
Object-Orientation

CSCI 3136

Principles of Programming Languages

Faculty of Computer Science

Dalhousie University

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Reading: Chapter 9

What is a Object-Oriented Programming?

Elements of object-oriented programming:

- Data items to be manipulated are *objects*.
- Objects are members of *classes*, that is, classes are types.
- Objects store data in *fields* and behaviour in *methods* specified by their classes.

Main characteristics of most object-oriented programming systems:

- *Encapsulation* by hiding internals of an object from the user of the object.
- Customization of behaviour through *inheritance*.
- Polymorphism through *dynamic method binding*.

Advantages of Object-Oriented Programming

It *reduces conceptual load*:

- It reduces the amount of detail the programmer must think about at the same time.

It provides *fault and change containment*:

- It limits the portion of a program that needs to be looked at when debugging.
- It limits the portion of a program that needs to be changed when changing the behaviour of an object without changing its interface.

It provides *independence of program components* and thus *facilitates code reuse*.

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Note: Most of these are consequences of encapsulation and thus apply also to programming using modules.

Some Object-Oriented Languages

- SIMULA 67
- Smalltalk 72
- C++, 80s
- Modula-3, late 80s
- CLOS, 88
- Eiffel, 92
- Oberon, 90s (last version 95)
- Java, 95
- Ada 95

Class Example in C++

```
class list_node {
```

Header

```
    list_node *prev, *next, *head;
```

```
public:
```

```
    int val;
```

```
    list_node();
```

```
    ~list_node();
```

```
    list_node *predecessor();
```

```
    list_node *successor();
```

```
    bool singleton();
```

```
    void insert_before(list_node *new_node);
```

```
    void remove();
```

```
};
```

```
-----  
void list_node::insert_before(list_node *new_node) {
```

Implementation

```
    if (!new_node->singleton())
```

```
        throw new list_err("inserting more than a single node");
```

```
    prev->next      = new_node;
```

```
    new_node->prev  = prev;
```

```
    new_node->next  = this;
```

```
    prev           = new_node;
```

```
    new_node->head_node = head_node;
```

```
}
```

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Private fields

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```

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    void remove();
```

```
};
```

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void list_node::insert_before(list_node *new_node) {  
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Implementation

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```

```
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```

Public field

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    list_node();
```

```
    ~list_node();
```

```
    list_node *predecessor();
```

```
    list_node *successor();
```

```
    bool singleton();
```

```
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```

```
    void remove();
```

```
};
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Constructor

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```

```
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Destructor

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```
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Public methods

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Method definition outside class needs to be qualified.

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Method definition outside class needs to be qualified.

Reference to current object

Inheritance

Using inheritance we can define a new *derived* or *child class* based on an existing *parent class* or *superclass*.

The derived class

- Inherits all fields and methods of the superclass,
- Can define additional fields and methods, and
- Can override existing fields and methods.

Purpose: Extend or specialize the behaviour of the superclass.

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This allows us to define a *class hierarchy*.

- If only single inheritance is allowed, the hierarchy is a tree.
- If multiple inheritance is allowed, the hierarchy is a lattice.

Syntax of Inheritance

C++

```
class push_button : public widget { ... }
```

Java

```
public class push_button extends widget { ... }
```

Ada

```
type push_button is new widget with ...
```


Syntax of Inheritance

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public class push_button extends widget { ... }
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Ada

```
type push_button is new widget with ...
```

Bad example in the textbook (C++)

```
class queue : public list { ... }
```

Why is this a bad example?

Overriding Methods of a Base Class

To replace a method of a base class, redefine it in the derived class:

```
class widget {  
    ...  
    void paint();  
    ...  
};
```

```
class push_button : public widget {  
    ...  
    void paint();  
    ...  
};
```

Overriding Methods of a Base Class

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    void paint();  
    ...  
};
```

```
class push_button : public widget {  
    ...  
    void paint();  
    ...  
};
```

Methods of the base class are still accessible in the derived class:

- Using scope resolution (::) in C++
- Using the `super` keyword in Java or Smalltalk
- Using explicit renaming in Eiffel

Syntax of Accessing Members of the Base Class

C++:	<code>widget::paint()</code>
Java:	<code>super.paint()</code>
C#:	<code>base.paint()</code>
Smalltalk:	<code>super paint.</code>
Objective C:	<code>[super paint]</code>
Eiffel:	<code>class queue inherit list rename remove as old_remove</code>

Encapsulation

Using modules:

- Define an *opaque* module type, a type whose definition is not exported by the module.
- Export subroutines to manipulate objects of the type. The implementation of these subroutines is not visible to the module's user.

Using classes:

- *Public* methods are accessible to the class's user, *private* methods are not.
- Private methods are accessible to other objects of the same class.
- Effective use of inheritance requires more fine-grained control over visibility of methods than sufficient when using modules.

Visibility in C++

Three visibility levels:

- *Private* methods/fields are visible to members of objects of the same class and to friends.
- *Protected* methods/fields are visible to members of objects of the same class or derived classes and to friends.
- *Public* methods/fields are visible to the whole world.

Visibility in C++

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Friends:

- A class can declare other classes and functions to be its friends, thereby providing them with access to its private and protected members.

