1 Introduction

1.1 Basic definitions

- Feature
 - Command: No return value, but does modify objects. On the synctactical level, it is an instruction
 - Query: Returns a value, but does not modify any objects. The syntax equivalent is the expression.
 - * Functions get their results through computation
 - * Attributes are values directly stored in memory

For queries, there is the uniform access principle, which states that it doesn't matter to the client whether a query is implemented as a function or attribute. Features should be accessible to clients the same way whether implemented by storage or by computation.

- Creation Procedure: Commands to initiate objects, can be several.
 There is also a default_create, which is inherited by all classes, and does nothing by default.
- Feature Calls
 - Unqualified calls: Feature calls which apply to the current object
 - Qualified calls: Feature calls which apply to a certain object, causing this object to become the current object.
- Class clauses
 - Indexing
 - Inheritance
 - Creation
 - Feature
 - Invariant
- Specimen: A syntactic element, such as a class name or an instruction, but no delimiters. The type of a specimen is its construct. See Describing syntax

Add reference

- Abstract syntax tree: Shows the syntax structure with all its specimens, but obviously without any delimiters, A tree has nodes, each one of the following kind:
 - Root: Node with no incoming branch.
 - Leaf: Node without outgoing branches
 - Internal node: Neither of the former
- Basic elements of a program text:
 - Terminals
 - * Identifiers: Names chosen by the programmer

- * Keywords
- * Special symbols, such as a period
- Describing a program
 - Semantic rules: Define the effect of programming, satisfying the syntax rules
 - Syntax rules: Define how to make up specimens out of tokens satisfying the lexical rules
 - Lexical rules: Define how to make up tokens out of characters
- Syntax: The way you write a program; characters grouped into words, grouped into bigger structures.
- Semantics: The effect you expect from this program at runtime
- Identifier: Name chosen by the programmer to represent certain program elements, such as classes, features or runtime values. If it denotes a runtime value, it is called an identity or variable if it can change its value. During execution, an entity may become attached to an object.
- Executing a system consists of creating a root object, which in an instance of a designated class from the system, the root class, using a designated creation procedure, called its root procedure.

1.2 Variables

- Types
 - Reference types: Entities with a reference value
 - Expanded types: Entities with an object as a value
 - A type is one of:
 - * A non-generic class
 - * A generic derivation, i.e. the name of a class followed by a list of types, the actual generic parameters, in brackets
- Setters: It is possible to make assignments such as x.att := val, which is shorthand for $x.set_att(val)$
- Effect of an assignment
 - Reference types: Reference assignment
 - Expanded types: Value copy
- Variable copy
 - Shallow object duplication (creates a new object): b := a.twin
 - Deep object duplication (creates a new object): $b := a.deep_twin$
 - Shallow field-by-field copy (does not create an object): b.copy(a)

Maybe add the objet creation diagram??

1.3 Interface

- A client of a software mechanism is a system of any kind such as a software element or a human that uses it. For its client, the mechanism is a supplier
- Interface: The description of techniques enabling clients to use these mechanisms. For example: GUIs (Graphical User Interface), command line interfaces (shell, bash,...), or APIs
- An object can be an instance of a class, if the class is the generating class of the object

1.4 Information Hiding

- For its clients, an attribute may be:
 - Secret
 - Read-only
 - Read, but partially write restricted (only certain things are allowed to be written)
 - Writing one or more classes in curly brackets after the keyword feature exports these features only to these classes and its descendants.
 If no class is listed, the features are exported to ANY.

Information hiding only applies to use by clients using dot or infix notation. Unqualified calls are not subject to information hiding.

