OOP and UML Fundamentals C++ OOP Aspects

Fundamental OOP Concepts. UML Class Diagrams



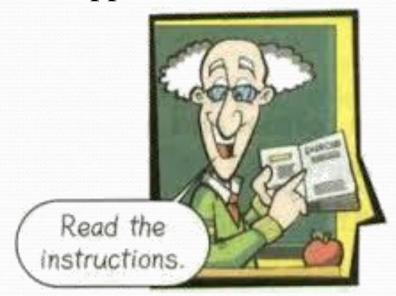
Programming Paradigms

How do you approach a problem?



Programming Paradigms Imperative Programming – Introduction

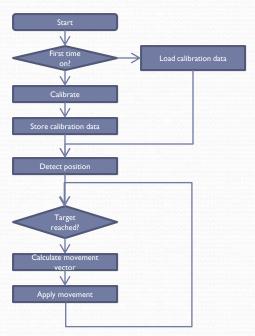
- "In computer science terminologies, imperative programming is a programming paradigm that describes computation in terms of statements that change a program state."
- ➤ "Do this do that" approach





Programming Paradigms Imperative Programming – contd.

- > A problem is approached using "step-by-step" modeling: break down the functionality into series of steps
- > Best in products where sequence of steps is fixed or rarely changed
- Finer-level steps can be combined into larger blocks (*procedures*) to produce clear, concise and manageable sequence at each level





Programming Paradigms Imperative Programming – Procedural

- ➤ Focus on *procedures* a series of instructions that can be called from any point in the program
 - \rightarrow In C/C++- 'functions"
- > Procedures help achieve some degree of modularity
- > Modularity allows for testability, reusability, maintainability, ...



Programming Paradigms Imperative Programming – Pros & Cons

> Pros

- Matches the underlying technology
- > Easy to create or comprehend, especially for small systems
- > Easy to derive directly from user requirements
- > (? pro/con) Supported by modern object-oriented and (some) functional languages

> Cons

- No direct way to communicate the relation (and consistency) between data and procedures/functions
- > Basic reusability unit is *function* which is not very stable and is prone to frequent changes for both requirement and technical reasons
- > Does not reflect correctly the *real world*, which is made of *interacting entities*, not *separate* activities and data



Programming Paradigms Declarative Programming



- > Unofficially: "Style of programming that is **not** imperative"
- > "In computer science, declarative programming is a programming paradigm, a style of building the structure and elements of computer programs, that expresses the **logic** of a computation **without** describing its **control flow**." Wikipedia
- > "A program that describes what computation should be performed and not how to compute it"



Programming Paradigms Declarative Programming – Examples

- > SQL Example
 SELECT *
 FROM Students
 WHERE age > 35
 ORDER BY name
- > Linq
- > Functional programming

Programming Paradigms Object-Oriented Programming – Intro

- ➤ Where does it stand? Is it *Imperative*, or *Declarative*?
- > Based on the concept of *objects* which combine *data* and *behavior*
- > When solving a problem, the primary focus is on *objects* and their *relations/interactions*
- Example: a Car has an Engine, Chassis, Wheels, ... Then Engine itself has Cylinders, Sensors, etc.





Programming Paradigms Object-Oriented Programming – Pros & Cons

> Pros

- ➤ Closer to the real world **entities** that we want to model are often directly **object-oriented** ready
- The link between data and processing code is built into the syntax
 the system is *aware* about it
- Reusability units are much more obvious (often a *class* is directly reusable) and, with proper design, much more stable than functions

> Cons

- Requirements are not very object-oriented; from them, suitable *objects / classes* need to be extracted and defined by the software Designers / Architects
- > The underlying hardware, storage, communications, etc. operate as series of operations, i.e. closer to *Imperative* paradigm



Object-Oriented Programming Fundamentals

No objections



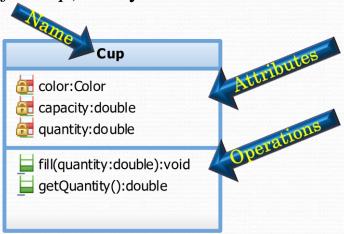
Object Oriented Programming Introduction

- Completely different way to approach a problem
- > Start by describing *objects*, their *relations* and *interactions*
- > Key question to start in OOP way: "What are we talking about?" (instead of "what the program will do"!)
- > At the end, objects' behavior is still *imperatively* described (i.e. method implementations)
- > In short, *objects* combine *data* and *behavior*
- > A developer can think in object-oriented manner and still use "procedural" language such as C
- > However, in *object-oriented* languages there is suitable syntax to *express* the link between data and behavior of an *object*
 - > This helps *find errors*, ease the process of *development* and developer *testing*, *redesign* and/or expand the system more safely, etc.



