

# Object-Oriented Programming:

## The Basic Building Blocks



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# INTRODUCTION

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- What is/isn't object-orientedness?
- The "software crisis"
- Software reuse
- The evolution of good engineering practices
- The perils of non-OO development

# What does "object-oriented" mean, anyway?

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- Programs consist of entities, called **objects**, which correspond to concepts the program will manipulate:
  - A business application might have Employee and Department objects.
- Objects are created by specifying their structure and their properties in a **class**.
  - The Employee class is a (single) blueprint used to create (many and varying) Employee objects.
- Objects communicate by sending each other **messages**:
  - We might ask an Employee object "what's your name?".

# What *is* object-orientedness?

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- A **programming style** where concepts in your problem domain are mapped directly into your code: "object-oriented" means "concept-oriented."
- A **philosophy** of design and implementation (i.e., a way of thinking about your code) which can be employed even in non-OO programming domains.
- A **technology** to help you follow this philosophy: OO languages, OO databases, OO expert systems, etc.
- A **buzzword** used by people who want to sell you something.

# What is object-orientedness *not*?

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- It is **not** a solution to all your design and implementation problems.
- It will **not** allow non-programmers to "program like the pros."
- It does **not** allow you to side-step the design process and begin coding applications from day zero.
- It is **not** inherently better than non-OO for all tasks.
- It will **not** grow hair, lower your cholesterol, taste as fresh as homemade, soften hands while you do the dishes, and paint any car for \$99.95... *beware of sales pitches, no matter how flashy.*

# The software crisis: why we must change our ways

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- Human society depending more and more on software.
- The **software crisis**: much existing software is...
  - bug-ridden, *because...*
  - too complex to understand, *and so...*
  - difficult to maintain, *and so...*
  - difficult to extend, *and so...*
- We reinvent the wheel over and over, leading to...
  - unnecessarily high development costs
  - new and more exciting bugs...

# The goal: software reuse

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- Programs tend to be "stick built" from the ground up:
  - Like making custom nails, screws, bricks, etc. for a house!
- Take our cue from the industrial revolution: *assembly lines* and *interchangeable parts*:
  - **Goal:** develop manageable, understandable, reusable software components that can be employed in a wide variety of applications, so that "new" code is specific to the problem at hand.
- Reuse is *not* the same as "cut and paste"; however...
- *Temptation* to "cut and paste" indicates useful code!



# Benefits of software reuse

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- Reduces coding/testing, thereby reducing *delivery time* and *cost*.
- *Many reusers* means *many testers*: well-tested code!
- Bugs found in reusable module can be reported to source: fix is made, new module is distributed, and now *everyone* benefits.
- Application programmers don't need to be experts in a wide variety of esoteric disciplines: *easier to hire* developers, and *easier to keep them sane*.
- High visibility of code *can* improve attitude of developer, and inspire more care and forethought, rather than just "task at hand" thinking.

# Come on... how long does software last, anyway?

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- Long enough for the Y2K bug to have been of some concern!
  - Much software written before 1990 did not have Y2K in mind.
  - Code from the 1980s is *still* in use!
  - People often "cut and paste" old code into new systems: the ghosts of programs long dead.
  - Developers are unwilling to tweak/upgrade components if they "seem to work fine as-is".
- Huge sums of money were spent to head off Y2K disaster. We'll never know if it was necessary, but we *do* know the price tag!

# Modular programming

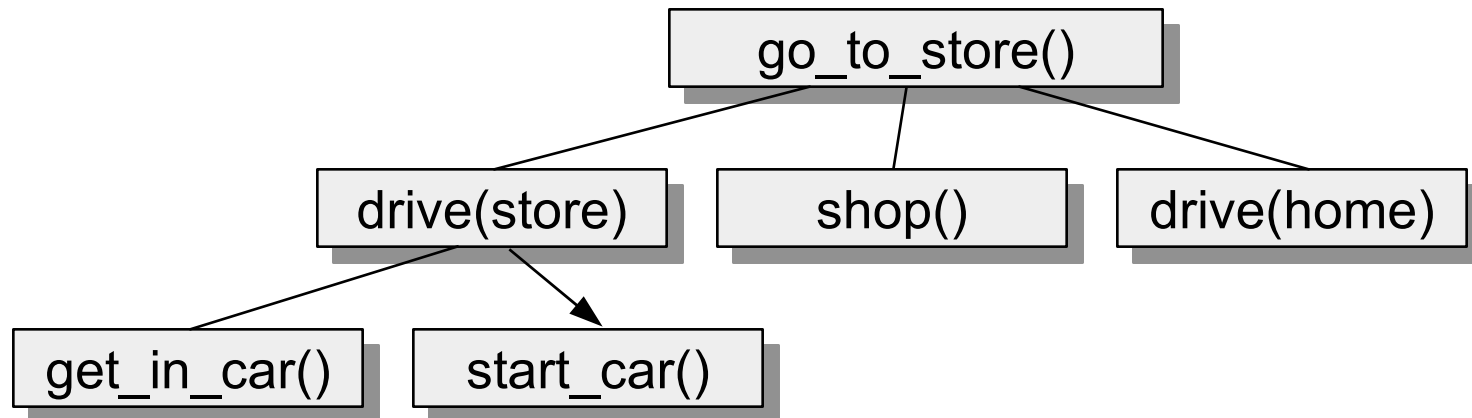
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- Break large problems down into smaller, more manageable ones by breaking large programs into smaller pieces.
- Each piece can be coded and tested individually.
- Core of modularization is the **subroutine** (invented 1950s).
- But we still need to decide...
  - What tasks are made into subroutines?
  - What are the arguments? Return values? Side effects?
- A discipline was needed...

# Structured programming

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- Invented 1960s, as a means of good modularization.
- Relies on ***functional decomposition***:
  - Top-down approach.
  - Break tasks (functionality) down from top level on down, to smaller and smaller components, until you get to actual subroutines.



# Limitations of structured programming

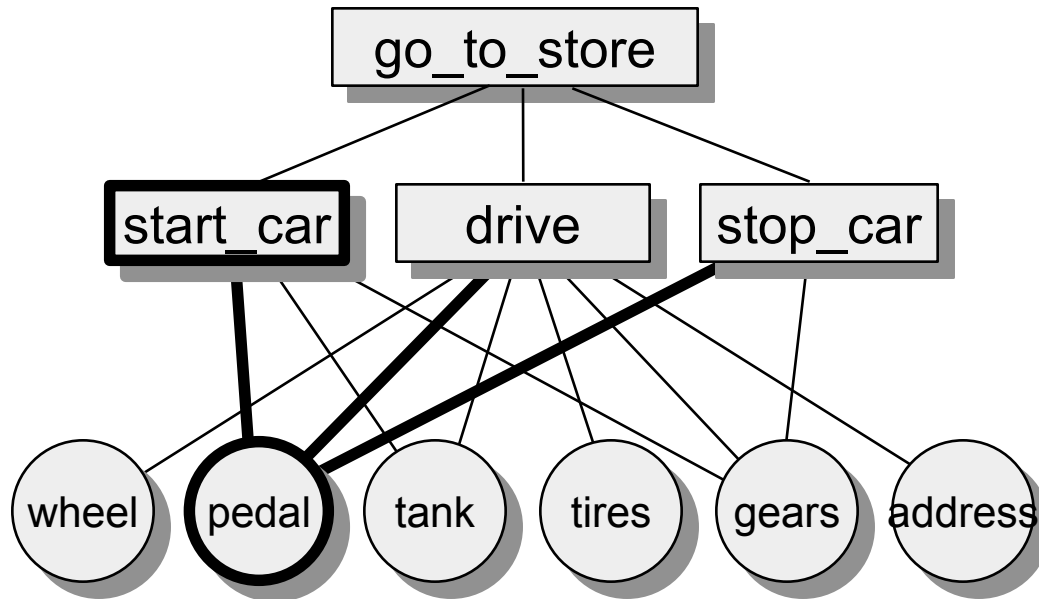
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- Can't always anticipate functions of evolving systems!
- The more successful a system is, the greater the chance it will be requested to handle a wider range of tasks than originally envisioned:
  - System gets "tweaked" to handle initial modifications.
  - Tweaks become "hacks" as desired functionality departs more and more from original decomposition.
  - System becomes more complex and unstable; further modifications require worse hacks or full rewrite.
  - Process stops when costs outweighs benefits.

# Global/shared data: the break in the modularity

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- At some point, many programs use **global data** which is shared between different subroutines.
- When any subroutine affects the global data, they can affect the other **subroutines** as well, in unexpected ways!



# Modularization of data

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- Often in structured programming, each subroutine is given its "own little world" of data:

- Arguments
- Local variables
- Return value

```
float hypotenuse (a, b)
    float a;
    float b;
{
    float c;
    c = sqrt((a * a) + (b * b));
    return c;
}
```

- One way structured programming helps is in modularizing *data* as well as *functionality*.
- **But sometimes, we still have to share information!**

# The status quo: non-OO programming

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- Programs consist of two separate entities: **data structures** and **functions**.
- Data structures: integer, string, array, list, stack, binary tree, hashtable, person, etc.
- Data structures are **accessed and modified directly**, or else by calling functions to perform the desired operations.

```
IntStack s;  
  
s.size = 0;  
s.top = NULL;  
  
istack_push(101, &s);  
x = istack_pop(&s);
```

Modify s by direct assignment

Modify/access s by via special functions



# Problems with non-OO programming

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- Functions for manipulating the same data structure can differ in naming convention, argument order, etc.: difficult to build/understand code:

```
s.size = 0;
count = s_numelems(&s);
istack_push(101, &s);
x = pop_int_stack(&s);
print_thing(INTSTACK, &s);
```

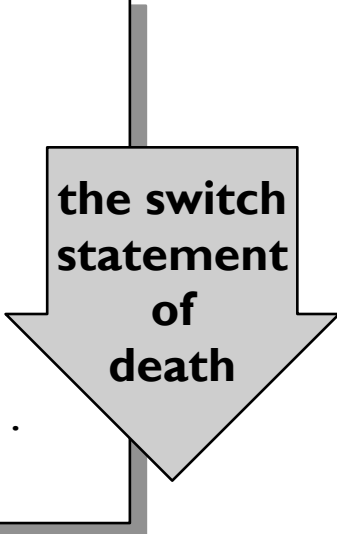
- Ability/requirement to examine/modify parts of data structure results in programs which will fail if data structure changes.
- Can never be sure we have all the functions we need to build complex applications with data structure.

