

# Concepts of Object-Oriented Programming

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Chair of Programming Methodology

Autumn Semester 2011



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# 5. Information Hiding and Encapsulation

## 5.1 Information Hiding

## 5.2 Encapsulation

# Information Hiding

- Definition

*Information hiding is a technique for reducing the dependencies between modules:*

- *The intended client is provided with all the information needed to use the module **correctly**, and **with nothing more***
  - *The client uses only the (publicly) available information*
- Information hiding deals with programs, that is, with static aspects
- Contracts are part of the exported interfaces

# Objectives

- Establish strict interfaces
- Hide implementation details
- Reduce dependencies between modules
  - Classes can be studied and understood in isolation
  - Classes only interact in simple, well-defined ways

```
class Set {  
    ...  
    // contract or documentation  
    public void insert( Object o )  
        { ... }  
}
```

```
class BoundedSet {  
    Set rep;  
    int maxSize;  
  
    public void insert( Object o ) {  
        if ( rep.size( ) < maxSize )  
            rep.insert( o );  
    }  
}
```

# The Client Interface of a Class

- Class name
- Type parameters and their bounds
- Super-interfaces
- Signatures of exported methods and fields
- Client interface of direct superclass

```
class SymbolTable
    extends Dictionary<String,String>
    implements Map<String,String> {
    public int size;

    public void add( String key, String value )
    { put( key, value ); }

    public String lookup( String key )
        throws IllegalArgumentException {
        return atKey( key );
    }
}
```

# What about Inheritance?

- Is the name of the superclass part of the client interface or an implementation detail?
- In Java, inheritance is done by subclassing
- Subtype information must be part of the client interface

```
class SymbolTable {  
    Dictionary<String,String> rep;  
  
    public SymbolTable( )  
        { ... }  
    public void  
        add( String key, String value )  
        { ... }  
    public String lookup( String key )  
        { ... }  
}
```

```
Dictionary<String,String> d;  
d = new SymbolTable();  
d.put( "var", "5" );
```

# The Client Interface of a Class

- Class name
- Type parameters and their bounds
- **Super-class**
- Super-interfaces
- Signatures of exported methods and fields
- Client interface of direct superclass

```
class SymbolTable
    extends Dictionary<String,String>
    implements Map<String,String> {
    public int size;

    public void add( String key, String value )
        { put( key, value ); }

    public String lookup( String key )
        throws IllegalArgumentException {
        return atKey( key );
    }
}
```

# Other Interfaces

- Subclass interface
  - Efficient access to superclass fields
  - Access to auxiliary superclass methods
- Friend interface
  - Mutual access to implementations of cooperating classes
  - Hiding auxiliary classes
- And others ...

```
package coop.util;  
public class DList {  
    protected Node first, last;  
    private int modCount;  
    protected void modified( )  
        { modCount++; }  
  
    ...  
}
```

```
package coop.util;  
/* default */ class Node {  
    /* default */ Object elem;  
    /* default */ Node next, prev;  
    ... }  
}
```



# Expressing Information Hiding

- Java: Access modifiers
  - **public**                      client interface
  - **protected**                subclass + friend interface
  - Default access              friend interface
  - **private**                    implementation
  
- Eiffel: Clients clause in feature declarations
  - **feature** { ANY }        client interface
  - **feature** { T }            friend interface for class T
  - **feature** { NONE }    implementation (only “**this**”-object)
  - All exports include subclasses

# Safe Changes

- Consistent renaming of hidden elements
- Modification of hidden implementation as long as exported functionality is preserved
- Access modifiers and Clients clauses specify what classes might be affected by a change

```
package coop.util;  
  
public class DList {  
  
    protected Node first, last;  
  
    private int version;  
    protected void modified( )  
        { version++; }  
    ...  
}
```

# Exchanging Implementations

- Observable behavior must be preserved
- Exported fields limit modifications severely
  - Use getter and setter methods instead
  - Uniform access in Eiffel
- Modifications are critical
  - Fragile baseclass problem
  - Object structures

```
class Coordinate {  
    private float x,y;  
    ...  
    public float distOrigin( )  
        { return Math.sqrt( x*x + y*y ); }  
}
```

```
class Coordinate {  
    private float radius, angle;  
    ...  
    public float distOrigin( )  
        { return radius; }  
}
```

# Method Selection in Java (JLS1)

- At compile time:
  1. Determine static declaration
  2. Check accessibility
  3. Determine invocation mode (virtual / nonvirtual)
  
