

Concepts of Object-Oriented Programming

Peter Müller

Chair of Programming Methodology

Autumn Semester 2010



Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich
Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich

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**

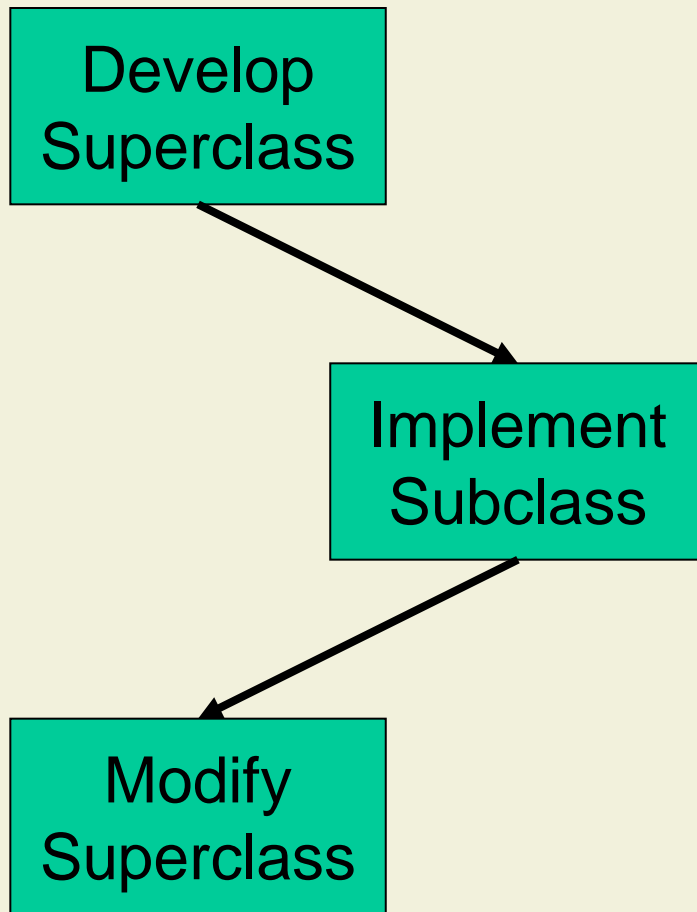
```
package PT;  
public class T {  
    protected void m( ) { ... }  
}
```

```
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

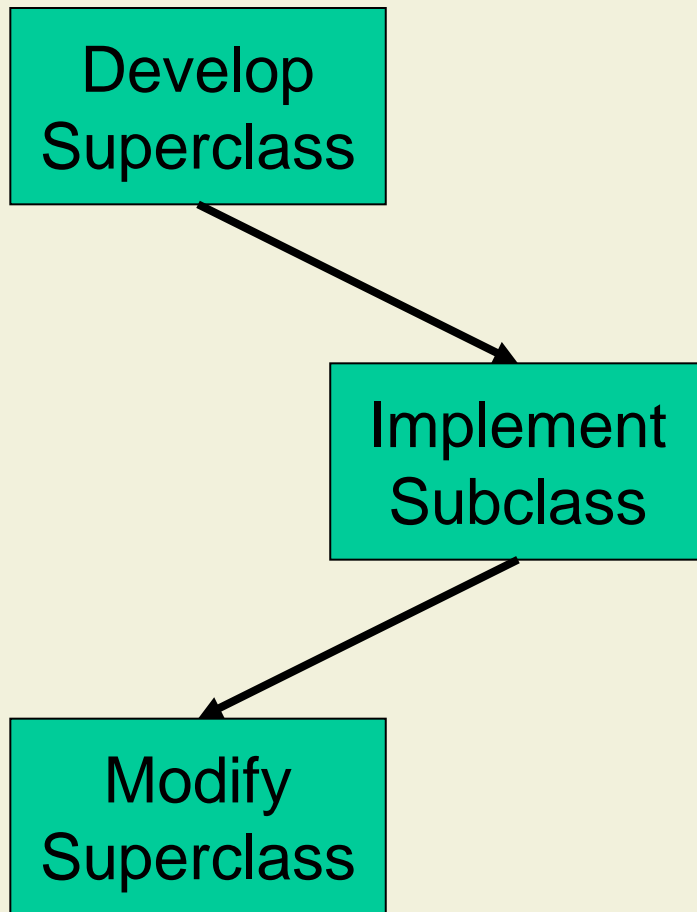


```
class C {  
    int x;  
    public    void inc1( )  
        { this.inc2( ); }  
    private  void inc2( )  
        { x++; }  
}
```

```
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.

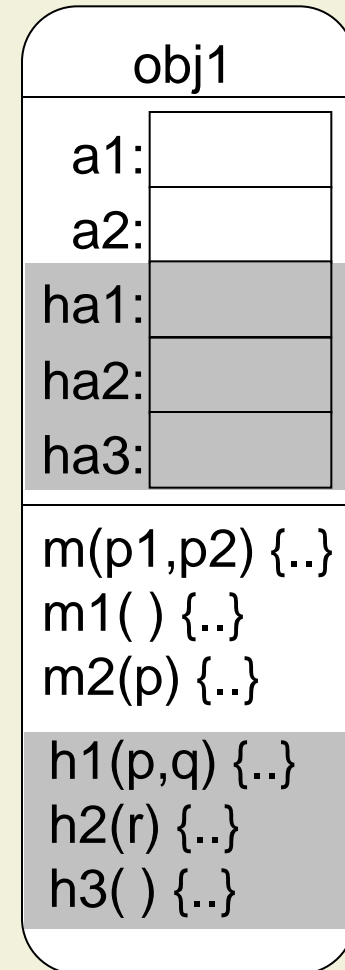
- Encapsulation deals mainly with dynamic aspects
- Information hiding and encapsulation are often used synonymously in the literature; here, encapsulation is a more specific concept

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