1.5 Control structures

Requires a lot of work

- Sequence or compound
- Loop
 - Loop invariant
 - * Satisfied after initialization, after the from clause
 - * Preserved by every loop iteration executed with the exit condition not satisfied. So in the end, the loop invariant <u>and</u> the exit condition hold!
 - Loop variant
 - * Non-negative (i.e. $\geq 0)$ integer expression, right after initialization
 - * Decreases while remaining non-negative for every iteration of the body with exit condition not satisfied.
- Conditional

1.6 Contracts

- Contracts are made of assertions, each containing an assertion tag and a condition (a Boolean expression)
- Precondition
 - Property that a feature imposes on every client
 - If there is no require clause, is treated as one, with one only being true.
- Postcondition
 - Property that a feature guarantees every client
 - Can make use of keyword *old*
- Class invariant
 - The invariant expresses consistency requirements between queries of a class

Check for an explanation of this keyword

1.7 Miscellaneous

- Semistrict operators
 - Let us define the order of expression evaluation
 - and then is the semistrict version of and. Use it if a condition only
 makes sense when another is true.
 - or else is the semistrict version of or. Use it if a condition only makes sense when another is false
 - **implies** is always semstrict!

2 Describing syntax

2.1 BNF

Backus-Naur-Form (BNF): A metasyntax used to express context-free grammars. A formal way to describe formal languages. It consists of the following parts

- **Delimiters**: Fixed tokens of the languages vocabulary, such as keywords and special symbols
- Constructs: They represent structures of the language, for instance *Conditional*. A particular instance of a construct os known as a specimen of the construct. There are two kinds of constructs:
 - Nonterminal construct: They are defined by a production
 - Terminal construct: Terminal constructs such as *Identifier* or *Integer* are not defined by this grammar, they are described at the lexical level

• **Productions**: They are associated with a particular construct and specify their specimens

Each production defines the syntax of specimens of a particular construct, in terms of other constructs and delimiters. An example for a production (not BNF-E)

$$A = B|C[D]\{E"; "\}^*$$

Depending on the right side of a production, they can be separated into three kinds:

- Concatenation: This production lists zero or more constructs, some may enclosed in brackets and said to be optional
- Choice: Listing one or more constructs, separated by vertical bars. A choice specifies that every specimen of the construct on the left consists of exactly one specimen of one of the constructs on the right
- Repetition: A construct, enclosed in curly brackets, followed by a star. This indicates zero or more occurrences of the construct, Example: $A = \{B\}^*$. The star might be replaced by a plus, indicating one or more repetition

2.2 BNF-E

- Every non-terminal must appear on the left side of exactly one production, called its defining production.
- Every production must be of one kind: either concatenation, choice or repetition
- There is also a major change in the repetition production. Instead of

$$A = [B\{\text{terminal } B\}^*]$$

one may write

$$A = \{B \text{ terminal } \dots\}^*$$

The same is also true for the plus instead of a star.

2.3 Regular Grammar

The regular grammar is generally used to describe the terminal construct, which could be done using BNF, but can be achieved more easily using a regular grammar. The rules are quite similar, although different:

- The use of **choice** is no problem, possibly with character intervals
- There are also **concatenations**, although they do not assume breaks (spaces, new lines, ...) between elements. But you may define them explicitly using a lexical construct.
- Repetitions have a different, simpler form; A^* or A^+ , following the same rules

- No **recursion** is allowed whatsoever. As a result you may write any language in a single regular expression
- Unlike BNF-E, you may mix different kinds of productions

3 Inheritance and Genericity

3.1 Inheritance

• Terminology

Check for a better explanation?

- A class is a parent to another, if the other inherits directly from it,
 i.e. class A is a parent to class B, if class B inherits from class A
- The descendants of a class are the class itself and (recursively) the descendants of its heirs (parents). Proper descendant excludes the class itself.