- At run time:
  4. Compute receiver reference
  5. Locate method to invoke (based on dynamic type of receiver object)

```
class T {  
    public void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
class S extends T {  
    public void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
class U extends S { }
```

```
T v = new U( );  
v.m( );
```

# Rules for Overriding: Access

- **Access Rule:**  
The access modifier of an overriding method must provide **at least as much access** as the overridden method

Default access

**protected**

**public**

```
class Super {  
    ...  
    protected void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
class Sub extends Super {  
    public void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
In class Super:  
public void test( Super v ) {  
    v.m( );  
}
```

# Rules for Overriding: Hiding

- **Override Rule:**  
A method Sub.m **overrides** the superclass method Super.m only if Super.m is **accessible from Sub**
- If Super.m is not accessible from Sub, it is **hidden** by Sub.m
- Private methods cannot be overridden

```
class Super {  
    ...  
    private void m( )  
        { System.out.println("Super"); }  
    public void test( Super v )  
        { v.m( ); }  
}
```

```
class Sub extends Super {  
    public void m( )  
        { System.out.println("Sub"); }  
}
```

```
Super v = new Sub( );  
v.test( v );
```

# Problems with Default Access Methods

- S.m does not override T.m (T.m is not accessible in S)
- T.m and S.m are **different methods** with same signature
- **Static** declaration for invocation is **T.m**
- At run time, **S.m is** selected and **invoked**

```
package PT;  
public class T {  
    void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
package PS;  
public class S extends PT.T {  
    public void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
In package PT:  
T v = new PS.S( );  
v.m( );
```

# Corrected Method Selection (JLS2)

- Dynamically selected method **must override** statically determined method
- Theoretically, **uniform treatment** of private and non-private methods possible
- At compile time:
  1. Determine static declaration
  2. Check accessibility
  3. **dropped**
- At run time:
  4. Compute receiver reference
  5. Locate method to invoke, **which overrides statically determined method**



# Problems with Protected Methods

- S.m overrides T.m
- **Static declaration** is T.m, which is **accessible for C**
- **At run time**, S.m is selected, which is **not accessible for C**
- **protected** does not always “**provide at least as much access**” as **protected**

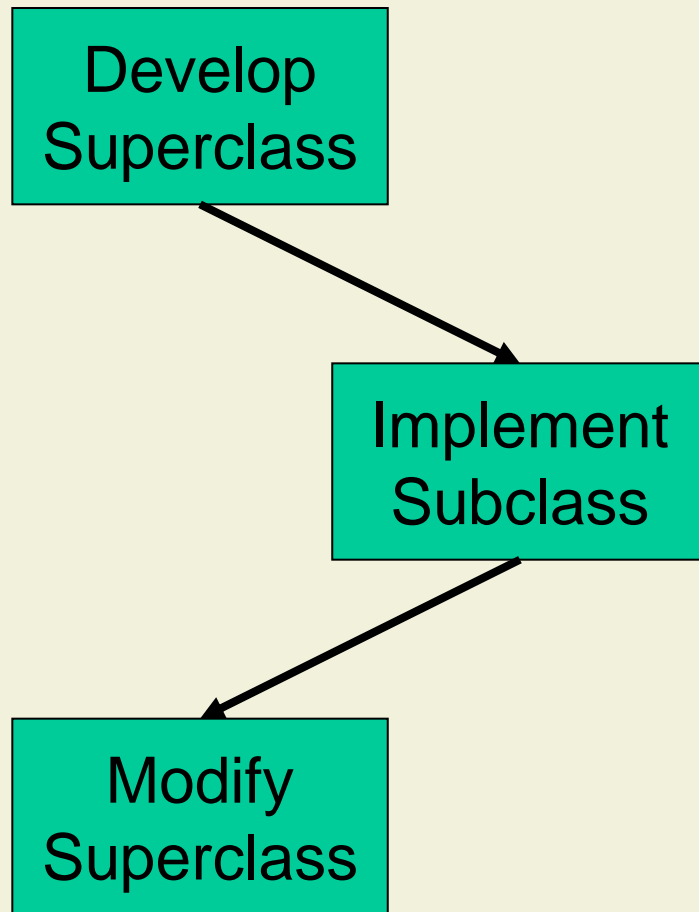
```
package PT;  
public class T {  
    protected void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
package PS;  
public class S extends PT.T {  
    protected void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

**public** would  
be safe

