Concepts of Object-Oriented Programming

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What this talk is about

- Introduction to Objects & Classes
- Building objects
 - Composition
 - Encapsulation
 - Inheritance
 - Polymorphism
- Best practices
 - Recommendations
 - Design Patterns
- Conclusion
 - Pro & Cons of OOP

What is Object-Oriented Programming?

- OOP started in 1960s (Simula, SmallTalk)
- Using objects as basic unit of computation
- Allows to extend type system
 - Usage: just like basic types (int, double, float, char, ...)
 - But with own structure and behavior
- Static Languages (C++) Types are known at compile time
- **Dynamic Languages** (Python) Types can be manipulated at runtime



I. Objects & Classes

Defining new objects, object lifetime

Where are these "objects"?

- Objects exist in **memory** at runtime
- Just like objects of primitive types (integers, floating-point numbers)
 - We can interpret 4 bytes of data as integer number
 - We can interpret 8 bytes of data as floating point number
- In C we have structs to create composite types containing multiple primitive types
- In C++ and other OOP languages this is further extended by associating behavior to a chunk of data through specifying methods to manipulate that data.

Object

• State

• all properties of an object

• Behavior

- How an object reacts to interactions, such as calling a certain method
- In OOP speak: Response of an object when sending it messages

• Identity

 Multiple objects can have the same state and behavior, but each one is a unique entity

Structure and Behavior of similar objects is defined by their **class**. An object is also called an **instance** of a class.

Classes

class Vector2D
{
 public:
 double x;

double y;

};

double length()

```
return sqrt(x*x + y*y)
```

Class

- defines memory structure of objects
- how we can interact with objects
- how it reacts to interactions

Member Variable

- A variable in the scope of a class
- All instances allocate memory for their variables

Member Method

- A method which can be called for an object of the class.
- Can access and modify the object state by manipulating member variables.

Interface

• All methods which can be called on an object from outside.

Lifetime of an Object

• Allocation

• Allocate enough memory to store object data/state

Initialization

• Set an initial object state

• Usage

- Interact with objects through methods
- Access and modify object data

• Cleanup

• Make sure that everything is in order before deletion

• Deletion

• Memory is freed, object ceases to exist



Allocation

Static / Stack Allocation







- + Fast
- + Automatic cleanup
- Not persistent
- "Limited" storage

Allocation

Dynamic / Heap Allocation





- + Persistent
- + "Infinite" storage
- Slow
- Manual cleanup

Initialization

class Vector2D {

public:

Vector2D(){

x = 0.0;

y = 0.0;

Vector2D(double x1, double y1){
 x = x1;
 y = y1;
};

Constructors

- special methods which initialize an instance of a class
- multiple variants with different parameters possible
- initialize member variables

```
Vector2D v1();
Vector2D v2(10.0, 20.0);
```

```
Vector2D * v3 = new Vector2D();
Vector2D * v3 = new Vector2D(10.0, 20.0);
```





Usage

Vector2D v;

// access members

v.x = 10.0;

v.y = 20.0;

// call member functions
double len = v.length();

Heap Objects

Vector2D * pv = new Vector2D();

// access members

pv->x = 10.0; pv->y = 20.0;



// call member functions
double len = pv->length();

Cleanup

```
class MyVector {
   double * data;
public:
   MyVector(int dim){
     data = new double[dim];
   }
   ~MyVector() {
     delete [] data;
   }
};
```

Destructor

- Cleanup before destruction
- Free any acquired resources (file handles, heap memory)



Deletion

Static / Stack Objects







objects on **stack** are automatically deleted at end of scope

Deletion

•••

delete v;