# Problems with non-OO programming

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- To implement something similar (but not identical) to an existing data structure, must often duplicate large amounts of code.
- Containers (arrays, lists, search trees, etc.) which can store different data types at the same time require lots of additional bookkeeping in the code:

```
for (i = 0; i < size; i++) {  
    thing = slot[i];  
  
    if (thing->type == INT_ {  
        print_int(thing);  
    }  
    else if (thing->type == STRING) {  
        print_string(thing);  
    }  
    else if (thing->type == CIRCLE) ...  
        ...  
}
```



**the switch  
statement  
of  
death**

# How does OO help?

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- **Message *passing*** paradigm provides clear, consistent syntax for accessing/manipulating objects.
- **Encapsulation** provides way of making data and "helper functions" inaccessible to prying eyes and sticky fingers.
- **Inheritance** allows new data structures to be defined in terms of existing ones, re-using existing (and tested) code.
- **Dynamic binding** means that data structures keep track of their types, so users of the data structures don't have to.
- All objects come bundled with the complete set of functions that are needed to work with them.

# THE OO UNIVERSE

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- Objects
- Classes
- Instance variables
- Instance methods and messages
- Pure OO environments
- Class variables/methods
- Constructors/destructors

# Objects

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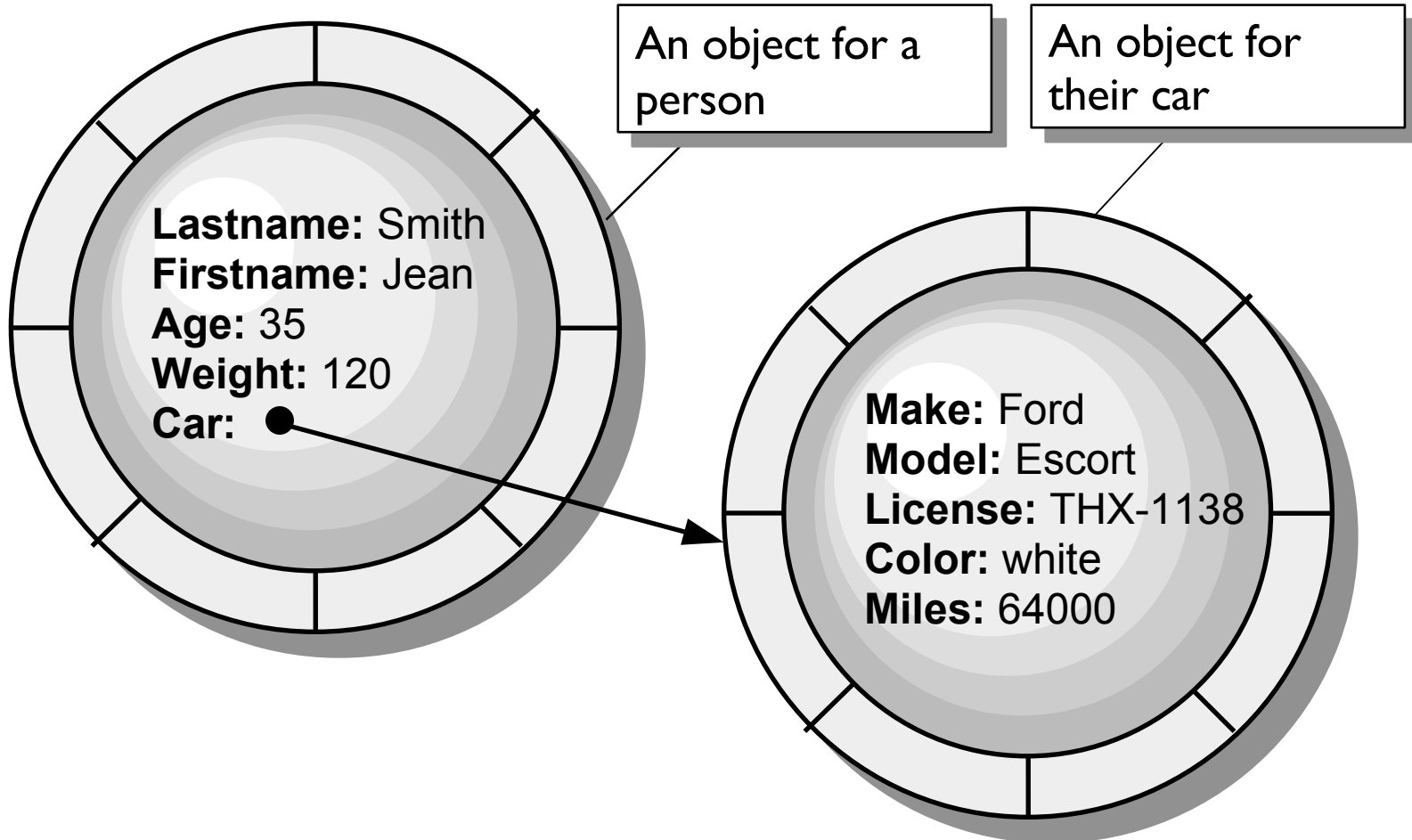
- An **object** is a bundle of information that **models some high-level concept** in the problem domain.
- Generally a 1-to-1 correspondence between "real things" in the problem domain and objects in a running OO program.
  - This is one reason that OO programs can be very intuitive to work with: they're a kind of "**virtual reality**".
- The structure and behavior of an object is defined in the object's *class description*...

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*You can think of objects as just another kind of data type, like integers and strings. For example, a boolean variable holds a very simple object which might model the state of an on/off switch...*

# Objects

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# Classes and instances

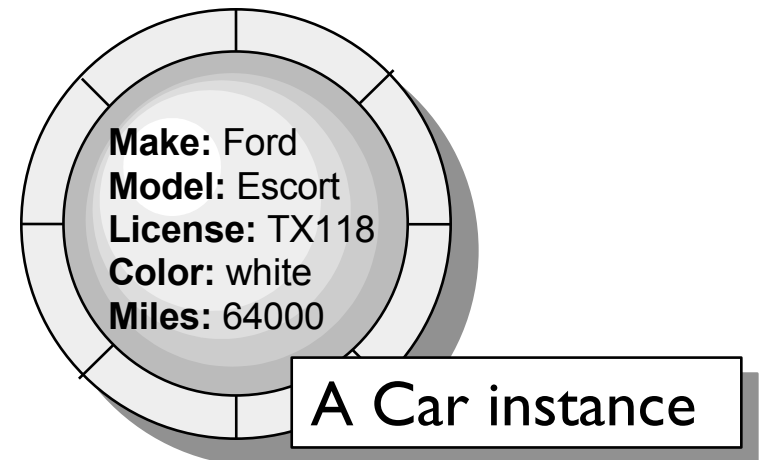
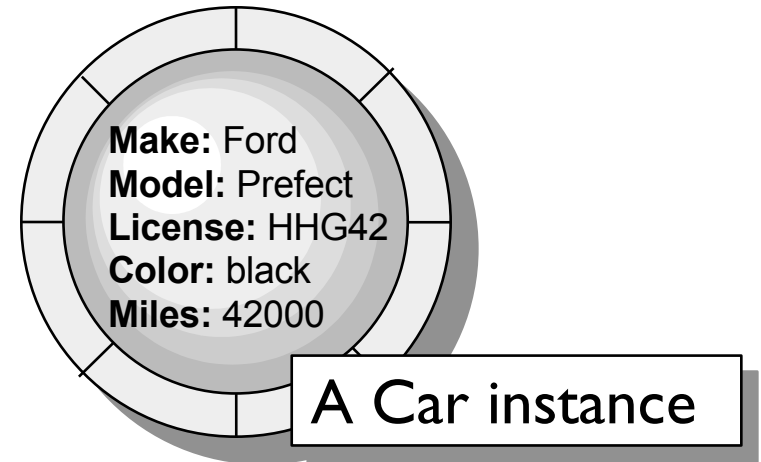
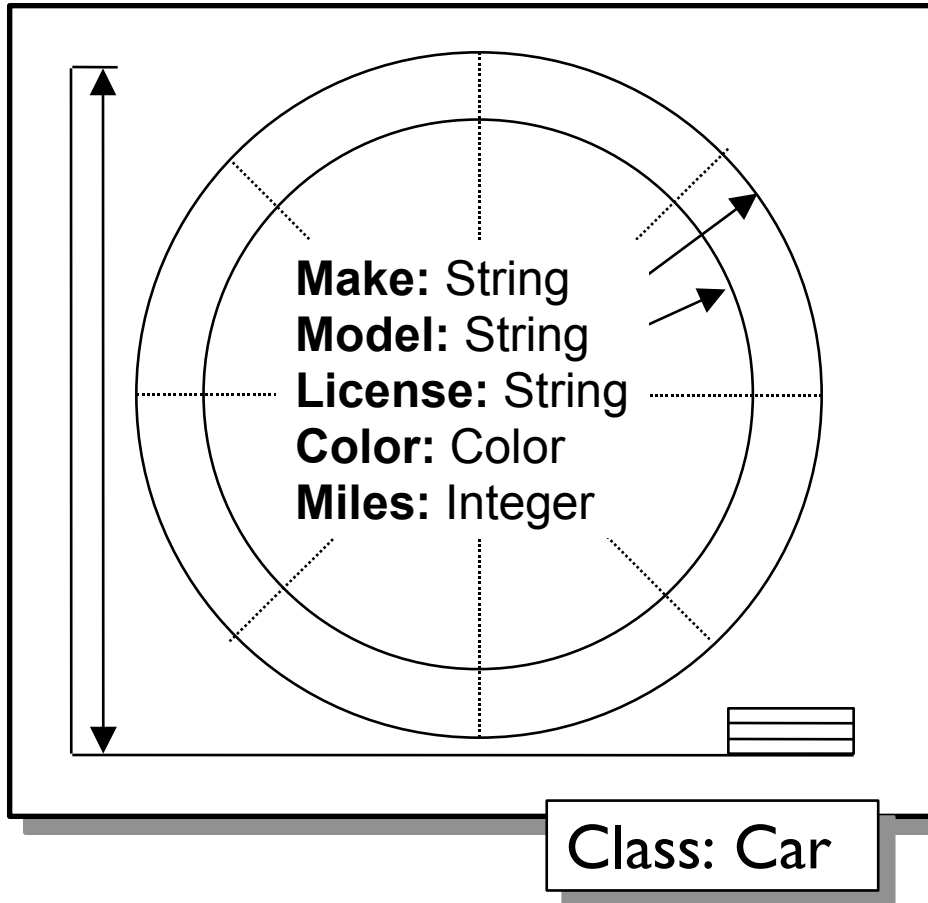
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- A **class** is a blueprint for creating many similar objects.
- The created object is an **instance** of that class.
- Objects created from the same class will have the same basic **structure** and **functionality**.
  - All cars created from the same Ford Escort blueprints will look and work basically the same.
- **Many instances** can be created from a single class.
  - Just as many Ford Escorts can be created from the same set of Ford Escort blueprints.

