

# CS 326

# Programming Languages, Concepts and Implementation

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Data Abstraction, Object Orientation

# Language Specification

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- General issues in the design and implementation of a language:
  - Syntax and semantics
  - Naming, scopes and bindings
  - Control flow
  - Data types
  - Subroutines
- Specific issues
  - Non-imperative models: functional and logic languages
  - Data abstraction and object orientation

# Data Abstraction

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- **Abstraction** – associate a name with a potentially complex program fragment
  - consider the fragment in terms of its purpose, not implementation
- **Control abstraction** – purpose corresponds to an operation
  - very old idea (subroutines)
- **Data abstraction** – purpose is to represent information
  - data structures (another old idea)
  - modules, classes (also include operations)
- **Abstract data type**
  - combine both information and operations
  - define data in terms of operations that it supports, rather than of its structure or implementation

# Why abstractions?

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- **Reduced conceptual load**
  - minimize the amount of detail the programmer needs to think about
  - hide what doesn't matter
- **Fault containment**
  - prevent using a program component in inappropriate ways
  - restrict the use of a component to a limited part of program
  - easier to find and fix bugs
- **Independence** among program components
  - division of labor in software projects – assign separate components to different programmers
  - modification of internal implementation of components
    - without changing (recompilation, rewriting) external code that uses them
    - libraries - code reuse

# Modules

## Module-as-manager for a stack (Modula-2):

```
CONST stack_size = ...
TYPE element = ...
...
MODULE stack_manager;
IMPORT element, stack_size;
EXPORT stack, init_stack, push, pop;
TYPE
    stack_index = [1..stack_size];
    STACK = RECORD
        s : ARRAY stack_index OF element;
        top : stack_index;      (* first unused slot *)
    END;

PROCEDURE init_stack (VAR stk : stack);
BEGIN
    stk.top := 1;
END init_stack;

PROCEDURE push (VAR stk : stack; elem : element);
BEGIN
    IF stk.top = stack_size THEN
        error;
    ELSE
        stk.s[stk.top] := elem;
        stk.top := stk.top + 1;
    END;
END push;
```

```
PROCEDURE pop (VAR stk : stack) : element;
BEGIN
    IF stk.top = 1 THEN
        error;
    ELSE
        stk.top := stk.top - 1;
        return stk.s[stk.top];
    END;
END pop;

END stack;
```

```
var A, B : stack;
var x, y : element;
...
init_stack (A);
init_stack (B);
...
push (A, x);
...
y := pop (B);
```

- Export the type **stack**
- Allow for declaring several stacks
- Must pass the stack as argument to each subroutine

# Modules

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## Module-as-type for a stack (Euclid):

```
const stack_size := ...
type element : ...
...
type stack = module
  imports (element, stack_size)
  exports (push, pop)
type
  stack_index = 1..stack_size
var
  s : array stack_index of element
  top : stack_index

procedure push (elem : element) = ...
function pop returns element = ...
...
initially
  top := 1
end stack
```

- Subroutines "belong" to the stack
- Do not need to pass the stack as argument explicitly
  - however, the implementation is similar (pass a hidden argument)
  - more intuitive for programmer

```
var A, B : stack
var x, y : element
...
A.push (x)
...
y := B.pop
```

# Object-Oriented Programming

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- Which property (reduced conceptual load, fault containment, independence) is difficult to achieve with modules?
  - independence (in the context of code reuse)
  - if additional (or different) features are needed – copy entire module code, then change it
  - has been the motivation for introducing classes (with inheritance)

# Object-Oriented Programming

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- Key factors in object-oriented programming:
- **Encapsulation**
  - data hiding
  - was also provided by modules
- **Inheritance**
  - enable a new abstraction (a derived class) to be defined as an extension of an existing one
  - retain key characteristics from base class
- **Dynamic method binding**
  - enable use of new abstraction (derived class) to exhibit new behavior
  - important when used in a context where old abstraction is expected



# Visibility

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- Classes - same visibility rules as modules
  - additional issue raised by inheritance:
  - How much control should the base class exercise over visibility in derived classes?
- C++:
  - Visibility controlled by labels (public, private, protected) applied to:
    - members
    - inheritance process

# Visibility

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- C++:
- Members can be:
  - `public` – accessible to anybody
  - `private` – accessible only to methods of this class
  - `protected` – accessible to methods of this class and derived classes
- How can the derived class modify the visibility of the members of base class?
  - can restrict visibility, but never increase it
- The inheritance from a base class can be:
  - `public` – preserves the visibility of members from base class
  - `private` – all members from base class become private in derived class
  - `protected` – private remains private, protected remains protected, public becomes protected