Dynamic / Heap Objects

```
void foo(int param1, int param2)
{
    double a = 30.0;
    double b = 50.0;
    Vector2D * v = new Vector2D;
    v->x = 10.0;
    v->y = 20.0;
Stack

pain1
pain2

pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

pain2

Stack

pain1
pain2

pain2

Stack

Pain1
```



objects on heap must be deleted explicitly

Static class members

```
class Point2D
```

```
static int numPoints = 0;
```

public:

```
int identifier;
double x;
double y;
```

```
Point2D(double x1, double y1) {
    identifier = numPoints++;
    x = x1;
    y = y1;
}
```

static void reset_count() {
 numPoints = 0;
}

Static Member Variable

- Only a single instance of this variables exists
- Much like a global variable
- Can be accessed by all instances
- Access by class name using ::, not instance

```
// Definition in a single .cpp file
int Point2D::numPoints = 0;
```

// access without having an instance
cout << Point2D::numPoints << endl;</pre>

Static Method

- A method which is not applied on a class instance, but on the class itself
- Much like a global function
- Can only access and modify static member variables

```
// call static method, no instance required
Point2D::reset_count();
```

II. Building objects

Composition, Encapsulation, Inheritance, Polymorphism



Composition

};



- natural way of creating new objects is by building them out of existing objects.
- Complex systems are composed out of simpler sub-systems



Boing747

Encapsulation





- View objects as black box
- Don't operate directly on internal data of an object
 - Implementation details are hidden behind interface
 - make member variables private
 - Use methods of the interface to perform certain actions
- Some languages, e.g. C++ and Java, help enforce this through specifiers: public, private, protected

Problems without Encapsulation

```
class Boeing747{
public:
  double totalAirFriction;
  Gear gear;
  void gearUp();
  void gearDown();
  double speed();
};
Boeing747 * a = new Boing747();
                    ¥
                         a->gear.down();
a->gearDown();
Encapsulation ensures that side effects and domain knowledge
```

are kept inside the class which is responsible for them.

```
void Boeing747::gearDown() {
    if(gear.isUp()) {
        totalAirFriction += 20.0;
        gear.down();
void Boeing747::gearUp() {
    if(gear.isDown()) {
        totalAirFriction -= 20.0;
        gear.down();
void Boeing747::speed() {
    // function of thrust & friction
    return ...
```

Type hierarchies and Inheritance

- Smalltalk first added the concept of inheritance
- Objects of a class can inherit state and behavior of a **base class** and make adjustments.
- Usages:
 - Extend classes with new functionality
 - Make minor modifications
 - Extract common functionality.



Type hierarchies and Inheritance



Type hierarchies and Inheritance

class Boeing747 {

float longitude, latitude;

float heading, speed;

float altitude;

• • •

public:

```
void fullThrottle() {
    engine1.maxThrottle();
    engine2.maxThrottle();
    engine3.maxThrottle();
    engine4.maxThrottle();
```

speed = ...;

class Cessna206h {

float longitude, latitude;

float heading, speed;

float altitude;

```
•••
```

```
public:
```

```
void fullThrottle() {
    engine1.maxThrottle();
    speed = ...;
}
```



Inheritance

```
class Airplane {
  public:
    float longitude, latitude;
    float heading, speed;
    float altitude;
    virtual void fullThrottle();
};
```

Common interface

class Boeing747 : Airplane {

•••

public:

```
void fullThrottle() {
    engine1.maxThrottle();
    engine2.maxThrottle();
    engine3.maxThrottle();
    engine4.maxThrottle();
    speed = ...;
}
```

```
class Cessna206h : Airplane {
...
public:
    void fullThrottle() {
        engine1.maxThrottle();
        speed = ...;
    }
    Derived classes
    implement or
    extend interface
    of Airplane
```

Polymorphism

```
Boeing747 * a = new Boeing747();
```

```
Airplane * b = new Boeing747();
```

```
Airplane * c = new Cessna206h();
```

```
// as expected: will call Boeing747::fullThrottle
a->fullThrottle();
```

```
// NEW! will call Boeing747::fullThrottle
b->fullThrottle();
```

```
// NEW! will call Cessna206h::fullThrottle
c->fullThrottle();
```

- Objects of derived classes can be used as base class objects.
- Polymorphism allows us to modify the behavior of base classes and replacing the implementation of methods.
- Polymorphic methods must be declared virtual (in C++)

