



# Working with classes and objects

COSC346



**SEMESTER TWO 2018**

**Are you**

- proactive, friendly and keen to contribute to your learning environment?
- a great communicator who can represent your peers?

**What's in it for you?**

- Kudos & Karma
- Great friendships
- Access to FREE professional training opportunities and support
- A feed (or three)
- A reference letter from OUSA for your CV
- Invitations to Class Rep social events throughout the year

**Don't wait any longer... sign up now!**

**Talk to your lecturer or email:**

**[classrep@ousa.org.nz](mailto:classrep@ousa.org.nz)**

# Initialisation

- An object should be self-contained: independent and self-sufficient
  - Should allocate resources (memory) required for its operation
  - Should initialise its member variables to appropriate values
- Constructors
  - These are special methods invoked upon object creation
  - The place where the internal state of the object can be initialised
  - Typically these methods carry the same name as the class
  - Can take parameters, which allow user-defined initialisation
- Note: Destructors are methods that are automatically invoked when object is released from the memory—more about this when we discuss memory management.

# Initialisation

```
class Complex {
    var real: Float
    var imag: Float

    init() {
        self.real = 0.0
        self.imag = 0.0
    }
}

var x: Complex
x = Complex()
```

Initialiser is invoked with the name of the class followed by initialiser arguments in parentheses

- In Swift constructors are referred to as **initialisers**
- Any class that uses stored properties must implement at least one initialiser
  - Compiler will give an error if a property is not initialised
- An object instance must be created through an initialiser
  - Compiler will not allow the use of an object that hasn't been initialised

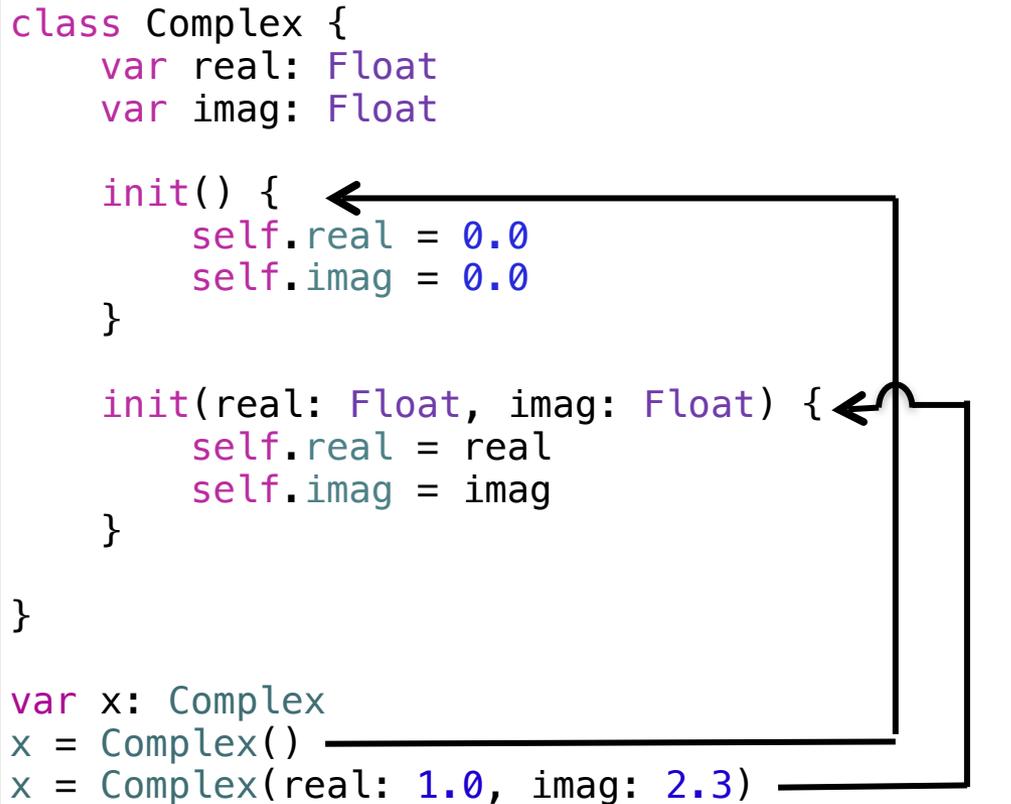
# Initialisation – multiple initialisers

```
class Complex {
    var real: Float
    var imag: Float

    init() {
        self.real = 0.0
        self.imag = 0.0
    }

    init(real: Float, imag: Float) {
        self.real = real
        self.imag = imag
    }
}

var x: Complex
x = Complex()
x = Complex(real: 1.0, imag: 2.3)
```

