

Programming paradigms

A *programming paradigm* (a *programming style*) is a method to conceptualize the way:

- of execution the calculations within a computer,
- of structuring and organizing the tasks responsible with these calculations

A programming language:

- *offers support* for a programming style if the programming language allows enough facilities that make it useful in this style
- *allows* only to use a programming style if the needed effort to write a program in this style is greater, the programming language does not offer enough facilities

A. Procedural programming

- It is *one of the oldest and most used* paradigms
- This paradigm implies the following steps:
 - a) the *decomposition* of the problem to be solved in smaller problems
 - b) *finding* for each small problem *an optimal algorithm*
 - c) *implementing of each algorithm* by using functions and procedures of an appropriate programming language

Example. Determining if an integer is a prime number:

A) In C:

```
int Prime(int n) {
    int i;
    for (i=2; i<n; ++i)
        if (n%i == 0)
            return 0;
    return 1;
}
```

```
void PrimeFactors(int n) {
    int i;
    for (i=2 ; i<n/2 ; i++) {
        if (n%i == 0 && Prime(i)) {
            printf("%d\n", i);
        }
    }
}
```

B) In Python:

```
def prime(n):
    for i in range(2, n - 1):
        if n % i == 0:
            return False
    return True

def prime_factors(n):
    for i in range(2, n // 2):
        if n % i == 0 and prime(i):
            print(i)
```

- In Python functions are a powerful mechanism
- ***Nested functions***: functions defined in the scope of another functions

```
def outer(num1):
    def inner_increment(num1):
        return num1 + 1
    num2 = inner_increment(num1)
    print(num1, num2)

outer(10)
```

- An outer function can return an inner function

```
def fib(n):  
    def f_rec():  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)  
    if n == 0:  
        return 0  
    elif n == 1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return f_rec()  
  
for k in range(10):  
    fib(k)
```

- A *factory function*: can create several functions (a *design pattern*)

```
def create_adder(x):  
    def _adder(y):  
        return x + y  
    return _adder  
  
add2 = create_adder(2)  
add100 = create_adder(100)  
  
print(add2(50))  
print(add100(50))  
  
>>> 52  
>>> 150
```

- **Function decorators**: wrappers to existing functions (a *design pattern*)

```
def make_bold(fn):  
    def wrapper():  
        return "<b>" + fn() + "</b>"  
    return wrapper  
  
def get_text():  
    return "hello"  
  
bold_text = make_bold(get_text)
```

- Python's Decorator Syntax:

```
def make_bold(fn):  
    def wrapper():  
        return "<b>" + fn() + "</b>"  
    return wrapper  
  
@make_bold  
def get_text():  
    return "hello"  
  
get_text()
```

B. Data encapsulation (modularization)

- The accent in procedural programming has moved from the *function design* to the *data organization*.
 - *Data* are not regarded in isolation; they are regarded together with the functions that they process.
- In this paradigm the notion of *module* was defined as representing a *set of related functions*, together with *data processed* by these functions.
- A *module* contains:
 - An *interface*, where data and functions accessible outside of the module are declared;
 - An *implementation*, which is inaccessible outside to the module, where functions manipulating data from the module are defined.

- The C language *allows* only data encapsulation:
 - The *interface* part is usually specified in a header file that must be included in all the others files of a program that use the module functions;
 - The *implementation* part of the module is realized in a distinct file which must be included in the program project.

Example. Defining and using a module that allows the operations with integers:

```
//file `sequence.h': the interface
#define max_dim 100
void Init() ;
int Summ() ;
void Sort() ;
void AddElement(int) ;
void Print() ;
```

```
//file `sequence.c': the implementation
#include "sequence.h"
static int dim ;
static int v[max_dim] ;
void Init() { dim = 0 ; }
void AddElement(int k) {
    v[dim++] = k ;
}
```



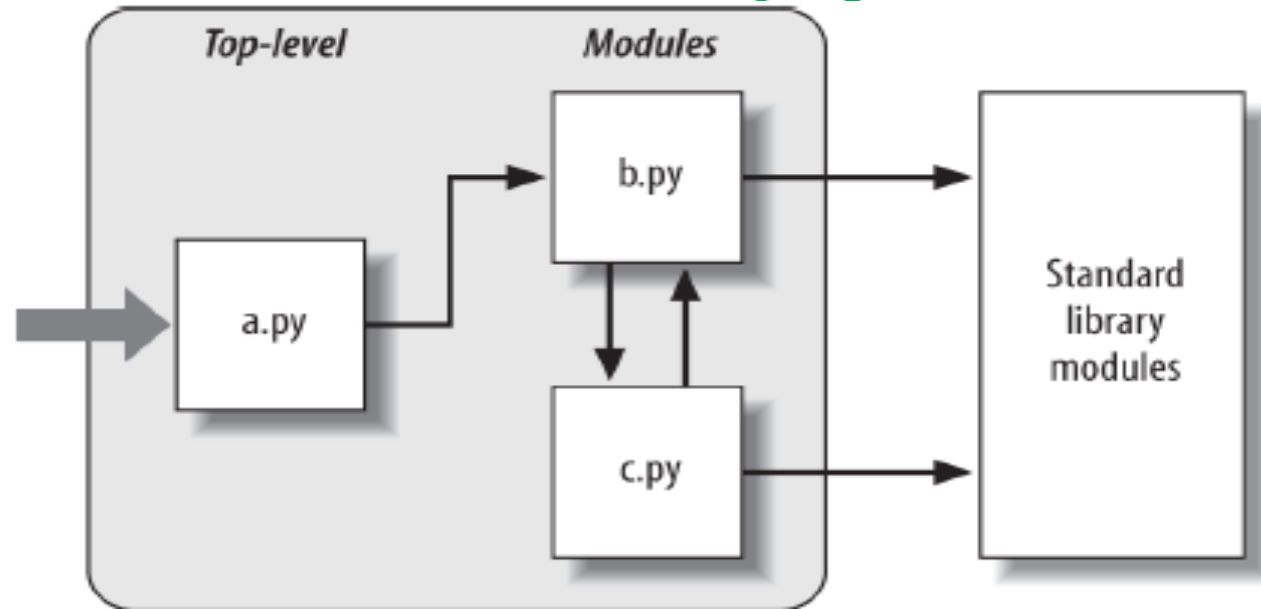
```
int Summ() {
    /* the code for the sum determination */
}
void Sort() {
    /* the code for sorting */
}
int Print() {
    /* the code for printing */
}
```

```
//file 'pr.c': using the module 'sequence'
#include "sequence.h"
void Processing() {
    int i, s, k, n = 0 ;
    Init() ;
    for(i=0 ; i<n ; i++) {
        scanf("%d", &k) ;
        AddElement(k) ;
    }
    s = Sum() ;
    printf("\nSum=%d", s) ;
    Sort() ;
    Print() ;
}
```

