

# **Object-Oriented Principles**

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Comp 30160: Object Oriented Design

# Principles and Patterns

- The activity of design can be informed by
  - **principles:** general statements of what properties a good design ought to have
  - **heuristics:** guidelines for creating a good design
  - **metrics:** how to measure the quality of a design
  - **patterns:** concrete examples of successful designs for particular purposes.
- We'll examine these topics in the coming lectures. This section relates to software **PRINCIPLES**.

# An über principle: Keep Dependency to a minimum

It's all about **dependency**

**Compile-time dependency**, not run-time dependency.

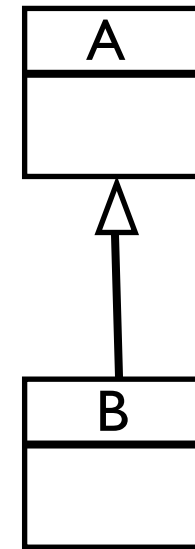
In a million-line code base, a new requirement means that class A has to be changed...

The million-dollar question is:  
what classes depend on class A? i.e.  
what else has to change because A changes?

# More about Dependency

In designing anything (software, buildings, airplanes), we have components that **depend** on each other.

For example, when class B inherits from class A, what dependency is created?



# Dependency

If a class Foo uses an instance of class FooBar, what dependency is created?

```
class Foo {  
    public Foo {  
        ... = new FooBar  
  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

# Why does dependency matter?

If A depends on B, that means that...

If a new requirement causes us to update B,  
A may well have to be updated as well.

So if B is updated a lot,  
A will have to be updated a lot as well.

Hold this  
thought!

# Stable and Unstable

A **stable** component is one that doesn't change over time.

Conversely, an **unstable** component is inclined to change over time.

In a house, the foundations are stable -- they are intended to be very hard if not impossible to move.

The paint on the walls is unstable -- it is made to be easy to replace.

# Stability and Dependency

**Edict 1:    Separate the stable from the unstable!**

**Edict 2:    The stable must not depend on the unstable.**

If you ignore the first edict, your whole system will be unstable.

If you ignore the second edict, your whole system will be unstable.

The unstable may depend on the stable, that's ok.



# An über principle: Don't Repeat Yourself (DRY)

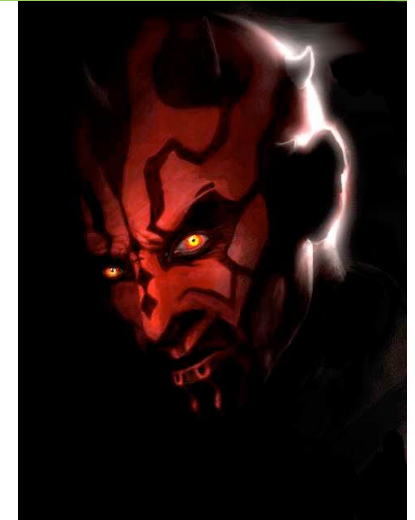
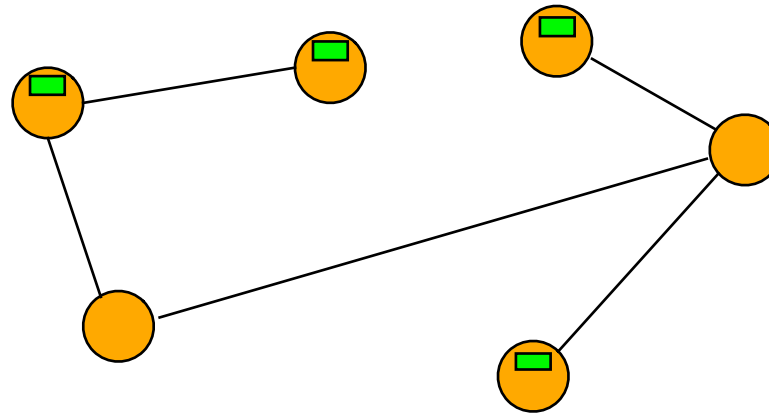
- Aka **Write Once and Once Only**
- Very important principle in software development and evolution
  - “[Duplication is] the bane of the programmer’s existence”
    - Kent Beck
- Duplicated code => **implicit dependency!**



**Implicit dependency**  
is the worst type!

# Duplication: the root of all software evil

Information that appears in several places around the system is contrary to this principle.



The green boxes above represent duplicated information; if one has to change, they all have to change.

At best, updating takes longer than when there's no duplication.

At worst, error will occur if you omit one of the updates.

# SOLID Principles

- In this section we'll look at the set of object-oriented principles named by Bob Martin in the “early days” of OOP/OOD:
  - Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)
  - Open/Closed Principle (OCP)
  - Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)
  - Interface Segregation Principle (ISP)
  - Dependency Inversion Principle (DIP)
- We'll also look at two other principles/guidelines:
  - No Concrete Superclasses
  - Law of Demeter

# Object-Oriented Principles: Roadmap

- Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)
- Open/Closed Principle (OCP)
- Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)
- Interface Segregation Principle (ISP)
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# Single Responsibility Principle

The Single Responsibility Principle states that:

- (i) every class should have a single responsibility, and
- (ii) that responsibility should be entirely encapsulated by the class.

This is a fundamental principle that expresses the core of good object-oriented design.

Following this principle has this very desirable effect:

*There is only one class of reasons for a class to change.*

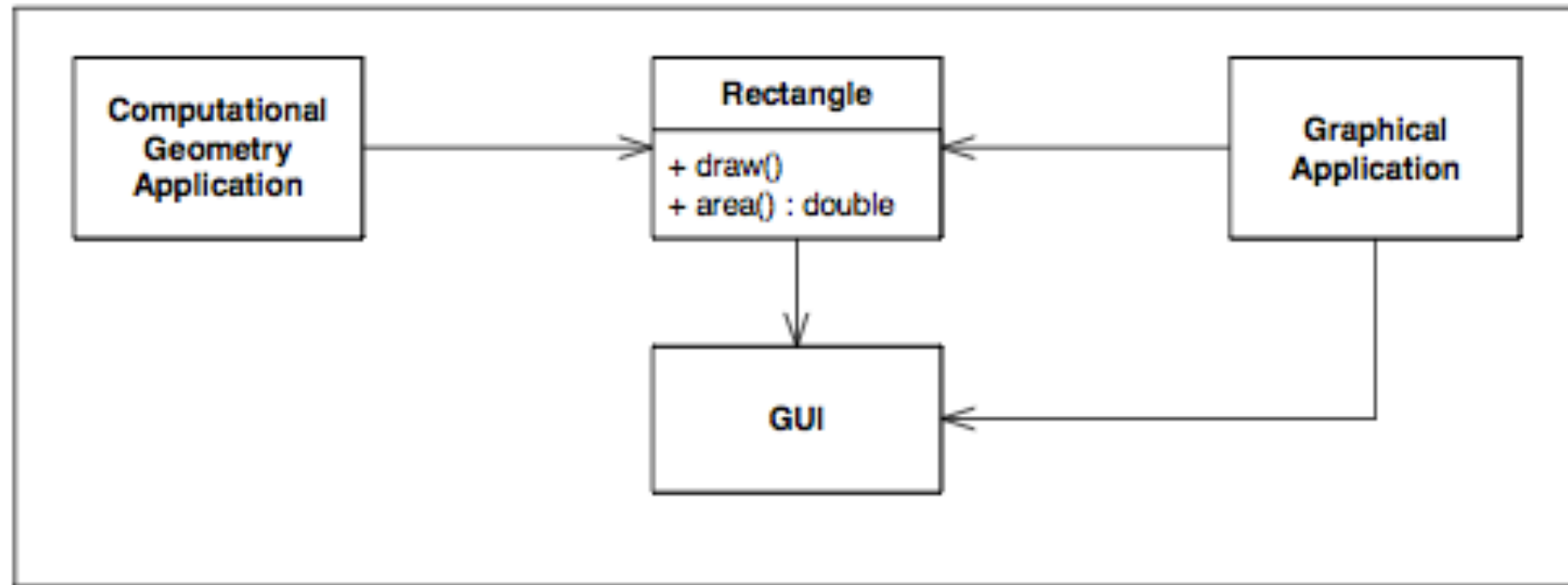


DO  
**1**  
THING

**SINGLE RESPONSIBILITY PRINCIPLE (SRP)**

A class should have only one reason to change.

# Violating SRP

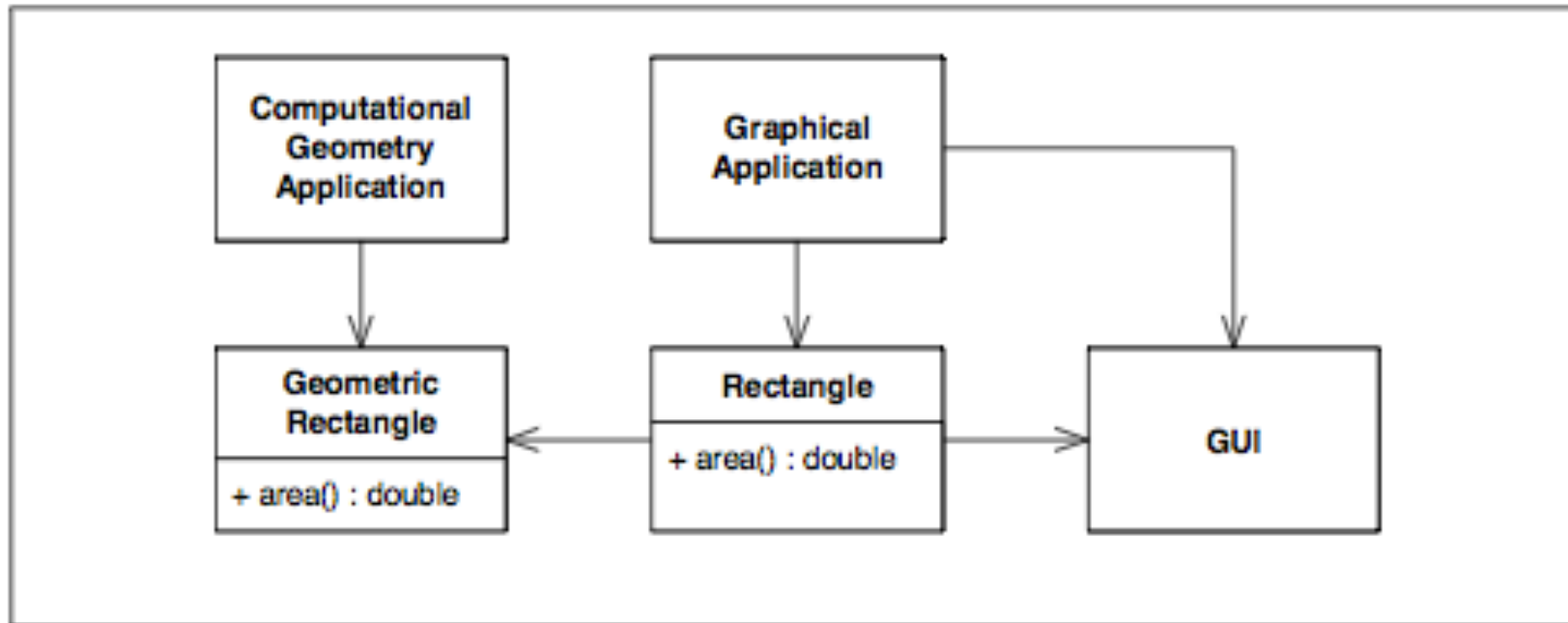


**Figure 9-1**  
More than one responsibility

This design violates the SRP. Discuss the consequences.



# Redesign to comply with the SRP



**Figure 9-2**  
Separated Responsibilities

The Rectangle class has been split into two, representing the different responsibilities involved (mathematical model of rectangle and graphical rectangle).

# Another SRP Violation

Don't forget the 'entirely encapsulated' clause!

Look at the sketch of a Person class below.

This class should have an **equals** method that checks if the argument object is a Person and if it has the same PPS number