A diagram with black arrows pointing from the code to the text. One arrow points from the parameterless `Complex()` call to the `init()` method. Another arrow points from the `Complex(real: 1.0, imag: 2.3)` call to the `init(real: Float, imag: Float)` method.

- There can be more than one initialiser
- The arguments in the initialisation call determine which initialiser is used
- The arguments (if there are any) must be named in the initialisation call

# Initialisation – multiple initialisers

```
class Complex {
    var real: Float
    var imag: Float

    init() {
        self.real = 0.0
        self.imag = 0.0
    }

    init(real: Float, imag: Float = 0.0) {
        self.real = real
        self.imag = imag
    }
}

var x: Complex
x = Complex()
x = Complex(real: 1.0, imag: 2.3)
var y: Complex = Complex(real: -4.4)
```

- Initialiser arguments can be declared with a default value: these arguments can be omitted from initialisation call

# Designated initialiser

- Often classes will have several available initialisation methods
- The **designated initialiser** is a method that is eventually invoked by all other initialisation methods
- Use of a designated initialiser lowers the chance of initialisation errors

# Initialisation - multiple initialisers

```
class Complex {
    var real: Float
    var imag: Float

    convenience init() {
        self.init(real: 0.0)
    }

    init(real: Float, imag: Float = 0.0) {
        self.real = real
        self.imag = imag
    }
}

var x: Complex
x = Complex()
x = Complex(real: 1.0, imag: 2.3)
var y: Complex = Complex(real: -4.4)
```

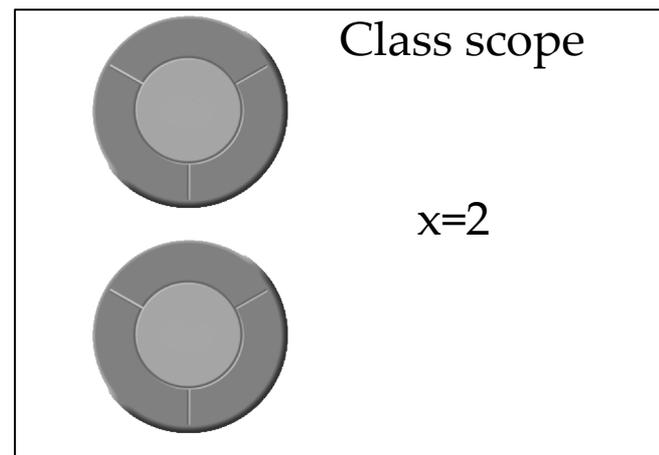
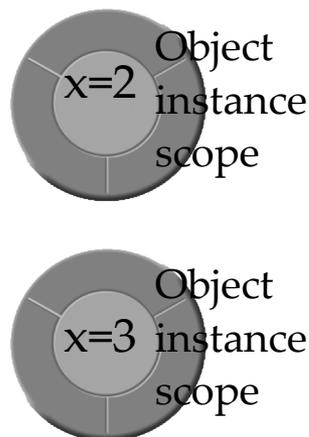
**Convenience** (points to `convenience init()`)

**Designated** (points to `init(real: Float, imag: Float = 0.0)`)

- In Swift an initialiser that doesn't write to properties directly, but initialises them through another initialiser is referred to as a convenience initialiser