The Python language uses *modularization* in a different way:

- A *module* represents package of *variable names* and *objects*, known as a *namespace*
 - A module is usually a Python file, the highest-level *program organization unit*
 - The names within a module are called *attributes*
 - An *attribute* is a variable name that is attached to a specific object
- Modules are processed with two statements:
- *import*: allows a module client (importer) to fetch another module *as a whole*
 - *from*: allows modules to fetch *particular names* from another module
- Import operations *load* a Python file and grant access to its contents
- The contents of a module are made available to the outside world through its attributes

- This module-based model represents the core idea behind *program architecture*
 - Larger programs usually take the form of multiple module files, which import tools from other module files.
 - One of the modules is designated as the *main* or *top-level* file: the file launched to start the entire program



- There is a difference between a C **#include** macro and a Python **import** statement:
 - **import** is a runtime operation that performs three distinct steps:
 1. **Find** the module's file
 2. **Compile** it to byte code
 3. **Run** the module's code to build the objects it defines
 - All the above steps are carried out only the **first time** a module is imported during a program's execution

Example. Defining and importing a module:

```
# file m1.py
def my_print (x): # my_print is a module attribute
    print(x)

# file m2.py
import m1
m1.my_print('Hello world!')
```

When the file *m2.py* is loaded, it prints the message:

```
Hello world!
```

Remark. *m1* is an object, and *my_print* is an attribute (qualification is required)

- The *from* statement copies specific names from one module into another scope
 - It allows us to use the copied names directly, without the name of the imported module

Example. Using the from statement:

```
# file m3.py
from module m1 import my_print
my_print('Hello world!')
```

When the file *m2.py* is loaded, it prints the same message

- A special form of *from*:
 - **from <module> import ***
 - it imports of all names assigned at the top level of the referenced module

- A Python module exports *all* the names assigned at the *top level* of its file
 - There is no way to prevent a client from changing names inside an imported module
- In Python, *data hiding* in modules is only a *convention*, not a syntactical *constraint*
 - *Encapsulation* in Python is more about *packaging* than about *restricting*
- As a *special case*, the names can be *prefixed* with a single underscore to *prevent* them from being *copied out*, when a client imports a module's names with a *from * statement*
- Unfortunately, underscores are not “*private*” declarations:
 - an importer module can still *see* and *change* such names with other import forms, such as the *import* statement:

```
# md.py
a, _b, c, _d = 1, 2, 3, 4

# md1.py
from md import *
print(_b)
```

```
print(a, c)
(1, 3)
NameError: name '_b' is not defined

# md2.py
import md
print(md._b)

2
```

Example. The previous example using Python modules:

```
# module seq.py
import sys
L = []
def init_seq():
    L.clear()
def add_elem(a):
    L.append(a)
def sum():
    s = 0
    for a in L:
        s = s + a
    return s
def sort_seq():
    L.sort()
def print_seq():
    print(L)
```

```
# module proc.py
from seq import *
def seq_proc():
    init_seq()
    text_len = input('seq_len=')
    n = int(text_len)
    for i in range(n):
        text_elem = input('elem=')
        a = int(text_elem)
        add_elem(a)
    s = sum()
    print('sum = ', s)
    print_seq()
    sort_seq()
    print_seq()
seq_proc()
```


C. Object-Based Programming

- *Object-based programming* is a programming paradigm that use the notions of *encapsulation* and *objects* with *operations*.
- *Encapsulation* is related to the notion of *abstract data types*
 - *Abstract data types* are the basis of object-based programming
- An *abstract data type* (ADT) represents:
 - A set of operations that can be performed on the set of its elements (the *interface*, which is accessible from outside);
 - A set of *axioms*, which represents the way to describe the properties of the elements and of their operations;
 - A set of *preconditions* and *postconditions* that specify conditions in which each operation can be called, and the state of the system after the calling of each operation respectively
- The implementation of an ADT into a programming language represents a *data type*.

- The implementation of a user data type is realized through the notion of *class*.
- A *class* describe the common structure of a set of *objects*
- All objects described by a class A are called *instances* of this class.
- Each *object* has its own *state*: e.g. values for each *component* of the object
- Examples of *object-based languages* (that are not *object-oriented*):
 - Early versions of *Ada*
 - *Visual Basic* (before .NET)
 - *Fortran 90*
- Sometimes, the term *object-based* is applied to *prototype-based* languages:
 - are partially *object-oriented* languages that *do not have classes*,
 - in which *objects inherit* their code and data directly from other *template objects*
- An example of a commonly used *prototype-based* language is *JavaScript*

- In *JavaScript*, any object has a *prototype*, including functions
- The *prototype* is a simple way of *adding object members* to any newly created instance of the whole object

Example:

```
var constructor = function() { };  
constructor.prototype.text = "hello world";  
alert(new constructor().text); // This alerts hello world
```

- The C++ language allows the programmers to define user data type by using *classes* and *operator overloading*.
- In C++, a *class* can be regarded as an extension of the *structure* of the C language, which allows to define inside of the class both data and functions using data.