```
package PT;  
public class C {  
    public void foo( ) {  
        T v = new PS.S( );  
        v.m( );  
    }  
}
```

# Another Fragile Baseclass Problem

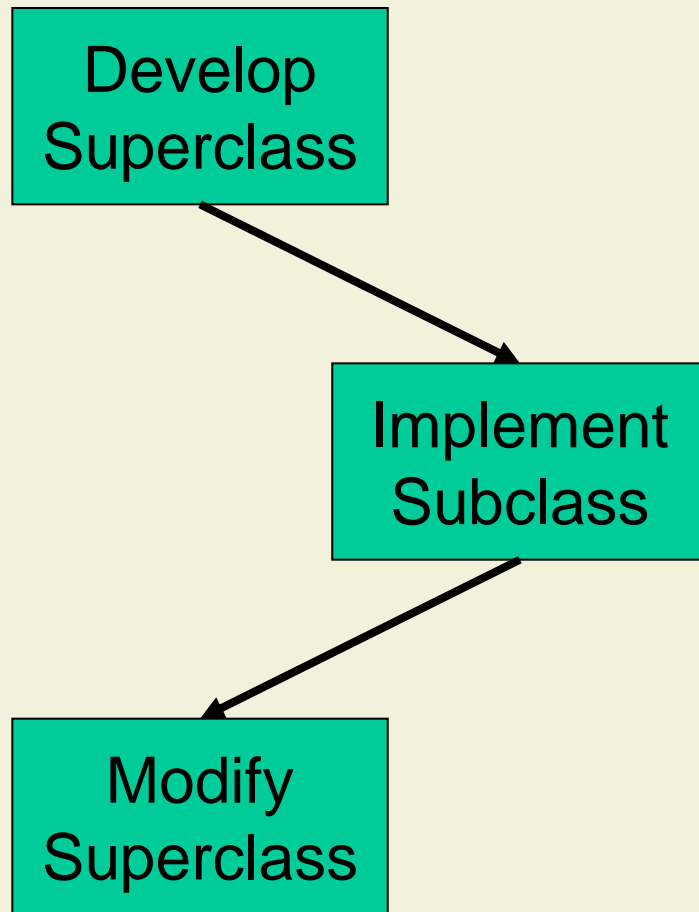


```
class C {  
    int x;  
    public    void inc1( )  
        { this.inc2( ); }  
    private  void inc2( )  
        { x++; }  
}
```

```
class CS extends C {  
    public    void inc2( )    { inc1( ); }  
}
```

```
CS cs = new CS( 5 );  
cs.inc2( );  
System.out.println( cs.x );
```

# Another Fragile Baseclass Problem



```
class C {  
    int x;  
    public void inc1( )  
        { this.inc2( ); }  
    protected void inc2( )  
        { x++; }  
}
```

```
class CS extends C {  
    public void inc2( ) { inc1( ); }  
}
```

```
CS cs = new CS( 5 );  
cs.inc2( );  
System.out.println( cs.x );
```

# 5. Information Hiding and Encapsulation

## 5.1 Information Hiding

## 5.2 Encapsulation

# Objective

- A well-behaved module operates according to its specification in any context, in which it can be reused
- Implementations rely on **consistency of internal representations**
- Reuse contexts should be prevented from violating consistency

```
class Coordinate {  
    public float radius, angle;  
    // invariant 0 <= radius &&  
    // 0 <= angle && angle < 360  
    ...  
    // ensures 0 <= result  
    public float distOrigin( )  
        { return radius; }  
}
```