• Features of classes

- They can be inherited if it is a feature of one of the parents of the class. They can also be immediate if it is declared in the class. In this case, the class is said to introduce the feature
- Fully implemented features are called effective, otherwise one may call them deferred

• Contracts

- The invariant of a class automatically includes the invariant clause from all its parents, and-ed
- If no pre-/post condition is explicitly stated, features inherit the contracts from their parents
- One can weaken the precondition with the keyword require else, resulting in a precondition orig_pre and new_pre
- One can strengthen the postcondition with the keyword ensure then,
 resulting in a postcondition orig_post and new_post

3.1.1 Multiple Inheritance

- Name clash: If C inherits both from A and B, which both have a feature f, then we have a name clash. To resolve it, we can redefine one feature as A_f. A name clash must be resolved, unless it is:
 - Under repeated inheritance (the feature of f in A and B comes from a common ancestor, for instance ANY)
 - If at most one of the features f is effective, and all others are deferred. In that case (only one feature is effective), the features are said to be merged. Merging also works when one or more features are renamed. The merging happens after renaming!

— If more than one feature are effective, merging can still help. We can undefine effective features, so that they are deferred again. Syntax: undefine a,b,c end. It is even possible to fist rename a feature, undefine it and then merge it.

• Repeated Inheritance

- Features, not renamed along any of the inheritance paths, will be shared
- Features, inherited under different names will be replicated
- A potential ambiguity arises because of polymorphism and dynamic binding when class C inherits from B and A, but A redefines now copy (a feature of the common ancestor ANY). In this case, a simple rename will not be enough, we have to select (select copy, f end) the features from one parent, and rename the ones from the other.

3.2 Genericity

- Terminology:
 - A formal generic paameter is the parameter in the class, e.g.
 LIST[G] with G as formal generic parameter.
 - An actual generic parameter is the actual type passed as parameter in a type, e.g. LIST[INTEGER] with INTEGER being the actual generic parameter.
 - One can obtain a generic derivation of a generic class by passing a type

• Types

- Unconstrained genericity: Any generic type is allowed. Example: LIST[G], which is the same as LIST[G->ANY]
- Constrained genericity: Only descendants are allowed as generic type. Example: LIST[G->NUMERIC]

3.3 Static Typing

- Type-safe call (during execution). A feature call x.f such that the object attached to x has a feature corresponding to f
- Static type checker is a program-processing tool (such as a compiler) that guarantees for any program that it accepts, that any call in any execution will be type-safe
- A programming language is called **statically typed language** if it is possible to write a static type checker

3.4 Polymorphism

- Polymorphism is the existence of the following possibilities:
 - An attachment (assignment or argument passing) is polymorphic if its target variable and source expression have different types.
 - An entity or expression is polymorphic if it may at runtime, as a result of polymorphic attachments, become attached to objects of different types.
 - A container data structure is polymorphic if it may contain references to objects of different types.
- The **static type** of an entity is the type used in its declaration in the class text. Similarly, the **dynamic type** of an entity is the type of the object, it is attached to. The type system ensures that the dynamic type of an entity will always conform to its static type.

• Conformance

- A reference type U conforms to a reference type T if either:
 - * They have no generic parameters, and \mathtt{U} is a descendant of \mathtt{T}
 - * They both are generic derivations with the same number of actual generic parameters, the base class of $\tt U$ is a descendant of the base class of $\tt T$, and every actual parameter of $\tt U$ (recursively) conforms to the corresponding actual parameter of $\tt T$
- An expanded type only conforms to itself
- Object test. Test the dynamic type of an object, e.g. if {r:TYPE} obj then ... end
 - {r:TYPE} is the object-test local, and only available in the then-part, not in the else-clause.
 - obj is the object to be tested
- Assignment attempt. Earlier mechanism for the object test. a?=b assigns b to a if and only if b is attached to an object whose type conforms to the type of a. Otherwise, a will be void

3.5 Dynamic Binding

• **Dynamic bonding** as a semantic rule is the property that any execution of a feature call will use the vesion of the feature best adapted to the type of the target object.