Example. The definition of a data type representing the *rational numbers* (*fractions*):

```
//the file 'fraction.h': the interface part of the class
struct fraction {
    /* the numerator and the denominator */
    int p, q;
    /* constructor */
    fraction (int _p = 0, int _q = 1);
    /* operations */
    fraction Sum(fraction);
    fraction Mult(fraction);
    fraction Div(fraction);
};
```

```
//the file 'fraction.cpp': the implementation part of the class
#include "fraction.h"
fraction::fraction (int _p = 0, int _q = 1) {
    p = _p;
    q = _q;
}
fraction fraction::Sum(fraction f) {
    p = p * f.q + f.p * q;
```

```

    q = q * f.q;
    return *this;
}

fraction fraction::Mult(fraction f) {
    p = p * f.p;
    q = q * f.q;
    return *this;
}

fraction fraction::Div (fraction f) {
    p = p / f.q;
    q = q / f.p;
    return f;
}

//the file 'pr.cpp': using the class fraction
#include "fraction.h"

void Processing() {
    fraction f1(1, 2), f2(7, 4), f3;
    f3 = f1.Mult(f2).Sum(f1.Div(f2));
    printf("\nf3 = %d/%d", f3.p, f3.q);
}

```

Example. The above example of the rational numbers, where functions are defined as *overloaded operators*:

```
//the file 'frac.h' - definition of the fraction class
class fraction {
    int p, q;
public :
    //the constructor
    fraction(int a = 0, int b = 1) {
        p = a;
        q = b;
    }
    //declaration of the overloaded operators
    friend operator + (fraction, fraction);
    friend operator * (fraction, fraction);
    friend operator / (fraction, fraction);
};
```

```
//the file `frac.cpp' - overloaded operators are implemented
#include "frac.h"

fraction operator+(fraction f1, fraction f2) {
    fraction f;
    f.p = f1.p * f2.q + f2.p * f1.q;
    f.q = f1.q * f2.q;
    return f;
}

fraction operator*(fraction f1, fraction f2) {
    fraction f;
    f.p = f1.p * f2.p;
    f.q = f1.q * f2.q;
    return f;
}

fraction operator/(fraction f1, fraction f2) {
    fraction f;
    f.p = f1.p / f2.q;
    f.q = f1.q / f2.p;
    return f;
}
```

```
//the file 'pr.cpp' - using the class fraction
#include "frac.h"
void Processing() {
    fraction f1(1, 2), f2(7, 4), f3;
    f3 = f1*f2 + f1/f2;
    // ...
}
```


Example. The previous example using Python classes:

```
# module frac.py
class Fraction:
    def __init__(self, a=0, b=1):
        self.p = a
        self.q = b
    def __add__(self, f):
        a = self.p * f.q + f.p * self.q
        b = self.q * f.q
        return Fraction(a, b)
    def __mul__(self, f):
        a = self.p * f.p
        b = self.q * f.q
        return Fraction(a, b)
    def __truediv__(self, f):
        a = self.p / f.p
        b = self.q / f.q
        return Fraction(a, b)
    def __str__(self):
        return "({0}/{1})".format(self.p, self.q)
```

```
# module usingfrac.py
from frac import *

def processing():
    f1 = Fraction(1, 2)
    f2 = Fraction(7, 4)
    f3 = f1*f2 + f1/f2
    print(f3)

processing()
```

- Functions whose name contains double leading and trailing underscore (`__`) are called *special functions* in Python
- The `__init__()` function from a class represent its *constructor* that initializes data members (attributes) of a *class instance*
 - Because all methods of a class must have *self* (representing the current instance of the class) as the first parameter,
 - All *local* attributes must be initialized in `__init__()`:

```
def __init__(self, a=0, b=1):  
    self.p = a  
    self.q = b
```
 - There is no special section in a class for defining its attributes
 - All *local* attributes of class instances must be defined in the `__init__()` function
 - Attributes defined outside of class methods are *global* attributes of that class
- The special `__str__()` method specifies how values of the class' attributes will be printed

- It uses the *format()* method of the *string* built-in type in order to describe data conversion

```
def __str__(self):
    return "{0},{1}".format(self.p, self.q)
```

- Some special functions representing *operator overloading*:

<i>Operator</i>	<i>Expression</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
Addition	p1 + p2	p1.__add__(p2)
Subtraction	p1 - p2	p1.__sub__(p2)
Multiplication	p1 * p2	p1.__mul__(p2)
Power	p1 ** p2	p1.__pow__(p2)
Division	p1 / p2	p1.__truediv__(p2)
Floor Division	p1 // p2	p1.__floordiv__(p2)
Remainder (modulo)	p1 % p2	p1.__mod__(p2)
Bitwise Left Shift	p1 << p2	p1.__lshift__(p2)
Bitwise Right Shift	p1 >> p2	p1.__rshift__(p2)
Bitwise AND	p1 & p2	p1.__and__(p2)
Bitwise OR	p1 p2	p1.__or__(p2)

Bitwise XOR	<code>p1 ^ p2</code>	<code>p1.__xor__(p2)</code>
Bitwise NOT	<code>~p1</code>	<code>p1.__invert__()</code>
Indexing	<code>p1[p2]</code>	<code>P1.__getitem__(p2)</code>

- One important feature of data abstraction represented by *data parametrization*. The C++ language *provide support* for parametrization by using the **template** mechanism.
- The problem of parametrization appears when the programmer wants to define some *generic data types*, where the data type of the components is unspecified.