Polymorphism

```
// store objects of different types in a
// datastructure using its base class
Airplane ** airplanes = new Airplane*[10];
...
for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    // will choose correct implementation
    // dynamically at runtime
    airplanes[i]->fullThrottle();
}
```

```
void foo(Airplane & a) {
    // this function will work with
    // any class derived from Airplane
}
```

- Use base class to implement general algorithms and data structures which work with any derived type
- Dynamic dispatch determines the type of an object at runtime and executes the correct method

Abstract classes

class Airplane {

public:

};

```
float longitude, latitude;
```

float heading, speed;

float altitude;

```
virtual void fullThrottle() = 0;
```

- Virtual functions without implementation are called pure-virtual functions.
- Classes containing purevirtual functions can not be instantiated and are called *abstract classes*
- Their behavior **must** be defined in derived classes

Is-A vs. Has-A Relationship

- Use composition to manage complexity
- Use inheritance to extract common functionality
- Use polymorphism to implement general algorithms which are independent of specific types
- Composition = Has-A Relationship E.g. A Boeing 747 has four jet engines.
- Inheritance = Is-A Relationship:

E.g. A Cessna is an airplane. So is a Boeing 747.

III. Best Practices

Recommendations, Design Patterns

Keep your interfaces simple, clean and consistent

- Methods in a class should be as orthogonal as possible \rightarrow avoid method that do almost the same
- Methods with the same name should do similar things
- Use encapsulation
 - This reduces coupling
 - Changing your implementation internals becomes easier
 - Access data with getter / setter methods
- Use const to limit what methods can do with your data
 - This lets the compiler help you enforce who can manipulate data
 - Compiler Optimization hint
- Consider using lazy-initialization for costly object properties

Getters & Setters



Lazy Initialization



Base class destructors should be virtual

 If you want to allow deletion of objects by using their base class, make sure their destructor is virtual

```
class Base {
public:
    ~Base();
}
class Derived : public Base {
public:
    ~Derived();
}
Base * object = new Derived();
delete object; // undefined behavior!!!
// best case: only ~Base() is called
// potential memory leak
```

```
class Base2 {
public:
    virtual ~Base2(){}
}
class Derived2 : public Base2 {
public:
    virtual ~Derived2(){}
}
Base * object = new Derived();
delete object;
// first ~Derived() is called,
// then ~Base()
```

Don't use **virtual** functions during **construction** and **destruction**

• It's a bad idea. Even if you think you could use it, you will not get what you want.

```
class Base {
  public:
    Base() {
        callVirtual();
    }
        virtual ~Base() {
        cout << "~Base()" << endl;
        cout << "endl;
        cout << "Base::callVirtual() {
        cout << "Base::callVirtual" << endl;
    }
}</pre>
```

```
class Derived : public Base {
public:
    Derived() : Base() {}
    virtual ~Derived() {
        cout << "~Derived()" << endl;
    }
    virtual void callVirtual() {
        cout << "Derived ::callVirtual" << endl;
    }
}</pre>
```

Don't reinvent the wheel

- Learn about available libraries
 - C++
 - STL \rightarrow we'll have a look at it later this week
 - Boost
 - GUI toolkits if you need them (e.g. Qt)
 - Python
 - Modules
 - pip, setuptools
- OOP is all about writing reusable code, so use code that's already there and has been tested by other people
- Learn about design patterns

Design Patterns

- Term was made popular by the book "Design Patterns: Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software", aka. The Gang of Four book (1994)
- Collection of generic solutions of common problems in OOP software
- Often used in libraries
- Part of the vocabulary computer scientists use to simplify communication

Design Patterns: Main categories

Creational Patterns	Structural Patterns	Behavioral Patterns
 Abstract Factory Builder Factory Method Prototype Singleton 	 Adapter Bridge Composite Decorator Façade Flyweight Proxy 	 Chain of Responsibility Command Interpreter Iterator Mediator Memento Observer State Strategy

- Template
- Visitor

Factory Methods

- Create objects without having to know specific language type
- Circumvent limitations of constructors
 - No return result only exceptions
 - **Constrained naming** e.g. can't have two constructors with same parameter types
 - Statically bound creation there is no dynamic binding for constructors, you have to know which type you want to instantiate
 - No virtual constructors
- Factory methods can range from very simple implementations to complex selection schemes

