

# Modularity and Object-Oriented Programming — OO

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1. OOP Philosophy
  2. OOP Languages
  3. Working With Inheritance
  4. Some OOP Languages
  5. Implementing OO
- 

## 1 OOP Philosophy

OOP stems from work in Simula, a simulation language.

Every program is a model of some part of the world. The quality of a program design is directly proportional to how faithfully it reflects the structure of the world that it models.

---

### 1.1 Object-Oriented Programs

An OOP is viewed as

- a set of **objects**
  - interacting by passing **messages** to one another
  - and responding to messages by customized **methods**
- 

### 1.2 Are objects new?

In some ways, these are familiar programming concepts already:

OOPL	traditional PL
object	variable , constant
identity	label, name, address
state	value
class	type
message	funct decl
method	funct body
passing a message	funct call

---

But the renaming encourages us to think in terms of simulation:

- Choosing names appropriate to the application domain
  - Constant communications with domain experts
- 

## 2 OOP Languages

Essential characteristics of OOPL's:

1. Inheritance
2. Subtyping

### 3. Dynamic Binding

---

## 2.1 Inheritance

A class **C inherits** from class **D** if **C** has all the data members and messages of **D**.

- **C** may have additional data members and messages not present in **D**.
- **D** is called a base class of **C**.

---

Ada has a very pure form of inheritance. Given

```
package Ovens is
  type Oven is private;
  function temp(o: Oven) returns real;
  procedure setTemp (o: in out Oven,
                    desired: real);
private
  type Oven is record
    setting: real;
    temp: real;
  end record;
end Ovens;
```

---

We can then write

```
with Ovens; use Ovens;
package MoreOvens is
  type MicrowaveOven is new Oven;
  procedure setTimer (o: in out Oven,
                    desired: real);
end MoreOvens;
```

MicrowaveOven inherits the data and functions of Oven. It adds a new procedure, setTimer.

---

```
procedure bakeBread (o: in out Oven);
o: Oven;
m: MicrowaveOven;
```

```
setTemp(o, v); -- OK
setTemp(m, v); -- OK (inh)
setTimer(o, t); -- illegal
setTimer(m, t); -- OK
bakeBread(o); -- OK
bakeBread(m); -- illegal
```

---

## 2.2 Subtyping

A type **C** is a **subtype** of **D** if a value of type **C** may be used in any operation that expects a value of type **D**.

- **C** is called a subclass or subtype of **D**.
- **D** is called a superclass or supertype of **C**.

---

As a general rule, OOPL's combine inheritance and subtyping.

```
class Oven {
public:
  double temp() const;
  void setTemp (desired: real);
private:
  double setting;
  double temperature;
};
```

---

C++/Java combine inheritance and subtyping.

```
class MicrowaveOven: public Oven
{
public:
  void setTimer (double);
private:
  double time;
};
```

---

```
void bakeBread (const Oven &);
```

```
Oven o;
MicrowaveOven m;
```

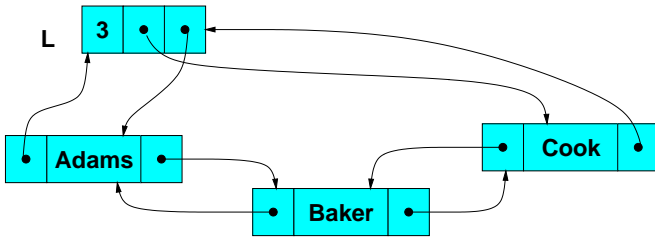
```
o.setTemp(v); -- OK
m.setTemp(v); -- OK (inh)
o.setTimer(t); -- illegal
m.setTimer(t); -- OK
bakeBread(o); -- OK
bakeBread(m); -- OK (sub)
```

---

### 2.2.1 Subtyping: Linked List

As an example of subtyping in action, consider a doubly linked list. It is convenient for many reasons to organize the list as a pair of rings, linked at the beginning and end via a header node.