Example. The definition in the C++ language of a *vector* class, where the data type of the components is generic.

```
template<class T>
class vector {
    T *v;        // the array whose components
                // have the generic data type T
    int dim;    // dimension of the array
public:
    // the constructor
    vector(int n) {
        if (n > 0)
            v = new T[dim = n];
    }
}
```

```
// the indexing operator
T& operator[](int k) { return v[k]; }
int Dimension() { return dim; }
};
```

- An array object can be created by instantiating the generic class:

```
// an array with 20 integer components
vector<int> v1(20);
// an array with 10 real components
vector<double> v2(10);
v1[7] = 5;
v2[7] = 2.3;
```

- Python generally do not use *generic data types*
 - Python is not a *statically typed language*
 - It is instead a *dynamically non-typed language*
- *Generic data types* can be viewed by using a *convention*:
 - that define a *contract* for a class
 - and *use* this contract for creating class instances

Example:

```
# module mystack.py
class MyStack:
    def __init__(self):
        self.items = []
    # the top of the stack is the last element
    def push(self, elem):
        self.items.append(elem)
    def pop(self):
        return self.items.pop()
    def empty(self) -> bool:
        return not self.items
```



```
# module usemystack.py
from mystack import *

stack1 = MyStack()
stack1.push(2)
stack1.push(3)
x = stack1.pop()
print(x)

stack2 = MyStack()
stack2.push('aaa')
stack2.push('bbb')
y = stack2.pop()
print(x)

stack3 = MyStack()
stack3.push('aaa')
stack3.push(27)
z = stack3.pop()
print(x)
```

```
#add only integers
#add only integers
#a homogeneous container
```

```
#add only strings
#add only strings
#a homogeneous container
```

```
#contract is not respected
#a heterogeneous container
```

- However, starting with the version 3.5, the Python distribution contains a module called ***typing***, which defines the fundamental building blocks for the usage of *static type checking*
- Among others, this module contains two important elements: ***TypeVar*** and ***Generic***
- In ***typing***, a theory of types is developed, which support statically type checking:

- ***Type variables*** can be defined by using a factory function, ***TypeVar()***:

```
T = TypeVar('T') # T is a type variable
```

- A type variable can be instantiated with an existing type:

```
def do_sum(a: T, b: T):  
    return a + b  
  
x = do_sum(2, 5) # T is an int  
print(x) # 7  
  
y = do_sum('abc', 'xyz') # T is a string  
print(y) # 'abcxyz'
```

- **Generic classes** can be constructed by inheriting from a generic base class, defined in **Generic**:

```
class Stack(Generic[T]):  
    pass
```

Example. Defining and using a generic stack class.

```
# module generic.py  
from typing import TypeVar, Generic  
  
T = TypeVar('T')      # Declare a type variable  
  
class Stack(Generic[T]):  
    # An empty list with items of type T  
    def __init__(self) -> None:  
        self.items = []  
    def push(self, item: T) -> None:  
        self.items.append(item)  
    def pop(self) -> T:  
        return self.items.pop()  
    def empty(self) -> bool:  
        return not self.items
```

```
# module usegen.py
from generic import *

stack1 = Stack[int]()      # instantiation: T->int
stack1.push(2)             # OK
stack1.push(3)            # OK
x = stack1.pop()
print(x)                   # 3
stack1.push('abc')        # Type error

stack2 = Stack[str]()     # instantiation: T->str
stack2.push('aa')         # OK
stack2.push('bb')         # OK
y = stack2.pop()
print(y)                   # 'bb'
stack1.push(5)            # Type error
```

D. Object-oriented programming (OOP)

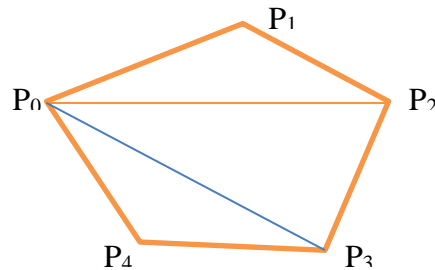
- The notion of *class*:
 - is specific to the object-based programming paradigm (not to OOP);
 - is a basic element in the OOP paradigm.
- *Properties (components)* of a class can be described by:
 - data (*attributes*),
 - functions (*methods*).
- The instances of a class are called *objects*. An object is uniquely identified by its name.
- For example, the definition of three instances of the class *fraction*:
`fraction f1(1, 2), f2(7, 4), f3;`
- An instance of a class defines the *state* of its corresponding object, which it is represented by the current values of the attributes of the object at a certain moment.

- A **method** describes the way an object reacts when it receives a certain message from another object. A **message** is a request of a certain object to the current object to invoke a specific method of the current object.
- In the C++ language **sending a message** to an object means the calling of a specific method of that object.
- **A first essential element** of **OOP** is *to allow the difference between the general and the particular properties of objects*.
- It follows an important property of object-oriented languages: they allow the **partition** of objects into classes, and also a mechanism for **inheriting** the properties of a class into another class.
- In this way classes can form **hierarchies of classes** based on the inheritance mechanism

Example. Let us consider the following *polygonal figures* in a plane: triangles, quadrilaterals, pentagons, etc., each polygon being described by the coordinates of its vertexes in trigonometric order.

- One can define a class hierarchy, which has the *polygon* class as the root, the others classes inheriting the class *polygon*.

- Let us suppose that for the *polygon* class there are specified the coordinates for the first two vertices of the polygon, $P_0(x_0, y_0)$ and $P_1(x_1, y_1)$, the other classes having to store one after another the coordinates of the next vertex.



```
class Polygon {
    // ...
public:
    Polygon(_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1);
    virtual ~Polygon();
    virtual double Perimeter();
protected:
    double x0, y0, x1, y1;
    virtual double TwoEdges() = 0;
    virtual double OneEdge() = 0;
    // ...
} ;
```

```

class Triangle : public Polygon {
    // ...
public:
    Triangle(_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1, _x2, _y2);
    double Perimeter();
protected:
    double x2, y2;
    double TwoEdges ();
    double OneEdge ();
    // ...
} ;

class Qadrilateral : public Triangle {
    // ...
public:
    Qadrilateral(_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1, _x2, _y2, _x3, _y3);
    double Perimeter();
protected:
    double x3, y3;
    double TwoEdges ();
    double OneEdge ();
    // ...
};

