### CS 4530: Fundamentals of Software Engineering

### Module 3: Code-Level Design Principles

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### Learning Objectives for this Lesson

- By the end of this lesson you should be able to:
  - Describe the purpose of our design principles
  - List 5 code-level design principles with examples
  - Identify some violations of the principles and suggest ways to mitigate them

## Use Design As a Way of Communicating Organization

- Software systems must be comprehensible by humans
- Which humans?
  - The other members of your team
  - The folks who will maintain and modify your system
  - Management
  - Your clients
  - and ...
  - You, a week from now or 6 weeks from now

### Use Design to Control Complexity

- Software systems must be comprehensible by humans
- Why? Software needs to be maintainable
  - continuously adapted to a changing environment
  - Maintenance takes 50–80% of the cost
- Why? Software needs to be reusable
  - Economics: cheaper to reuse than rewrite!

### Three Scales of Design

#### The Structural Scale

• key questions: what are the pieces? how do they fit together to form a coherent whole?

#### The Interaction Scale

 key questions: how do the pieces interact? how are they related?

#### The Code Scale

 key question: how can I make the actual code easy to test, understand, and modify?

### Today's topic: design principles at the code scale

### Coupling is the biggest source of complexity at the code level

- Two pieces of code are *coupled* if a change in one demands a change in the other.
- A coupling represents an agreement between the two pieces of code.
  - They may agree on:
    - names
    - order (e.g. of arguments)
    - meaning (e.g. meaning of data)
    - algorithms
- The more two pieces of code are coupled, the harder they are to understand and modify: you have to understand both to understand either of them.

There's a fancy word for this: connascence (meaning "born together")

More coupling means less readability, less modifiability

### Five general-purpose design principles

#### **Five General Principles**

- 1. Use Good Names
- 2. Make Your Data Mean Something
- 3. One Method/One Job
- 4. Don't Repeat Yourself
- 5. Don't Hardcode Things That Are Likely To Change

### Principle 1. Use Good Names

- The name of a thing is a first clue to the reader about what the thing means.
  - often, it's the only clue 🕾
- Use good names for
  - constants
  - variables
  - functions/methods
  - data types

# Use Good Names for Variables and Types

var t : number

var 1 : number



var temp : number

var loc : number



var temp : Temperature

var loc : SensorLocation

#### Use Good Names for Functions and Methods

function checkLine (line) : boolean



function LineIsTooLong (line) : boolean

### Use Good Names for Functions and Methods

• Use noun-like names for functions or methods that return values, e.g.

```
let c = new Circle(initRadius)
let a = c.diameter()
```

• not:

```
let a = c.calculateDiameter()
```

 Reserve verb-like names for functions or methods that perform actions, like

```
table1.addItem(student1,grade1)
```

## Principle 2. Make Your Data Mean Something

- You need to do three things:
  - 1. Decide what part of the information in the "real world" needs to be represented as data
  - 2. Decide how that information needs to be represented as data
  - 3. Document how to interpret the data in your computer as information about the real world

### Example:

- Right now I am wearing a red shirt, and I've decided I need to represent that fact in my program.
- How should I represent that in my program?
- We need to decide:
  - how to represent shirts (including their color)
  - how to represent colors
  - how to represent my shirt

# We need to write something like this:

```
type Shirt = {
    /** the color of the shirt */
    color: Color
type Color = { ... }
/** My shirt */
const myShirt: Shirt
myShirt.color = red
```

### The Big Picture

My shirt is red interpretation

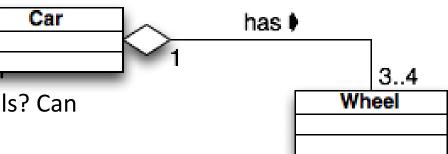
type Shirt = {
 /\*\* the color of the shirt \*/
 color: Color
}
type Color = { ... }

/\*\* My shirt \*/
const myShirt: Shirt
myShirt.color = red

- How do we know that these are connected?
- Answer: we have to write it down.
- In our Typescript infrastructure, we do that with the comments.

## Another example: What does an object represent?

- What does an object of class Car represent?
  - a model of car (e.g. Dodge, Ford, Toyota)?
  - a particular car (my 2019 Toyota, VIN = 456789)?
- What does an object of class Wheel represent?
  - a model of tire? (Goodyear GoodGrips14)
  - a particular tire? (Goodyear GoodGrips14 SN = 345678)
- What does "has" represent?
  - depends on what Car and Wheel represent
  - this may affect the navigability of the association
    - (can you get from a car object to the associated wheels? Can you get from a wheel to the car that it's on?)