Object Oriented Programming Objects & Classes. UML Class diagrams

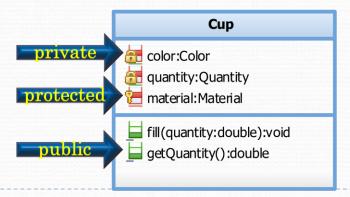
- > *Objects* can often be *categorized* into *classes* groups of objects having the same general *attributes* and *operations* (behavior), but possibly differing in their *values*
- > Example of a simple **UML class diagram** (with just 1 class in it):
 - > Class name Cup. Example objects may be myCup, coffeeCup, ... (not shown below). Choose class and object names carefully!
 - All *Cup* objects (*instances*) have the same set of *attributes* (*color*, *capacity* and quantity) but possibly different values (i.e. *color=RED* for myCup, vs. color = BLACK for coffeeCup). They also have the same operations.





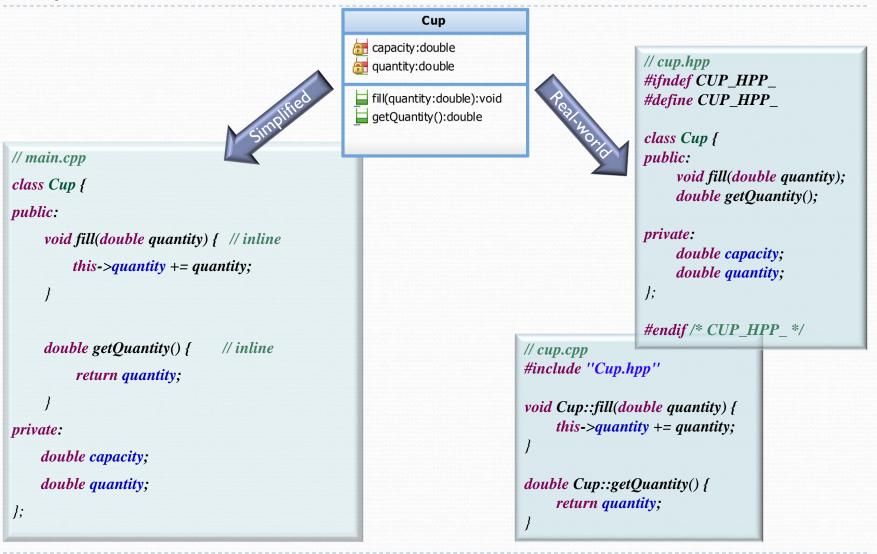
Object Oriented Programming Objects & Classes – Access Modifiers

- > Access modifiers (in a class) specify from where is a certain member (attribute or operation) accessible.
 - In example, for an *attribute* the term "access" can mean read its value, write its value, get address of, etc. For an *operation* "access" usually means to *execute the operaton* (*call* the method), but might also mean get its address.
- > Strongest specifier is *private*: only code belonging to the class itself can access a *private* member. "Code" here roughly means functions / methods
- > Weakest specifier is *public*: all functions and methods can access a *public* member
- > There is a number of intermediate levels of access, in C++ only *protected* ()





Objects & Classes in C++



Object Oriented Programming C++ fundamentals. Default arguments. Overloading

> Default arguments

```
void printCoordinates(double x, double y = 0.0, double z = 0.0) {
     cout << x << ", " << y << ", " << z << endl;
}</pre>
```

- printCoordinates() can be called with 1, 2 or 3 arguments
- printCoordinates() is **the same function / sequence of instructions** taking 3 parameters, just they have default values sometimes

> Function & operator overloading

```
int add(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
}
int add(int x, int y, int z) {
    return x + y + z;
}
```