```


□ Some function implementations:

```
Polygon::Polygon(_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1):  
    : x0(_x0), x1(_x1), y0(_y0), y1(_y1) {  
}
```

```
double Polygon::Perimeter() {  
    double l ;  
    l = sqrt((x0-x1)*(x0-x1) + (y0-y1)*(y0-y1));  
    return l ;  
}
```

```
Triangle::Triangle (_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1, _x2, _y2):  
    : Polygon(_x0, _y0, _x1, _y1), x2(_x2), y2(_y2) {  
}
```

```
double Triangle::TwoEdges() {  
    double a, b ;  
    a = sqrt((x0-x2)*(x0-x2) + (y0-y2)*(y0-y2));  
    b = sqrt((x1-x2)*(x1-x2) + (y1-y2)*(y1-y2));  
    return a + b;  
}
```

```

double Triangle::OneEdge () {
    double l;
    l= sqrt((x0-x1*(x0-x1) + (y0-y1)*(y0-y1));
    return l;
}

double Triangle::Perimeter() {
    double p ;
    p = Polygon::Perimeter() + TwoEdges();
    return p ;
}

```

- Because the functions *Perimeter*, *OneEdge* and *TwoEdges* are common to all classes of the hierarchy, but their implementations are specific to each class, these functions represents **virtual functions**. Moreover, the functions *TwoEdges* and *OneEdge* cannot be implemented in the class *Polygon*, these functions representing **pure virtual functions** in this class.
- In the case of virtual functions, the selection of the effective function that will be called at a certain moment is automatically realized by the compiler.

□ In conclusion, the second essential element of the OOP programming consists of the *mechanism of polymorphism* (in C++ are used *virtual functions*), where the calling of a member function of an object depends of the type of that object.

□ For example, in the case of the polygonal figures, the following declarations and statements:

```
Polygon* f1 = new Triangle(0,0,0,1,1,0);  
Polygon* f2 = new Quadrilater(0,0,0,1,1,0,1,1);  
double p1 = f1->Perimeter();  
double p2 = f2->Perimeter();
```

allow the correct selection of the *Perimeter* function by the compiler, for each object.

□ *A similar example in Python*

```
# module 'polygons.py'
from math import sqrt, inf, fabs, pi

# class Polygon is abstract because the method area_calc
# is not defined
class Polygon:
    def area(self):
        return self.area_calc()
class Point(Polygon):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    # length of the segment [self, p]
    def segment(self, p):
        return sqrt((self.x - p.x) * (self.x - p.x) +
                    (self.y - p.y) * (self.y - p.y))
    # the slope of the segment [self, p] with the Ox axis
    def slope(self, p):
        if p.x - self.x == 0:
            return None
        else:
            return (p.y - self.y) / (p.x - self.x)
```

```

def area_calc(self):
    return 0

# a segment has two points: Point(x0, y0), and p1(x1, y1)
class Segment(Point):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1):
        Point.__init__(self, x0, y0) # the first point
        self.p1 = Point(x1, y1) # the second point
        # the slope of the segment [Point, p1] with the Ox axis
        self.slope = Point(x0, y0).slope(self.p1)
        # the length of the segment [Point, p1]
        self.length = Point(x0, y0).segment(self.p1)
    # the segment [Point, p1] is perpendicular on Ox axis
    def is_perpend(self, d):
        if (self.slope != None) and (d.slope != None)
            and (self.slope * d.slope == -1):
            return True
        elif (self.slope == None) and (d.slope == 0.0):
            return True
        elif (self.slope == 0.0) and (d.slope == None):
            return True
        else:
            return False

```

```

    def area_calc(self):
        return 0

# a triangle has 3 segments having the length l1, l2, l3
class Triangle(Polygon):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2):
        self.l1 = Point(x0, y0).segment(Point(x1, y1))
        self.l2 = Point(x1, y1).segment(Point(x2, y2))
        self.l3 = Point(x2, y2).segment(Point(x0, y0))
    # using the Heron's formula
    def area_calc(self):
        p = (self.l1 + self.l2 + self.l3) / 2
        return sqrt(p * (p-self.l1) * (p-self.l2) *
                    (p-self.l3))

# a rectangle has 4 points and length
# of 2 distinct perpendicular segments
class Rectangle(Polygon):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3):
        # the list of points
        self.rp = [Point(x0, y0), Point(x1, y1),
                  Point(x2, y2), Point(x3, y3)]
        # the length of the first segment
        self.l1 = self.rp[0].segment(self.rp[1])

```

```

# the length of the second segment
self.l2 = self.rp[1].segment(self.rp[2])
# all 4 segments
s1 = Segment(x0, y0, x1, y1)
s2 = Segment(x1, y1, x2, y2)
s3 = Segment(x2, y2, x3, y3)
s4 = Segment(x3, y3, x0, y0)
# all 4 segments must to be perpendicular
assert (s1.is_perpend(s2) and s2.is_perpend(s3)
        and s3.is_perpend(s4) and s4.is_perpend(s1)),
        'Quadrilateral must be a rectangle'
# area of a rectangle: a = l1 * l2
def area_calc(self):
    return self.l1 * self.l2

# a square is a particular rectangle, when l1 == l2
class Square(Rectangle):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3):
        Rectangle.__init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2,
                            x3, y3)
    # condition to be a square (l1 == l2)
    assert (self.l1 == self.l2),
            'Quadrilateral must be a Square'

```

```
    def area_calc(self):
        return super().area_calc()
# a circle is represented by the center of the circle
# and its radius
class Circle(Point):
    def __init__(self, x, y, r):
        # center of the circle (a point)
        Point.__init__(self, x, y)
        # the radius
        self.r = r
    def area_calc(self):
        return pi * self.r * self.r
# a triangular right prism is defined by its base
# (a triangle) and the length of a perpendicular edge
class Prism(Triangle):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, h):
        # the base of the prism (a triangle)
        Triangle.__init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2)
        # the height of the prism
        self.h = h
```



```

# area of the prism
def area_calc(self):
    return 2 * super().area_calc() + self.h *
        (self.l1 + self.l2 + self.l3)
# a cuboid is a rectangular parallelepiped
# is defined by its base (a rectangle) and its height
class Cuboid(Rectangle):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, h):
        # the base of the cuboid (a rectangle)
        Rectangle.__init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2,
            x3, y3)
        # the height of the cuboid
        self.h = h
    # total area of the cuboid
    def area_calc(self):
        return 2 * super().area_calc() + 2 * self.h *
            (self.l1 + self.l2)
# a cube is a special cuboid having all sides equals
class Cube(Cuboid):
    def __init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, h):
        Cuboid.__init__(self, x0, y0, x1, y1, x2, y2, x3,
            y3, h)