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*Think of objects as structs (C) or records (Pascal): there's a single type definition (the class), but many different structs/records (the instances) can be created from it.*

# Classes and instances





# Instance variables

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- An **instance variable** (or **attribute**) of an object is a piece of information attached to an instance (object).
  - The name of a Person object, the model and year of a Car object, etc.
- The instance variables that an object has are **defined in the object's class**: an object can usually have many instance variables, of many different types.
- **Each object is given its own private space to hold its instance variables.** Assigning a new value to an instance variable of one object does not affect the instance variables of any other object.

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*If you think of objects as structs (C) or records (Pascal), then the instance variables are the structure elements.*

# Instance methods

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- When we define objects, we usually have an idea of what we want to do with them...
  - *I'm dealing with Person objects in an employee database... I want to be able to **ask** each Person object their **name**, **weight**, and **age**.*
  - *I'm dealing with Car objects in a driving simulation... I want to be able to **start** a Car, **change its speed**, **turn its steering wheel**, etc.*
- An action that involves a single object as the "star player" is usually implemented as a special kind of function/subroutine attached to that object's class, called an **instance method** (or, more commonly, just a **method**).

# Methods and messages

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- A **message** is the *request* you send to an object in order to get it to do something: perform an action, return a value, etc.

```
someone.setName("Picard");
```

- A **method** is the *piece of code* which is called to perform the activity requested by the message:

```
Person::setName(String newname) {  
    self.name = newname;  
}
```

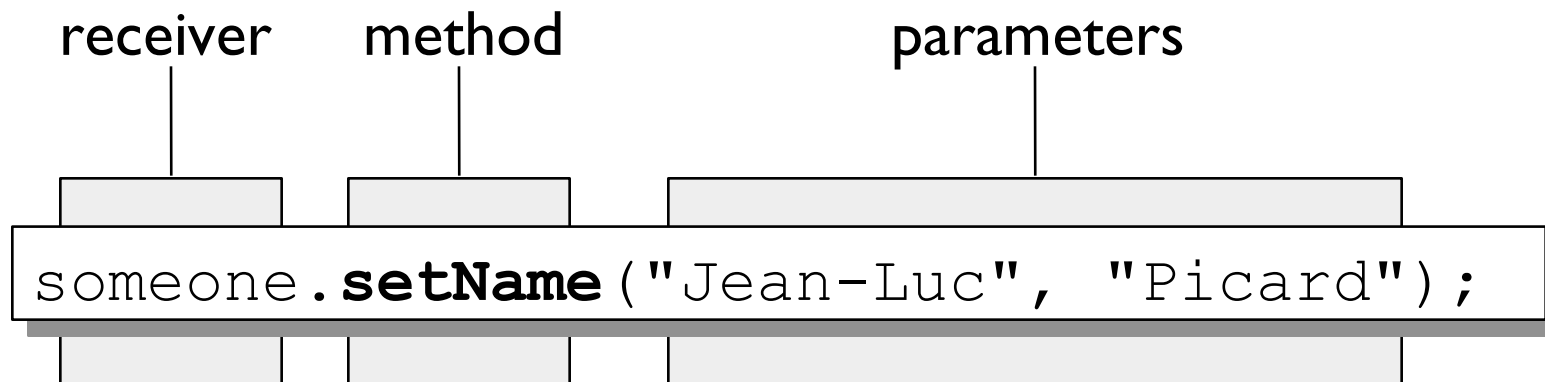
- **Message passing** and **method invocation** usually mean the same thing: the act of sending a message to an object, and having that object do something.

# What messages look like

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A message generally has three parts:

- The **receiver**: the object receiving the message.
- The **method name**: what we want the object to execute.
- The **parameters**: any arguments that the message takes.



# What methods look like

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- Like any other function, **methods can take arguments.**
- Methods know **which object received the message** (they have to... after all, it's the star player!).

They might access the object through a special variable (C++'s `this`, Smalltalk's `self`):

Or through a special argument given to the method (Perl, Python):

Or just access its instance variables implicitly (C++, Smalltalk):

```
Person::setName(String new) {  
    this->name = new;  
}
```

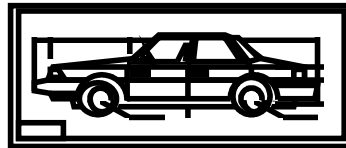
```
sub setName {  
    my ($self, $new) = @_;  
    $self->{Name} = $new;  
}
```

```
Person::setName(String new) {  
    name = new;  
}
```

# An OO bestiary

## Classes

### Real world



blueprint

### Software

```
class Car {  
    String itsModel;  
    int    itsYear;  
    Tire   itsTires[4];  
    ...  
}
```

## Instances



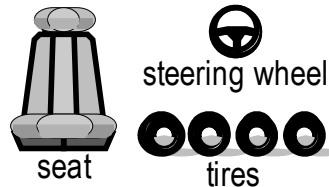
car

myCar

myMom'sCar

myFriend'sCar

## Instance variables



seat

steering wheel

tires

myCar

itsModel	Escort			
itsYear	1990			
itsTires	tire631	tire245	tire898	tire707

## Methods



dashboard

```
myCar.start();  
myCar.shiftGear(FIRST);  
myCar.accelerate();  
myCar.turn(LEFT);
```

# A sample class

```
class Person {  
  
    String name;  
    int age;  
    float weight;  
  
    /* Change my weight: */  
    setWeight(int newWeight) {  
        weight = newWeight;  
    }  
  
    /* Return my weight, if I won't mind: */  
    getWeight() {  
        if (weight < 150)  
            return weight;  
        else  
            return -1;  
    }  
}
```

instance variables

method

method

# Using classes and objects

---

Create instance of class Person

```
Person kirk("Kirk, James T.");  
  
kirk.setWeight(190);  
kirk.setAge(37);  
  
wgt = kirk.getWeight();
```

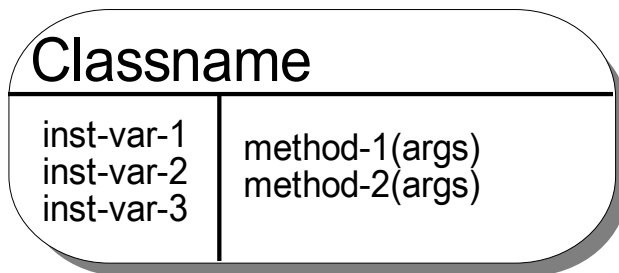
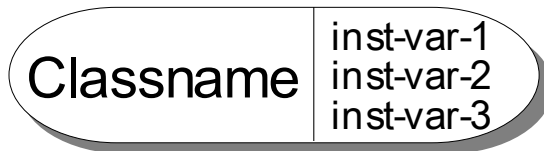
Send messages to object "kirk"



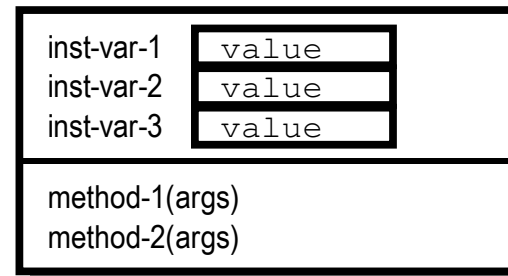
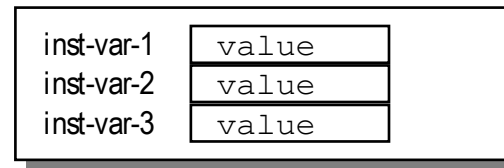
# Representing classes and objects

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## Class



## Object



# "Pure" OO environments

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- In very "pure" OO environments, ***everything is an object!***
  - Every class might be an instance of a special MetaClass class, which in turn might be an instance of itself!
  - Methods/functions might be instances of a special Code class.
- This can be taken to surprising extremes... for example, in OPAL (Smalltalk), *there is no if-then statement*: instead, you send an *ifTrue:ifFalse* message to a Boolean object:

```
method: getWeight
    (weight < 150.0)
        ifTrue: [^weight]      % okay
        ifFalse: [^-1]
    % no way!
%
```

# Class methods

---

*If a class is just another kind of object, then it should have its own methods and respond to messages, right?*

- Right! Because of this, we usually divide methods into:
  - **Class methods**, which are invoked when you send a message to a class.
  - **Instance methods**, which are invoked when you send a message to an instance of a "normal" class.  
We usually just call these *methods*.
- The most common class method is the **constructor**, which returns a new instance. It's often called "new":

```
/* Class method: */  
p = Person.new("Kirk");
```

```
/* Instance method: */  
p.setName("Kirk");
```

# Class methods, cont'd

---

**Class methods generally *do not* operate on instances!**  
They are intended for performing utility functions that are *strongly* associated with a class, but that don't involve any particular instance of that class!