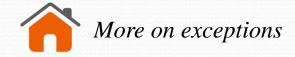
- add() appears to be the same from user perspective
- Actually they are 2 (or more) **different functions**
- **Operators** are basically functions with special names (i.e. *operator*+) and a few added specifics

 More on overloading



Object Oriented Programming C++ fundamentals. Exceptions

- 1. Error handling. Compare strategies:
 - 1. Return codes
 - 2. Exceptions





Object Oriented Programming Objects & Classes. Constructors

- > Constructor is a special method that is called when object is created
 - \triangleright In C++, the constructor has the name of the class (i.e. Cup()).
 - > No return type, not even *void*
 - > Can have parameters. Can be *overloaded*
 - > The compiler takes care of the call, whenever an object is being created
- > A *default* constructor is such that can be called without arguments
 - > Either it has no parameters
 - > Or all of its parameters have default values
- An *implicit* public default constructor is created by the compiler, if the programmer does not define any constructor.

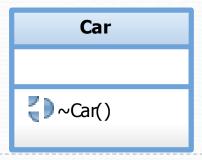




Object Oriented Programming Objects & Classes. Destructors

- > Destructor is a special method that is called when object is destroyed
 - In C++, the destructor has the name of the class prefixed by ~ (i.e. ~Cup())
 - > No return type, not even *void*
 - > Can **not** have parameters. *No* overload possible!
 - The compiler takes care of the call *almost* always, with 1 "exotic" exception in C++

 Placement new
- > If the programmer does not define a destructor, the compiler declares and defines an *implicit* public destructor



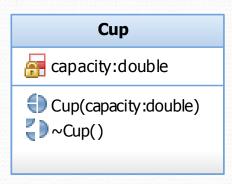


Constructors & Destructors – *Live Exercise*

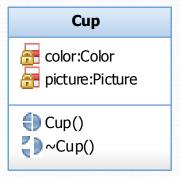
1. Demonstrate (in C++) in what order are called constructors and destructors of 2 automatic-duration objects ("stack objects")

```
Live example:
    int main() {
        Cup cup1(100);
        Cup cup2(200);

        return 0;
}
```



- 2. Demonstrate the order in which constructors/destructors of *attributes* are called, w.r.t. each other and to their containing object's constructor/destructor.
 - Hint: define your own classes Color and Picture
 int main() {
 Cup cup1();
 return 0;





Object Oriented Programming Constructors & Destructors – Order Explanation

- The *order of construction/destruction* was demonstrated for *automatic-duration objects* relative to one another
- The *order of construction/destruction* was also demonstrated for *members* of an object with respect to each other, as well as relative to object's own constructor/destructor
- As it was demonstrated, the simplest scenario of automatic-duration objects ensures *nested lifetimes* of objects
- > The purpose of having *nested lifetimes* is to *avoid broken dependencies*
 - > Broken dependency: object A trying to use object B after B's destruction
 - In the simplest example objects cup1, cup2 did not keep pointer/reference to each other
 - However in the real world it is often the case that an object keeps pointer/reference to another object
- That's why a *stack* (LIFO) data structure is used for *calling functions*, passing arguments and automatic duration objects!



Object Oriented Programming Constructors & Destructors – Copy Constructor

- A *copy constructor* is a constructor allowing an instance of a class to be created from another instance of the same class
- First parameter of a copy constructor is always a reference of the same type (Type&), with or without cv (const and/or volatile) qualifiers. Example:

```
class Demo {
  public:
    Demo(const Demo& other); // Copy constructor declaration
};
```

- Next parameters either have default values or not present at all
 - Most often, no next parameters



Constructors & Destructors – Temporary Objects (C++)

- In C++ there are many situations where a *temporary object* is created. A *temporary object* can be created either explicitly by the developer, or implicitly by the compiler.
 - **Explicitly** using the form **Type()** (possibly with arguments to the constructor)
 - > Returning by value from a function
 - Some casts
 - Intermediate values during expression evaluation
 - In some forms of initialization
 - Others
- When created, a temporary object has no name (or at least, initially...)
 - Hint: How *any* object can receive a name later on during its lifetime?