4 Recursion

- **Definition**: A definition is recursive if it involves one or more instances of the concept itself. Recursion is the use of a recursive definition.
- Recursion can be either direct (routine r calls r) or indirect (routine r_1 calls r_2 .. calls r_n calls r_1)

- To be useful, a recursive definition should ensure that:
 - R1: There is at least one non-recursive branch
 - R2: Every recursive branch occurs in a context that differs from the original
 - R3: For every recursive branch, the change of context R2 brings it closer to at least one of the non-recursive cases R1
- Recursive calls cause (without further optimization) a run-time penalty: the stack of preserved calls needs to be maintained. Various optimizations are possible:
 - Recursive schemes can sometimes be replaced by a loop (recursive elimination)
 - Tail recursion (last instruction of a routine is a recursive call) can usually be eliminated
- Recursive variant: Every recursive routine should use a recursion variant, an integer quantity associated with any call, such that
 - The variant is always ≥ 0
 - If a routine execution starts with variant value v, the value v' for any call satisfies $0 \le v' \le v$

5 Data Structures

5.1 Trees

5.1.1 Binary Trees

- A binary tree G, for an arbitrary data type G, is a finite set of items called nodes, each containing a value of type G, such that the nodes, if any, are divided into three disjoint parts:
 - A single node, called the root of the binary tree
 - (Recursively) two binary trees over G, called the left and right subtree
- **Theorem:** For any node of a binary tree, there is a single downward path connecting the root to the node through successive applications of left and right links.

• Traversals

- In-order: traverse left sub-tree, visit root, traverse right sub-tree
- Pre-order: visit root, traverse left sub-tree, traverse right sub-tree
- Post-order: traverse left sub-tree, traverse right sub-tree, visit root
- Binary search tree: This is a tree over a sorted set G if for every node n:
 - For every node x of the left sub-tree of n: x.item ≤ n.item

- For every node x of the right sub-tree of n: $x.item \ge n.item$
- In a binary search tree, average behavior for insertion, deletion and search is $O(\log(n))$, only worst case is O(n)

Add binary search tree image

5.2 Container data structures

Containers contain other objects, and store them in numerous ways. They
differ in various properties, like the available operations, the speed of these
operations and storage requirements. Some fundamental operations on a
container:

Insertion	Add an item
Removal	Remove an occurrence (if any) of an item
Wipeout	Remove remove all occurrences of an item
Search	Find out if a given item is present
Iteration (or trasversal)	Apply a given operation to every item

- The EiffelBase classes use standard names for basic operations:
 - Queries:

```
* is_empty: BOOLEAN
* has(v:G): BOOLEAN
* count: INTEGER
```

* item: G

- Commands

- * make
- * put(v:G)
- * remove(v:G)
- * wipe_out
- * start, finish
- * forth, back
- The **cursor** is present in many containers. It ranges from 0 to count + 1, and before and after hold if the cursor is not on an item. In an empty list, the cursor is at position 0
- Alias notation. A feature may be declared as follows: item(i: INTEGER)alias "[]": G assign put. It is then possible to do a[i] for a.item(i) and a.item(i):= x or a[i] := x for a.put(x,i)

5.2.1 Lists

- A list is a sequence of elements of a certain type. List is a general concept
 and has various implementations, including LINKED_LIST, TWO_WAY_LIST,
 ARRAYED_LIST, etc.
- Lists have a **cursor**. The current cursor position can be obtained by the query index. The element at this position is generally obtained by item and there are many other queries about the cursor position: after, before, off, is_first, is_last
- There are also various commands for **cursor movement**: start, finish, forth, back, go_i_th
- Adding and removing elements is done using: put_front, put_left, put_right, extend, remove (item at cursor position)

5.2.2 Arrays

• Even though arrays are of fixed size with a capacity of upper-lower+1, they can be resized. Instead of put you may use force, which has no precondition and resizes the array when needed.

