

CS 326

Programming Languages, Concepts and Implementation

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Data Abstraction, Object Orientation

Language Specification

- 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

- **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?

- **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

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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

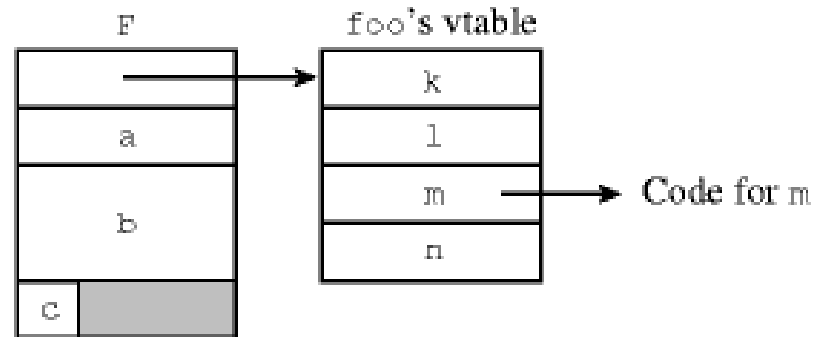
Member Lookup

- 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**

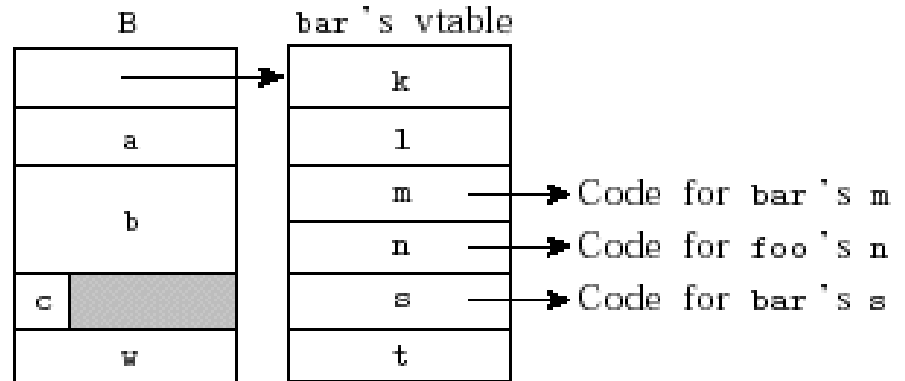
Member Lookup

- 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

- 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
{
    ...
};
```

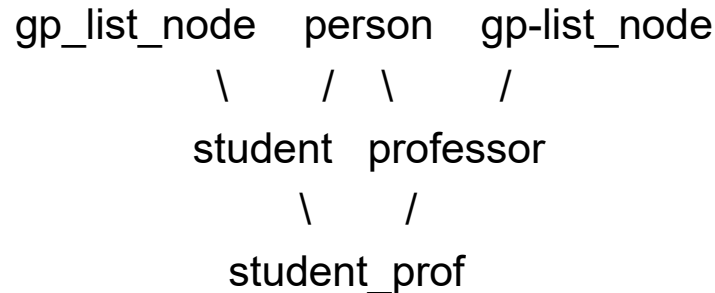
Multiple Inheritance

- Semantic ambiguities – suppose that:

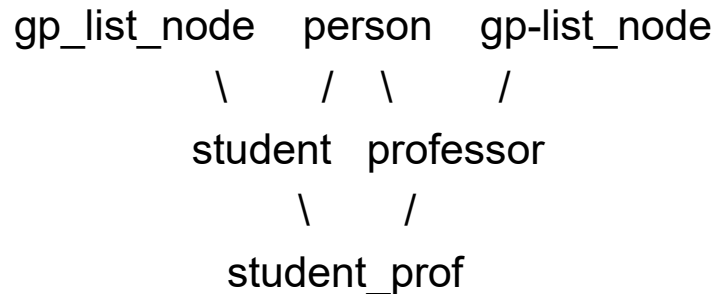
- professors also take courses

```
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



- **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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- 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

- **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 1st argument (block) of the message
- when receiving the **`ifTrue: ifFalse:`** message, object `false` sends a **value** message to the 2nd argument (block) of the message

Smalltalk

- **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

- **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 **ith** element from array **a**

Announcements

- Readings
 - Chapter 10