```
class Person
{
    ...

    private string name;
    private string pps;
}
```

What are the practical consequences if this class doesn't have an **equals** method? How will the software evolve?

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# Open and Closed Modules

- A module (class, package, ...) is said to be **closed** if it is not subject to further change
  - clients can then rely on the services the module provides



- A module is said to be **open** if it is still available for extension
  - this will make it possible to extend and modify what the module does

# The Open/Closed Principle

- The open/closed principle states that developers should try to produce modules that are both open and closed.
  - **closed** for modification
  - **open** for extension
- This sounds like a paradox
  - to resolve it we need a way of extending a module without changing its code
  - We'll see how to do this in the coming slides

# Interface and Implementation

- The **interface** of a module is what is visible or available to clients
- The **implementation** is the internal details of the module that support the interface
- One approach to open/closed modules is to ensure that clients only depend on the **interfaces** of the modules that they use
  - makes it possible to change implementations easily
  - thus changing the behaviour of the client

# Try using Public and Private features

- **Data abstraction** assigns an access level (public/private) to each feature in a class
- Clients can use only the public interface



- Private features can be freely changed
  - method bodies
  - fields

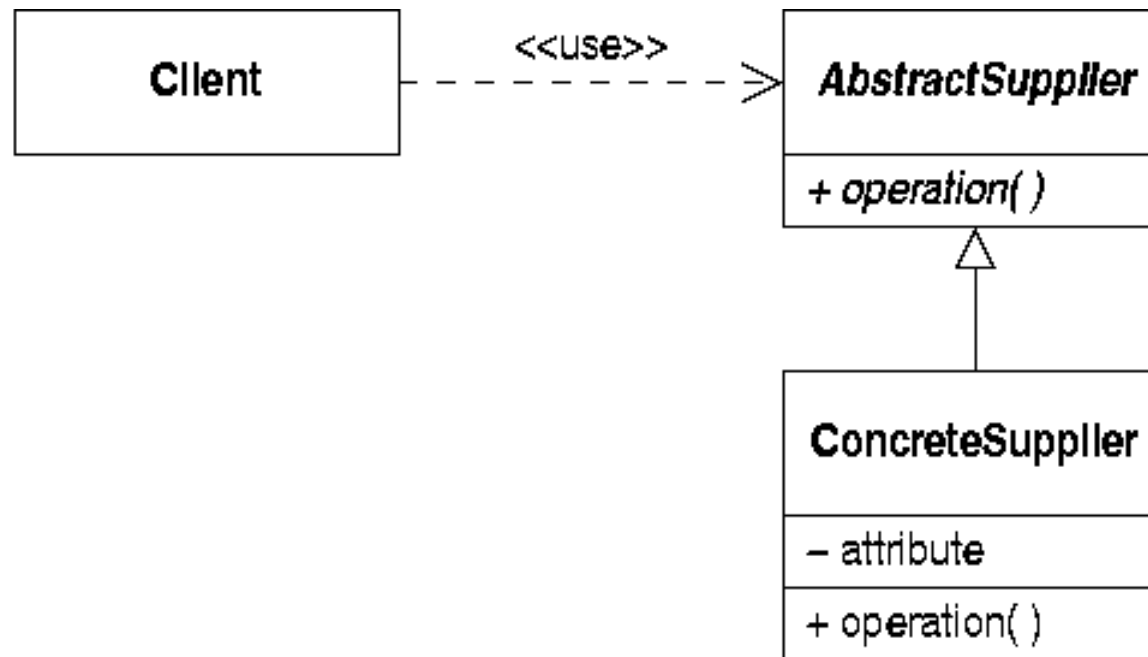
# This approach is limited

- Even with data abstraction, Java classes are technically not closed
  - changes to method bodies affect the source code and entail recompilation of clients
- The interface actually used by clients is left implicit
  - The client is still dependent on the **actual class** of the supplier.
- Changing to a new supplier is impossible without also changing the client.



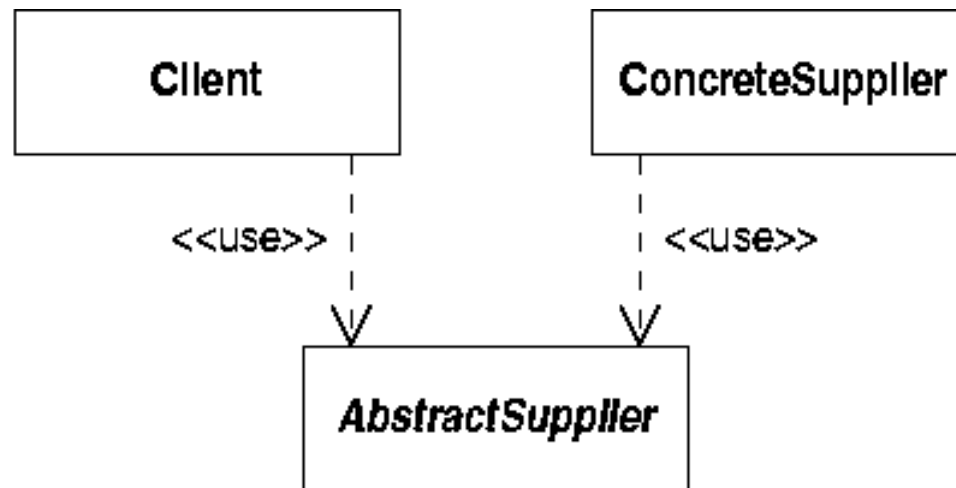
# Make the Client less dependent on the Supplier

- A more flexible approach based on interfaces/abstract classes:



# Dependencies

- The **dependency structure** indicates that the client is independent of the concrete suppliers



- Whenever you use e.g. an interface in Java, this is the dependency structure that is actually created.

# Open and Closed

- The client class is
  - **open** in the sense that its functionality can be extended by adding further supplier subclasses
  - **closed** in that this can be done without changing the client
- However, the client is not protected against changes in the interface exported by the abstract supplier class
  - Something has to be set in stone!

# What to leave open, what to close?

- It may be impossible to predict in what ways a class will be extended.
- In general it's a bad idea to makes classes more open than they need to be.
  - this is **overengineering**
- Current practice is to develop classes in a rather closed style, but apply OCP as soon as it is necessary.

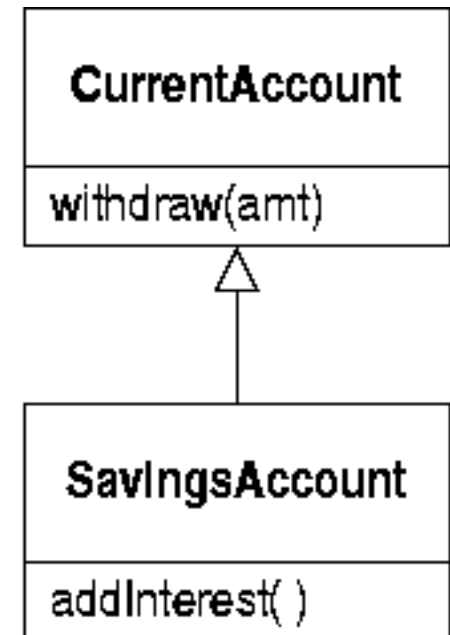
Many design patterns are related to this principle. Think about this later on in the module.

# Roadmap

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# Liskov Substitution Principle

- States the conditions under which references to superclasses can safely be converted to references to subclasses
- “it must be possible to substitute an instance of a subclass for an instance of a superclass without affecting client classes or modules”
- this defines what **generalisation** means in OOD



# Liskov Substitution Principle

- The **Liskov Substitution Principle** roughly is this
  - “Any context that expects a member of a generalised class must work correctly when provided with an appropriate object of the more specialised class.
  - This has a major impact on how we can override, in a subclass, an operation defined in a superclass
- As a slogan (from the perspective of the subclass):
  - **Demand no more, promise no less!**

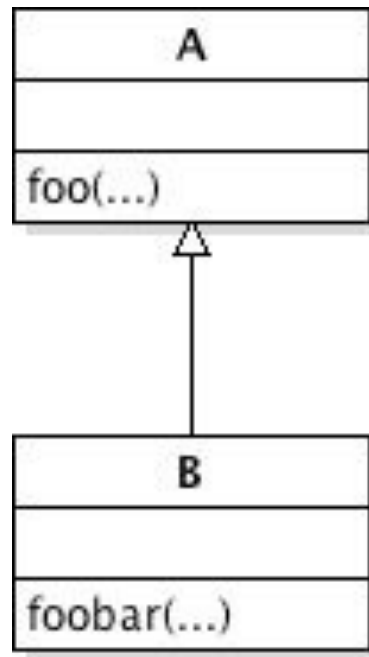
# Liskov Substitution Principle

- To state it more formally:
  - an overriding operation must have a weaker (or equal) precondition and a stronger (or equal) postcondition than the one it overrides.
- Pre- and post-conditions?
  - Fancy names for very simple concepts
  - **Precondition:** what the method demands for it to run properly (“give me a non-negative float”)
  - **Postcondition:** what the method promises to do assuming its precondition is true (“I’ll return its square root”)
- Is the Liskov principle surprising?
  - No, but it has some surprising consequences that we now explore.



# Demonstrating Liskov: simple case

Say we have a class A and a subclass B. If B just inherits from A and doesn't remove or override any of its methods, then Liskov substitutivity principle holds, once any new methods in B preserve the class invariant\* of A.



\***class invariant**: a predicate on the fields of a class that should be maintained, e.g.,  $(1 \leq \text{month} \leq 12)$ .

# Now consider overriding...

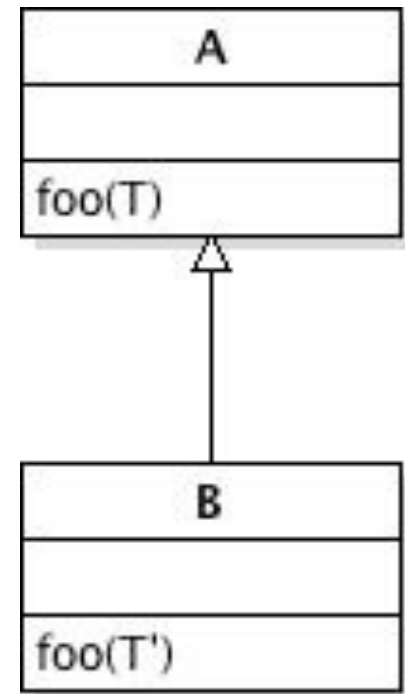
Now we consider method overriding. Our aim is to work out how method overriding must be constrained in order to ensure that the Liskov substitution principle is maintained.

B is a specialisation of A.

A defines the method `foo` which takes a parameter of type `T`.

B overrides `foo`, and `B::foo` takes an argument of type `T'`.

We now work out the relationship that must exist between `T` and `T'` in order for substitutivity to be supported.



# Demonstrating Liskov: substitution

In order to make it clear what is meant by substitution, we consider the following code fragment (Java-ish):