# Visibility

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- C++:
- How can we allow access to private members for some select group of classes (not derived) or subroutines?
  - declare them (in this class) as **friend**
  - friendship is not mutual

```
class A
{
    friend class B;    // Declare a friend class
private:
    int topSecret;
};
```

```
class B
{
    public:
        void change (A x);
};

void B::change (A x)
{
    x.topSecret++ ;    // Can access private data
}
```

# Visibility

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- Eiffel:
  - more flexible than C++
  - a derived class can either restrict or increase visibility of the members of base class
  - for each member - can specify its export status:
    - NONE - private
    - ANY - generally available
    - specify a list of classes - selectively available to those
- Java:
  - same labels (public, private, protected) for members
  - no labels for inheritance
  - a derived class can neither restrict nor increase visibility of the members of base class
  - still, how can we restrict access?
    - redefine a method to do nothing (or to produce a run-time error if used)

# Visibility

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- Smalltalk:
  - no issue of visibility
  - method invocation  $\Leftrightarrow$  send a **message** to an object
    - if the object has that method – invoke it
    - otherwise – run-time error
  - no way to make a method available only to some parts of a program, but not to others

# Initialization and Finalization

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- Lifetime of an object – interval during which it occupies space and can hold data
- Special methods
  - constructor
  - destructor
- What exactly does a constructor do?
  - it does not allocate space for the object
  - it gives the programmer a chance to initialize space that has been already allocated

# Constructors

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- C++

- requires an appropriate constructor to be called for every elaborated object

```
foo b;                // calls foo::foo ()  
foo b (10, 'x');      // calls foo::foo (int, char)
```

- another example:

```
foo a;  
bar b;  
...  
foo c (a);            // calls foo::foo (foo&)  
foo d (b);            // calls foo::foo (bar&)  
  
// foo::foo (foo&) is called a copy constructor
```

- when is a copy constructor also called?
  - pass an object by value: `my_func (c);`
  - return an object by value: `return c;`

# Constructors

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- C++

- Same example:

```
foo a;  
bar b;  
...  
foo c (a);           // calls foo::foo (foo&)  
foo d (b);           // calls foo::foo (bar&)
```

- Is the following code equivalent to the previous one?

```
foo a;  
bar b;  
...  
foo c = a;           // calls foo::foo (foo&)  
foo d = b;           // calls foo::foo (bar&)
```

- Yes, the copy constructor is called at initialization



# Constructors

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- C++

- Same example:

```
foo a;  
bar b;  
...  
foo c (a);           // calls foo::foo (foo&)  
foo d (b);           // calls foo::foo (bar&)
```

- Is the following code equivalent to the previous one?

```
foo a, c, d;  
bar b;  
...  
c = a;               // calls foo::operator= (foo&)  
d = b;               // calls foo::operator= (bar&)
```

- No, the assignment operator is called

# Execution Order

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- C++
  - order of calling constructors:
    - constructor of base class
    - constructors of member objects
    - constructor of derived (this) class
  - at declaration, specify arguments only for the constructor of derived class
  - how are arguments specified for the constructor of base class?

```
class bar { ... };
```

```
class foo : public bar { ... };
```

```
foo::foo (<foo_params>) : bar (<bar_args>)
```

```
{
```

```
    ...
```

```
}
```

```
// <bar_args> can be arbitrary expressions involving <foo_params>
```

# Execution Order

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- C++

- how are arguments specified for constructors of member objects?

```
class bar { ... };  
class foo : public bar  
{  
    M1 member1;      // M1 and  
    M2 member2;      // M2 are classes  
    ...  
};
```

```
foo::foo (foo_params) : bar (bar_args), member1 (mem1_args),  
    member2 (mem2_args)  
{  
    ...  
}
```

- All "constructor calls" specified in header are executed before the constructor of **foo**

# Execution Order

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- C++

```
foo::foo (a, b, c, d) : bar (a), member1 (b),  
    member2 (c)  
{  
    ...  
}
```

- Can also initialize them in the constructor of `foo`:

```
foo::foo (a, b, c, d)  
{  
    bar::x = a;  
    member1 = b;  
    member2 = c;  
    ...  
}
```