```

```

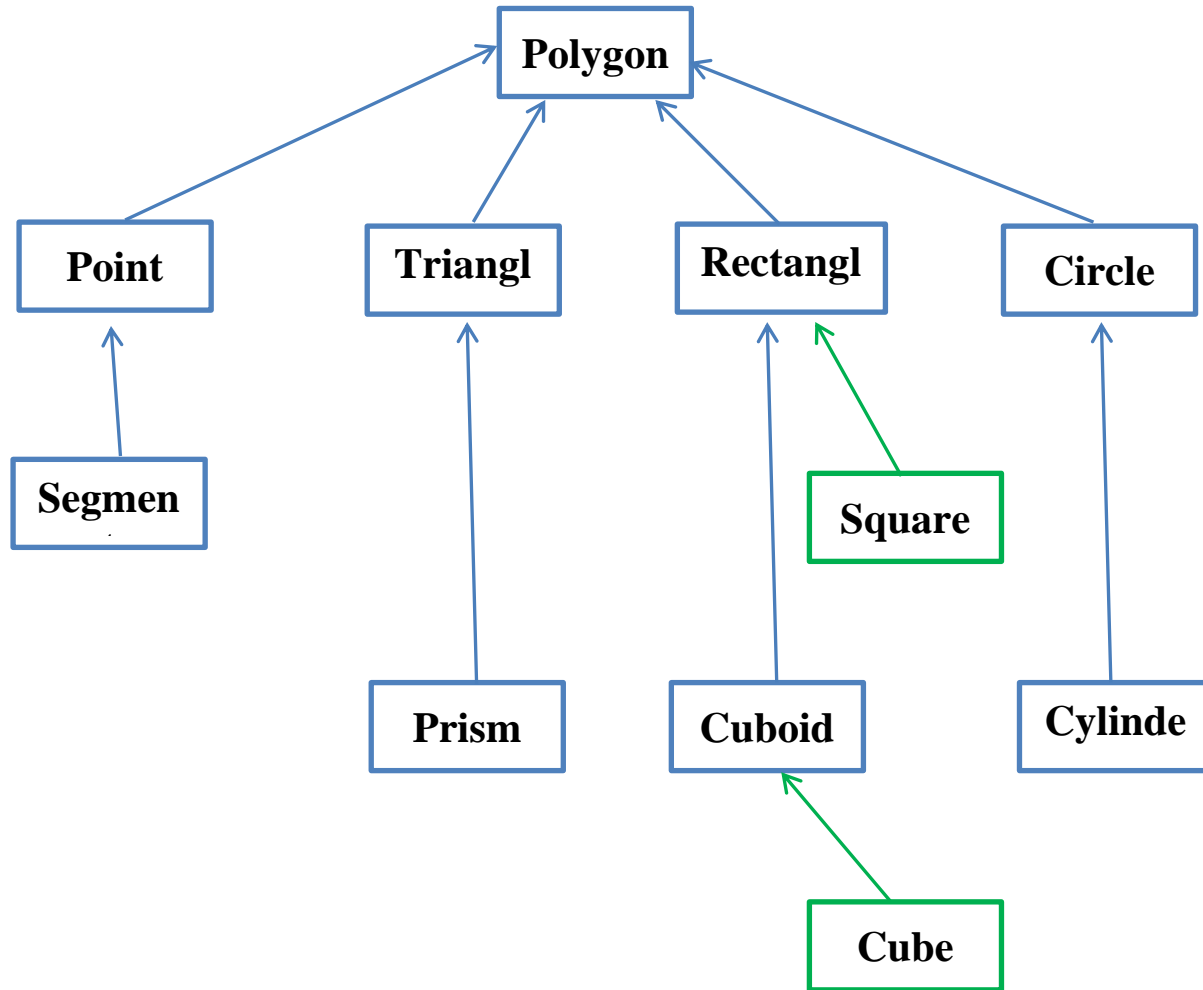
        # condition for the sides of the cube
        assert ((self.l1 == self.l2) and (self.l1 == self.h)),
            'Cuboid must be a cube'
# total area of the cube
def area_calc(self):
    return 6 * self.l1 * self.l2

# a right cylinder is defined by its base (a circle)
# and its height
class Cylinder(Circle):
    def __init__(self, x, y, r, h):
        # the base of the cilindre (a circle)
        Circle.__init__(self, x, y, r)
        # the height
        self.h = h
# total area
def area_calc(self):
    return 2*super().area_calc() + 2*pi*self.r*self.h

```

```
# module 'usepolygon.py'
from polygons import *
L = [Triangle(0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1),
Rectangle(0, 0, 2, 0, 2, 1, 0, 1),
Square(0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1),
Circle(0, 0, 1),
Prism(0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 2),
Cuboid(0, 0, 2, 0, 2, 1, 0, 1, 2),
Cube(0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1),
Cylinder(0, 0, 1, 2)]
for obj in L:
    a = obj.area()
    print(a)
```

Remark. In *Python* the *polymorphism* mechanism is inherent to the language



- There are two types of relations:
 - **Inheritance** (with blue), a static relation concerning code reuse
 - **Subtyping** (with green), a dynamic relation concerning using object at runtime
- Inheritance is similar to the same relation from the C++ language
- **Polymorphism** is inherent in Python due to the **dynamic typing** and **dynamic binding** (there is no static binding in Python)
- **Virtual functions** from C++ are replaced by **delegate functions** (function **area ()** in the example)
- **Abstract classes** are not defined by some syntactic constructions
 - An **abstract class** is a class that contains a method that is **not implemented** in the class (function **area_calc ()** in the example)
 - However, there exists a **decorator**, called **@abstractmethod** that can be used to define **abstract methods**

