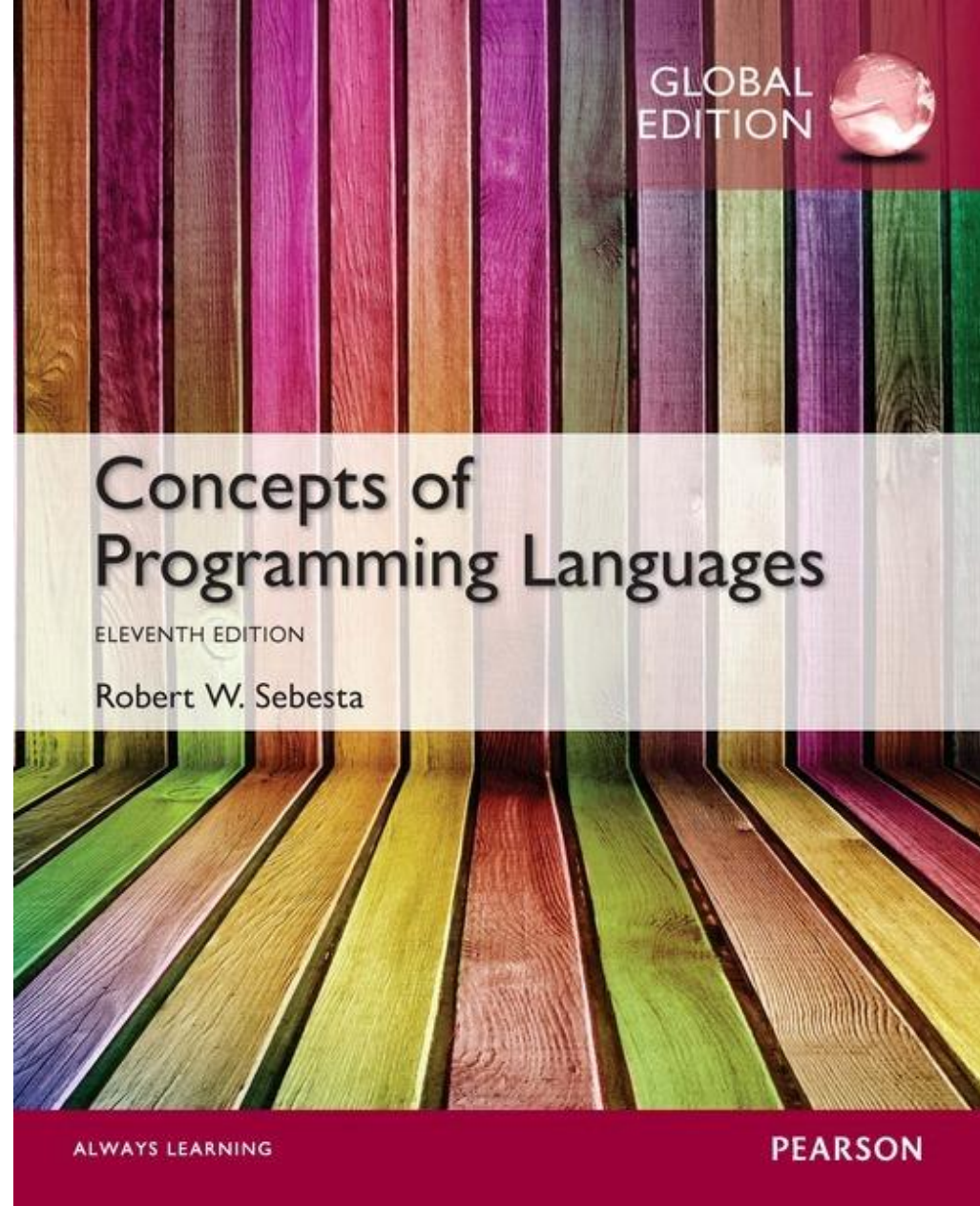


# Chapter 11

## Abstract Data Types and Encapsulation Concepts



# Chapter 11 Topics

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- The Concept of Abstraction
- Introduction to Data Abstraction
- Design Issues for Abstract Data Types
- Language Examples
- Parameterized Abstract Data Types
- Encapsulation Constructs
- Naming Encapsulations