### Principle 3: One Method/One Job

- Each class, and each method of that class, should have one job, and only one job
- If your method has more than one job, split it into 2 methods. Why?
  - You might want one part but not the other
  - It's easier to test a method that has only one job
- You call both of them if you need to.
  - or write a single method that calls them both
- Same thing for classes.

### Principle 4: Don't Repeat Yourself

- If you have some quantity that you use more than once, give it a name and use the name.
- That way you only need to change it in one place!
- And of course you should use a good name
- If you have some task that you do in many places, make it into a procedure.
- If the tasks are slightly different, turn the differences into parameters.

### A real example

### Principle 5: Don't Hardcode Things That Are Likely To Change

- "No magic numbers" and "Don't Repeat Yourself" are already examples of this.
- General strategy: If there something that might change, give it a name
  - if it's not already a "thing", refactor to make it a "thing"
- Let's look at a couple of examples.

### Replace magic numbers with good names

Replace magic numbers with good names

```
let salesprice = netPrice * 1.06
```



```
const salesTaxRate = 1.06
let salesPrice = netPrice * salesTaxRate
```

### Example

- Imagine we are computing income tax in a state where there are four rates:
  - One on incomes less than \$10,000
  - One on incomes between \$10,000 and \$20,000
  - One on incomes between \$20,000 and \$50,000
  - One on incomes greater than \$50,000
- You might write something like

### You might write something like

```
function grossTax(income: number): number {
   if ((0 <= income) && (income <= 10000)) { return 0 }
   else if ((10000 < income) && (income <= 20000))
   { return 0.10 * (income - 10000) }
   else if ((20000 < income) && (income <= 50000))
   { return 1000 + 0.20 * (income - 20000) }
   else { return 7000 + 0.25 * (income - 50000) }
}</pre>
```

- What might change?
  - The boundaries of the tax brackets might change
  - The number of brackets might change

# So let's represent our data differently

```
// defines the tax bracket for income lower < income <= upper.
// if upper is null, then lower < income (no upper bound)</pre>
type TaxBracket = {
    lower: number,
    upper: number | null,
    base : number
    rate : number
let brackets : TaxBracket[] = [
   {lower:0, upper:10000, base:0, rate:0},
   {lower:10000, upper:20000, base:0, rate:0.10},
   {lower:20000, upper:50000, base:1000, rate:0.20},
   {lower:50000, upper: null, base:7000, rate:0.25}
```

### And now it's easy to rewrite our function

```
// defines the incomes covered by a bracket
function isInBracket(income:number, bracket:TaxBracket) : boolean {
    if (bracket.upper == null)
    { return (bracket.lower <= income) }
   else
    { return ((bracket.lower <= income) && (income < bracket.upper))}
function income2bracket(income: number, brackets: Bracket[]): Bracket {
    return brackets.find(b0 => isInBracket(income, b0))
function taxByBracket(income:number,bracket:TaxBracket) : number {
    return bracket.base + bracket.rate * (income - bracket.lower)
function grossTax2 (income:number, brackets: TaxBracket[] ) : number {
    return taxByBracket(income,income2bracket(income,brackets))
```

### Review: Learning Objectives for this Lesson

- You should now be able to:
  - Describe the purpose of our design principles
  - List 5 general design principles and illustrate their expression in code
  - Identify some violations of the principles and suggest ways to mitigate them

### **Additional Material**

### Examples of Design at the Structural Scale

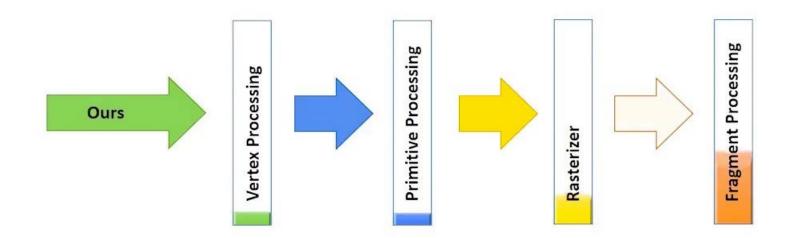
- Object-Oriented
- Pipeline
- Pipeline + Database
- Layered