---



We might first try:

```
struct Node {
    string data;
    Node *prev;
    Node *next;
};

struct Header {
    int listSize;
    Node* last;
    Node* first;
};
```

But sometimes a Node must point to a Header rather than another Node.

An elegant solution is offered by subtyping.

- Suppose that Node and Header were each subtypes of another type, DLLBase.
- Then by the subtyping rule, a Node\* or Header\* could be substituted anywhere a DLLBase\* was expected

```
struct DLLBase {};

struct Node : public DLLBase {
    string data;
    DLLBase *prev;
    DLLBase *next;
};

struct Header : public DLLBase {
    int listSize;
    DLLBase *last;
    DLLBase *first;
};
```

Still not ideal, because code like

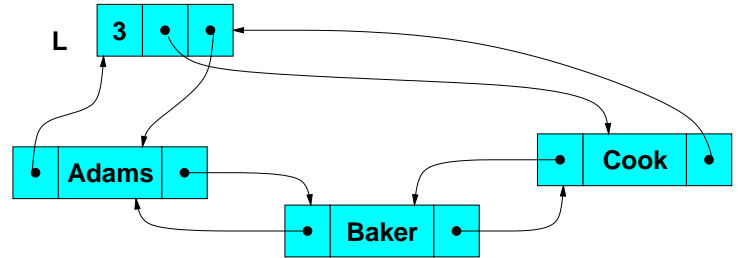
```
DLLBase* p = header->first;
while (p != header)
{
    process (p->data);
    p = p->next;
}
```

fails because a DLLBase does not have next or data fields.

We can rewrite using casts:

```
DLLBase* p = header->first;
while (p != header)
{
    process (((Node*)p)->data);
    p = ((Node*)p)->next;
}
```

or we can recognize that everything in this list has two pointers.



```
struct DLLBase {
    DLLBase *backward;
    DLLBase *forward;
};
```

```
struct Node : public DLLBase {
    string data;
};
```

```
struct Header : public DLLBase {
    int listSize;
};
```

```
DLLBase* p = header->forward;
while (p != header)
{
    process (((Node*)p)->data);
    p = p->forward;
}
```

Although we still have a type cast, this is relatively insignificant.

If I package up my DLLList as an ADT, I will have something like:

```

class StringList {
private:
    Header* header;
public:
    typedef DLLBase* Position;

    StringList();
    ~StringList();

    Position begin() const {return header->next();}
    Position end() const {return header;}

    Position next(Position p) const {return p->next;}
    Position prev(Position p) const {return p->prev;}
    /* ... insert, erase, find ... */
    string& at(Position p) {return ((Node*)p)->data;}
};

```

## 2.3 Dynamic Binding

Consider the binding of function body (method) to a function call.

Given the following:

```
a = foo(b);
```

when is the decision made as to what code will be executed for this call to foo?

### 2.3.1 Static Binding

```
a = foo(b);
```

In a traditional, compiled imperative language (FORTRAN, PASCAL, C, etc.), the decision is made at compile-time.

- Decision is immutable
- If this statement is inside a loop, same code will be invoked for foo each time.
- Compile-time binding — low execution-time overhead.

### 2.3.2 Unconstrained Dynamic Binding

```
a = foo(b);
```

In a traditionally interpreted language (LISP, BASIC, etc), the decision is made at run-time.

- Decision is often mutable
- If this statement is inside a loop, different code may be invoked for foo each time.
- Run-time binding — high execution-time overhead.

### 2.3.3 OOP Dynamic Binding

OOPs typically feature an “intermediate” form of dynamic binding in which the choice of method is made from a relatively small list of options.

#### OO Dynamic Binding

- list is determined at compile time
- final choice made at run-time
- options are organized according to the inheritance hierarchy
- determined by the actual type of the object whose member function has been selected

- In SmallTalk & Java, all function calls are resolved by dynamic binding.
- In C++, we can choose between compile-time and dynamic binding.