- Other candidates for class methods:
  - Storing/retrieving objects of this class by some appropriate lookup key (e.g., the name).
  - Asking for information related to the class as a whole:

```
/* Get the next available license plate. */  
classmethod Car::nextLicensePlate {  
    CurrentLicense += 1;  
    return "ABC" + CurrentLicense;  
}
```

# Class variables

---

*If a class is just another kind of object, then it should have its own instance variables too, right?*

- Right! And these special instance variables are commonly called **class variables**.
- In many OO environments, the only places you can access a class variable are...
  - From inside a **class method** of that class
  - From inside an **instance method** of that class
- Class variables are kind of like global variables which are associated with a particular class.

# Constructors

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- As mentioned before, **constructors** are special functions (usually class or instance methods) used to **initialize or return a new object**.
- Most common name for a constructor is **new ( )**.
- Depending on the OO environment, a class **might have many constructors**, each of which builds an object a different way.
- Different constructors might have **different names** (Perl5, Smalltalk), or they might all have the **same name** but be distinguished by having different numbers/types of their **arguments** (C++).

# Sample constructors

---

- In C++, constructors are special unnamed **instance methods**, invoked when you declare object variables:

```
// Create a Person from nothing:
Person anonymous;

// Create a Person from name, age, and weight:
Person nsolo("Napoleon Solo", 35, 190.0);

// Create a Person from another Person:
Person clone(nsolo);
```

- In Perl5, constructors are **class methods**, and can be named whatever you like:

```
# Create a Person from name, age, and weight:
$nsolo = Person->new(      Name=>"Napoleon Solo",
                        Age=>35,
                        Weight=>190.0);
```

# Destructors

---

- Objects often end their lives by being *explicitly deleted* (C++), going *out of scope* (C++), or being *garbage-collected* (Java, Perl, Smalltalk).
- We sometimes want to get control of the object just before it vanishes, to clean up after it properly:
  - We may have opened files, which we want to close.
  - We may have allocated memory, which we want to free.
- The special instance method invoked just as an object is about to disappear is called the ***destructor***.
- Classes generally have **one destructor**, which takes **no arguments**.



# OO FEATURES/BENEFITS

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- Encapsulation
- Polymorphism
- Subclasses and inheritance
- Class hierarchies and inheritance schemes
- Abstract/concrete classes
- Static/dynamic binding

# Encapsulation

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- There is a piece of wisdom which has made its way down through centuries of software development...

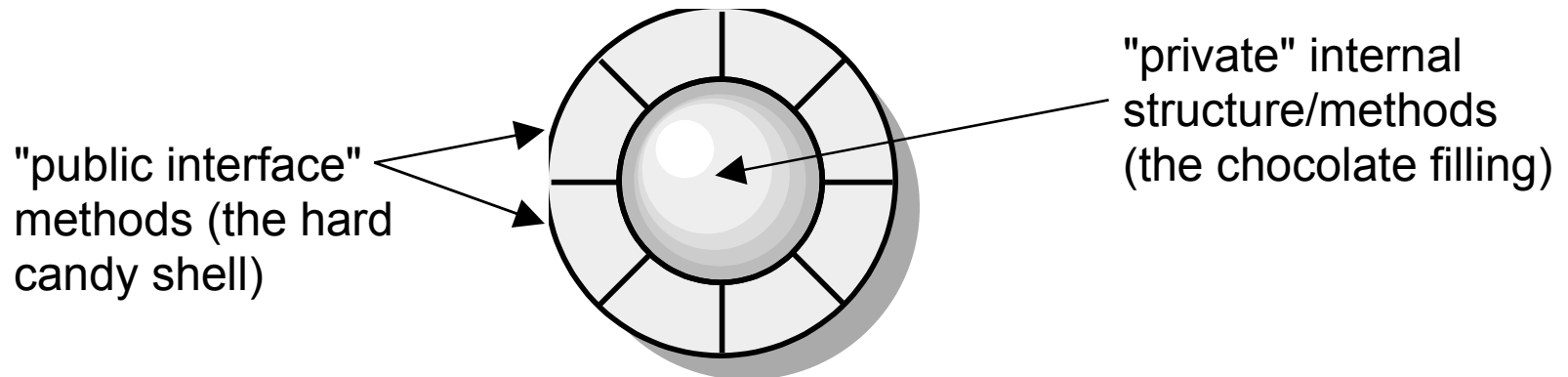
*Teams work best when members of those teams know as little about each others' work as possible.*

- When one software module depends on the low-level implementation details of another module, unexplained bugs tend to appear as the system evolves.
- The "back room" metaphor.
- We need a way of not only *suggesting* that programmers stay out of the "back room", but *enforcing* it.