```
A a = new A();  
B b = new B();  
...  
if (isSunnyDay())  
    a=b;  
...  
a.foo(t); // so a may refer to an A or a B object!
```

Consider the argument to the message send. Statically it appears to invoke the `A::foo` method, so the programmer will supply an object `t` of type `T`. However....

# Demonstrating Liskov: contravariance

... by substitutivity a may refer to a B object. This means that `B::foo` must also be able to work correctly with an argument of type T.

The type of argument to `B::foo` is in fact T'.

=> T must be a subtype of T'.

(Don't forget that the subtyping relation is reflexive.)

Surprisingly, in the overriding method in the more specialised class, the argument types must remain the same or be made more general.

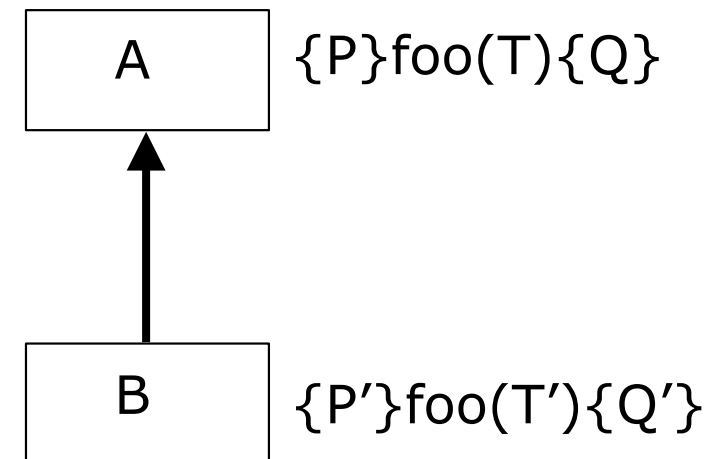
This is termed **contravariance**. The alternative, covariance, may lead to run-time type errors if substitutivity is permitted.

# Pre- and post-conditions

Using a similar argument, we can show that the return type of the overriding method must remain the same or be made more specialised.

We have only considered the issue of types. Looking at the method definitions in terms of pre- and postconditions, a similar argument to the above will lead us to:

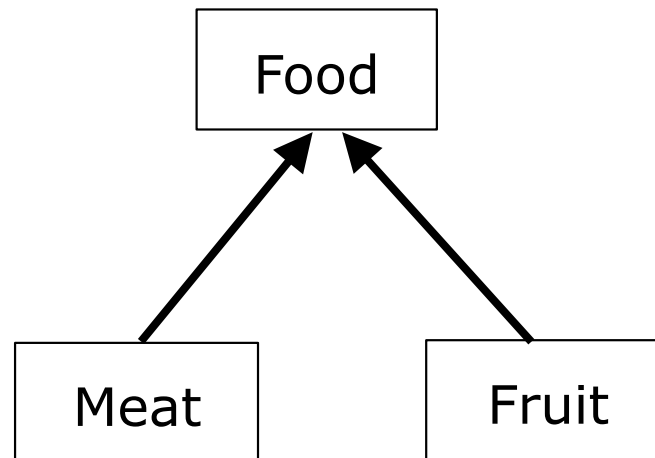
$P'$  must be weaker than  $P$  and  
 $Q'$  must be stronger than  $Q$ .



# A concrete example

See the 30160 web page for this example in Java code.

We assume this simple typing hierarchy exists:



# Animals eat food

Animals eat food. Nothing controversial here:

```
class Animal{  
    public void eat(Food f){};  
}
```

# Carnivores eat meat

Carnivores eat meat.

```
class Carnivore extends Animal{  
    public void eat(Meat m){};  
}
```

All ok? It looks fine.



# That violated Liskov!

Here's how this can lead to problems:

```
Fruit apple = new Fruit();  
Carnivore rex = new Carnivore();  
Animal my_animal = rex;  
...  
...  
my_animal.eat(apple); // runtime type error
```

We overrode the eat method and made its argument more specific (“demanded more”).

The code snippet above shows how this permits the new method to run without the new demands being met, hence a type error occurs.

# Liskov Summary

The Liskov Substitution Principle explains what substitution means in the context of inheritance.

This principle limits what you can do in a subclass, e.g.,

- inherited methods cannot be rejected
- Overriding methods must have contravariant arguments

Most object-oriented languages prevent you from violating the Liskov principle, e.g., in Java:

- you cannot reject an inherited method
- the arguments to an overriding method must be of the same type as the arguments to the overridden method.

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# Interface Segregation Principle

The Interface-Segregation Principle (ISP) states simply that a client should not be forced to depend on methods it does not use.

Another way of thinking about this is to say: **interfaces belong to clients.**

We'll look at some examples.

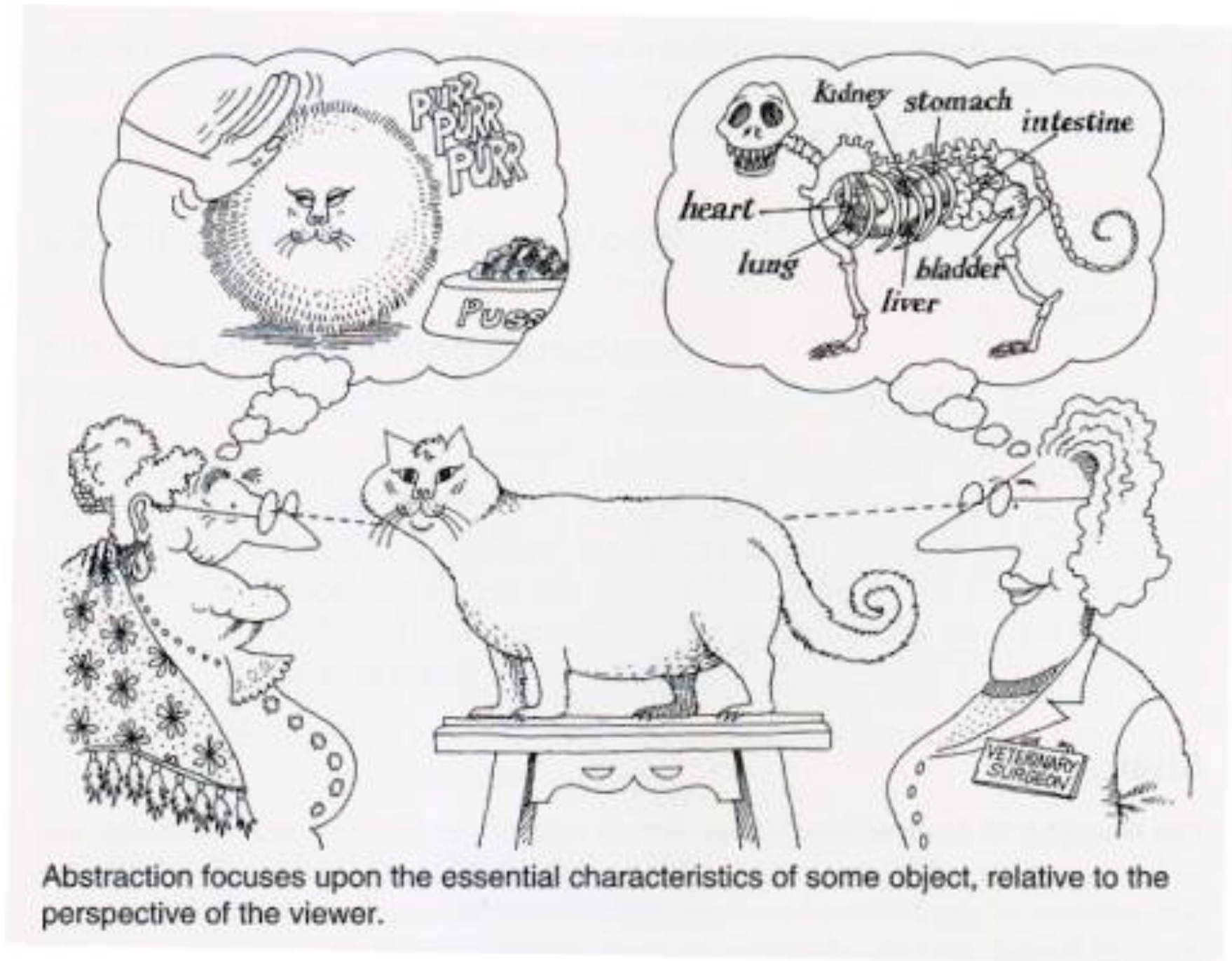


# Interface Segregation Principle

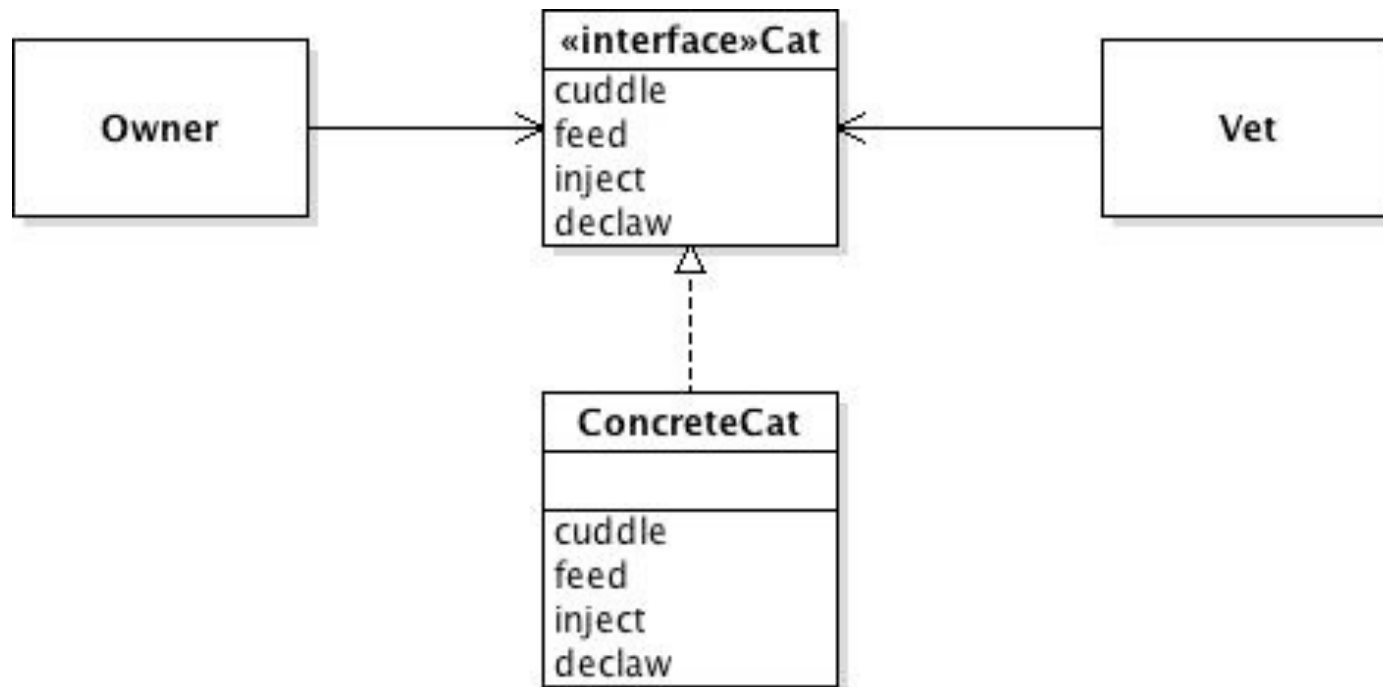
