Software Design
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Object-Oriented Design

The challenge: how to choose the components of a system with regard to
• similarities
• later changes.
This is the purpose of object-oriented design.

What's an Object?
An object offers
• a collection of services (methods) that work on
• a common state.
There is usually a correspondence between
• objects and nouns in the task ("Bug", "Field", "Marker")
• methods and verbs in the task ("move", "sit down", "delete")
Object-Oriented Modeling in UML

includes the following design aspects:

- **Object model**: Which objects do we need?
  - Which are the features of these objects? (attributes, methods)
  - How can these objects be classified? (Class hierarchy)
  - What associations are there between the classes?
- **Sequence diagram**: How do the objects act together?
- **State chart**: What states are the objects in?

Object-Model: Class Diagram

Every class is represented by a rectangle, divided into:

- class name
- attributes – preferably with type information (usually a class name)
- methods – preferably with a signature

Class inheritance is represented by a triangle (△) connecting subclasses to superclasses.

Example: Accounts

Inherited methods (e.g. `open()`, `deposit()`) are not listed separately in subclasses. Definitions in a subclass override those of the superclass (e.g. `may_withdraw()`).
Abstract Classes and Methods

Abstract classes cannot exist as concrete objects (instances).

Usually they have one or multiple abstract methods which are implemented only in subclasses.

Concrete classes, on the other hand, can exist as concrete objects.

Example: Abstract Classes

“Digital playback device” is an abstract concept of its concrete implementations – e.g. CD-player or MP3-player.

Default Values and Constraints

The attributes of an object can be provided with default values.

These will be used by default if nothing is specified upon construction.

Also, constraints can be used to specify requirements on attributes.

This allows us to express invariants: object properties that always hold.
Example: Constraints

These constraints ensure that circles always have a positive radius, and rectangles positive side lengths.

Shape
- position: Point = (10, 10)
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_position(position:Point)
- get_position(): Point

Circle
- radius: double = 1 (radius > 0)
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_radius(radius:double)
- get_radius(): double

Rectangle
- a: double = 10 (a > 0)
- b: double = 10 (b > 0)
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_a(length:double)
- set_b(length:double)
- get_a():double
- get_b(): double

Object-Model: Associations

General associations
- Connections between non related classes represent associations(relations) between those classes.
- These describe the semantic connection between objects (cf. database theory).
- The number of associated objects is restricted by means of multiplicity.

Example: Multiplicity

A computer vendor has multiple customers, a delivery agency also has multiple customers, but the computer vendor has only one delivery agency.
Example: Multiplicity (2)

Professors have multiple students, and students have multiple professors.

Example: Relationships between Objects

Underlined names indicate concrete objects (instances), which have concrete values for their attributes.

Aggregation

The has-relation is a very common association as it describes the hierarchy between a whole and parts of it.

It is marked with the symbol ◈

Example: A car has 3–4 wheels.
Aggregation (2)

Another example: An enterprise has 1..* departments with 1..* employees each.

Aggregation (3)

It is possible for an aggregate to be empty (usually at the beginning): the multiplicity 0 is allowed. However, its purpose is to collect parts.

The aggregate as a whole is representative of its parts, i.e. it takes on tasks that will then be propagated to the individual components.

e.g. The method computeRevenue() in an Enterprise class sums up the revenues of all the departments.

Composition

A special case of the aggregation, the composition, is marked with ♦

An aggregation is a composition when the part cannot exist without the aggregate.
Example: Invoice

An invoice always belongs to a bill.

Bill ➔ has 1 ➔ Invoice

Example: Book

A book consists of a table of contents, multiple chapters, an index; a chapter, in turn, consists of multiple paragraphs, and so on.

Book ➔ has 1 ➔ Table_ofContents

Table_ofContents ➔ has 1 ➔ Chapter

Chapter ➔ has 1 ➔ Paragraph

Paragraph ➔ has 1 ➔ Sentence

Example: Squircle

A "squircle" consists of a circle on top of a square:
Example: Squircle (2)

A squircle can be modelled as a SquareCircle class that contains a circle as well as a square:

```
Shape
- position: Point = (10, 10)
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_position(position: Point)
- get_position(): Point

SquareCircle
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_position(position: Point)
- get_position(): Point

Circle
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_a(length: double)
- get_a(): double
- set_b(length: double)
- get_b(): double

Rectangle
- area(): double
- draw()
- set_a(length: double)
- get_a(): double
- set_b(length: double)
- get_b(): double
```

Addenda

A component can only be part of one aggregate.

A class can also be viewed as a composition of all its attributes.

In many programming languages aggregations are implemented by using references (pointers to objects); however, compositions are values.

Sequence Diagrams

A sequence diagram reflects the flow of information between individual objects with an emphasis on chronological order.

Objects are depicted as vertical lifelines; the time progresses from top to bottom.

The activation boxes (drawn on top of lifelines) indicate active objects.

Arrows ("Messages") represent the flow of information – e.g. method calls (solid arrows) and return (dashed arrows).
Example: Resizing a Squircle

State Charts

A state chart displays

- a sequence of states that an object can occupy in its lifetime, and
- which events can cause a change of state.

A state chart represents a finite state machine.

State Transitions

State transitions are written as

\[ \text{event name [condition]} / \text{action} \]

where

- \text{event name} is the name of an event (usually a method call)
- \text{condition} is the condition on which the transition occurs (optional)
- \text{action} is the action taken when the transition occurs (optional).
State Actions

States can also be annotated with actions:
The entry event denotes the reaching of a state; the exit event describes the leaving of a state.

Example: Booking a Flight

When a flight is first created, nothing is booked yet.
The action reset() causes the number of free and reserved seats to be reset.

Devising Classes and Methods

"How do I come up with the objects?" is the most difficult question of the analysis.