```
class X {  
    int a;  
    friend void f(int);  
    friend class Y;  
};
```

Altering Visibility in Derived Classes

Derived classes can restrict (but not increase) the visibility of its base class's members in objects of the derived class.

```
class A : public B { ... }
```

- All methods have the same visibility in the derived class as in the base class.

```
class A : protected B { ... }
```

- Public and protected members of the base class become protected in the derived class. Private members remain private.

```
class A : private B { ... }
```

- All members of the base class become private in the derived class.

Altering Visibility of Individual Members

```
class A {
    public:
        void a();
        void b();
    private:
        void c();
};

class B : private A {
    public:
        using A::a();
        using A::c();
};
```

Altering Visibility of Individual Members

```
class A {  
    public:  
        void a();  
        void b();  
    private:  
        void c();  
};
```

```
class B : private A {  
    public:  
        using A::a();  
        using A::c();  
};
```

- a() is public in B.
- b() is private in B.
- The second using statement is illegal because it would increase the visibility of a private member of A.

Visibility Rules in Other Languages

Eiffel

- Derived classes can both restrict and increase the visibility of members of base classes.

Java

- Similar to C++, with the following exceptions.
- Base classes are always public.
- Protected members are visible in derived classes *and in the same package*.
- No notion of friends.

Python

- All class members are public.

Smalltalk, Objective C

- All methods are public.
- All fields are private.

Constructors

A **constructor** does not allocate the space for an object; it initializes (“constructs”) the object in the allocated space.

Execution order of constructors:

- Constructor(s) of base class(es).
- Constructors of class members.
- Constructor of the class itself.

```
class A {  
public:  
    A() { cout << "A"; }  
};
```

```
class B {  
public:  
    B() { cout << "B"; }  
}
```

```
class C : A {  
    B b;  
public:  
    C() { cout << "C"; }  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    C c;  
}
```

This prints "ABC".

Constructor and Method Overloading (1)

```
class A {
    ...
public:
    A()          { ... }          // Constructor 1
    A(int x)    { ... }          // Constructor 2

    void f(float x)    { ... }    // Method 1
    void f(int x)     { ... }    // Method 2
    void f(int x) const { ... }    // Method 3
};

int main() {
    A      x;      // Calls constructor 1
    const A y(5); // Calls constructor 2

    x.f(3.4);      // Calls method 1
    x.f(3);        // Calls method 2
    y.f(3);        // Calls method 3
    y.f(4.5);      // Error: non-const method applied to const object
}
```

Constructor and Method Overloading (2)

```
class A {
    ...
public:
    A()      { ... }

    void f(int x)    { ... } // Method 1
    void f(int &x)  { ... } // Method 2
};

int main() {
    A x;
    int y = 3;

    x.f(y); // Error: cannot decide which method to call
}
```

Copy Constructors and Assignment

```
class A {
    int x;
public:
    A()                : x(0)                { cout << "C1"; }
    A(const A& a)      : x(a.x)              { cout << "C2"; }
    const A& operator =(const A& a) { x = a.x; cout << "A"; }
};
```

```
int main() {
    A u;           // Prints "C1"
    A v(u);        // Prints "C2"
    A w = u;       // Prints "C2"
    A x;           // Prints "C1"
    x = u;         // Prints "A"
}
```

Copy Constructors and Assignment

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class A {
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```
int main() {
    A u; // Prints "C1"
    A v(u); // Prints "C2"
    A w = u; // Prints "C2"
    A x; // Prints "C1"
    x = u; // Prints "A"
}
```

A similar analysis applies to

```
class A {
    int x;
public:
    A() : x(1) {}
};
```

VS

```
class A {
    int x;
public:
    A() { x = 1; }
};
```


Static vs Dynamic Method Binding (1)

In languages with a reference model of variables or when using pointers in C++, we can use an object of a derived class where an object of the base class is expected.