### 2.3.4 Dynamic Binding in C++

- A non-inherited function member is subject to dynamic binding if its declaration is preceded by the word “virtual”.
- An inherited function member is subject to dynamic binding if that member in the base class is subject to dynamic binding.
  - Using the word “virtual” in subclasses is optional (but recommended).
- Even if a member function is virtual, calls to that member might not be subject to dynamic binding.

#### Dynamically Bound Calls

Let `foo` be a virtual function member.

- `x.foo()`, where `x` is an object, is bound at compile time (static)
- `x.foo()`, where `x` is a reference to an object, is bound at run-time (dynamic).
- `x->foo()`, where `x` is a pointer, is bound at run-time (dynamic).

---

```

class Animal {
public:
    virtual String eats() {return "???";}
    String name() {return "Animal";}
};

class Herbivore: public Animal {
public:
    virtual String eats() {return "plants";}
    String name() {return "Herbivore";}
};

class Ruminants: public Herbivore {
public:
    virtual String eats() {return "grass";}
    String name() {return "Ruminant";}
};

class Carnivore: public Animal {
public:
    virtual String eats() {return "meat";}
    String name() {return "Carnivore";}
};

void show (String s1, String s2) {
    cout << s1 << " " << s2 << endl;
}

```

---

```

Animal a, *pa, *pah, *par;
Herbivore h, *ph;
Ruminant r;
pa = &a; ph = &h; pah = &h; par = &r;

```

```

show(a.name(), a.eats());
show(pa->name(), pa->eats());
show(h.name(), h.eats());
show(ph->name(), ph->eats());
show(pah->name(), pah->eats());
show(par->name(), par->eats());

```

---

### 3 Working With Inheritance

Example: Shapes

- A Picture contains a list of Shapes and information on the size of the picture.

- Every Shape has a center point and a bounding rectangle.

First, some utility classes:

---

```

struct Point {
    double x, y;
};

struct Rect {
    Point ul, lr;
    void merge (const Rect& r)
    {
        ul.x = min(ul.x, r.ul.x);
        ul.y = min(ul.y, r.ul.y);
        lr.x = max(lr.x, r.lr.x);
        lr.y = max(lr.y, r.lr.y);
    }
};

```

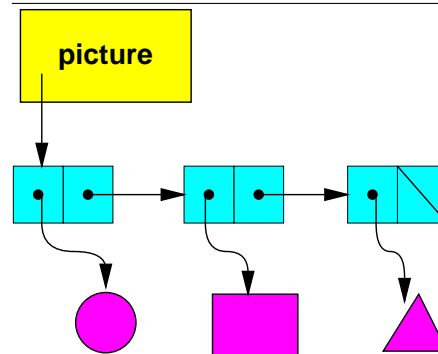
---

```

class Shape {
public:
    Shape();
    virtual ~Shape();
    virtual void draw() const;
    virtual void zoom (double factor);
    virtual const
        Point center() const;
    virtual const Rect bound() const;
};

```

---




---

```

struct ShapeList {
    Shape* shape;
    ShapeList* next;
};

```

---

```

class Picture {
public:

```

```

Picture();
virtual ~Picture();

void clear();
void add (const Shape&);

Rect bound() const;
void draw() const;

void zoom (double factor);
private:
    ShapeList *shapes;
};

```

---

```

class Circle: public Shape {
    Point center;
    double radius;
public:
    Circle (Point cent, double r);
    Circle (const Circle&);
    ~Circle();

    void draw() const;
    void zoom (double factor);
    Rect bound() const;
};

```

---

```

class Line: public Shape {
    Point ul, lr;
public:
    Line (Point p1, double p2);
    Line (const Line&);
    ~Line();

    void draw() const;
    void zoom (double factor);
    Rect bound() const;
};

```

---

Drawing a picture:

```

void Picture::draw() const
{
    ShapeList* s = shapes;
    while (s != 0) {
        s->shape->draw();
        s = s->next;
    }
}

```

Relies on dynamic binding of draw().