# The Concept of Abstraction

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- An *abstraction* is a view or representation of an entity that includes only the most significant attributes
- The concept of abstraction is fundamental in programming (and computer science)
- Nearly all programming languages support process abstraction with subprograms
- Nearly all programming languages designed since 1980 support *data abstraction*

# Introduction to Data Abstraction

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- An *abstract data type* is a user-defined data type that satisfies the following two conditions:
  - The representation of objects of the type is hidden from the program units that use these objects, so the only operations possible are those provided in the type's definition
  - The declarations of the type and the protocols of the operations on objects of the type are contained in a single syntactic unit. Other program units are allowed to create variables of the defined type.

# Advantages of Data Abstraction

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- Advantages the first condition
  - Reliability--by hiding the data representations, user code cannot directly access objects of the type or depend on the representation, allowing the representation to be changed without affecting user code
  - Reduces the range of code and variables of which the programmer must be aware
  - Name conflicts are less likely
- Advantages of the second condition
  - Provides a method of program organization
  - Aids modifiability (everything associated with a data structure is together)
  - Separate compilation

# Language Requirements for ADTs

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- A syntactic unit in which to encapsulate the type definition
- A method of making type names and subprogram headers visible to clients, while hiding actual definitions
- Some primitive operations must be built into the language processor

# Design Issues

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- Can abstract types be parameterized?
- What access controls are provided?
- Is the specification of the type physically separate from its implementation?

# Language Examples: C++

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- Based on C `struct` type and Simula 67 classes
- The class is the encapsulation device
- A class is a type
- All of the class instances of a class share a single copy of the member functions
- Each instance of a class has its own copy of the class data members
- Instances can be static, stack dynamic, or heap dynamic



# Language Examples: C++ (continued)

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- Information Hiding
  - *Private* clause for hidden entities
  - *Public* clause for interface entities
  - *Protected* clause for inheritance (Chapter 12)

# Language Examples: C++ (continued)

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- Constructors:
  - Functions to initialize the data members of instances (they *do not* create the objects)
  - May also allocate storage if part of the object is heap-dynamic
  - Can include parameters to provide parameterization of the objects
  - Implicitly called when an instance is created
  - Can be explicitly called
  - Name is the same as the class name

# Language Examples: C++ (continued)

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- Destructors
  - Functions to cleanup after an instance is destroyed; usually just to reclaim heap storage
  - Implicitly called when the object's lifetime ends
  - Can be explicitly called
  - Name is the class name, preceded by a tilde (~)

# An Example in C++

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```
class Stack {
    private:
        int *stackPtr, maxLen, topPtr;
    public:
        Stack() { // a constructor
            stackPtr = new int [100];
            maxLen = 99;
            topPtr = -1;
        };
        ~Stack () {delete [] stackPtr;};
        void push (int number) {
            if (topSub == maxLen)
                cerr << "Error in push - stack is full\n";
            else stackPtr[++topSub] = number;
        };
        void pop () {...};
        int top () {...};
        int empty () {...};
}
```

# A Stack class header file

---

```
// Stack.h - the header file for the Stack class
#include <iostream.h>

class Stack {
private: /** These members are visible only to other
/** members and friends (see Section 11.6.4)
    int *stackPtr;
    int maxLen;
    int topPtr;
public: /** These members are visible to clients
    Stack(); /** A constructor
    ~Stack(); /** A destructor
    void push(int);
    void pop();
    int top();
    int empty();
}
```

# The code file for Stack

---