Factory Methods – Simple Example

```
class IShape {
public:
    virtual void draw();
};
class Rectangle : IShape;
class Circle : IShape;
class Triangle : IShape;
class ShapeFactory {
public:
    IShape * createShape(const std::string & name);
```

// parse user input
ShapeFactory factory;
string selectedShape = getUserInput();

// create object at runtime IShape * new_object = factory.createShape(selectedShape);

```
IShape * createShape(const std::string & name)
    if (name == "rectangle") {
        return new Rectangle();
    if (name == "circle") {
        return new Circle();
    if (name == "triangle") {
        return new Triangle();
    return nullptr;
                        This factory
                        implementation is hard
                        coded. But you can easily
                        write an extensible
                        factory.
```

Adapter

- Used to make an object of one type compatible to another
- Typical use case:
 - You defined your own types of objects with a certain interface
 - You want to use an external library to manipulate your objects
 - However the interface expected by library is different to the one you used
- Instead of rewriting you code, you can create an Adapter class, which maps one interface to another.

Adapter – Example

```
class ForceComputation {
public:
    virtual void compute_force(Vector3D & force);
};
```

```
class LegacyClass {
  public:
     virtual void compute_force(double * force);
};
```

```
class ForceComputationAdapter : public ForceComputation {
   LegacyClass * legacy;
public:
   ForceComputationAdapter(LegacyClass * src) : legacy(src) {
    }
    virtual void compute_force(Vector3D & force) {
        double f[3];
        legacy->compute_force(&f[0]);
        force.x = f[0];
        force.y = f[1];
        force.z = f[2];
    }
};
```

Strategy

- Used to keep parts of a larger implementations replacable
- You define a common interface to do a certain task
- Any class which implements that interface can be used in larger implementation
- Allows you to exchange object of that interface during runtime
- Typical use case:
 - Define a common interface to get data
 - Interface can be implemented by classes which use files, databases, web services, etc.

Strategy - Example

```
class DiceRoll : public IRandomNumberGenerator {
class IRandomNumberGenerator {
                                                       public:
public:
                                                           double getNextDouble() {
    double getNextDouble() = 0;
                                                               // guaranteed to be random,
                                                               // determined with a fair dice roll
                                                               return 4;
class MyUncrackableEncryption {
    IRandomNumberGenerator * random;
    void setRandomNumberGenerator(IRandomNumberGenerator * r) {
        random = r;
    void encrypt(char * data, size_t length) {
        double r = random->getNextDouble();
                                                                       MyUncrackableEncryption e;
        . . .
                                                                       DiceRoll d;
                                                                        e.setRandomNumberGenerator(d);
    void decrypt(char * data, size_t length) {
                                                                        e.encrypt(...)
        . . .
```

IV. Conclusion

Pro and Cons of Object-Orientated Programming

Benefits of OOP

- OOP encourages modularity and consistency
- Side effects from changing data are controlled
- Separate interface and implementation
- Control visibility and read/write access to data, violations can be found be the compiler
- Top level code becomes terse (-> less errors)
- Natural semantics for stateful items
- More compile time checking of correct use

Problems of OOP

- Designing good class hierarchies is hard and takes experience
- Bad design is easy
 - Objects get bloated by unneeded members
 - Inconsistent implementations (methods that have the same name don't do the same thing)
- Overhead of dynamic dispatch
- Inefficient data access for caching, vectorization
- Flow of control scattered across classes, especially with very deep class hierarchies
- Implicit actions (copy constructor, assignment operator) can become very expensive

Final Recommendations

- Use OOP in moderation
 - use OOP where it helps modularity
 - but not everything that can be an object needs to be
- At the upper level(s) imperative programming (using collections of objects) is often cleaner
- Use abstraction where details need not to be known, but do not hide what is important
- Object oriented programming is not bound to a specific programming language; some require less code to be written; the important part is sticking to the established conventions