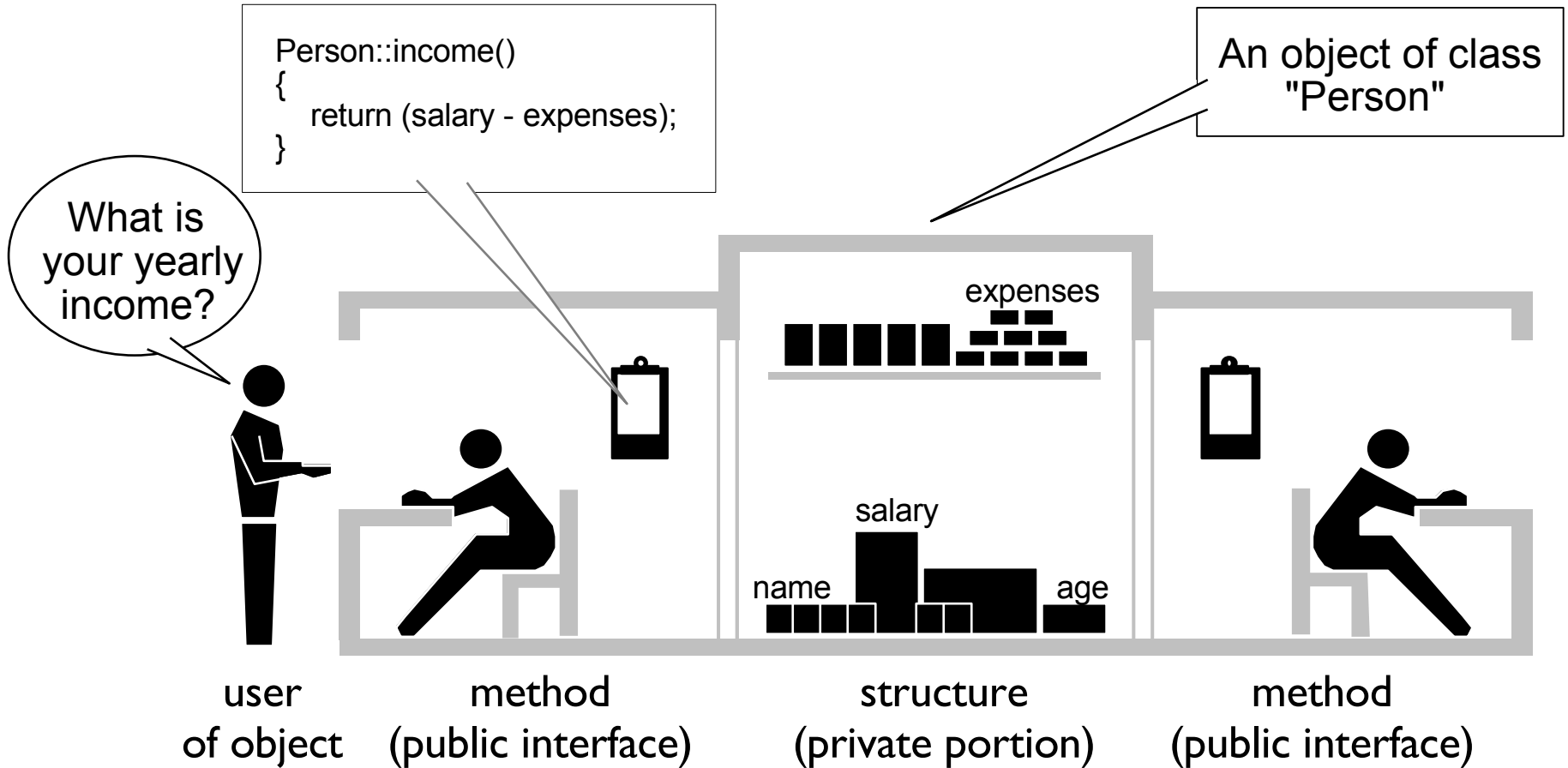
# Encapsulation

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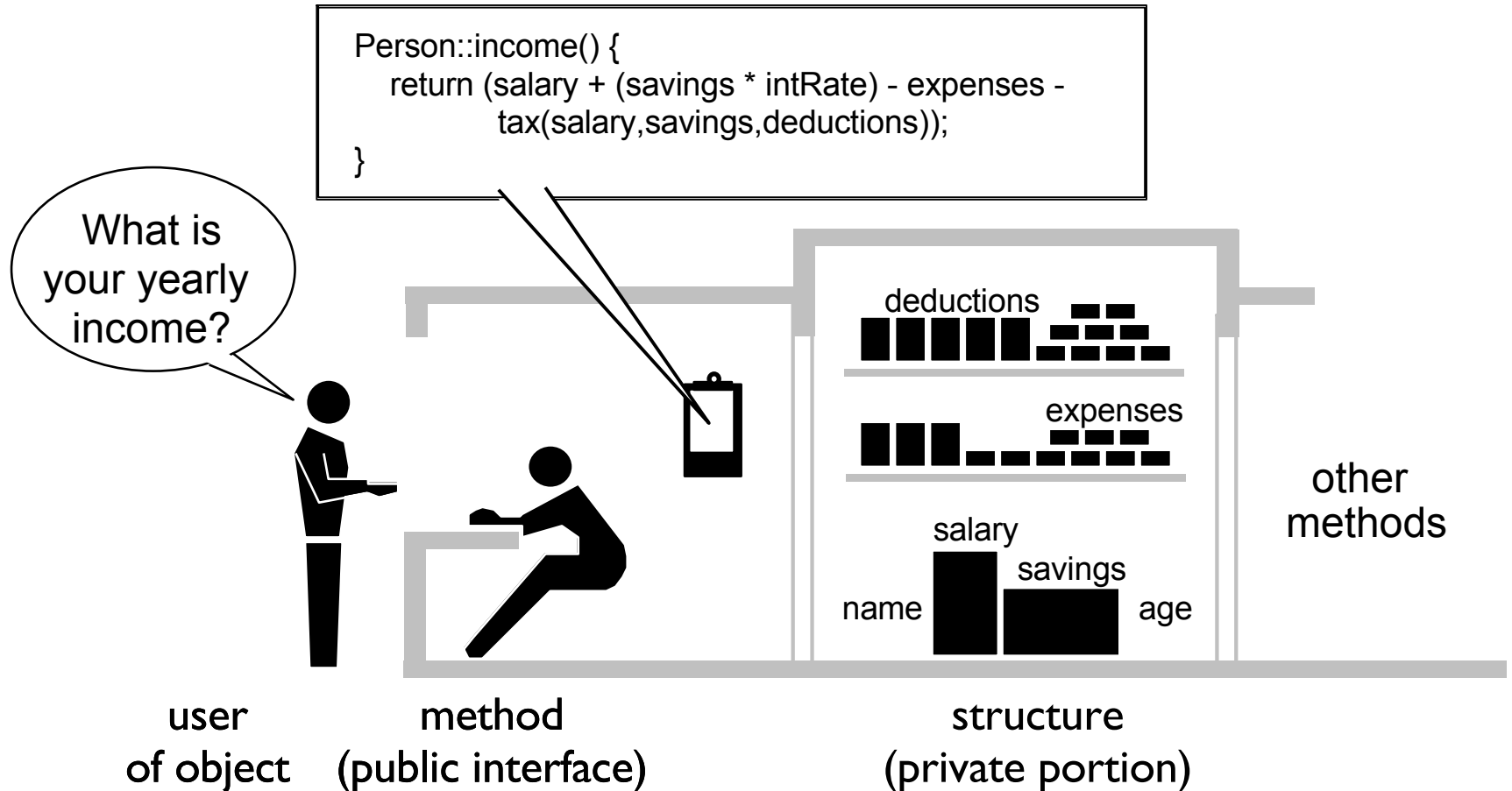
- **Encapsulation** means that some or all of an object's internal structure is "hidden" from the outside world.
- Hidden information may only be accessed through the object's methods, called the object's **public interface**.
- Access to object is safe, controlled.
- Methods, like instance variables, may also be hidden to create private "helper functions".



# Objects as "goods" and "services"



# Encapsulation as maintainability



# Encapsulation for class builders and class users

---

## Class builder

## Class user

### Goal

Create a reusable, maintainable class with an understandable interface.

Quickly get and use a class.

### Approach

Hide structure and implementation details from user.

Examine and use operations in class interface.

### Benefits

May change structure and algorithms without affecting user.

Understandable interface; can be used without fear of "breaking" object.

### Costs

Reusable classes must be carefully planned.

Access to data through operations may be slower than direct access.

# Polymorphism

---

- Literally, "one entity, many forms."
- Means the **same name can be assigned to different functions/methods**: the actual function triggered by the name is determined by the types of the arguments.
- Sometimes called *overloading*.
- Allows designers to use the most "natural" and understandable names for functions:

```
/* Matrix M times vector v: */  
y = M * x;  
  
/* Matrix M times scalar: */  
N = M * 2;  
  
/* Vector x times scalar: */  
y = 4 * x;
```

The multiplication operator  
is overloaded



# With/without polymorphism

---

- **Without polymorphism**, we need a unique name for every function:

```
/* Stuff with matrices, vectors, and scalars: */  
mat_vec_mult(  
    M,  
    vec_times_scal(  
        vec_cross(vec_minus(A, B), vec_plus(A, B)),  
        -1)  
    );
```

- **With polymorphism**, we can use natural names and operators, shrinking code and increasing readability:

```
/* Stuff with matrices, vectors, and scalars: */  
M * (-1 * (A-B).cross(A+B))
```



# More fun with polymorphism

---

Overloading '+' to perform string concatenation:

```
fullname = lastname + ", " + firstname;
```

Overloading 'min' to compare different types:

```
firstInDictionary = min("astro", "zodiac");  
lowerNumber = min(42, 99);  
closerToOrigin = min(complex1, complex2);
```

Overloading 'print' to print different entities to different kinds of output:

```
aPerson.print(myFile);  
aPerson.print(myScreen);  
aPerson.print(myPrinter);  
aPlace.print(myPrinter);
```

# Polymorphism for class builders and class users

---

## Class builder

## Class user

### Goal

Create maintainable, reusable, class **library** with understandable interfaces.

Quickly get and use a class.

### Approach

Use polymorphism to create **similarity** between class interfaces & speed learning.

Examine and use operations in class interface.

### Benefits

Interfaces to new classes are already partially designed.

Learn one class, and learn a bunch!

### Costs

Must pick method names and arguments carefully. Must *not* reuse names if purposes differ!

Misnamed methods which are similar *but not identical* can be confusing.

# Subclasses

---

- It is often desirable to create a new class which is a special case of an existing class, possibly with some small changes in structure or methods:

```
class Person {  
  
    String name;  
    int age;  
    float weight;  
  
    void setWeight(wgt) {...}  
    int getWeight() {...}  
}
```



```
class Doctor {  
  
    String name;  
    int age;  
    float weight;  
    School medSchool;  
    String licenseNo;  
  
    void setWeight(wgt) {...}  
    int getWeight() {...}  
    void examine(patient) {...}  
}
```

- To re-use the existing code, make the new class a **subclass** of the existing one...

# Subclasses and inheritance

---

- If class C is a subclass of class P, then C is a **child class** of P, and P is a **parent class** or **superclass** of C.
- A child class automatically **inherits** all the structure and functionality of its parent class. When defining a subclass, you will usually choose to:
  - **Add** new instance variables and methods.
  - **Override** some methods of the parent class, providing new methods.
  - **Exclude** some of the instance variables and methods of the parent class.

# Adding structure/behavior in subclasses

When you specify instance variables/methods in a child class that are not present in the parent class, instances of the child class get the new structure and functionality **in addition** to what they would get from the parent alone:

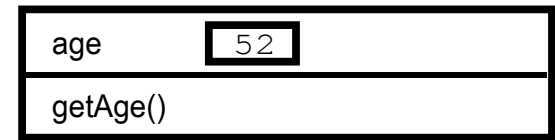
## Classes

```
class Person {  
    int age;  
  
    int getAge() {...}  
}
```

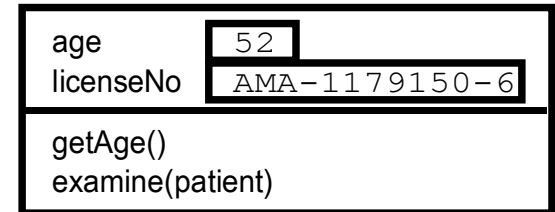
```
class Doctor : Person {  
    String licenseNo;  
    void examine(patient) {...}  
}
```

## Instances

a Person:



a Doctor:



# Overriding behavior in subclasses

When you specify a method in a child class that **already exists** in the parent class, the child's method **overrides** the parent's method: instances of the child will execute the child's method.