```
Coordinate c = new Coordinate( );  
c.radius = -10;  
Math.sqrt( c.distOrigin( ) );
```

# Encapsulation

- Definition

*Encapsulation is a technique for structuring the state space of executed programs. Its objective is to guarantee data and structural consistency by establishing capsules with clearly defined interfaces.*

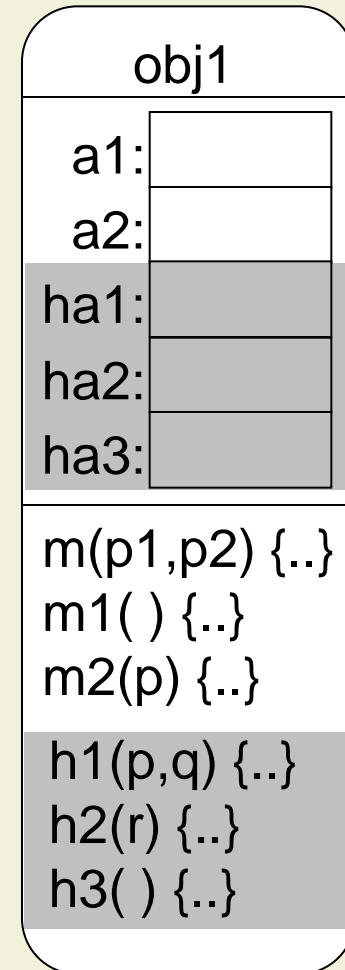
- Encapsulation deals mainly with dynamic aspects
- Information hiding and encapsulation are often used synonymously in the literature; here, encapsulation is a more specific concept

# Levels of Encapsulation

- Capsules can be
  - Individual objects
  - Object structures
  - A class (with all of its objects)
  - All classes of a subtype hierarchy
  - A package (with all of its classes and their objects)
  - Several packages
- Encapsulation requires a definition of the boundary of a capsule and the interfaces at the boundary

# Consistency of Objects

- Objects have (external) interfaces and an (internal) representation
- Consistency can include
  - Properties of one execution state
  - Relations between execution states
- The internal representation of an object is encapsulated if it can only be manipulated by using the object's interfaces





# Example: Breaking Consistency (1)

Use  
private

- Problem:  
Exported fields allow objects to manipulate the state of other objects
- Solution:  
Apply proper information hiding

```
class Coordinate {  
    public float radius, angle;  
    // invariant 0 <= radius &&  
    // 0 <= angle && angle < 360  
    ...  
    // ensures 0 <= result  
    public float distOrigin( )  
        { return radius; }  
}
```

```
Coordinate c = new Coordinate( );  
c.radius = -10;  
Math.sqrt( c.distOrigin( ) );
```

# Example: Breaking Consistency (2)

- Problem:  
Subclasses can introduce (new or overriding) methods that break consistency
- Solution:  
Behavioral subtyping

```
BadCoordinate c =  
    new BadCoordinate( );  
c.violate( );  
Math.sqrt( c.getAngle( ) );
```

```
class Coordinate {  
    protected float radius, angle;  
    // invariant 0 <= radius &&  
    //           0 <= angle && angle < 360  
    ...  
    public float getAngle( )  
        { return angle; }  
}
```

```
class BadCoordinate  
    extends Coordinate {  
    public void violate( )  
        { angle = -1; }  
}
```

# Achieving Consistency of Objects

1. Apply encapsulation:  
Hide internal representation wherever possible
2. Make consistency criteria explicit:  
Use contracts and informal documentation to express consistency criteria (e.g., invariants)
3. Check interfaces:  
Make sure that all exported operations of an object – including subclass methods – preserve all documented consistency criteria

# Invariants

- Invariants express consistency properties
- Textbook solution:  
The invariant of object o has to hold in:
  - Prestates of o's methods
  - Poststates of o's methods
- Temporary violations possible

```
class Redundant {  
    private int a, b;  
    // invariant a == b  
    ...  
    public void set( int v ) {  
        // prestate: invariant holds  
        a = v;  
        // invariant does not hold  
        b = v;  
        // poststate: invariant holds  
    }  
}
```

# Checks for Invariants

- Assume that all objects *o* are capsules
  - Only methods executed on *o* can modify *o*'s state
  - The invariant of object *o* only refers to the encapsulated fields of *o*
  
- For each invariant, we have to show
  - That all exported methods preserve the invariants of the receiver object
  - That all constructors establish the invariants of the new object

# Object Consistency in Java

- Declaring all fields **private** does not guarantee encapsulation on the level of individual objects
- Objects of same class can break the invariant
- Eiffel supports encapsulation on the object level
  - **feature { NONE }**

```
class Redundant {  
    private int a, b;  
    private Redundant next;  
    // invariant a == b  
    ...  
    public void set( int v ) { ... }  
  
    public void violate( ) {  
        // all invariants hold  
        next.a = next.b + 1;  
        // invariant of next does not hold  
    }  
}
```

# Invariants for Java (Simple Solution)

- Assumption: The invariants of object *o* may only refer to **private fields** of *o*
- For each invariant, we have to show
  - That all exported methods **and constructors of class T** preserve the invariants **of all objects of T**
  - That all constructors **in addition** establish the invariants of the new object