```
// Stack.cpp - the implementation file for the Stack class
#include <iostream.h>
#include "Stack.h"
using std::cout;
Stack::Stack() { /** A constructor
    stackPtr = new int [100];
    maxLen = 99;
    topPtr = -1;
}
Stack::~~Stack() {delete [] stackPtr;}; /** A destructor
void Stack::push(int number) {
    if (topPtr == maxLen)
        cerr << "Error in push--stack is full\n";
    else stackPtr[++topPtr] = number;
}
...
```

# Language Examples: C++ (continued)

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- Friend functions or classes – to provide access to private members to some unrelated units or functions
  - Necessary in C++

# Language Examples – Objective-C

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- Interface containers

```
@interface class-name: parent-class {  
    instance variable declarations  
}  
    method prototypes  
@end
```

- Implementation containers

```
@implementation class-name  
    method definitions  
@end
```

- Classes are types



# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

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- Method prototypes form

(+ | -) (return-type) method-name [: (formal-parameters)];

- Plus indicates a class method
- Minus indicates an instance method
- The colon and the parentheses are not included when there are no parameters
- Parameter list format is different
  - If there is one parameter (name is `meth1:`)
    - `(void) meth1: (int) x;`
  - For two parameters
    - `(int) meth2: (int) x second: (float) y;`
  - The name of the method is `meth2::`

# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

---

- Method call syntax

[object-name method-name];

### Examples:

```
[myAdder add1: 7];
```

```
[myAdder add1: 7: 5: 3];
```

- For the method:

```
-(int) meth2: (int) x second: (float) y;
```

the call would be like the following:

```
[myObject meth2: 7 second: 3.2];
```

# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

---

- Constructors are called *initializers* – all they do is initialize variables
  - Initializers can have any name – they are always called explicitly
  - Initializers always return `self`
- Objects are created by calling `alloc` and the constructor

```
Adder *myAdder = [[Adder alloc] init];
```

- All class instances are heap dynamic

# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

---

- To import standard prototypes (e.g., i/o)

```
#import <Foundation/Foundation.h>
```

- The first thing a program must do is allocate and initialize a pool of storage for its data (pool's variable is `pool` in this case)

```
NSAutoreleasePool * pool =  
    [[NSAutoreleasePool alloc] init];
```

- At the end of the program, the pool is released with:

```
[pool drain];
```

# Language Examples – Objective-C

(continued)

---

- Information Hiding

- The directives `@private` and `@public` are used to specify the access of instance variables.
- The default access is protected (private in C++)
- There is no way to restrict access to methods
- The name of a getter method is always the name of the instance variable
- The name of a setter method is always the word set with the capitalized variable's name attached
- If the getter and setter for a variable does not impose any constraints, they can be implicitly generated (called *properties*)

# Language Examples – Objective-C (continued)

---

```
// stack.m – interface and implementation for a simple stack
#import <Foundation/Foundation.h>

@interface Stack: NSObject {
    int stackArray[100], stackPtr, maxLen, topSub;
}

- (void) push: (int) number;
- (void) pop;
- (int) top;
- (int) empty;

@end

@implementation Stack

- (Stack *) initWith {
    maxLen = 100;
    topSub = -1;
    stackPtr = stackArray;
    return self;
}
```

# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

---

```
// stack.m - continued
-(void) push: (int) number {
    if (topSub == maxLen)
        NSLog(@"Error in push - stack is full");
    else
        stackPtr[++topSub] = number;
    ...
}
```

# Language Examples – Objective-C

## (continued)

---

- An example use of `stack.m`
  - Placed in the @implementation of `stack.m`

```
int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int temp;
    NSAutoreleasePool *pool = [[NSAutoreleasePool alloc] init];
    Stack *myStack = [[Stack alloc] initWith];
    [myStack push: 5];
    [myStack push: 3];
    temp = [myStack top];
    NSLog(@"Top element is: %i", temp);
    [myStack pop];
    temp = [myStack top];
    NSLog(@"Top element is: %i", temp);
    temp = [myStack top];
    [myStack pop];
    [myStack release];
    [pool drain];
    return 0;
}
```



# Language Examples: Java

---

- Similar to C++, except:
  - All user-defined types are classes
  - All objects are allocated from the heap and accessed through reference variables
  - Individual entities in classes have access control modifiers (private or public), rather than clauses
  - Implicit garbage collection of all objects
  - Java has a second scoping mechanism, package scope, which can be used in place of friends
    - All entities in all classes in a package that do not have access control modifiers are visible throughout the package

# An Example in Java

---