## Classes

```
class Person {  
    String name;  
    String getName() {  
        return name;  
    }  
}
```

```
class Doctor : Person {  
    String getName() {  
        return "Dr. " + name;  
    }  
}
```

## Instances

name	Leonard McCoy
getName()	

Uses getName() of Person

name	Leonard McCoy
getName()	

Uses getName() of Doctor

# Overriding with default behavior

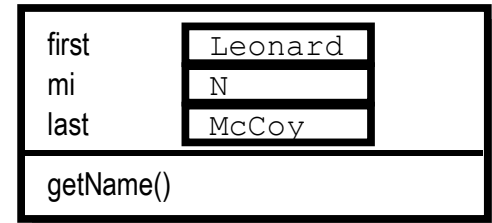
Sometimes it is desirable to override a parent's method, and yet also to **invoke the parent's method** to do some of the work:

## Classes

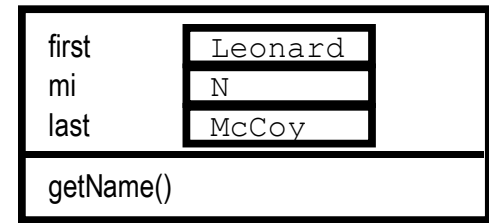
```
class Person {  
    String first, mi, last;  
  
    String getName() {  
        return first + mi + last;  
    }  
}
```

```
class Doctor : Person {  
  
    String getName() {  
        return  
            "Dr." +  
            Person::getName();  
    }  
}
```

## Instances



getName() returns "Leonard N. McCoy"



getName() returns "Dr. Leonard N. McCoy"

# Exclusion in subclasses

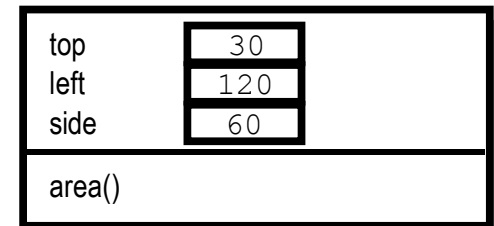
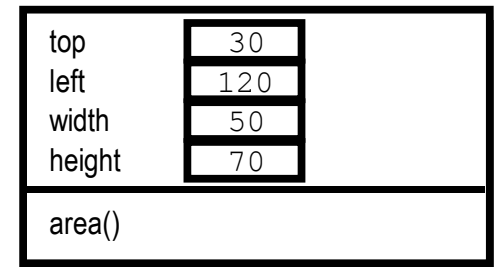
If a child class is a very special case of its parent, it may not need all the instance variables in its parent. Some languages allow variables/methods to be **excluded** in a subclass.

## Classes

```
class Rectangle {  
  
    int top;  
    int left;  
    int width;  
    int height;  
}
```

```
class Square : Rectangle {  
  
    exclude width;  
    exclude height;  
    int side;  
}
```

## Instances





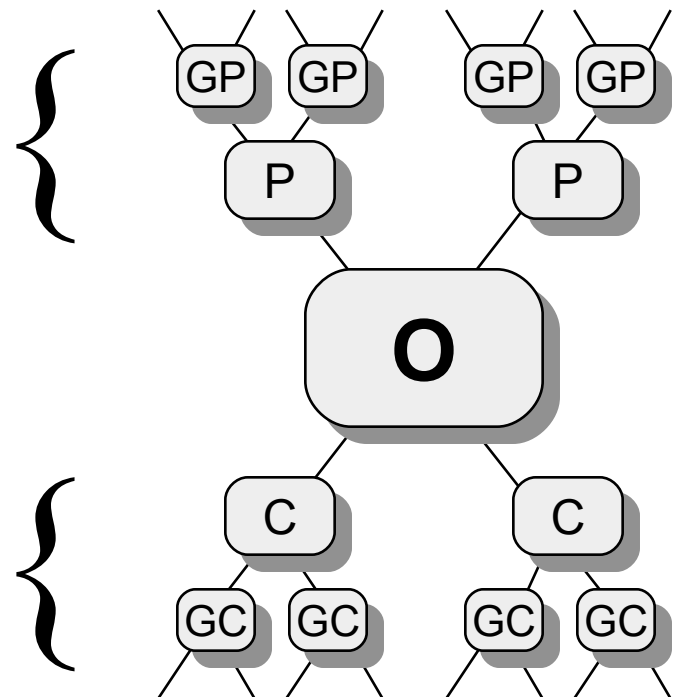
# Class hierarchies

---

Usually, a class can have many child classes, each of which can have their own child classes. A "family tree" of all the classes in a program is called a **class hierarchy**...

The **base classes** of a given class  $\bigcirc$  are those classes from which  $\bigcirc$  ultimately inherits (parents, grandparents, etc.).

The **derived classes** of a given class  $\bigcirc$  are those classes which ultimately inherit from  $\bigcirc$  (children, grandchildren, etc.).

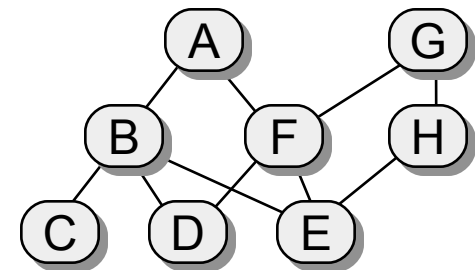
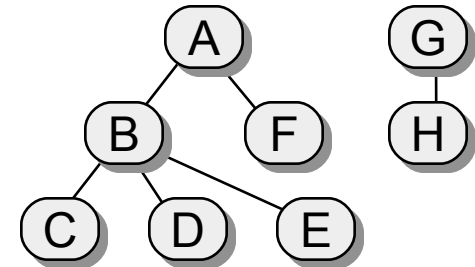


# Inheritance schemes

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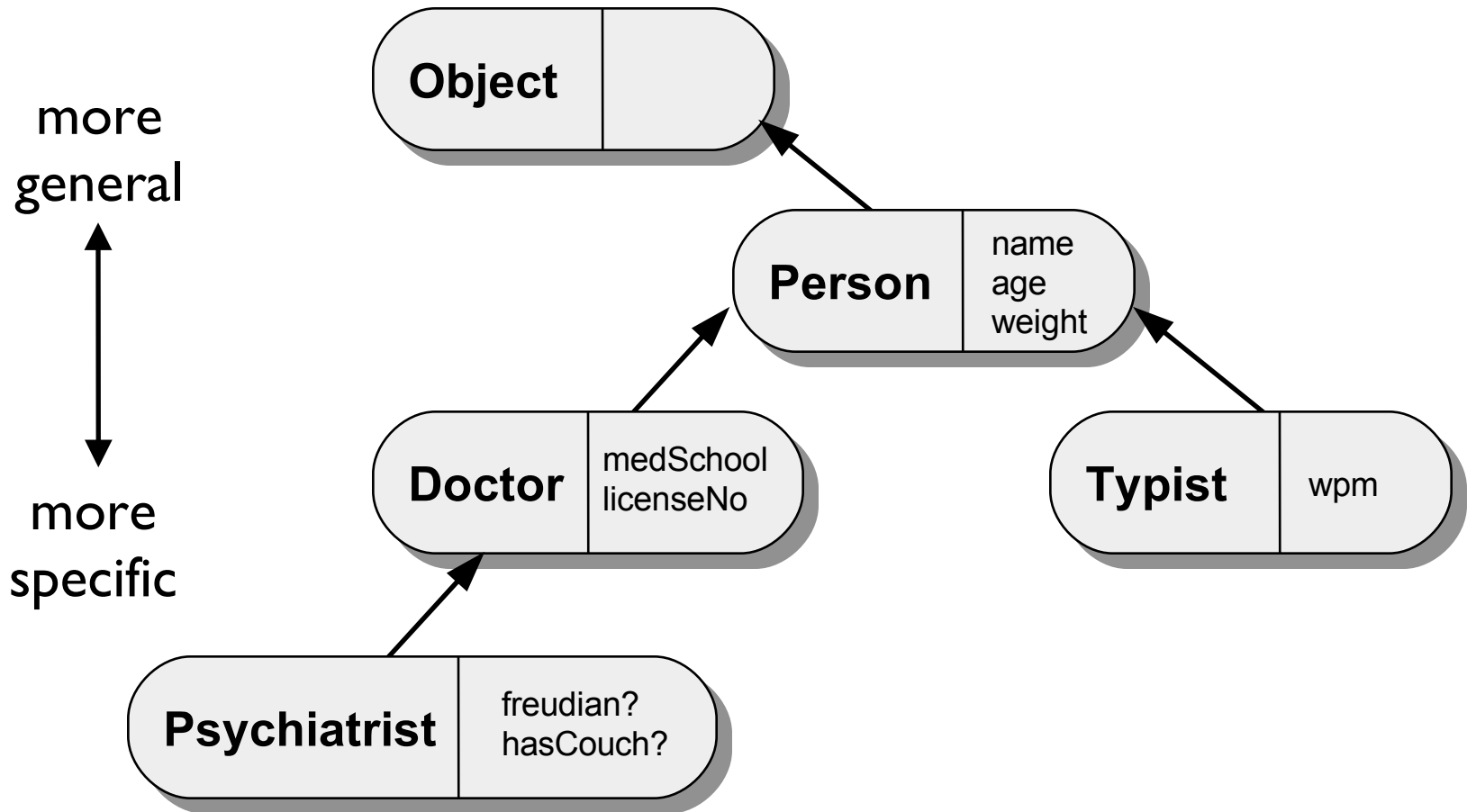
One important way we characterize an OO language is by the kind of inheritance we are allowed to use...

- If classes can't be derived from parents, we have a ***no-inheritance*** language. Its class hierarchies will be flat.
- If each class can have **at most one parent**, we have a ***single-inheritance*** language. Its class hierarchies will resemble trees.
- If each class to can have **more than one parent** class, we have a ***multiple-inheritance*** language. Its class hierarchies will be graphs (DAGs).