Object Oriented Programming Temporary Objects – Exercises

- Define a *Demo* class. Demonstrate *explicit* temporary object creation with automatic duration ("in the stack"). Trace object construction and destruction using console messages.
- Define a *Demo* class and a *Helper* class. Make it possible that a *Helper* object can be created from an *int*. Make it possible that a Demo object can be created from a Helper object (but not directly from an *int*). Demonstrate implicit object creation by instantiating a Demo from an *int*

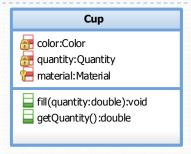


Object-Oriented Programming Encapsulation

Hiding Secrets



Encapsulation – Why & How



- > Expose as little as possible to the outside world
 - > *Why*?
- In a successful project, *everything* you expose (*attributes* and *operations*), *will* be used *from outside*. And then the exposed attributes and operations become much harder to change (i.e. to improve, optimize, react to requirements change, fix bugs, etc.) because a lot of "foreign code" depends on them
- ➤ How to expose/hide? We already introduced the access modifiers. In C++
 - > public every piece of code can access members having this modifier
 - protected only methods of the class itself and methods of its descendants can acces members having this modifier
 - > private only methods of the class itself can access members having this modifier



Encapsulation – *Interfaces. Best Practices*

- > Several different, but logically close meanings of the term "Interface"
- > Interface of a class the exposed members of that class (operations & attributes)
 - ▶ Usually "exposed" means **public**; but **protected** members are also a (special) interface for the descendants; and **package** members (not present in C++) special interface to classes inside that package/assembly
- Interface can also be a special construct in a given language, allowing to have just the "interface part" as a completely separate entity from implementation
 - In *Java* this is achieved using the *interface* keyword
 - In C++ this is achieved by defining *pure abstract classes* (presented later in next chapters)
- > Synonym **API** (Application Programming Interface)
- What is better to expose (include in the *interface*): *attributes* or *operations*?
 - Why?
 - > The importance of having *control*
- > Besides *operations*, what else can be *safely* included in an *interface*?
- > Think carefully when designing interfaces!
 - > Think now, avoid problems later!
- > !!! Correct usage of OOP relies on interfaces being more stable than implementations !!!
 - > So in order to use OOP correctly, your emphasis must be on designing the interfaces instead of implementation details
 - Make OOP your ally



Object-Oriented Programming Object Relations & Interactions

I know you

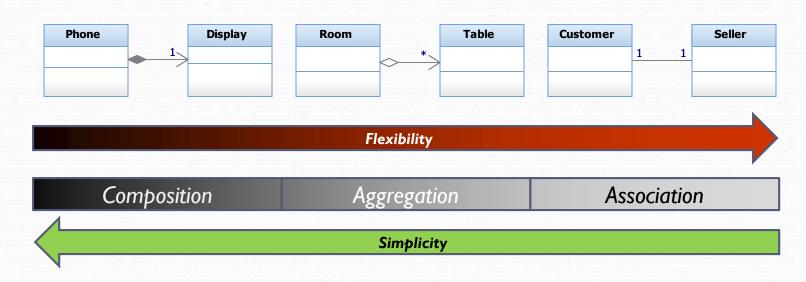


Object Oriented Programming Object Relations

- > Instance level relations
 - > Composition
 - > Aggregation
 - > Association
- > Class-level relations
 - > Inheritance

Instance-level relations: Overview

- > Composition is the strongest relation ownership (has-a) with lifecycle dependency. Simplest relation, but no flexibility.
- > Aggregation is weaker ownership (has-a) without lifecycle dependency
- > Association is the weakest relation of the three. No ownership, no lifecycle dependency, only knowledge / loose usage of the associated object (s).





Instance-level relations: Composition

- > Composition is the strongest ownership relation
- ➤ It is *never* shared the owned object belongs exclusively and solely to the owner
- There is *lifecycle dependency*: destroying the *owner* in a *composition* relation typically means destroying the *owned object(s)*
- Either the programmer does not need to take any special care of the life of the *owned object(s)*, or the cleanup work is easy to implement
- ➤ However the owned object cannot be changed, replaced, reused outside of its exclusive owner. Usually it cannot be retained after owner's death

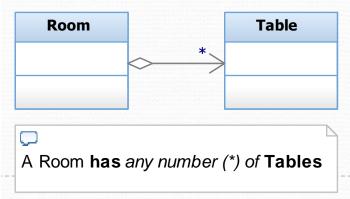
Therefore use *composition* in situations where you need *simplicity* but *not flexibility*.