# Member/internal variables

- Member/internal variables are the variables encapsulated inside a class. There are two types of member variables:
  - Instance variables—each object instance carries a dedicated copy of these variables, and so values can differ from object to object
  - Class variables—shared by all objects of a given class: change in value affects every instance



# Member/Internal Variables

- Instance variables:
  - Stored properties—their values may differ for different object instances of the class
- Class variables:
  - Static stored properties—values are shared by all objects of a given class

```
class ClassA {
    static var firstTime: Bool = true; //Class variable
    var someProperty: Any             //Instance variable

    init(x: Any) {
        if(ClassA.firstTime) {
            //Do something that can be done
            //only once, regardless how many
            //objects of this class are created
            ClassA.firstTime = false
        }
        self.someProperty = x;
    }
}
```

# Methods

- Instance methods
  - Methods invoked on class instance
  - Can access instance variables for read/write
- Class methods
  - Methods that can be used without creating an instance of the class
  - Cannot access instance variables

```
class Fraction {
    var num: Int;
    var den: Int;

    init(num : Int, den : Int) {
        self.num = num
        self.den = den
    }

    func add(_ f: Fraction) {
        self.num = self.num*f.den + self.den*f.num
        self.den = self.den*f.den
    }

    static func add(_ f1: Fraction, to f2: Fraction) -> Fraction {
        return Fraction (num: f1.num*f2.den + f1.den*f2.num,
                          den: f1.den*f2.den)
    }
}
```

```
var u = Fraction(num: 2, den: 3)
var v = Fraction(num: -7, den: 9)
u.add(v)
var f: Fraction
f = Fraction.add(u, to: v)
```

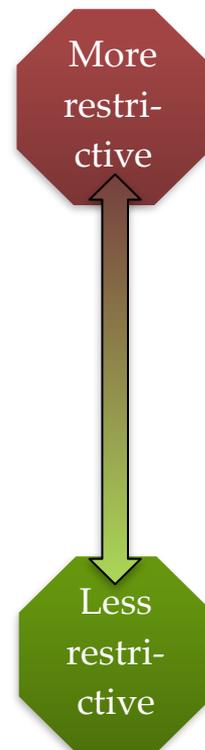
Operation on an instance

Operation on the class

# Access Control

Generally in OOP access control is class based:

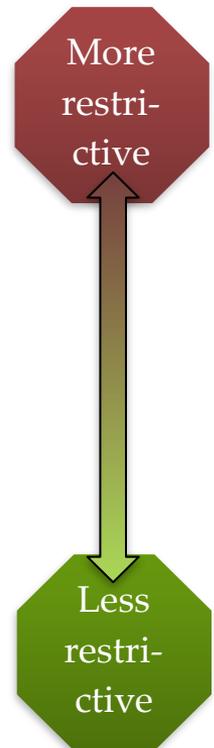
- **Private** methods and member variables
  - Accessible only from the code within class definition
  - Visible to the programmer writing the class code, not to the programmer using objects of that class
- **Protected** methods and member variables
  - A bit like private, except visible to derived classes—more about this in the lecture on inheritance
- **Public** methods and member variables
  - Accessible from anywhere
  - Visible to the programmer writing the class as well as the programmer using objects of that class



# Access Control

In Swift access control is file/module based:

- **Private** methods and member variables
  - Accessible only from the file where the class has been defined
  - Visible to the programmer editing the class source file, even if working with object instances outside the class definition
- **Fileprivate** methods and member variables
  - Accessible only from the module where it's defined
- **Internal** methods and member variables (the **default**)
  - Accessible from any file that is part of the module where the class is defined where the class has been defined
  - Visible in any source file to the programmer writing within the module (project) where the class is defined
  - Once the module is distributed as a framework, and included in another project, the internal methods and variables are not accessible to the programmer using objects of that class
- **Open/Public** methods and member variables
  - Accessible from any source file
  - Visible to the programmer writing the class as well as the programmer using objects of that class in any source file of the project