- What is the difference?
  - in the second approach, the order is:
    - call to default (no-argument) constructor for `bar`
    - call to default (no-argument) constructors for `M1` and `M2`
    - call to `foo` constructor
    - assignments

# Dynamic Method Binding

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- Consequence of inheritance
  - derived class **D** has all members of its base class **B**
  - can use an object of class **D** everywhere an object of class **B** is expected
    - a form of polymorphism
- Example (C++):

```
class person { ... };
```

```
class student : public person { ... };
```

```
class professor : public person { ... };
```

```
student s;
```

```
professor p;
```

```
...
```

```
person * x = &s;
```

```
// Both student and professor objects have all properties of
```

```
person * y = &p;
```

```
// a person object
```

```
// Both can be used in a person context
```

# Dynamic Method Binding

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- Example (C++):

```
class person { ... };  
class student : public person { ... };  
class professor : public person { ... };
```

```
void person::print_mailing_label () { ... }
```

```
student s;  
professor p;
```

```
...
```

```
person * x = &s;  
person * y = &p;
```

```
s.print_mailing_label ();           // person::print_mailing_label ()  
p.print_mailing_label ();           // person::print_mailing_label ()
```

# Dynamic Method Binding

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- Example (C++):
  - Suppose that we redefine `print_mailing_label` in both derived classes

```
void student::print_mailing_label () { ... }  
void professor::print_mailing_label () { ... }
```

```
student s;
```

```
professor p;
```

```
...
```

```
person * x = &s;
```

```
person * y = &p;
```

```
s.print_mailing_label ();           // student ::print_mailing_label ()
```

```
p.print_mailing_label ();           // professor ::print_mailing_label ()
```

- But what about:

```
x->print_mailing_label ();           // ??
```

```
y->print_mailing_label ();           // ??
```

# Dynamic Method Binding

---

- Example (C++):

```
student s;  
professor p;
```

```
...
```

```
person * x = &s;
```

```
person * y = &p;
```

- Two alternatives for choosing the method to call:

```
x->print_mailing_label ();    // ??
```

```
y->print_mailing_label ();    // ??
```

- according to the types of variables (references) **x** and **y** – **static method binding** (will call the method of **person** in both cases)
    - according to the types of objects **s** and **p** to which **x** and **y** refer – **dynamic method binding** (will call the methods of **student** / **professor**)
  - Example – list of **persons** that have overdue library books
    - list may contain both **students** and **professors**
    - traverse the list and print a mailing label - call the appropriate subroutine



# Dynamic Method Binding

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- Disadvantage of dynamic method binding
  - run-time overhead
- Smalltalk, Modula-3
  - dynamic method binding
- Java, Eiffel
  - dynamic method binding by default
  - individual methods can be labeled **final** (Java) or **frozen** (Eiffel)
    - cannot be overridden by derived classes
    - use static method binding
- Simula, C++, Ada 95
  - static method binding by default
  - how do we specify dynamic binding in C++?
    - label individual methods as **virtual**

# Virtual and Non-Virtual Methods

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- Terminology in C++:
  - **redefine** a method that uses static binding
  - **override** a method that uses dynamic binding

- C++

```
class person
{
    public:
    virtual void print_mailing_label ();
    ...
}
```

- if `print_mailing_label` is overridden in classes `student` and `professor`
    - at run time, the appropriate one is chosen – dynamic binding

# Abstract Classes

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- C++

```
class person
{
    ...
    public:
        virtual void print_mailing_label () = 0;
    ...
};
```

- **Abstract method** – virtual method with no body
  - also called **pure virtual method** in C++
- **Abstract class** – it has at least one abstract method
  - cannot declare objects of an abstract class, just pointers
- Purpose of an abstract class:
  - serve as base to derive **concrete classes**
  - a **concrete class** must provide a definition for every abstract method it inherits
- **Interface** (Java) – class with no other members than abstract methods