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Tailor your Interfaces to the Client's Specific Requirements

# Interfaces are in the eye of the Client

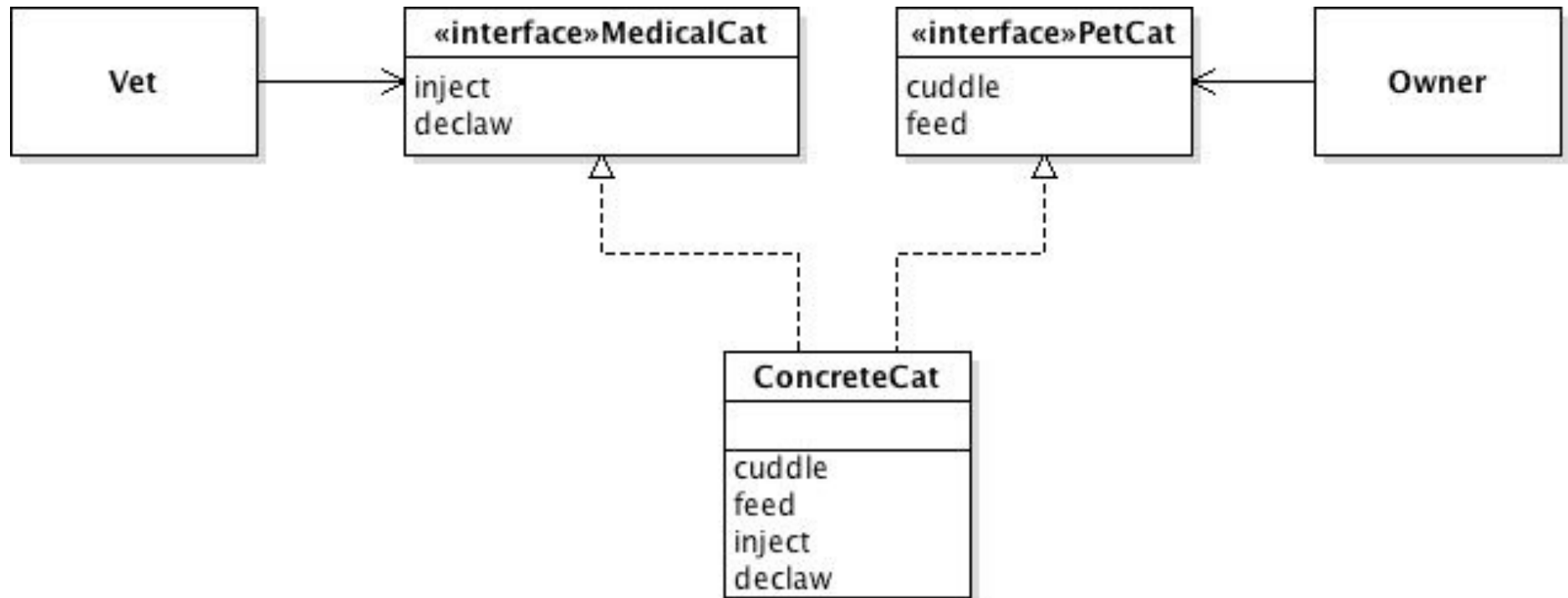


# Cat example without ISP



Owners and Vets can do what they want with the Cat, but each sees an interface that is **too fat**.

# Cat example with ISP



Again, Owners and Vets can do what they want with the Cat, and each sees only the interface they need to use.



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# Dependency Inversion

The Dependency Inversion principle can be simply stated as follows:

*Abstractions should not depend on details.*

How is that **inversion**?

We tend to think of systems in a **top-down** way, where the higher levels depend on the lower ones.

But then changes in the lower levels cause the higher levels to change (“the tail wagging the dog”).

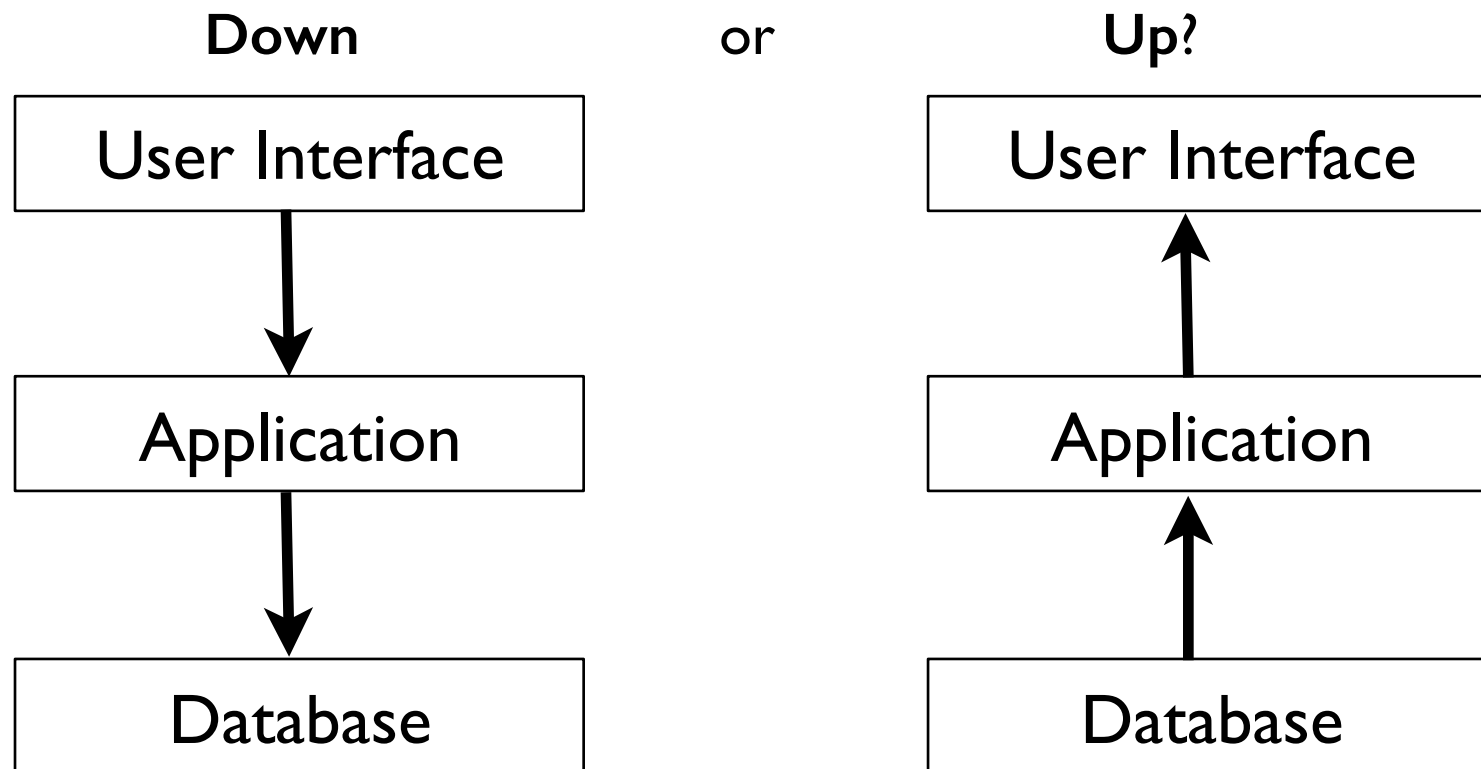
Dependency Inversion means that we invert dependencies to make them **bottom-up**.

# Layered Architecture

We tend to build systems in **layers**, e.g.

- user interface layer
- application layer
- database layer

How do the dependencies go in a layered architecture like this?



# Dependency Inversion Example

We tend to build systems so that the upper layers depend on the lower ones. It seems natural in some way...