E. A short history of object-oriented languages

- **ALGOL** (*Algorithmic Language*) is a programming language developed in the late of 1950s, which is the *most influential* language in all times
- Most languages in use today owe something to ALGOL
- ALGOL's syntax and structure *directly* influenced a *large number* of other languages, known as “*Algol-like*” languages, such as:
 - Simula, C, Pascal, and Ada
- *Indirectly* he influenced the *most part* of imperative (and also a part of functional) programming languages
- Unfortunately, *ALGOL* has been little used in industry, because of large companies (IBM, for example), promoted the *Fortran* language
- It was, however, extensively used in *academic computer science*, and was the *standard language for algorithmic description* well into the 1980s and 90s

□ **Example** of a procedure in *Algol 60* (from Wikipedia):

```
procedure Absmax(a) Size:(n, m) Result:(y) Subscripts:(i, k);  
    value n, m; array a; integer n, m, i, k; real y;  
comment The absolute greatest element of the matrix a,  
    of size n by m, is transferred to y, and the subscripts  
    of this element to i and k;  
begin  
    integer p, q;  
    y := 0; i := k := 1;  
    for p := 1 step 1 until n do  
        for q := 1 step 1 until m do  
            if abs(a[p, q]) > y then  
                begin y := abs(a[p, q]);  
                    i := p; k := q  
                end  
end Absmax
```

- **SIMULA** (1967) was the *first* object-oriented language in history
- Originally designed for the purpose of *simulation*
- SIMULA was designed as an extension and modification of *Algol 60*
- Some SIMULA features:
 - **Objects**: A SIMULA object is an *activation record* produced by call to a class
 - **Classes**: A SIMULA class is a *procedure that returns a pointer to its activation record*. The body of a class may initialize the objects it creates
 - **Dynamic lookup (polymorphism)**: Operations on an *object are selected from the activation record* of that object
 - **Abstraction: Hiding data** was not provided in SIMULA 67 but *was added later* and *used as the basis for C++*
 - **Subtyping**: Objects are typed according to the classes that create them. Subtyping is determined by *class hierarchy*
 - **Inheritance**: A SIMULA class may be defined, by *class prefixing*, as an extension of a class that has already been defined including the ability to redefine parts of a class in a subclass

- *Smalltalk* (1972) was the *second* object-oriented language, designed by *Alan Kay* (a visionary computer scientist)
- It was inspired by the simplicity of *LISP* and the classes and objects of *Simula67*, but it was a completely *new language*, with new terminology and an *original syntax*
- It was written as an *operating system* for Dynabook, “A Personal Computer for Children of All Ages” – a concept of Alan Key for a very thin portable computer (similar, but more complex than a notebook or a tablet PC)
 - The *Dynabook* was never built, simply because it was too far ahead of technologies in the 1960s and 1970s
 - Instead of *Dynabook*, the *Alto* computer was developed at Xerox PARC (where Alan Key worked) in 1973, the ancestor of modern PC computers (having a *mouse*, a *desktop*, and a *graphical user interface*)
 - All *Altos* computers were connected to the *first local area network* (LAN)
 - *Apple II* was released in 1977, and *Atari* was released in 1981 (without mouse)

- **Smalltalk** encapsulated all of the pieces related to a modern personal computer, including many of the features that were desired in the Dynabook.
 - **Smalltalk** systems were the first to have *bit-mapped displays*, *overlapping windows*, *menus*, *icons*, and a *mouse* pointing device.
 - *Microsoft Windows*, *UNIX X-Windows*, and the *Macintosh operating systems* all have their roots in **Smalltalk**
- **Smalltalk** was implemented as a *bytecode compiler*. Smalltalk code was actually compiled into a virtual machine language
 - This technique was used later in the *Java* compilers and *.NET* languages
- **Smalltalk environments** were the first to develop what are now object-oriented software *design patterns*. The *model–view–controller* (MVC) pattern was used in Smalltalk environments for *user interface design*.
- In **Smalltalk** everything is an *object*; even a *class*. All *operations* are *messages* to objects

□ Some *Smalltalk* features:

- **Objects**: A Smalltalk object is *created* by a *class*. At run time, an object stores its instance variables and a pointer to the instantiating class
- **Classes**: A Smalltalk class defines *variables*, *class methods*, and the *instance methods* that are shared by all objects of the class
- **Abstraction**: Abstraction is provided through *protected instance variables*. All methods are *public* but instance variables are *protected*
- The *type* of an object in Smalltalk is its *interface*, i.e. the *set of messages* that can be sent to the object
- **Subtyping**: Subtyping arises implicitly through *relations between the interfaces* of objects. **Subtyping** depends on the set of messages that are understood by an object, not on the representation of objects
- **Inheritance**: Smalltalk subclasses *inherit* all *instance variables* and *methods* of their *superclasses*. Methods defined in a superclass may be redefined in a subclass or deleted
- The run-time structures used for *Smalltalk* classes and objects support *dynamic lookup* (*polymorphism*)

- **C** (developed in 1972 by Dennis Ritchie) seems to be the *second influential language* after **ALGOL**
 - It has influenced almost every programming language that came after it
- The **C** programming language is still a *very popular language* (according to Tiobe index, he is ranked in the first or second place since 1989 until now)
- In the middle 1980s two different OOP languages have been developed based on C:
 - **Objective C** (1985) – by adding *Smalltalk-style* messaging to the **C** programming language
 - **C++** (1982-1985: *Bjarne Stroustrup*) – by adding *OOP features* to **C**, in a similar way that *Simula* added OOP features to **ALGOL**
- **Objective C**:
 - Was the main programming language supported by *Apple* for the *macOS*, *iOS* operating systems
 - Use *dynamic typing* (*static typing* is optional) and *single inheritance*