```
class StackClass {  
    private:  
        private int [] *stackRef;  
        private int [] maxLen, topIndex;  
        public StackClass() { // a constructor  
            stackRef = new int [100];  
            maxLen = 99;  
            topPtr = -1;  
        };  
        public void push (int num) {...};  
        public void pop () {...};  
        public int top () {...};  
        public boolean empty () {...};  
}
```

# Language Examples: C#

---

- Based on C++ and Java
- Adds two access modifiers, *internal* and *protected internal*
- All class instances are heap dynamic
- Default constructors are available for all classes
- Garbage collection is used for most heap objects, so destructors are rarely used
- **structs** are lightweight classes that do not support inheritance

# Language Examples: C# (continued)

---

- Common solution to need for access to data members: accessor methods (getter and setter)
- C# provides *properties* as a way of implementing getters and setters without requiring explicit method calls

# C# Property Example

---

```
public class Weather {  
    public int DegreeDays { /** DegreeDays is a property  
        get {return degreeDays;}  
        set {  
            if (value < 0 || value > 30)  
                Console.WriteLine(  
                    "Value is out of range: {0}", value);  
            else degreeDays = value;}  
        }  
    private int degreeDays;  
    ...  
}  
  
...  
Weather w = new Weather();  
int degreeDaysToday, oldDegreeDays;  
...  
w.DegreeDays = degreeDaysToday;  
...  
oldDegreeDays = w.DegreeDays;
```

# Abstract Data Types in Ruby

---

- Encapsulation construct is the class
- Local variables have “normal” names
- Instance variable names begin with “at” signs (@)
- Class variable names begin with two “at” signs (@@)
- Instance methods have the syntax of Ruby functions (`def ... end`)
- Constructors are named `initialize` (only one per class)—implicitly called when `new` is called
  - If more constructors are needed, they must have different names and they must explicitly call `new`
- Class members can be marked private or public, with public being the default
- Classes are dynamic

# Abstract Data Types in Ruby (continued)

---

```
class StackClass {  
  def initialize  
    @stackRef = Array.new  
    @maxLen = 100  
    @topIndex = -1  
  end  
  
  def push(number)  
    if @topIndex == @maxLen  
      puts "Error in push - stack is full"  
    else  
      @topIndex = @topIndex + 1  
      @stackRef[@topIndex] = number  
    end  
  end  
  
  def pop ... end  
  def top ... end  
  def empty ... end  
end
```

# Parameterized Abstract Data Types

---

- Parameterized ADTs allow designing an ADT that can store any type elements – only an issue for static typed languages
- Also known as generic classes
- C++, Java 5.0, and C# 2005 provide support for parameterized ADTs



# Parameterized ADTs in C++

---

- Classes can be somewhat generic by writing parameterized constructor functions

```
Stack (int size) {  
    stk_ptr = new int [size];  
    max_len = size - 1;  
    top = -1;  
};
```

A declaration of a stack object:

```
Stack stk(150);
```

# Parameterized ADTs in C++ (continued)

---

- The stack element type can be parameterized by making the class a templated class