However this means that if the lower levels change, the upper layers must change as well. This is highly undesirable.

What is the dependency relationship between an electrical device and the wall socket??



# DEPENDENCY INVERSION PRINCIPLE

Would You Solder A Lamp Directly To The Electrical Wiring In A Wall?

# Top-down dependency...

Say a system has top-down dependencies as follows:

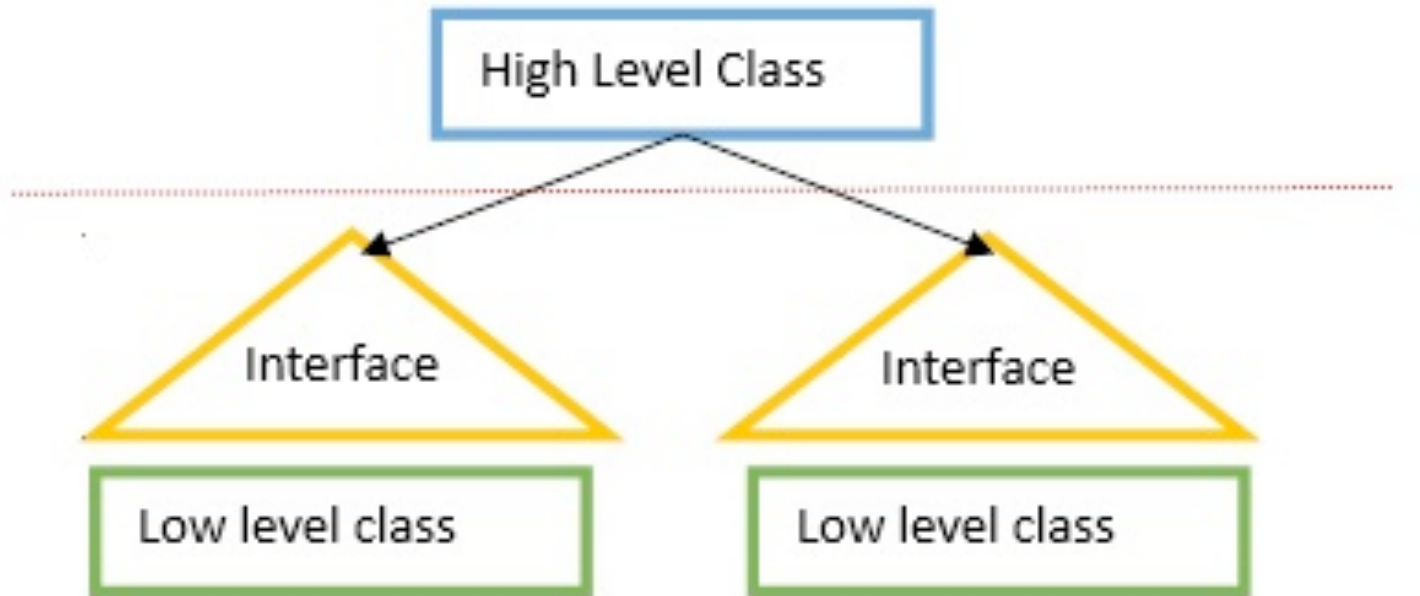


fig: When Dependency was not inverted

How can we invert the dependency? It may seem impossible...

# Inverted to bottom-up dependency

We can flip the dependencies this way:

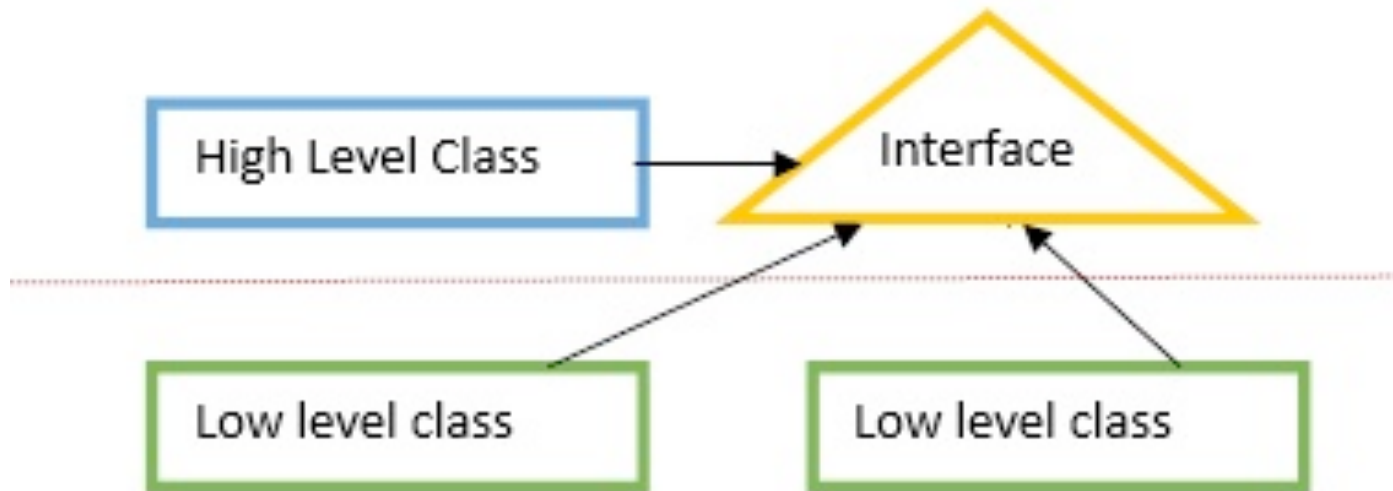


fig: Interface was defined by high level class

Note that at run-time, objects of the high level class will have references to objects of the low level classes (through the Interface), but the code dependencies and all bottom-up.

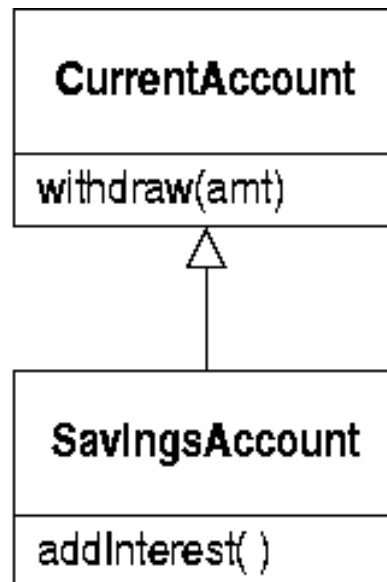
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# No Concrete Superclasses

- It is usually recommended that all superclasses in a system be abstract
  - This guideline is actually an example of Dependency Inversion
- Subclasses are often added to concrete classes as a system evolves:

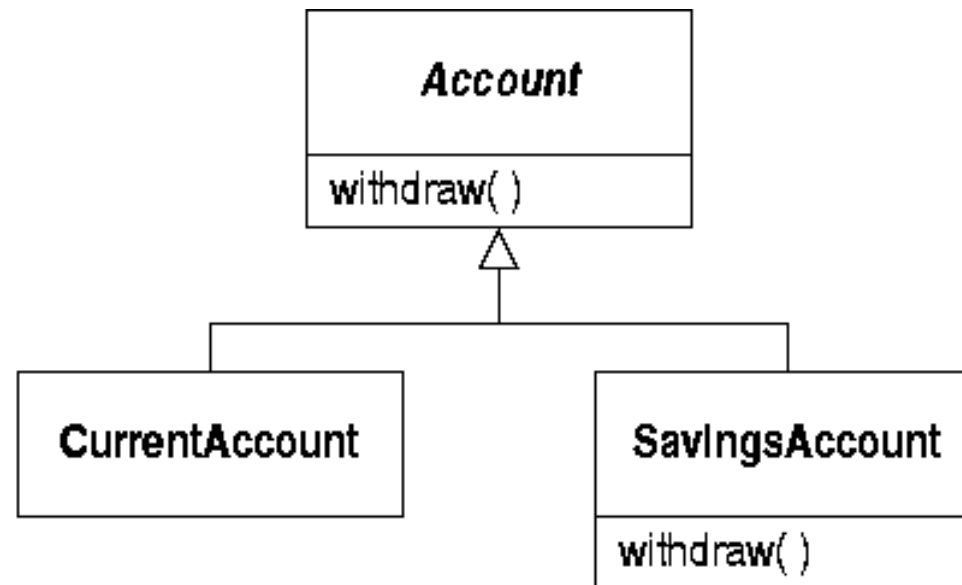


# A Dependency Problem

- The savings account class is now dependent on the current account class
