signature. Example,

```
module type CURRENCY = sig  
  type t  
  class cur : float →  
    object ('a)  
      method v : t  
      method plus : 'a → 'a  
      method prod : float → 'a  
    end  
end;;
```

```
module Currency = struct  
  type t = float  
  class cur x =  
    object (- : 'a)  
      val v = x  
      method v = v  
      method plus(z : 'a) = {< v = v +. z#v >}  
      method prod x = {< v = x *. v >}  
    end  
end;;
```


Module System vs Class System

OCaml has two very similar mechanism for modularity and abstraction: the **module system** and the **object system**.

- Before 3.12, the main difference was, one (object) is first class values and the other (module) is not. But, in 3.12 modules are first class values:
 - (**module** *module_expr* : *package_type*) converts the module (structure or functor) denoted by *module_expr* to a value that encapsulates the module.
 - (**val** *expr* : *package_type*) evaluates the expression *expr* to a value of type *package_type* (unpacking into a module).

For Example,

```
module type DEVICE = sig ... end  
module SVG = struct ... end  
module PDF = struct ... end  
let devices : (string, module DEVICE) Hashtbl.t =  
    Hashtbl.create 5  
let _ = Hashtbl.add devices "SVG" (module SVG : DEVICE)  
let _ = Hashtbl.add devices "PDF" (module PDF : DEVICE)  
module Device = (val (Hashtbl.find devices device_name) :  
    DEVICE)
```

Module System vs Class System Cont..

- Modules can **contain type definitions** and objects cannot. This enables modules to provide privacy outside of the module boundaries. This advantage is used to implement the friends concept, as specified earlier.
- When dynamic scoping behavior is required, one would prefer object implementation rather than module.

```
class dog name =  
  object (self)  
    method name = name  
    method eat = Printf.printf "%s eats.\n" self #name  
    method bark = Printf.printf "%s barks!\n" self #name  
    method bark_eat = self #bark; self #eat  
end;;  
class hound n =  
  object (self)  
    inherit dog n  
    method bark = Printf.printf "%s howls!\n" self #name  
end;;
```

OOP of OCaml vs OOP of Java/C++

The relation between *object*, *class* and *type* in **Objective Caml** is very different from that in main stream object-oriented languages like **Java** or **C++**.

- In Java/C++ the **class name** is the **type of the object**; whereas, in OCaml object type is **set of public methods and their types**. Class types are abbreviated, it is the class name, but in the context of type expressions it stands for the object type.
- Types and classes in Objective Caml are **independent of each other**, i.e., **two unrelated classes** may produce objects of the **same type**, and there is no way at the type level to ensure that an object comes from a specific class.
- This also affects the **coercion**. In Java/C++, if a class hierarchy is defined as: $\text{animal} \leftarrow \text{pet} \leftarrow \text{petDog}$, then no other coercion than this hierarchy is allowed in Java/C++ but this is not the case in OCaml.
- In **Java/C++** **subtyping and subclassing** are the **same** but not in OCaml.
- In Java/C++ object **cannot** be created without classes. In OCaml one can create (**immediate**) **objects** without going through the classes. These objects can be created inside an expression.

OOP of OCaml vs OOP of Java/C++ Cont..

- OCaml instance variables are private **cannot** be made **public**; in Java/C++ instance variables can be **defined as both**.
- In OCaml a subclass can make a **private superclass method, public**. In Java a subclass can only inherit a package-private member.
- In OCaml inheritance from **multiple independent class** is allowed, even the same superclass directly/indirectly. It is not the same for Java.
- Class type are similar to interface in Java. Java classes **can implement multiple interface** but OCaml classes can implement one type only. But OCaml type can inherit other type classes.
- In OCaml the class system is **statically typed** and in Java/C++ it is **dynamically typed**. That is why a pointer of a superclass can be used to refer to a subclass object dynamically, in Java/C++.
- In OCaml one can **initialize as instance variable** directly (without initializer) as well as indicate an **instance variable virtual; not in Java/C++**.



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