Assume the derived class overrides a method of the base class.

When accessing an object of the derived class through a variable whose type is the base class, which method should we call?

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

class student : public person {
public:
    void print_mailing_label();
};

class professor : public person {
public:
    void print_mailing_label();
};

int main() {
    student    s;
    professor  p;
    person     *x = &s, *y = &p;

    // professor::print_mailing_label
    p.print_mailing_label();
    // student::print_mailing_label
    s.print_mailing_label();
    // ???
    x->print_mailing_label();
    y->print_mailing_label();
}
```

Static vs Dynamic Method Binding (2)

Static method binding:

- The method invoked is determined by the type of the variable through which the object is accessed.
- Languages with static method binding: Simula, C++, Ada 95

Dynamic method binding:

- The method invoked is determined by the type of the accessed object.
- Languages with dynamic method binding: Smalltalk, Modula 3, Java, Eiffel

Which is more efficient: static or dynamic method binding?

Which is more natural?

Static and Dynamic Method Binding in C++

Given C++'s focus on efficiency, its default is static method binding.

Dynamic method binding is available by declaring the method to be *virtual*.

```
class A {
public:
    void f();
    virtual void g();
};

class B : public A {
public:
    void f();
    void g();
};

int main() {
    B b;
    A *a = &b;

    b.f(); // B::f
    b.g(); // B::g
    a->f(); // A::f
    a->g(); // B::g
}
```

Abstract Classes

An *abstract method* is a method that is required to be defined only in derived classes.

C++

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

Java

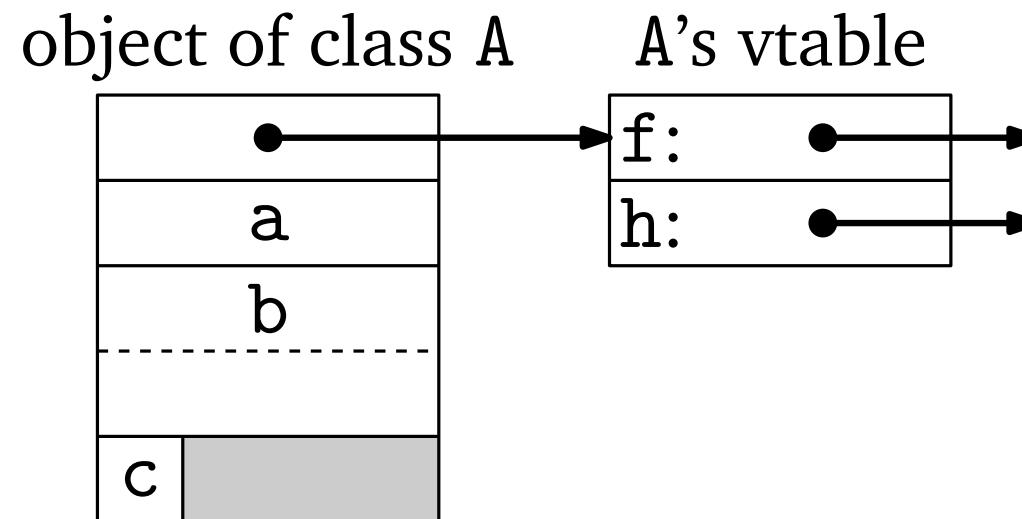
```
class person {  
    ...  
    abstract void print_mailing_label();  
    ...  
};
```

An *abstract* class has at least one abstract method and thus cannot be instantiated.

If all methods are abstract, then all the class does is define an interface.

Implementation of Virtual Methods