  - changes to the current account -- altering functionality or adding and removing operations -- will affect savings accounts
- This leads to problems
  - the changes may not apply to savings accounts
  - the code may become cluttered with checks for special cases

# Refactoring the Design

- A better approach is to introduce an abstract class
  - even if it initially seems unnecessary



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# The Law of Demeter

What objects should an object *O*, on receipt of a message *m*, be allowed to send messages to?

If we say "any object," we may end up with a very complicated model.

The so-called "Law of Demeter" proposes to limit it to:

- O* itself;

- objects that are passed as arguments to *m*;

- objects that are created in *m*;

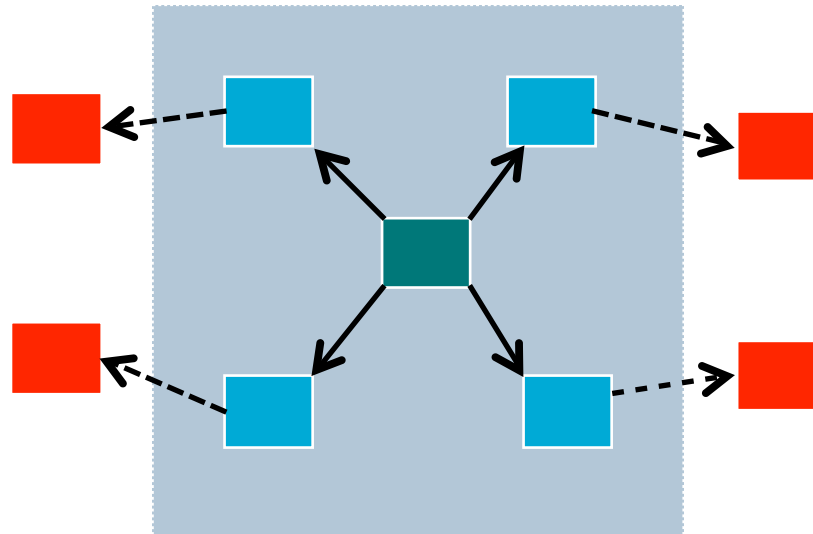
- objects that are attributes of *O*.

So what does the Law of Demeter actually disallow??

# Who shouldn't an object talk to?

Demeter explicitly disallows extracting a subobject from an accessible object and sending a message to this subobject.

This constrains how much an object can know about its environment (a good thing!). It may only talk to objects "next to it."

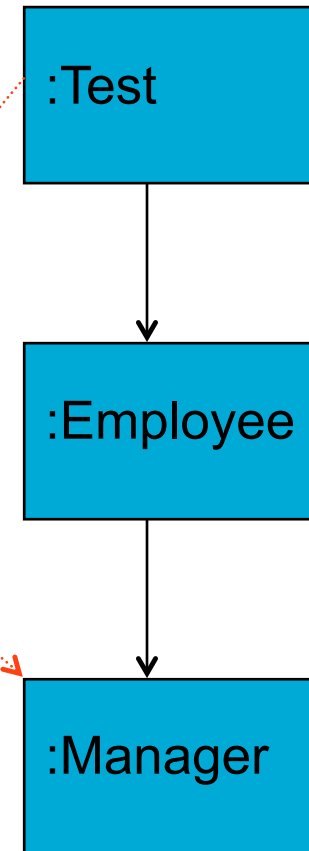


The object in the centre may only traverse the links to its immediate neighbours.

# A Violation of Demeter

A violation of the Law of Demeter in program code might look like this:

```
class Manager {  
    double getSalary();  
}  
  
class Employee{  
    Manager mgr;  
}  
  
class Test{  
    void foo(){  
        ...  
        e.mgr.getSalary();  
    }  
    Employee e;  
}
```



Why is this bad?  
How would you solve it? Note that making mgr private won't help... why not?

# Refactoring to correct

- Refactoring this code to resolve this issue produces:
- So the Test class doesn't even know the Manager class exists. This may seem like a small matter, but it can be a major simplification in a large system.

```
class Manager {  
    double getSalary();  
}  
  
class Employee{  
    float getMgrSalary(){  
        return mgr.getSalary();  
    }  
    Manager mgr;  
}  
  
class Test{  
    void foo(){  
        ...  
        e.getMgrSalary();  
    }  
    Employee e;  
}
```



# Demeter, strong and weak forms

- The **strong form** of the Law of Demeter prohibits access to sub-objects defined in superclasses as well. This amounts to providing the same level of data abstraction to subclasses as is given to class clients.
- Observing Demeter results in the addition of a lot of small methods, but makes classes much less dependent on external object structures and therefore more flexible.

# Demeter Summary

- The Law of Demeter essentially avoids encoding the details of class structure in individual methods.
- This work was extended to **Adaptive Programming**, which attempts to keep the details of class structure abstracted from the rest of the program. It is also closely related to **Aspect-Oriented Programming**.

# Summary

- Object-Oriented Principles are general statements of properties that a good design should have.
- By way of contrast, patterns are examples of concrete good design in a certain context, and design heuristics are “rules of thumb” that help in creating a good design.
- In this section we looked at several well-known object-oriented design principles.