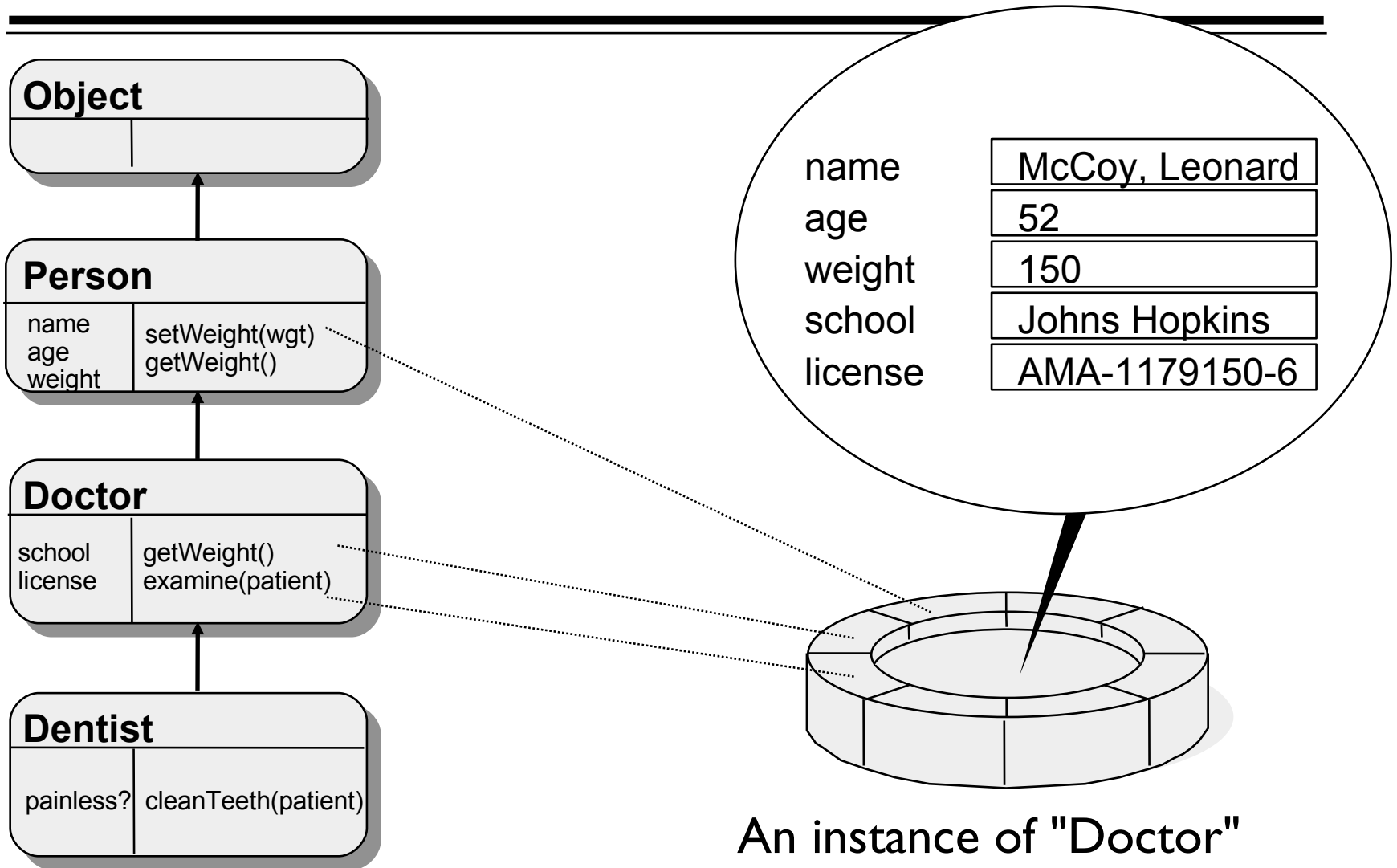


# A single-inheritance class hierarchy

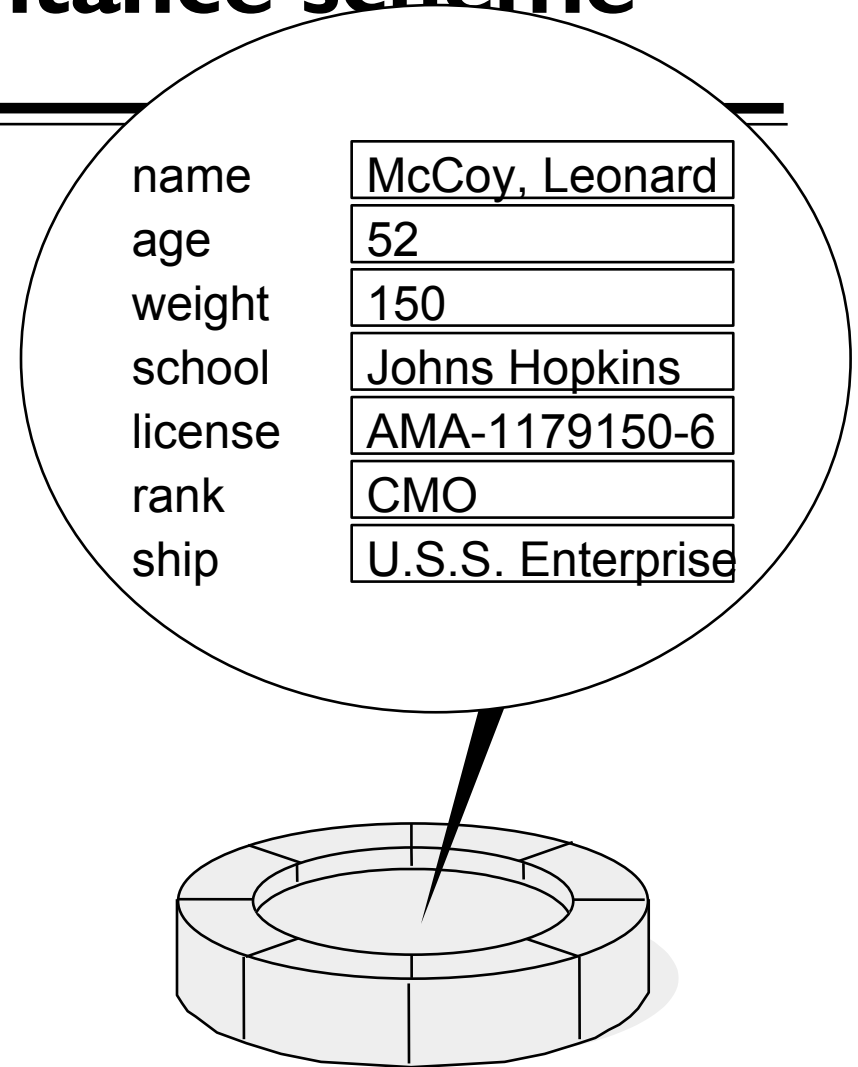
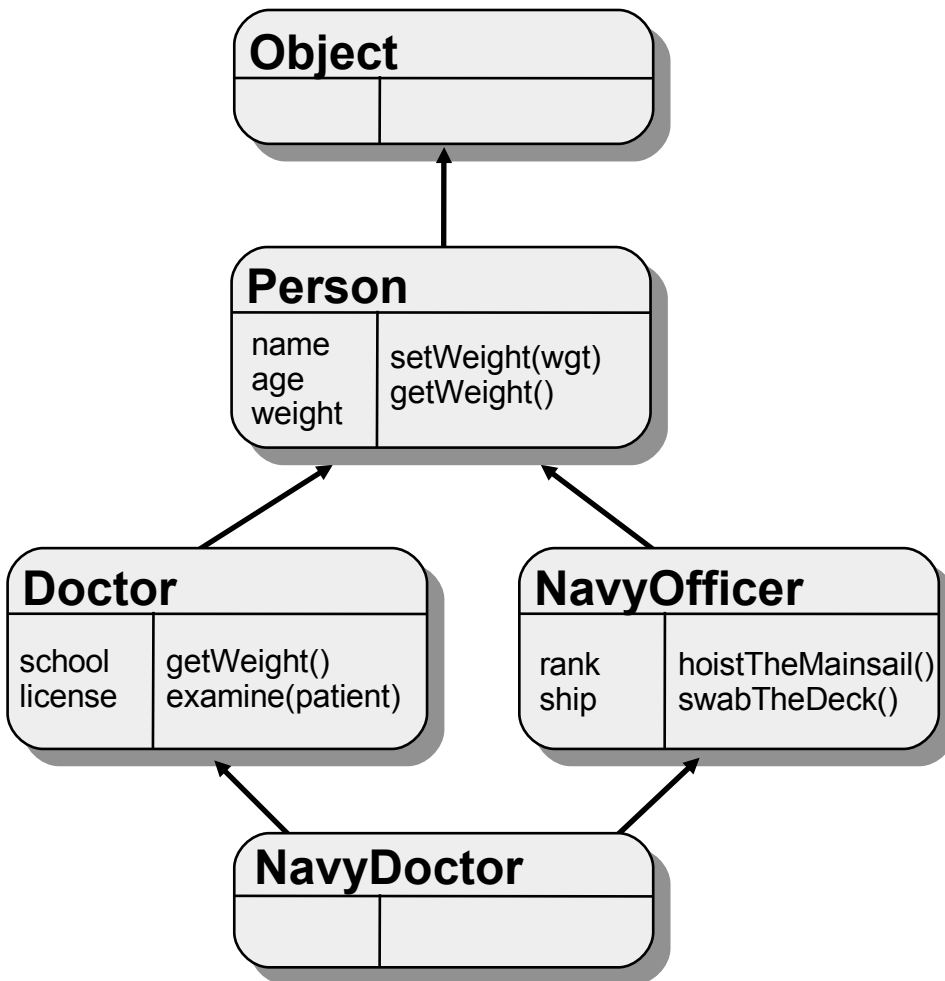
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# A single-inheritance scheme



# A multiple-inheritance scheme



An instance of "NavyDoctor"

# Advantages/disadvantages of using inheritance

---

## Advantages

- Code sharing.
- Software reusability without disturbing working code.
- Overloading helps develop standard class interfaces.
- Encourages design by extensions/refinements, rather than mass re-implementation.