- **C++**:
 - Is used in different domains: *embedded devices* programming, *game programming*, and also in most *system programming* where the *large software systems* can be developed
 - Use *static typing* and *multiple inheritance*
- **List** (*List Processor*) is another very old (but different from others) programming language, developed in 1958 at MIT:
 - It is a *functional* programming language, based on *lambda calculus*
- *Functional programming* and *object-oriented programming* are two different paradigms:
 - Between 1980s and 2000s there was a growth in the popularity of *object-oriented programming* languages
 - In the last decade there is an increasing effort to *integrate these two programming* paradigms:
 - Some languages, such as *Scala*, *Clojure* and *Swift* explicitly implement *features from both paradigms*
 - Some OO languages, such as *C++*, *Java*, *Python* and *Ruby* are *converging* to some point

- However, the first language that integrate the two programming paradigms is **CLOS** (Common Lisp Object System)
 - It was developed in the late 1980s
 - It is based on the **Lisp** syntax by adding OO concepts from **Smalltalk**
- Also, in the late 1980s, **Eiffel**, another OO programming language was developed:
 - It was developed by **Eiffel Software** (a company founded by **Bertrand Meyer**), which contains a detailed treatment of the concepts and **theory of the object technology** that led to Eiffel's design
 - It is based on two programming languages: **ADA** and **Smalltalk**
 - The most important contribution of **Eiffel** to **software engineering** is **design by contract** (DbC), in which **assertions**, **preconditions**, **postconditions**, and **class invariants** are employed to help ensure **program correctness**
- In 1990s several OO programming languages were developed, in response to the need for **rapid application development** (RAD) and the opportunity created by the **Internet Age**

- **Python** was developed in 1991, as a successor of the **ABC** language
 - It is **dynamically typed** and **garbage-collected** and **pure object-oriented**
 - It supports **multiple programming paradigms**, including **procedural**, **object-oriented**, and **functional** programming
 - **Python standard library** provides tools for many tasks, such as: **Internet applications**, creating **graphical user interfaces**, using **relational databases**, **scientific computing**, **regular expressions**, and **unit testing**
 - The **Python Package Index** (PyPI), the official repository of Python contains many **packages** with a wide range of functionality, including:
 - **Graphical user interfaces**
 - **Machine learning**
 - **Web frameworks**
 - **Multimedia**
 - **Databases**
 - **Networking**
 - **Test frameworks**
 - **Documentation**
 - **System administration**
 - **Scientific computing**
 - **Text processing**

- **Image processing**

- Since 2003, Python has consistently ranked in the *top ten most popular programming languages* in the TIOBE Programming Community Index
- Python is not named after the *snake*. It's named after the British TV show *Monty Python*

- **Java** was released in 1995 at the *Sun Microsystems*, as an *object-oriented language* (which is *not pure OO*) by borrowing some ideas from other OO languages:
 - *Syntax* from *C++*
 - *Compiling to a virtual machine* from *Smalltalk*
 - *Interfaces* from *Eiffel*
- Sun Microsystems released Java for providing *no-cost run-times* on *popular platforms*
- Major *web browsers* incorporated the ability to run *Java applets* within web pages, and Java *quickly became popular*

- The *Java Class Library* is the standard library, developed to support application development in Java, which is controlled by *Sun Microsystems* in cooperation with others through the *Java Community Process* program
- The *core libraries* include:
 - **IO/NIO**
 - **Networking**
 - **Reflection**
 - **Concurrency**
 - **Generics**
 - **Scripting/Compiler**
 - **Functional programming (Lambda, Streaming)**
 - **Collection libraries that implement data structures**
 - **XML Processing**
- Since 1999, Python has consistently ranked in the *top three most popular programming languages* in the TIOBE Programming Community Index
- *Ruby* was developed in 1995 in Japan, as an *interpreted, high-level, general-purpose* programming language

- It supports *multiple programming paradigms*, including *procedural*, *object-oriented* (*pure OO*), and *functional* programming (similar to *Python*)
- *Ruby* was influenced by *Perl*, *Smalltalk*, *Eiffel*, *Ada*, *Basic*, and *Lisp*
- A framework called *Ruby on Rails* has helped to increase its usage for *web programming*
- Actually, *Ruby* is ranked as 13th in the TIOBE Index
- *Current trends* – OO languages developed *after 2000*:
 - *C#* - a *general-purpose, multi-paradigm programming* language containing: *strong typing*, *imperative*, *declarative*, *functional*, *object-oriented*, and *component-oriented* programming disciplines
 - Developed around 2000 by *Microsoft* as part of its *.NET* initiative (designed for the *Common Language Infrastructure CLI*)
 - The language is intended for use in developing *software components* suitable for *deployment in distributed environments*
 - *C#* was influenced by *Java*, *C++*, *Eiffel* and *ADA*
 - Initially, James Gosling, who created Java in 1995, called *C#* an *"imitation" of Java*

- However, since 2005, the *C#* and *Java* languages have evolved on divergent trajectories, becoming two very different languages
- Since 2004, *C#* has consistently ranked in the *top seven most popular programming languages* in the TIOBE Index
- *Kotlin* - *statically-typed* programming language that supports both *object-oriented* and *functional* programming
 - *Kotlin* provides similar syntax and concepts from other languages, including *C#*, *Java*, and *Scala*, among many others
 - *Kotlin* was announced as an official *Android* development language at *Google I/O* 2017
 - *Kotlin* is ranked as 35th in the TIOBE Index
- *Swift* is an alternative to the *Objective-C* language that employs a simpler syntax
 - During its introduction, it was described simply as *Objective-C without the C*
 - It was developed by *Apple* for *iOS* and *macOS* operating systems
 - *Swift* took language ideas from *Objective-C*, *Rust*, *Haskell*, *Ruby*, *Python*, *C#*, and other many languages

- *Swift* is ranked as 12th in the TIOBE Index