# Open vs Public

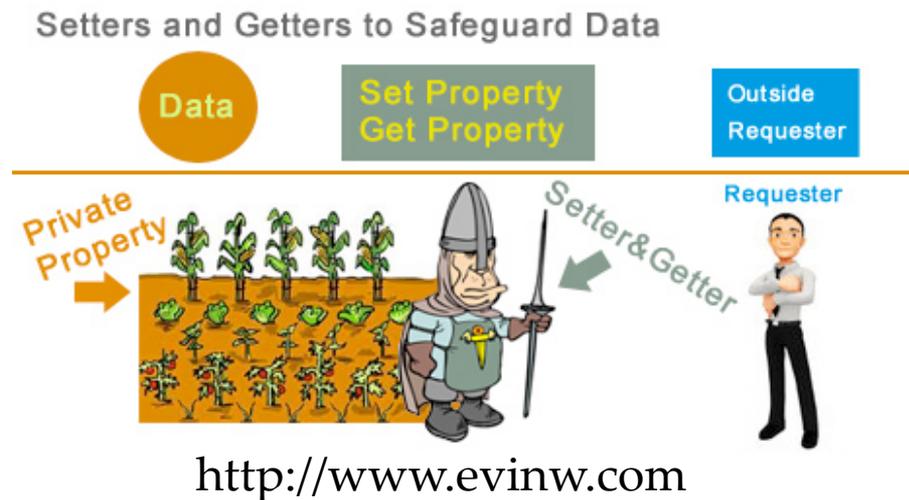
Open access applies only to classes and class members, and it differs from public access as follows:

- Classes with public access, or any more restrictive access level, can be subclassed only within the module where they're defined.
- Class members with public access, or any more restrictive access level, can be overridden by subclasses only within the module where they're defined.
- Open classes can be subclassed within the module where they're defined, and within any module that imports the module where they're defined.
- Open class members can be overridden by subclasses within the module where they're defined, and within any module that imports the module where they're defined.

<https://docs.swift.org/swift-book/LanguageGuide/AccessControl.html>

# Accessor methods

- Sometime it makes sense to control the access to object's state
- The state of the object can be made private, so that the user of the object can't access it directly
- Setter & getter methods are the interface to the state of the object
  - These methods can check for indexes out of bounds, invalid values, etc., to ensure that state doesn't get corrupted



# Accessor methods

```
class Fraction {
  private var _numHidden: Int = 0
  private var _denHidden: Int = 1

  init(num : Int, den : Int) {
    self._numHidden = num; self._denHidden = den
  }

  func getNum() -> Int {
    return _numHidden
  }

  func setNum(_ newValue: Int) {
    _numHidden = newValue
  }

  func getDen() -> Int {
    return _denHidden
  }

  func setDen(_ newValue: Int) {
    assert(newValue != 0, "Can't set den to 0!")
    _denHidden = newValue
  }
}

var f: Fraction = Fraction(num: 1, den: 3)
f.setNum(2)
f.setDen(3)
print("f=\(f.getNum())/\(f.getDen())")
```

Private state

Getter and

setter for  
\_numHidden

Getter and setter  
for \_denHidden

- Generic setters and getters

# Accessor methods

```
class Fraction {
    private var _numHidden: Int = 0;
    private var _denHidden: Int = 1;

    init(num : Int, den : Int) {
        self._numHidden = num; self._denHidden = den
    }

    var num: Int {
        get {
            return _numHidden
        }
        set(newValue) {
            _numHidden = newValue
        }
    }

    var den: Int {
        get {
            return self._denHidden
        }
        set(newValue) {
            assert(newValue != 0, "Can't set den to 0!")
            self._denHidden = newValue
        }
    }
}

var f: Fraction = Fraction(num: 1, den: 3)
f.num = 2
f.den = 3
print("f=\(f.num)/\(f.den)")
```