---

Without dynamic binding, this would have been written as

```

void Picture::draw() const
{
    ShapeList* s = shapes;
    while (s != 0) {
        switch (s->tag) {
            case lineTag:
                drawLine(*s); break;
            case circleTag:
                drawCircle(*s); break;
            :
        }
        s = s->next;
    }
}

```

### Moving to OOP

A key marker in OOP style is the replacement of

- unions (variant records)
- multi-way branches

by dynamic binding over an inheritance hierarchy.

---

Let's look at what's involved in computing the size of a picture:

```

Rect Circle::bound() {
    Rect b;
    b.ul.x = center.x - radius;
    b.ul.y = center.y - radius;
    b.lr.x = center.x + radius;
    b.lr.y = center.y + radius;
    return b;
}

```

---

```

Rect Line::bound() {
    Rect b;
    b.ul = ul;
    b.lr = lr;
    return b;
}

```

---

```

Rect Picture::bound() const
{
    Shape* s = shapes;
    if (s != 0) {

```

```

Rect r = s->shape->bound();
s = s->next;
while (s != 0) {
    r.merge(s->shape->bound());
    s = s->next;
}

```

Relies on dynamic binding of `bound()`.

---

What's involved in adding a new shape (e.g., ellipse)?

- In traditional languages, design new `Ellipse` type.
    - Must supply ellipse-specific code for `drawEllipse()`, `boundEllipse()`, etc.
  - ...
- 
- ...
  - Find all code everywhere (`Picture` plus applications) that switches based on tags.
    - add a new case to that code

---

What's involved in adding a new shape (e.g., ellipse)?

- In OOPL, design new `Ellipse` class.
    - Subclass of `Shape`
    - Must supply ellipse-specific code for `draw()`, `bound()`, etc.
  - No changes to `Picture` required
- 

## 4 Some OOP Languages

- OOP in C++
  - OOP in Java
  - OOP in Smalltalk
  - OOP in Modula 3
- 

### 4.1 OOP in C++

We've seen the basics already.

- C++ is a hybrid language.
    - Not all types are classes.
    - Not all class member functions dynamically bound.
    - Inheritance hierarchies tend to be small and special-purpose.
- 

#### 4.1.1 Abstract Classes

Sometimes we present class interfaces that are intended only as interfaces — no implementation is expected.

```

class Shape {
public:
    Shape();
    virtual ~Shape();
    virtual void draw() const;
    virtual void zoom(double factor);
    virtual const
        Point center() const;
    virtual const Rect bound() const;
};

```

- 
- Can't really provide meaningful code for `draw()`, `bound()`, etc.
  - Rather than provide bogus code for the operations, we mark them as **abstract**.
    - No bodies provided for abstract functions
    - Abstract classes cannot be instantiated as an actual object.
    - The implementation is done in a subclass.
- 

```

class Shape {
public:
    Shape();
    virtual ~Shape();
    virtual void draw() const = 0;
    virtual void zoom(double factor) = 0;
    virtual const
        Point center() const = 0;
    virtual const Rect bound() const = 0;
};

```

---

## 4.2 OOP in Java

Another hybrid, but purer than C++.

- Not all types are classes.
- All class member functions are dynamically bound.
- All classes organized into a single inheritance tree
- Garbage collection
- C++-like syntax

---

Java implementation of Shapes is very similar to C++:

```
class Point {
    double x, y;
}

class Rect {
    Point ul, lr;
    void merge (Rect r) {
        ul.x = min(ul.x, r.ul.x);
        ul.y = min(ul.y, r.ul.y);
        lr.x = max(lr.x, r.lr.x);
        lr.y = max(lr.y, r.lr.y);
    }
}

abstract
class Shape {
    abstract void draw();
    abstract void zoom (double factor);
    abstract Point center();
    abstract Rect bound() const;
}
```

Establishes the common interface for all shapes.