Phone
Display

Read: A Phone has 1 Display

Instance-level relations: Aggregation

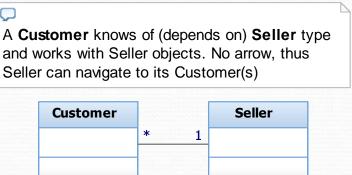
- > Aggregation is weaker ownership relation
- It can be shared (but not always is). If shared, the owned object potentially belongs to multiple owners.
- There is *no lifecycle* relation: the owned object can outlive its current owner. Often the owner can be created "empty" and receive owned objects later
- The programmer often needs to *take care of lifecycles* of both owner and owned objects separately. The programmer also must *prevent the risk* of calling into already dead object. *Resource leaks* must be prevented, too.
 - In C++11 and above, there are very useful smart pointers (i.e. std::shared_ptr) to simplify all those tasks.
- The owned object typically can be changed, replaced and/or reused outside of its current owner
- > Use *aggregation* in situations where you need more *flexible ownership*





Instance-level relations: Association

- > Association is weakest relation of the three. It is no ownership at all.
- There is *no lifecycle dependency*. An object just knows the type of another object and collaborates with it (i.e. request a service/send data)
- In its simplest form, an object *objA* of class *A* receives a message (has a method call) with object *objB* of class *B* passed as an argument. Then *objA* uses *objB* to perform a job and returns.
- ➤ If *objA* keeps a reference/pointer to *objB* then this is a stronger form of association, and sometimes is considered as aggregation.
- ➤ Use *association* to get 2 classes collaborate with each other, without ownership between them.





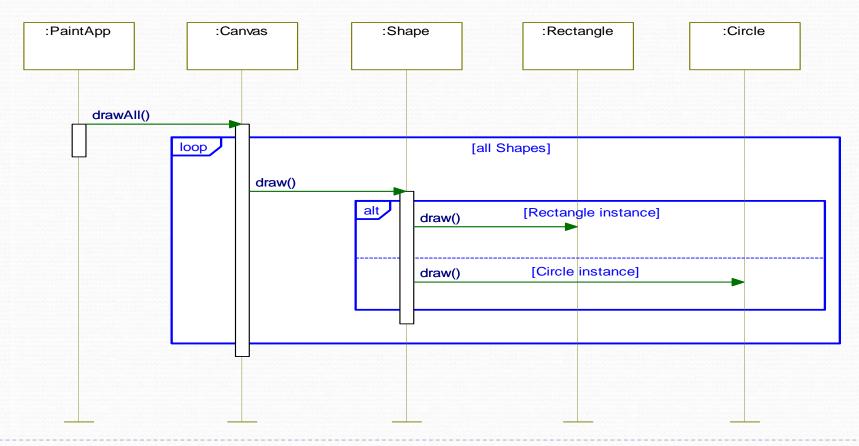
Instance-level relations. Discussion

- > Create a UML diagram of a (part of) car racing game. You have the following requirements:
 - > There is a Garage in the game; it provides maintenance to all Cars
 - > The player is a Driver who owns Car(s) and goes to the Garage from time to time to change the oil, etc.
 - > The Garage keeps information about what cars have been served there, but doesn't need that information until an Inspector comes and requests to check it
- After the class diagram is ready, discuss the possibilities for change and how much would various changes affect the existing design and implementation
- > Implement the diagram



Object Oriented Programming Object interactions. UML Sequence Diagrams (briefly)

- Objects (objName:Class) with lifelines vertically
- Messages (usually method calls)
- \triangleright Closer to the implementation *sequence* of method calls along the lifeline





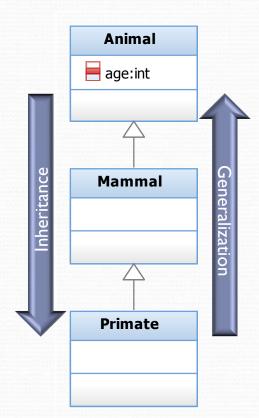
Object-Oriented Programming Inheritance & Generalization