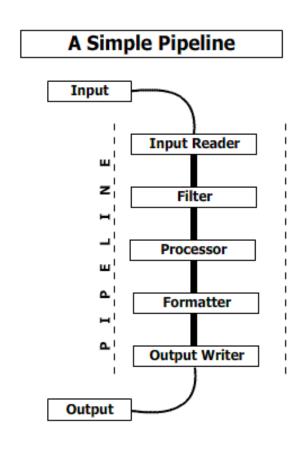
### Object-Oriented Architecture

- The entities in the program correspond to entities in the real world.
- Example: a library system might have classes for
  - A holding (several books, eg: "7 copies of Moby-Dick")
  - An individual item ("copy #3 of Moby-Dick")
  - A card-holder ("Avery Fischer, library card #12345, ...")
  - A borrowing ("Avery Fischer borrowed copy #3 of Moby-Dick on 9/1/22")

### Pipeline Architecture

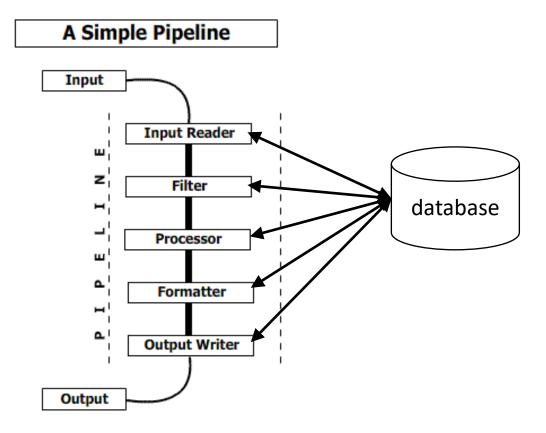
- The pieces correspond to stages in the transformation of data in the system
- Good for complex straight-line processes, e.g. image processing





### Pipeline + Database

• Stages in the pipeline share data through a database

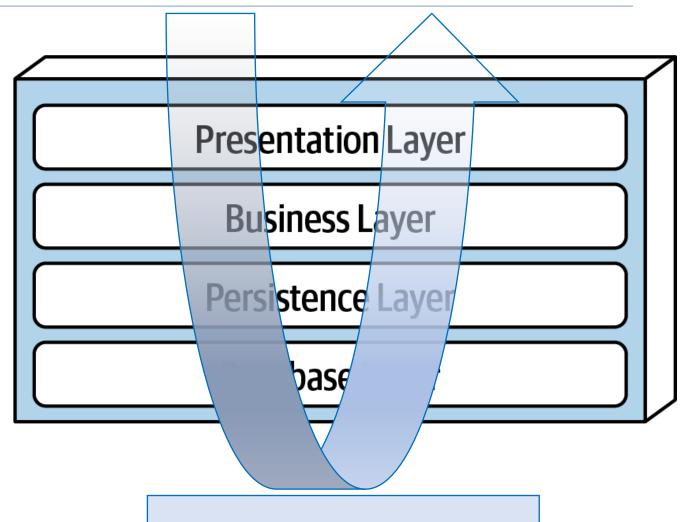


### Layered Architecture

Request

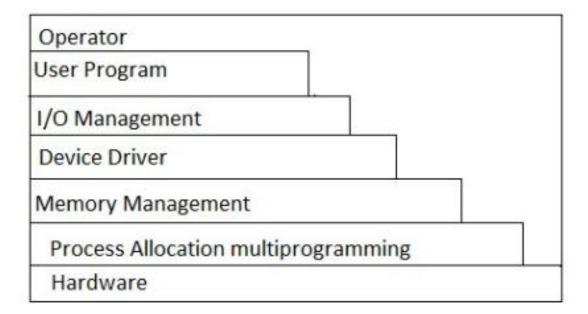
Response

- The pieces correspond to level of concern.
- Each layer depends on services from the layer or layers below



### Layered Architecture (contd)

- Typical organization for operating systems
- Layers communicate through procedure calls and callbacks (sometimes called "up-calls")



### Design at the Interaction Scale

- Roughly what's typically called "Design Patterns"
- We'll talk about some OO Design Patterns in the next lecture.
- But we'll see interaction-scale patterns in many domains, not just OOP.