---

```
class ShapeList {
    Shape shape;
    ShapeList next;
};
```

Since all class objects are assigned by reference, no need for explicit pointers.

---

```
class Picture {
    private ShapeList shapes;

    Picture () {...}
```

```
void clear() {...}
void add (const Shape s) {
    ShapeList newNode = new ShapeList;
    newNode.shape = s;
    newNode.next = shapes;
    shapes = newNode;
}
```

```
Rect bound() {...}
void draw() {...}
```

```
void zoom (double factor) {...}
};
```

---

```
class Circle extends Shape {
    private Point center;
    private double radius;

    Circle (Point cent, double r) {...}

    void draw() {...}
    void zoom (double factor) {...}
    Rect bound() {...}
};
```

---

Drawing a picture:

```
class Picture {
    :
    void draw() {
    {
        Shape s = shapes;
        while (s != null) {
            s.shape.draw();
            s = s.next;
        }
    }
}
```

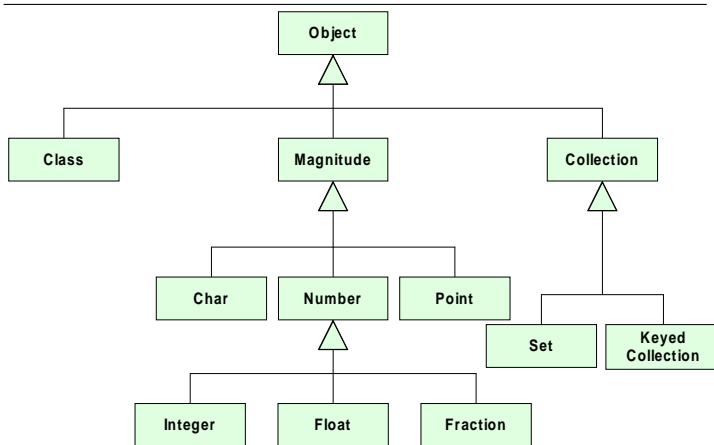
## 4.3 OOP in Smalltalk

Smalltalk is both a language and a GUI development environment. In many ways, this is the language that kicked off the OO boom.

- interpreted (usually)
- Everything is an object. (Even classes are objects!)
- All function calls are resolved dynamically.



- All classes are arranged into a single inheritance tree:



```

AShape subclass: #Rectangle
instanceVariableNames:
    'theHeight theWidth'
classVariableNames:

```

```

setHeight: anInteger
    "set the height of a rectangle"
    theHeight := anInteger

```

```

setWidth: anInteger
    "set the width of a rectangle"
    theWidth := anInteger

```

```

height
    "return the height of a rectangle"
    ^theHeight

```

```

width
    "return the width of a rectangle"
    ^theWidth

```

```

draw
    "draw the rectangle"
    | aLine upperLeftCorner |
    aLine := Line new.
    upperLeftCorner :=
        theCenter x - (theWidth / 2)
        @ (theCenter y - (theHeight / 2)).

```

ARectangle inherits a data member theCenter from AShape.

theCenter x means "send the "x" message to the theCenter object".

- Note the lack of "syntactic sugar"
  - one seldom really looks at "listings" of an entire class
- Variables are weakly typed.
- Automatic garbage collection

#### A SmallTalk Browser

Graphics	Array	insertion	add:
Collections	Bag	removal	addAll:
Numerics	FIFOQueue	testing	
System	Set	printing	
add: x "Adds x to the end of the queue" size := size + 1. dataArray at: size put: x.			

## 4.4 OOP in Modula 3

In the Pascal/Modula 2 tradition.

- kept Pascal/Modula 2 style syntax and emphasis on simplicity
- adopted C-like (structural equivalence) type system
- Modularity separate from type declaration
- garbage collection by default on all pointers
  - programmer can exempt selected classes from garbage collection (for efficiency)
  - avail of garbage collection simplifies language and code
    - \* much less emphasis on constructors & destructors

```
INTERFACE Stack;
```

```
TYPE T <: REFANY;
```

```
PROCEDURE Pop(VAR s: T): REAL;
```

```
PROCEDURE Push(VAR s: T; x: REAL);
```

```
PROCEDURE Create(): T;
```

```
END Stack.
```

- This is a *module* `Stack` that declares a *class* `Stack.T`
- `<:` is the "inherits from" operator
- The code of the procedure bodies is very Pascal-like.