Two sides of the same coin



Object Oriented Programming Inheritance, Subtyping, Generalization – Fundamentals

- > class-level type of relation (relation between entire classes, not between instances/objects).
 - Note: There is "object-based inheritance" (prototyping), that is another story...
- > Defines an "is-a" relationship between classes.
 - In theory, *is-a* relationship refers to *subtyping* which is different concept than *inheritance*; however in *C# / Java / C++* world these terms are usually used as synonyms, as in this presentation.
 - Constrast that to the "has-a" relationship in composition & aggregation
- > Used to *classify* classes into larger groups, which are also classes
 - Example: a *Mammal ''is-an'' Animal* (both Mammal and Animal are classes)
 - > Deeper hierarchies are possible: a Primate is-a Mammal, which is-an Animal. This is multi-level inheritance (not to be confused with multiple inheritance!)
- > Each *descendant* (i.e. the *Primate* class) receives members of its base class(es) (i.e. *Mammal*)
 - > ... but it might not be able to access all of them
 - > Explain *protected* access modifier



Object Oriented Programming Inheritance, Subtyping, Generalization – contd.

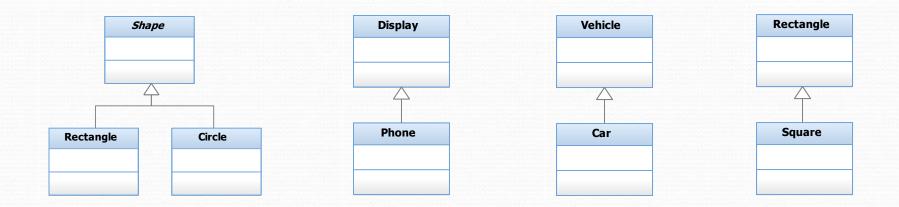
| Animal kingdom | Common features |
|----------------------|--|
| Phylum Chordata | • a notochord (a rodlike structure that supports the body). |
| | |
| Subphylum Vertebrata | • a notochord which develops into a backbone. |
| | |
| Class Mammalia | a notochord which develops into a backbone; and |
| | • nursing (feeding milk to) their young. |
| Order Primates | • a notochord which develops into a backbone; |
| | nursing their young; and flexible hands and feet. |
| Family Hominidae | • a notochord which develops into a backbone; |
| 1 1 | nursing their young;flexible hands and feet; and |
| A I A | two legs. |
| Genus <i>Homo</i> | • a notochord which develops into a backbone; |
| <i>f f</i> | nursing their young;flexible hands and feet; |
| | • two legs; and |
| | habitually walking upright. |
| Species Homo sapiens | a notochord which develops into a backbone; |
| | nursing their young;flexible hands and feet; |
| | • two legs; |
| | habitually walking upright; and |
| | • a large brain. |



Object Oriented Programming

Inheritance/Generalization – Exercises

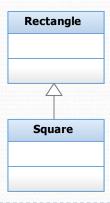
- ➤ Which of the below examples correspond to *is-a* relationship, and which don't?
 - Code exercises
 - Up-casting & down-casting. C++ casts



Object Oriented Programming

Composition or Inheritance? Liskov Substitution Principle

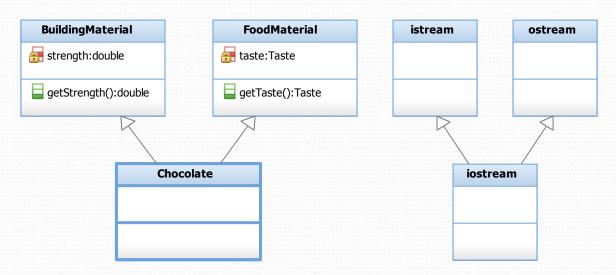
- > "Favor *object composition* over *class inheritance*"
 - This means to avoid code reuse by inheritance (Phone-Display example)
 - In that case, we inherit only *interfaces*, thus following true *subtyping*, and reuse code only via *composition/aggregation*
- Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)
 - > Subtypes must be able to substitute their supertypes without altering program's correctness
 - Example with *Rectangle and Square*, breaking *LSP*