```
class A {  
    int    a;  
    double b;  
    char   c;  
public:  
    virtual void f();  
    int g();  
    virtual int h();  
    double k();  
};
```



The *virtual method table* or *vtable* is an array of addresses of the virtual methods of the object.

Overhead: Two extra memory accesses.

Implementation of Single Inheritance

Record of derived class

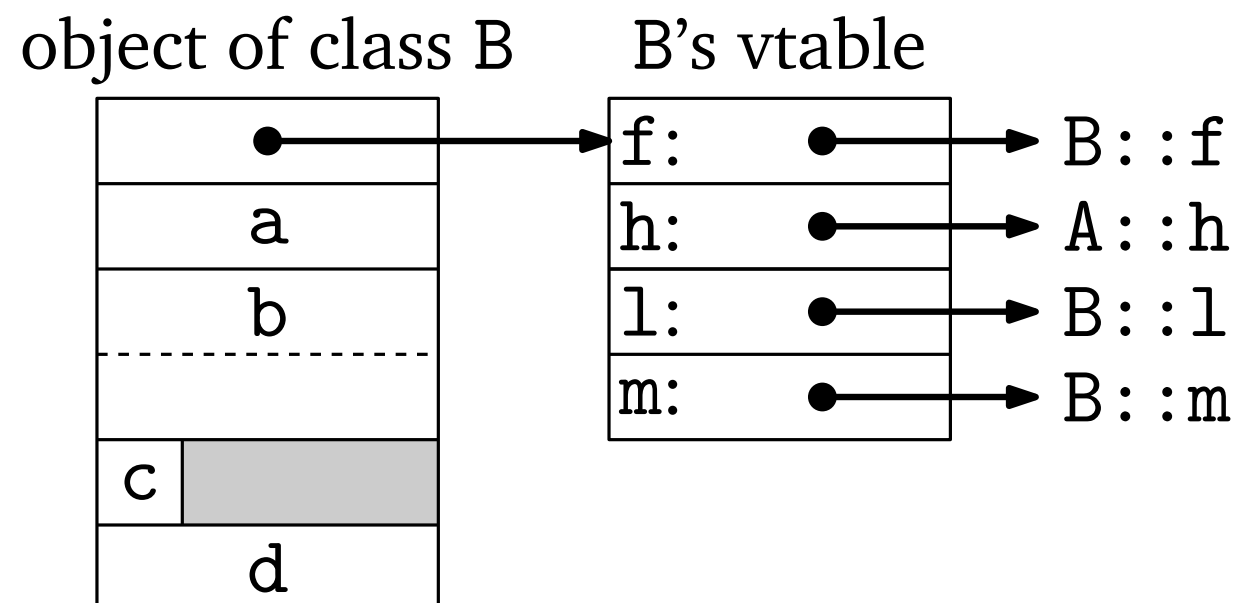
- Append extra data members to the record of the base class.
- Provides trivial access to these members through pointers whose type is the base class.

```
class A {  
    int    a;  
    double b;  
    char   c;  
public:  
    virtual void f();  
    int g();  
    virtual int h();  
    double k();  
};
```

```
class B : public A {  
    int d;  
public:  
    void f();  
    virtual double l();  
    virtual double *m();  
};
```

Vtable of derived class

- Copy vtable of base class.
- Replace entries of overridden virtual methods.
- Append entries of virtual methods declared in derived class.



Inheritance and Type Checks

```
class A { ... };  
class B : public A { ... };
```

```
A a;  
B b;  
A *x;  
B *y;
```

```
x = &b; // ok; references through q will use prefixes of b's  
      // data space and vtable
```

```
y = &a; // static semantic error; a lacks the additional data and vtable  
      // entries of an object of class B
```

```
y = x; // error, but q actually does point to an instance of B
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Inheritance and Type Checks

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y = x; // error, but q actually does point to an instance of B
```

Is there a way to resolve the second error? It is not actually an error, but as it is, the compiler cannot tell.

Dynamic Cast

C++

- `y = dynamic_cast<B*>(x);`
- Permits the assignment if `x` points to an object of class `B` or a derived class. Returns a null pointer otherwise.

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- Same semantics but with C-style cast syntax:

`y = (B) x;`

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Implementation: Include in each vtable the address of a run-time type descriptor.

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Implementation: Include in each vtable the address of a run-time type descriptor.

Note: C++ also supports C-style casts without type checks. This is more efficient but less safe.

Type Casting in C++

`dynamic_cast<T*> p`

- Converts to type `T*` if the object pointed to by `p` is of class `T` or of a derived class. Returns a null pointer otherwise.
- Possible only for classes derived from polymorphic base classes and only when run-time type information (RTTI) is enabled.

`static_cast<T*> p` and `reinterpret_cast<T*> p`

- Perform conversions between unrelated types.
- `static_cast` performs some minimal type checking, while `reinterpret_cast` makes a bit-for-bit copy.

`const_cast<T*> p`

- Does not perform any type conversion other than removing the `const`-ness of a pointer.

Multiple Inheritance

Multiple inheritance allows a derived class to have multiple baseclasses:

```
class A : public B, public C { ... }
```

Implementation issues

- How to access objects of A through a baseclass pointer.
- How to allow overriding of methods of different base classes.
- ...

Semantic issues

- If a method *m* is defined in more than one base class, which method is invoked by *a.m()*, where *a* is of class A?
- If B and C are derived classes of a common base class D, does A have two or only one copy of each data member of D?
- ...