# Member Lookup

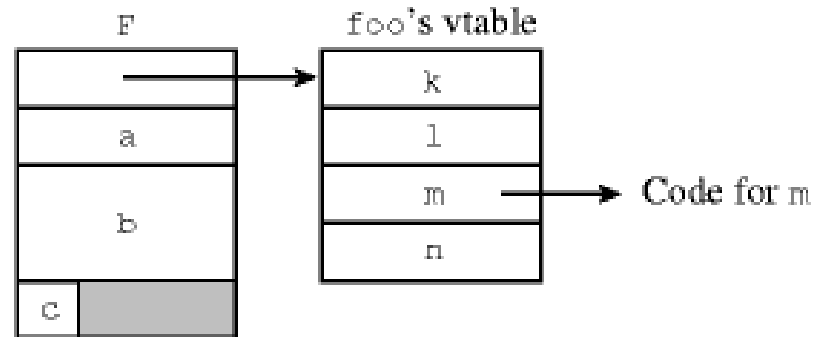
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- Static method binding:
  - easy to find the method to call, based on the type of the variable
  - performed at compile time
- Dynamic method binding
  - appropriate method is identified at run-time
  - objects must contain information to allow for finding the appropriate method
  - each object contains a pointer to a **virtual method table** (**vtable**)
  - all objects of a given class have the same **vtable**

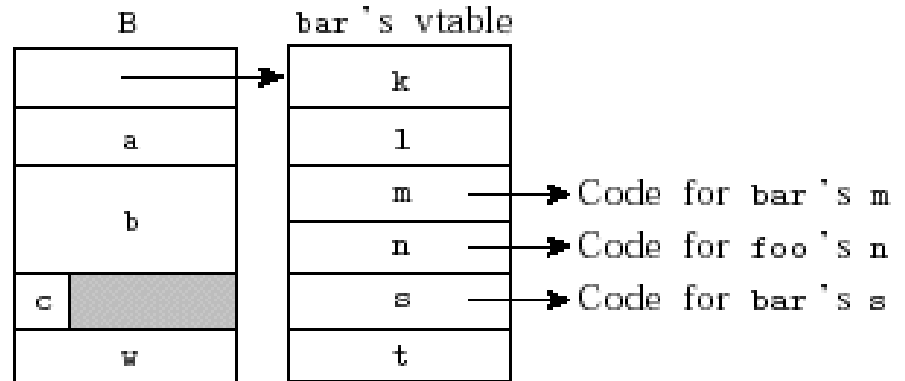
# Member Lookup

- Implementation of a **vtable**:

```
class foo {  
    int a;  
    double b;  
    char c;  
public:  
    virtual void k ( ...  
    virtual int l ( ...  
    virtual void m ();  
    virtual double n( ...  
    ...  
} F;
```



```
class bar : public foo {  
    int w;  
public:  
    void m (); //override  
    virtual double s ( ...  
    virtual char *t ( ...  
    ...  
} B;
```



# Multiple Inheritance

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- Useful for a derived class to inherit features for more than one base class
- **Multiple inheritance**
  - allowed in C++, Eiffel, CLOS
  - not in Simula, Smalltalk, Modula-3, Ada 95, Oberon
  - Java – only a limited ("mix-in") form of multiple inheritance
- Example – keep all students in a list:

```
class student : public person, public gp_list_node
{
    ...
};
```

# Multiple Inheritance

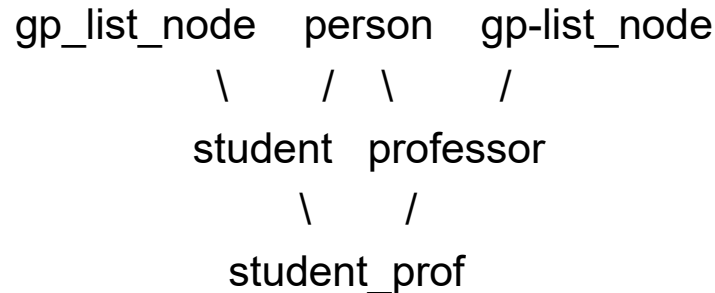
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- Semantic ambiguities – suppose that:

- professors also take courses

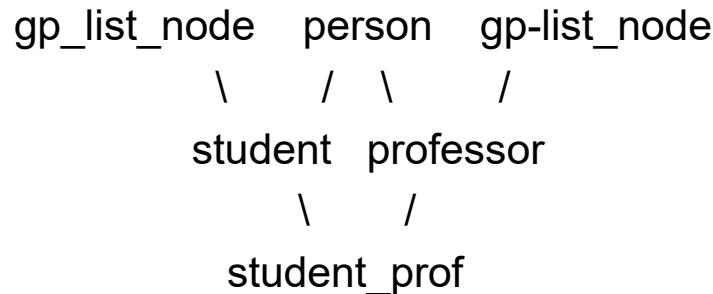
```
class professor : public person, public gp_list_node { ... };  
class student : public person, public gp_list_node { ... };  
class student_prof : public student, public professor { ... };
```