There is no one single answer: it is possible to model any problem in multiple object-oriented ways.
Leveraging Use Cases

1. Describe typical scenarios by means of use cases

2. Extract central classes and services from the use cases

Use Cases

- Describe how an actor can reach his goal
- What actors are there, and what goals do they have?

Definitions

- An actor is something, that can exhibit behavior (e.g. person, system, organization)
- A scenario is a sequence of actions and interactions between actors
- A Use Case is a collection of related scenarios consisting of successful scenario and alternative scenarios
Example: Shipping of a PC

A student called Fritz orders a PC at the WorldOfPC company via a letter. After some time the PC is delivered to him in a package by the ShippingDeliverer shipping company.

- Who are the actors?
- What goals do they have?
- What can go wrong?

Alternative Scenarios

Are usually more interesting than successful scenarios.

Example: parking garage
- no access • card not readable • power failure

Example: withdraw cash
- not enough credit • wrong pin • wrong account

Example: booking a flight
- flight fully booked • cancellations

Example: Shipping of a PC

A student called Fritz orders a PC at the WorldOfPC company via a letter. After some time the PC is delivered to him in a package by the ShippingDeliverer shipping company.

Alternative scenarios:

- Order does not arrive
  - cannot be served
- Computer (not yet) available
  - contact customer; possibly cancel;
- Package cannot be delivered
  - contact customer; possibly cancel;
Use Cases in UML
combine scenarios

Design by Responsibility

*Design by responsibility* is a common technique:

Each object is responsible for certain tasks and it is either capable of performing them on its own, or it has to cooperate with other objects to do so.

The goal is to devise objects according to their roles in a collaboration.

Design by Responsibility

Begin with an informal description of the task, and examine its key phrases:

**Nouns** will become classes and concrete objects. **Verbs** will become services –

- either services provided by an object,
- or calls to services of cooperating objects.

The services determine the responsibilities and collaborations of each class.
Design by Responsibility

The classes that were found this way are then notated onto CRC-Cards
(class – responsibilities – collaboration):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>class name</th>
<th>collaboration with</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>responsible for ordering receiving packages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ComputerVendor</td>
<td>responsible for accepting orders sending packages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliverer</td>
<td>responsible for receiving packages sending packages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The CRC-Card represents the role of an object in the global system.

A First Approximation

Refinement

The first approximation, however, is not yet complete:

• Fritz acts in his role as customer; it is not important that he is a student (unless he would get a student's discount). The class name Customer is better suited than Student.

• Letter and package are missing – these are pure data objects that have neither responsibilities nor collaborations.
Refinement

- We have left out the way the letter gets to the computer vendor; possibly there is another delivery company involved.
- The flow of information, state transitions and class hierarchies are not taken into account.

Revising a Design

The first draft can usually be significantly improved:
- Identifying common features
- Generalizing behavior
- Splitting classes into subsystems
- Minimizing relations
- Using libraries
- Genericity and design patterns

Common Features

Is it possible to connect common features (attributes, methods) of different classes?

These commonalities
- can be relocated into an aggregate class. The existing classes still have to offer the transferred services.
- can be moved into a common superclass. Usually this makes sense with common is-relationships.
Generalizing Behavior

Is it possible to provide methods with a unified interface on an abstract level?

Abstract classes can provide general methods, the details of which are implemented in the concrete subclasses.

Splitting Classes into Subsystems

Is it possible to split up classes with many features?

Consider introducing a subsystem consisting of multiple objects and affiliated classes.

Minimizing Object Relations

Is it possible to reduce the number of "uses"-relationships by regrouping classes or interfaces?

Only the newly created subsystem has to manage external relations.
Reuse and Libraries

Is it possible to reuse existing classes?
   Possibly adapter classes are needed.

Genericity

Is it possible to use generic classes and methods?
   Or maybe: is it possible to design the classes and methods in a generic way?

Design Patterns

Is it possible to use standard patterns of architectural design?

(more next lecture)
**Object-Model: Shipping of a PC**

- **Customer**
  - +receive(p: Package)
  - +send(o: Order)

- **ComputerVendor**
  - +receive(p: Package)
  - -name: string

- **Deliverer**
  - +receive(p: Package)

**Sequence Diagram: Shipping of a PC**

Depicts only the successful case
Failures have to be described separately

**State Chart**

with some few failures
A Word about CRC

“One purpose of CRC cards is to fail early, to fail often, and to fail inexpensively. It is a lot cheaper to tear up a bunch of cards than it would be to reorganize a large amount of source code.”  

(C. Horstmann)

Paperware

From Model to Program

How does one transform a design into code?

• Classes and hierarchies can be taken directly from the class diagram.
• For each method a complete signature has to be provided.
From Model to Program

- Associations between classes are implemented using attributes.
  - $n:1$ and $1:1$ associations from $P$ to $Q$ are implemented as an attribute $q$ of type $Q$ in $P$.
  - $1:n$ and $n:m$ associations from $P$ to $Q$ are implemented as a set $qs$ of type $\text{set}(Q)$. (e.g. array, list...)

From Model to Program

- Methods belonging to associations have to be implemented in extra (helper) classes.
- For each class an invariant has to be formulated and documented; for each method a pre- and postcondition.
- The method bodies have to be implemented using techniques from traditional programming.

From Model to Program

- Verification of the state chart: are the only legal call sequences exactly those documented in the dynamic model? Illegal calls have to be intercepted using exceptions/errors! For that it is often useful to dynamically check the precondition.
- Testing is done using conventional methods.
Model-Driven Engineering

Modern programming environments automatically create code templates from a model:

1. You design a system with all its classes and attributes.
2. The programming environment creates the corresponding code templates.
3. Now you "only" have to add implementations in the method bodies.