## 5 Implementing OO

How are inheritance, dynamic dispatching, etc., implemented?

### 5.1 Implementing Inheritance and Subtyping

Inheritance of data members is achieved by treating all new members as extensions of the base class:

```
struct DLLBase {
    DLLBase *backward;
    DLLBase *forward;
};
```

```
struct Node: public DLLBase {
    string data;
};
```

#### Extension

Inherited members occur at the same byte offset as in the base class:

DLLBase		Node	
		0	backward
0	backward	4	forward
4	forward	8	data

`p->forward` can translate the same whether `p` points to a `DLLBase` or a `Node`.

#### Assignment & Subtyping

This implementation explains why, in languages with copy semantics assignments, we can do

```
superObj = subObj;
```

but not

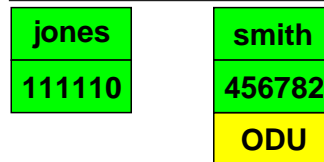
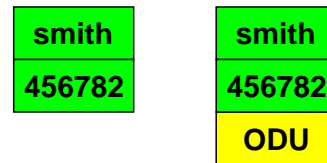
```
subObj = superObj;
```

```
class Person {
public:
    string name;
    long id;
};
```

```
class Student: public Person {
public:
    string school;
}
```



```
jones = smith;
```



```
smith = jones;
```



### 5.2 Implementing Dynamic Binding

- Single Dispatching
- VTables

#### Single Dispatching

Almost all OO languages, including C++, offer a **single dispatch** model of message passing:

the dynamic binding is resolved according to the type of the single object to which the message was sent (“dispatched”).

```
*(b->VTABLE[0])();
```

### Single Dispatching (cont.)

- In C++, this is the object on the left in a call: `obj.foo(...)`
- There are times when this is inappropriate.
  - But it leads to a fast, simple implementation

- Each object with 1 or more virtual functions has a hidden data member.
  - a pointer to a **VTable** for it’s class
  - this member is always at a predictable location (e.g., start or end of the object)
- Each virtual function in a class is assigned a unique, consecutive index number.

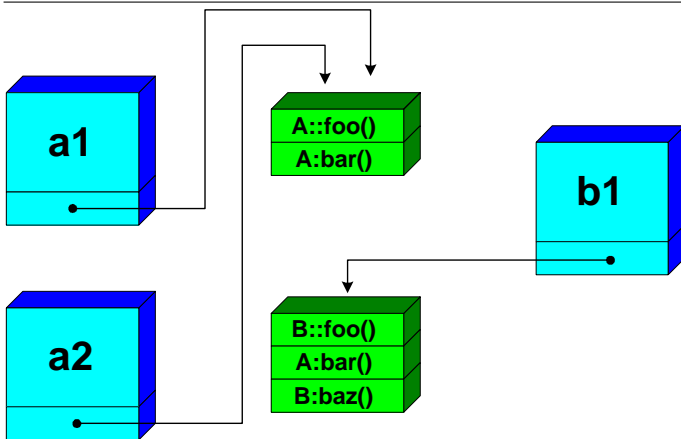
- `(*VTABLE)[i]` is the address of the class’s method for the *i*’th virtual function.

```
class A {
public:
    A();
    virtual void foo();
    virtual void bar();
};

class B: public A {
public:
    B();
    virtual void foo();
    virtual void baz();
};
```

```
A* b = (rand() % 2) ? new A: new B;
b->foo();
```

`foo()`, `bar()`, and `baz()` are assigned indices 0, 1, and 2, respectively.



The call `b->foo()` is translated as