Object Oriented Programming Multiple Inheritance

➤ Multiple Inheritance (MI) — a scenario where a descendant has more than 1 base classes

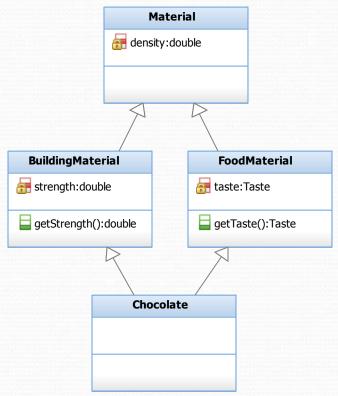


- > The descendant (i.e. *Chocolate*) inherits base classes' "features"
 - > "is-a" relation to all base classes (i.e. both *BuildingMaterial* and *FoodMaterial*)
 - > Ambiguities may occur (i.e. having members with the same name). If that happens, use scope operator to resolve (i.e. Base1::x vs. Base2::x)



Object Oriented Programming Multiple Inheritance – Dangers

> Dreaded Diamond



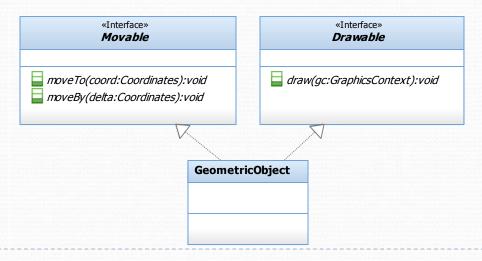
- > How many copies of *density* does a *Chocolate* instance have?
- Virtual Inheritance



Object Oriented Programming

Interfaces – Revisited

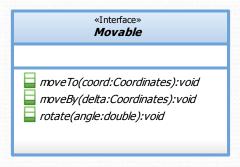
- > Interface as a separate entity. UML notation
 - > implements (realizes) relationship. Implementation vs. Inheritance
- > When to extract a separate *interface* and when to use the class directly
- > "Service classes" vs. "Data classes"
 - Some of the classes carry *data* (i.e. some *Coordinates* class, or *std::string*). They might have several simple operations (accessors getters/setters), but their purpose is to contain and carry relevant information. In simplest case, if no changes expected, it's OK to even expose attributes (i.e. *x* and *y* coordinates)
 - > Other classes *do some job* for us: *DBConnector* (i.e. to create a connection to a database), *ShapeFactory* (create an object instantiate a *Shape* descendant), etc.





Object Oriented Programming Interface Segregation Principle. Program to Interfaces

- > Interfaces in this sense (as a language construct, or some substitute such as pure virtual classes) become a unit of reusability
- > A common mistake is to combine logically separate methods into one interface
 - > Interfaces, similarly to classes, shall obey Single Responsibility Principle
- > During design phase, split **interfaces** into small reusable units
 - > This is called segregation
- > Better err on the side of smaller, than larger interfaces
 - Exercise: How would you rework the following interface:





Object-Oriented Programming Polymorphism

"I'll send an SOS to the world"

Sting – "Message in a bottle"



Object Oriented Programming Polymorphism – Definition



"Sit down"

- > Ability to send a message to an object, without knowing its class
 - > But we have to know something... What is it?
- > Why we want to be unaware of object's exact class?
- > Polymorphism as basis of almost all modern OOP techniques



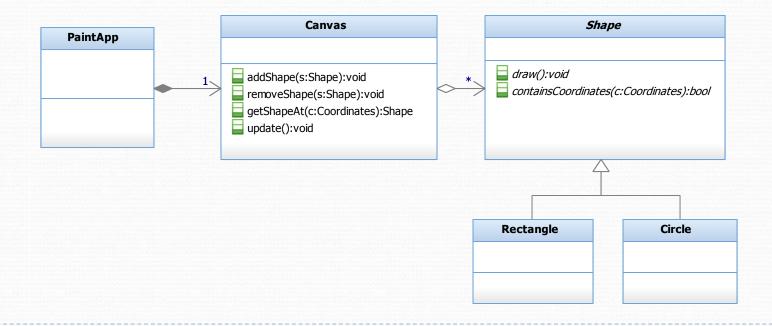
Object Oriented Programming Polymorphism – *How-to (C++)*