- `student_prof` inherits twice from `person` and `gp_list_node`
- Do we want to have two instances of their members in `student_prof`?
  - one instance of `person` (address, etc)
  - two instances of `gp_list_node` (appear in the list of students, and in the list of professors)



# Multiple Inheritance

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- **Repeated inheritance** – multiple inheritance where there are multiple paths to an ancestor
- Types of repeated inheritance
  - **replicated inheritance** – separate copies (**gp\_list\_node**)
  - **shared inheritance** – single copy (**person**)
- Eiffel – by default **shared inheritance**
  - can get replicated inheritance of individual members by renaming them
- C++ – by default **replicated inheritance**
  - can get shared inheritance by labeling the inheritance as **virtual**:

```
class professor : public virtual person, public gp_list_node { ... };
class student : public virtual person, public gp_list_node { ... };
```



# Object-Oriented Languages

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- Are all the languages mentioned truly object-oriented?
  - they differ in the extent to which they require an object-oriented style of programming
- Ideally
  - the language should make it impossible to write non-OO programs
  - **uniform object model of computing**
    - every data type is a class
    - every variable is a reference to an object
    - every subroutine is an object method

# Object-Oriented Languages

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- How close (or far) is C++?
  - simple types (int, char) are not classes
  - subroutines outside of classes
  - static method binding by default
  - in general – retains all low-level mechanisms of C
- Closest to the object-oriented ideal – Smalltalk

# Smalltalk

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- Designed by Alan Kay at the University of Utah (1960s)
- Adopted and revised by Xerox Palo Alto Research Center (PARC)
- Considered the canonical object-oriented language
- Is integrated into its programming environment
  - programs are meant to be viewed within the browser of Smalltalk implementation
- Untyped reference model for variables
  - every variable refers to an object
  - the class of the object need not be statically known
- Common ancestor for all classes - the standard class **Object**
- All data is contained in objects - example:
  - **true** (of class **Boolean**)
  - **3** (of class **Integer**)

# Smalltalk

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- Consistently follows a **message-based model**
- All operations are considered as messages sent to objects:

`3 + 4`                      "send a `+` message to the object `3`,  
                              "with a reference to object `4` as argument"  
                              "in response, object `3` creates and returns a reference to object `7`"

- Multi-argument messages have multi-word names:

`myBox displayOn: myScreen at: location`

"send a `displayOn: at:` message to object `myBox`, "  
"with objects `myScreen` and `location` as arguments"

- Even control flow is represented with messages

# Smalltalk

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- **Selection** – the **ifTrue: ifFalse:** message

`n < 0`

`ifTrue: [abs <- n negated]`

`ifFalse: [abs <- n]`

- expression evaluation – from left to right
- send a `<` message (with 0 as argument) to `n`
- in response, `n` returns either the object `true` or the object `false`
  - now `n < 0` has been evaluated to `true` or `false`
- send an **`ifTrue: ifFalse:`** message to this `true` or `false` object
- the arguments of **`ifTrue: ifFalse:`** message are two **blocks** `[...]`
  - a **block** is similar to a lambda expression in Scheme
  - to execute a **block** - need to send it a **value** message
- when receiving the **`ifTrue: ifFalse:`** message, object `true` sends a **value** message to the 1<sup>st</sup> argument (block) of the message
- when receiving the **`ifTrue: ifFalse:`** message, object `false` sends a **value** message to the 2<sup>nd</sup> argument (block) of the message

# Smalltalk

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- **Iteration (enumeration-controlled loops)** – the **timesRepeat:** message

- Compute  $n^{10}$

```
pow <- 1.
```

```
10 timesRepeat:
```

```
    [pow <- pow * n]
```

- send message **timesRepeat:** to object **10** with a **block** as argument
- in response, object **10** sends a **value** message to the **block** object 10 times

# Smalltalk

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- **Iteration (enumeration-controlled loops)** - the **to: by: do:** message

- Compute the sum of odd-indexed elements of array **a**

```
sum <- 0.
```

```
1 to: 100: by: 2 do:
```

```
[:i | sum <- sum + (a at: i)]
```

- send message **to: by: do:** to object **1** with 3 arguments
- in response, object **1** sends (50 times) a **value** message to the **block**, with its own value as a parameter, and increments itself with 2 after each iteration
- the **block** has a formal parameter **:i** to get the value
- message **at: i** sent to array **a** returns the **i<sup>th</sup>** element from array **a**

# Announcements

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- Readings
  - Chapter 10