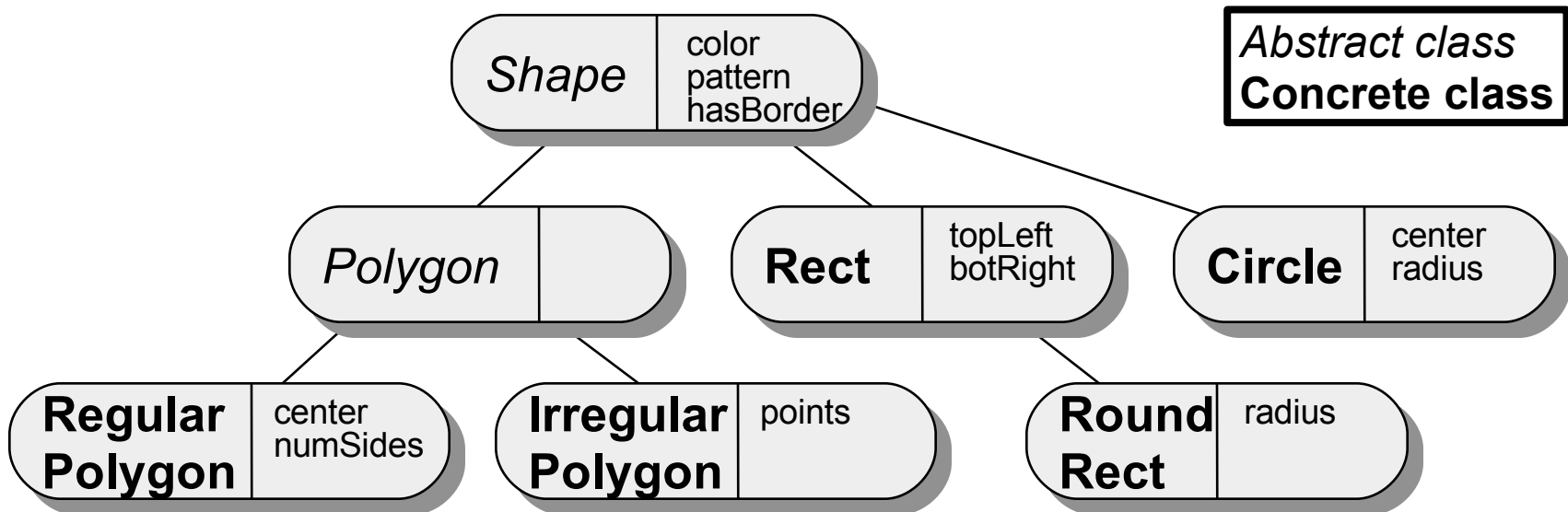
## Disadvantages

- Requires an OO programming environment.
- Can inherit attributes and operations that are not desired.
- Too many subclasses makes debugging difficult.
- Performance may be degraded.

# Abstract classes vs. concrete classes

---

- **Abstract classes** are classes which **do not have instances** of their own: they exist solely so that their child classes may inherit structure and/or functionality.
- **Concrete classes** are classes which **may have instances**. A concrete class may also have child classes.

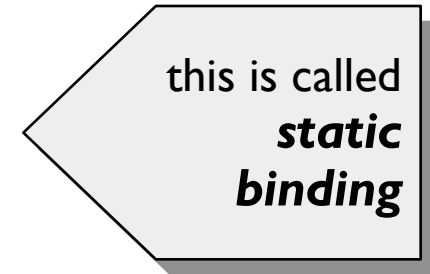


# Static binding vs. dynamic binding

---

In some OO languages, objects don't keep track of their types:

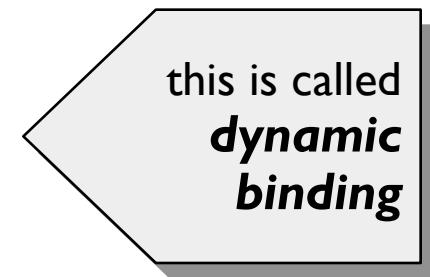
- An object's class (and, therefore, its behavior) is **determined at compile-time** by the class of the variable it's placed in (or referenced through).



this is called  
**static  
binding**

In other OO languages, objects know their types:

- An object's class is **determined at run-time**. Not affected by the class of the variable the object it's placed in (or referenced through).



this is called  
**dynamic  
binding**



# Behavior under static vs. dynamic binding

---

Recall our example where Doctor overrode the getName() method of Person. Now consider the following program:

```
Doctor julian("Bashir");  
Person someone = julian;  
print(someone.getName());
```

If we get...

**Bashir**

...then the Doctor behaves like a Person after being stored in a variable of type Person: we've got static binding.

If we get...

**Dr. Bashir**

...then the Doctor behaves like a Doctor even after being stored in a variable of type Person: we've got dynamic binding.

# Containers with static vs. dynamic binding

---

```
for (i = 0; i < size; i++) {
    Object *thing = slot[i];

    switch (*thing.type) {
    case INT:
        (*(IntObject *)thing).print();
        break;
    case STRING:
        (*(StringObject *)thing).print();
        break;
    case CIRCLE:
        (*(CircleObject *)thing).print();
        break;
        ...
    }
}
```

**static  
binding**  
(yuck... just  
like non-OO!)

```
for (i = 0; i < size; i++) {
    slot[i].print()
}
```

**dynamic  
binding**  
(code it  
just once!)

# Static binding vs. dynamic binding

---

## Static binding

- Type of object fixed at compile time, by type of variable containing it.
- Often results in "case" and "if" statements.
- Heterogeneous collections difficult to implement.
- Easier to debug.
- No overhead at run-time.

## Dynamic binding

- Type of object determined at run time, so objects "know what they are".
- Eliminates complex "case" and "if" statements.
- Heterogeneous collections greatly simplified.
- Harder to debug.
- Slower from run-time lookups.

# What we've been leading up to: software reuse

---

The most important benefit of the OO approach is that by...

- Hiding implementation details (*encapsulation*)
- Reducing the number of different things you need to remember (*polymorphism*)
- Minimizing the amount of redundant code that needs to be built, tested, and maintained (*subclassing*)
- Helping existing code to not break just because someone has added a new data type (*dynamic binding*)

...it makes it far easier for you to reuse software components.

# OO DATABASES

---

- What they are
- How they compare with Relational Databases

# What is a database?

---

- A **database** is a repository for **persistent** information: information that exists even when no program is active, usually on disk.
- A good **database management system**...
  - Lets us **model** information in our problem domain accurately.
  - Allow **fast** insert, update, and query of the information.
  - Gives multiple users concurrent and reliable access to the information (*transaction management*).
  - Allows the information to be managed by **application programs** (not just through a user interface).

# Relational databases

---

- Been around for decades.
- Information placed in **tables**:
  - Rows are individual data records.
  - Columns are the attributes of those records.
- Different tables are **joined** on common values of particular attributes:

Table: Person

Name	Age	Car
Arthur	36	ZZ9ZA
Trillian	32	
Zaphod	34	HOG121

Table: Car

Make	Color	License
Sirius	gold	HOG121
Nash	white	ZZ9ZA



# Object-oriented databases

---

- An **OO database** (OODB) is like a running OO program, except that the objects are *persistent*: they are stored on disk rather than in memory.
- The objects in an OO database can send messages to each other, just as objects in OO programs can: message-sending can be used to perform queries, create and install new objects, send mail to users in a user database, etc.
- Ability to design and implement custom container classes allows developers to optimize database structure based on queries to be supported.



# Benefits of Relational DBs over OODBs

---

## OO Relational

- |                          |                                     |   |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | • Strong support in academic and commercial communities?    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | • Declarative vs. procedural query language?                |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | • Underlying mathematical formalism for query optimization? |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | • Existing natural-language and GUI interface packages?     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | • Easy schema modification of large, populated databases?   |

# Benefits of OODBs over Relational DBs

---

## OO Relational



Allows modeling of complex entities?



Allows modeling of custom collections/indexes (such as quadtrees for fast spatial search)?



Does *not* require duplication of data?



Scalable performance: will queries be fast for very large, complex databases?



Scalable storage: can database easily be distributed across many physical storage devices?



Smooth interface to external environment (other databases, math libraries, email)?

# When is OO good to use?

---

- Experience has shown that not all problem domains are perfectly suited for OO implementations. Things which can indicate OO as a **good** choice...
  - Need to manage complex information.
  - Need to model real-world concepts and processes (e.g., simulations).
  - Large number of developers to be coordinated.
  - Correctness, maintainability, and evolvability more important than blinding speed.
  - Rapid/evolutionary prototyping environment.

# PROJECT: SIM

---

Many of you have played computer games where a realistic world is being modelled and maybe simulated: SimCity, Zork, Trinity, etc.

Ever wonder how people built those things?

Ever try to yourself?

Imagine that you want to create a swords-and-sorcery-style text adventure. Of course you're going to do an OO implementation. :-)

What classes will you need? What attributes and methods will they have? How will they interact? How "real" can/should the physics of your world be?