- ➤ In C++, "send a message" within the same program means (usually) calling a method
- ➤ To call a method *polymorphically* in C++ the following is necessary:
 - > An instance of some class (i.e. a *Rectangle* object)
 - ➤ Either a *pointer* or a *reference* of some base type (direct or indirect) i.e. a *Shape* pSomeShape* or *Shape& shape* that refer to the concrete object (the *Rectangle* object)
 - > The method is called via that base-type *pointer* or *reference*
 - > The method *must be present* in the base class and *must be virtual*



Object Oriented Programming Polymorphism – Example (UML Class Diagram)

- > Canvas containing graphic figures which are descendants of Shape
- Implement the UML diagram (specifically, *update()* method that draws all graphical figures and everything necessary to call it) by making sure Canvas class doesn't "know about" (depend on) Rectangle, Circle and other Shape descendants





Object-Oriented Programming Abstractions

Abstraction in concrete terms

Object Oriented Programming What is "Abstraction"?

- > Focus on some aspects of a system (concepts; "important stuff") while safely ignoring others ("details")
 - > This is related to characteristics of human mind, the way we think
- In OOP world, both *interfaces* and *abstract classes* are called ''abstractions''
- > Abstractions are supposed to be designed carefully and be more stable than details. They are more dependable.
- > Rule: Depend on abstractions, not on concrete classes



Object-Oriented Programming Genericity (Templates)

Brief intro



Object Oriented Programming Templates – *Intro*

> What if there is *the same* algorithm for processing several *different types* of data? Code *manually* several different functions?

```
void myswap(int& x, int& y) {
    int temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
void myswap(double& x, double& y) {
    double temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

- ➤ We need to **avoid** code **duplication** (one of "code smells" a sign for poor quality)
- Therefore we'd like to write the function code *once* replacing some of the specific type(s) with *parameters* (i.e. instead of *int* or *double* write *T*)
 - > Provide T "argument" where the template is used, somewhat similar to function arguments
- This is yet another way to achieve better *reusability* and *maintainability*



Object Oriented Programming Function Templates

#include <iostream>

```
// template <class T> is the same, but class would be a little misleading here
template <typename T>
void myswap(T \& x, T \& y) {
  T temp = x;
  x = y;
  y = temp;
int main() {
  int x = 5, y = 6;
  double z = 8.7, t = 1.2;
  int p = 18, q = 3;
  myswap < int > (x, y);
                                // Pass int as template argument. The compiler generates a function myswap(int&, int&) for you!
  myswap < double > (z, t);
                                // Pass double as template argument. The compiler generates myswap(double&, double&)!
  myswap(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q});
                                // The compiler deduces the template argument (here int). Thus myswap(int&, int&) is used.
  std::cout << x << ", " << y << std:: endl;
  std:: cout << z << ", " << t << std::endl;
  std:: cout << p << ", " << q << std::endl;
  return 0;
```



Object Oriented Programming Class Templates

```
// In a header file (i.e. MyPair.hpp)
template <typename T> // Again, template <class T> works the same
class MyPair {
public:
  MyPair(const T& first, const T& second)
     : m_first(first), m_second(second) {}
  T\& max();
                                     // Can be defined outside the class...
private:
  T m_first;
  T m_second;
// Definition of a method outside the template class, but still in the header (MyPair.hpp)!
template<typename T>
T\& MyPair < T > :: max() 
  return m_first > m_second ? m_first : m_second;
```



Object Oriented Programming Class Templates – *contd.*

```
// How to use the template class MyPair - i.e. in main.cpp
#include <iostream>
#include "MyPair.hpp"
int main() {
  MyPair < int > intPair(5, 3);
                                                   // The compiler generates a class MyPair<int> for you!
  MyPair<double> doublePair(5.4, 11.9);
                                                   // The compiler generates a class MyPair<double> for you!
  MyPair<char> charPair('q', 'a');
                                                   // The compiler generates a class MyPair<char> for you!
  std::cout << intPair.max() << std::endl;</pre>
  std::cout << doublePair.max() << std::endl;</pre>
  std::cout << charPair.max() << std::endl;</pre>
  return 0;
```