5.2.3 Hash Tables

- Both arrays and hash tables are indexed based structures: Item manipulation requires an index, or, in case of hash tables, a key.
- Unlike arrays, table allow keys other than integers: HASH_TABLE[ITEM_TYPE, KEY_TYPE->HASHABLE]
- Hash tables depend on hash functions, which map K, the set of possible keys, into an integer interval $a \dots b$. A perfect hash function gives a different integer value for every element of K. Whenever two different keys give the same hash value, a collision occurs.
- In reality hash functions are never perfect, so we need to deal with collisions. The following approaches deal with the problem:
 - Open hashing: The data structure for this strategy is ARRAY[LINKED_LIST[G]]. In each entry of the array, for a certain index l, you find the list of objects whose keys hash to i. The costs of search are O(1) to find the correct array index by hashing the key and O(c) to find the item in the linked list. c is therefore a collision factor. With constant capacity of our array, the costs will become O(count/capacity), so this approach is somehow limited
 - Closed hashing (used by HASH_TABLE): Here we have a single ARRAY[G] where at any time some of its positions are occupied and some free. If for an insertion the hash function yields an already occupied position, the mechanism will try a succession of other positions until it finds a free one.
 - A common technique, of the hash function yields a first candidate position i=f(key)mod capacity, is to try successive positions i+k*increment,

where increment is f(key) mod (capacity+1).

These are remarkably good results, since search with a good hash function becomes essentially O(1)

5.2.4 Tuples

- tup: TUPLE[number: INTEGER, street: STRING, resident: PERSON]
- tup := [99, "Weg", god_himself]
- One may think of tuples as of classes with only attributes. They therefore
 are also more interesting as a language mechanism to describe simple
 structures in a clear and simple way, rather than they are in the sense of
 a data structure.
- Tags (like number in the above example) are optional, they do not affect the type of a Tuple.
- A Tuple with no arguments can hold any tuple, one with only one argument may hold any tuples with at least one element with the first of same type, etc.
- Conformance: You may assign an expression of type TUPLE[A,B,C] to a variable of same type, or one of the following: TUPLE[A,B] or TUPLE[A] or TUPLE

5.2.5 Dispensers

- These structures use no key or other identifying information for items, you insert an item just by itself. You also cannot choose what element you get by the query item, Note: item follows the command/query separation and therefore does not remove the item returned (you would need to make your own function, day get). The policy used to determine which item to return, may be one of the following:
 - LIFO (Last In, First Out): Choose the element inserted most recently. Such dispenser is called stack, and the stack operations are known as:
 - * push: Pushes an item to the top of the stack (command put)
 - * **pop**: Pops the top item (command **remove**). The body of a stack os what remains after popping
 - FIFO (First In, First Out): Choose the oldest element not yet removed. Such dispenser is called queue.
 - * Queues do also have many applications, such as simulations (represent pending events) and GUI (handling user inputs)
 - * As with stacks you may use arrayed or linked implementations. The linked one is straightforward, where the arrayed needs some special treatment. Because we always add new items at the end of the array and remove old ones from the beginning, at some point we will reach the end. Therefore, ARRAYED_QUEUE is conceptually a ring.
 - With a **priority queue**, items have an associated priority.

6 Agents

- Applications include:
 - Iteration
 - Undoing (redo-undo)
 - Event-driven programming
- The type of an agent is one of the following:
 - PROCEDURE [BASE_TYPE, OPEN_ARGS -> TUPLE]
 - FUNCTION [BASE_TYPE, OPEN_ARGS -> TUPLE, RESULT_TYPE]
 - PREDICATE [BASE_TYPE, OPEN_ARGS -> TUPLE]

Note: All these types inherit from the deferred class ROUTINE, and PREDICATE is furthermore a descendant of FUNCTION

- The important features of agents include call([open_args]), and last_result
- Open/closed arguments: In an agent expression you may use an argument list, may replace any f the arguments by a question mark. These are known as open arguments to the agent, and the others, the ones given by normal values, as closed. The agent then represents a function of the open arguments only. If you omit the argument list, all arguments of the underlying function are considered open.
- Open target: It is also possible to keep the target of an agent open, but then you need to specify its type. The target is then passed as first item in the argument tuple to the agent.
- Here are some examples of agents:

- Some example types:
 - PROCEDURE [ANY, TUPLE] (no open arguments)
 - PROCEDURE [ANY, TUPLE [X,Y,Z]] (3 open args, with types X, Y, Z)
 - FUNCTION[ANY, TUPLE[X,Y], RES] (2 open args, result of type RES)

7 Event Driven Programming

7.1 Terminology

• An **event** is a run-time operation, executed by a software element to make some information (including that it occurred) available for potential use by the software elements not specified by the operation. The information associated with an event (other than it actually occurred) constitutes the event's **arguments**

- To trigger (or publish) an event is to execute it
 - A software element that may trigger events is a **publisher**
 - A software element that may use the event's information is a subscriber
- Any event belongs to an **event type**, and therefore shares the same argument list **signature**
- Note: Event type/event may suggest corresponding to a type of OO programming, but in our model, an event is not an object! There is the EVENT_TYPE in Eiffel, which denotes the **general idea** event types, and a particular event type is then an instance of this class.

7.2 The event-driven scheme

- Some elements, publishers, make known to the rest of the system what event types they may trigger
- Some elements, subscribers, are interested in handling events of certain event types. They register the corresponding actions.
- At any time, a publisher can trigger an event. This will cause execution of actions registered by subscribers for the event's type. These actions can use the event's arguments.
- In event-driven design, a **context** is a Boolean expression specified by a subscriber at registration time, but evaluated at triggering time, such that the registered action will only be executed if the evaluation yields true.

7.3 Publish-Subscribe program

In devising a software architecture supporting the publish-subscribe paradigm, we should consider the following requirements:

- Publishers must not need to know who the subscribers are
- Any event triggered by one publisher may be consumed by several subscribers
- The subscribers should not need to know about the publishers. This goal cannot be provided by the observer pattern
- The subscribers can register and deregister while the application is running
- It should be possible to make events dependent or not on a context
- It should be possible to connect publishers and subscribers with minimal work

7.3.1 Observer Pattern

• Note that this pattern is limited, and therefore should not be used. Regardless the existence of superior methods, the observer pattern is still used very frequently.

Add observer pattern architecture picture

• **Publisher**: Describes the properties of a typical publisher in charge of an event type. It can trigger events through publish, and subscribers can subscribe and unsubscribe

Not sure if it a command

- Subscriber: on the other hand do also have subscribe and unsubscribe to (un-) subscribe to a particular publisher. The feature calls (un-)subscribe of the desired publisher, passing itself as argument. Furthermore there is the deferred feature handle which expects a LIST as argument. This is not ideal, since there is no type safety with the LIST as argument, but since the very general classes PUBLISHER and SUBSCRIBER need to know about the arguments, there is not really a better way. We could only specify the two classes further (e.g. one for each argument list), but therefore loosing generality. (Using genericity with tuples would work, but who does have them other than Eiffel? And Eiffel can do better..)
- Drawbacks of the observer pattern:
 - The argument business, see above
 - Subscribers subscribe directly to publishers rather than event types
 - A subscriber may register with only one publisher, with that publisher, it can register only one action
 - It is not possible to directly reuse an existing routine. The classes need to inherit from PUBLISHER/SUBSCRIBER resulting in too much glue code
 - The last problem gets even worse without multiple inheritance.

7.3.2 Event Type Library (A Much Better Approach)

- There us only a single class EVENT_TYPE[ARGS -> TUPLE] with a generic parameter, ensuring type safety.
- One can create event types, for instance:

• This declaration can take place in "facilities" class to which all others who need have access to (no context required). But it is also possible to put it in an ordinary class like BUTTON, then having something like your_button.left_click.subscribe(agent p) (context required)

- To trigger an event, one may write: left_click.publish([your_x, your_y])
- To subscribe to an event, one may write: left_click.subscribe(agent p), requiring that p represents a function with proper signature.