```
template <class Type>
class Stack {
    private:
        Type *stackPtr;
        const int maxLen;
        int topPtr;
    public:
        Stack() { // Constructor for 100 elements
            stackPtr = new Type[100];
            maxLen = 99;
            topPtr = -1;
        }
        Stack(int size) { // Constructor for a given number
            stackPtr = new Type[size];
            maxLen = size - 1;
            topSub = -1;
        }
        ...
}
```

- **Instantiation:** `Stack<int> myIntStack;`

# Parameterized Classes in Java 5.0

---

- Generic parameters must be classes
- Most common generic types are the collection types, such as `LinkedList` and `ArrayList`
- Eliminate the need to cast objects that are removed
- Eliminate the problem of having multiple types in a structure
- Users can define generic classes
- Generic collection classes cannot store primitives
- Indexing is not supported
- Example of the use of a predefined generic class:

```
ArrayList <Integer> myArray = new ArrayList <Integer> ();  
myArray.add(0, 47); // Put an element with subscript 0 in it
```

# Parameterized Classes in Java 5.0 (continued)

---

```
import java.util.*;

public class Stack2<T> {
    private ArrayList<T> stackRef;
    private int maxLen;
    public Stack2() {
        stackRef = new ArrayList<T> ();
        maxLen = 99;
    }
    public void push(T newValue) {
        if (stackRef.size() == maxLen)
            System.out.println("Error in push - stack is full");
        else
            stackRef.add(newValue);
        ...
    }
}
```

- **Instantiation:** `Stack2<string> myStack = new Stack2<string> ();`

# Parameterized Classes in C# 2005

---

- Similar to those of Java 5.0, except no wildcard classes
- Predefined for Array, List, Stack, Queue, and Dictionary
- Elements of parameterized structures can be accessed through indexing

# Encapsulation Constructs

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- Large programs have two special needs:
  - Some means of organization, other than simply division into subprograms
  - Some means of partial compilation (compilation units that are smaller than the whole program)
- Obvious solution: a grouping of subprograms that are logically related into a unit that can be separately compiled (compilation units)
- Such collections are called *encapsulation*

# Nested Subprograms

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- Organizing programs by nesting subprogram definitions inside the logically larger subprograms that use them
- Nested subprograms are supported in Python, JavaScript, and Ruby

# Encapsulation in C

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- Files containing one or more subprograms can be independently compiled
- The interface is placed in a *header file*
- Problem 1: the linker does not check types between a header and associated implementation
- Problem 2: the inherent problems with pointers
- `#include` preprocessor specification – used to include header files in applications



# Encapsulation in C++

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- Can define header and code files, similar to those of C
- Or, classes can be used for encapsulation
  - The class is used as the interface (prototypes)
  - The member definitions are defined in a separate file
- *Friends* provide a way to grant access to private members of a class

# C# Assemblies

---

- A collection of files that appears to application programs to be a single dynamic link library or executable
- Each file contains a module that can be separately compiled
- A DLL is a collection of classes and methods that are individually linked to an executing program
- C# has an access modifier called `internal`; an `internal` member of a class is visible to all classes in the assembly in which it appears

# Naming Encapsulations

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- Large programs define many global names; need a way to divide into logical groupings
- *A naming encapsulation* is used to create a new scope for names
- C++ Namespaces
  - Can place each library in its own namespace and qualify names used outside with the namespace
  - C# also includes namespaces

# Naming Encapsulations (continued)

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- Java Packages
  - Packages can contain more than one class definition; classes in a package are *partial* friends
  - Clients of a package can use fully qualified name or use the *import* declaration

# Naming Encapsulations (continued)

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- *Ruby Modules:*
  - Ruby classes are name encapsulations, but Ruby also has modules
  - Typically encapsulate collections of constants and methods
  - Modules cannot be instantiated or subclassed, and they cannot define variables
  - Methods defined in a module must include the module's name
  - Access to the contents of a module is requested with the `require` method

# Summary

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- The concept of ADTs and their use in program design was a milestone in the development of languages
- Two primary features of ADTs are the packaging of data with their associated operations and information hiding
- Ada provides packages that simulate ADTs
- C++ data abstraction is provided by classes
- Java's data abstraction is similar to C++
- C++, Java 5.0, and C# 2005 support parameterized ADTs
- C++, C#, Java, and Ruby provide naming encapsulations