Private state

Getter and setter for \_numHidden

Getter and setter for \_denHidden

- Swift setters and getters as computed properties

# Overloading

- Same method name but different implementations for different parameter signatures
- Constructor overloading is probably the most ubiquitous use of overloading

```
class Fraction {
    var num: Int
    var den: Int

    init(num: Int, den: Int) {
        self.num = num
        self.den = den
    }

    convenience init(string: String) {
        var num: Int = 0;
        var den: Int = 1;
        var tokens = string.components(separatedBy:"/")

        if tokens.count > 0 {
            if let n = Int(tokens[0]) {
                num = n
            }
        }

        if tokens.count > 1 {
            if let d = Int(tokens[1]) {
                den = d
            }
        }
        self.init(num: num, den: den)
    }
}

var x: Fraction = Fraction(num: 1, den: 2)
var y: Fraction = Fraction(string: "4/3")
```

# Object reference

- What happens when you create an object instance?
- First, you create an object reference—if it's not initialised it doesn't point anywhere

```
var f: Fraction
```

f

**NOT VALID**

- Then, you create an object instance and set the reference value so it points to the address where the object is located

```
f = Fraction(num: 1, den: 3)
```

f

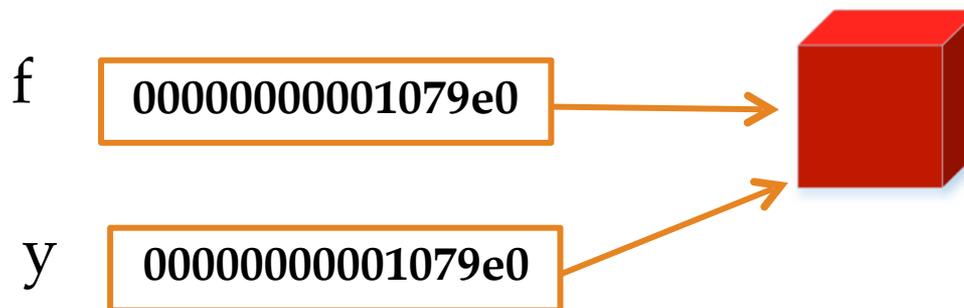
00000000001079e0



# Object reference

- What happens when you assign an object reference to another reference?

```
var y: Fraction = f
```

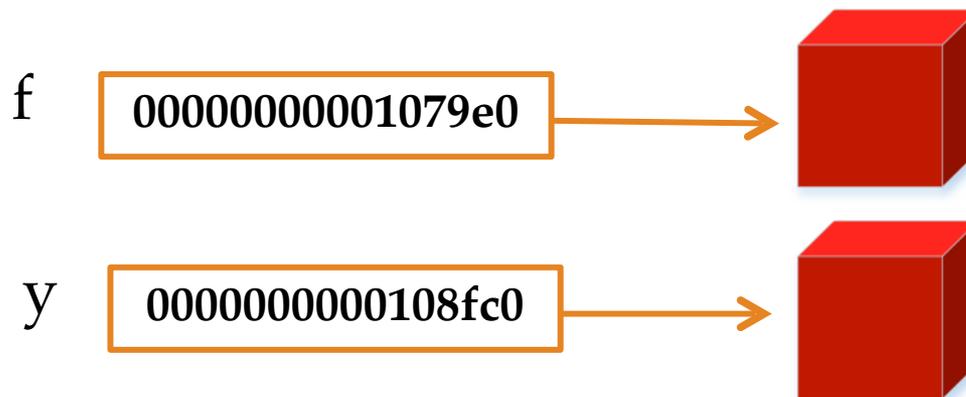


- Two references point to the same object instance: operation through either reference changes the state of the object

# Copying objects

- Create a new object instance and copy the values of all instance variables

```
var y: Fraction = f.copy()
```



- Two references now point to different object instances: operation through one reference does not affect the object associated with the other reference

# Copying objects

- Create a new object instance and copy the values of all instance variables

```
class Fraction {
    private var num: Int;
    private var den: Int;

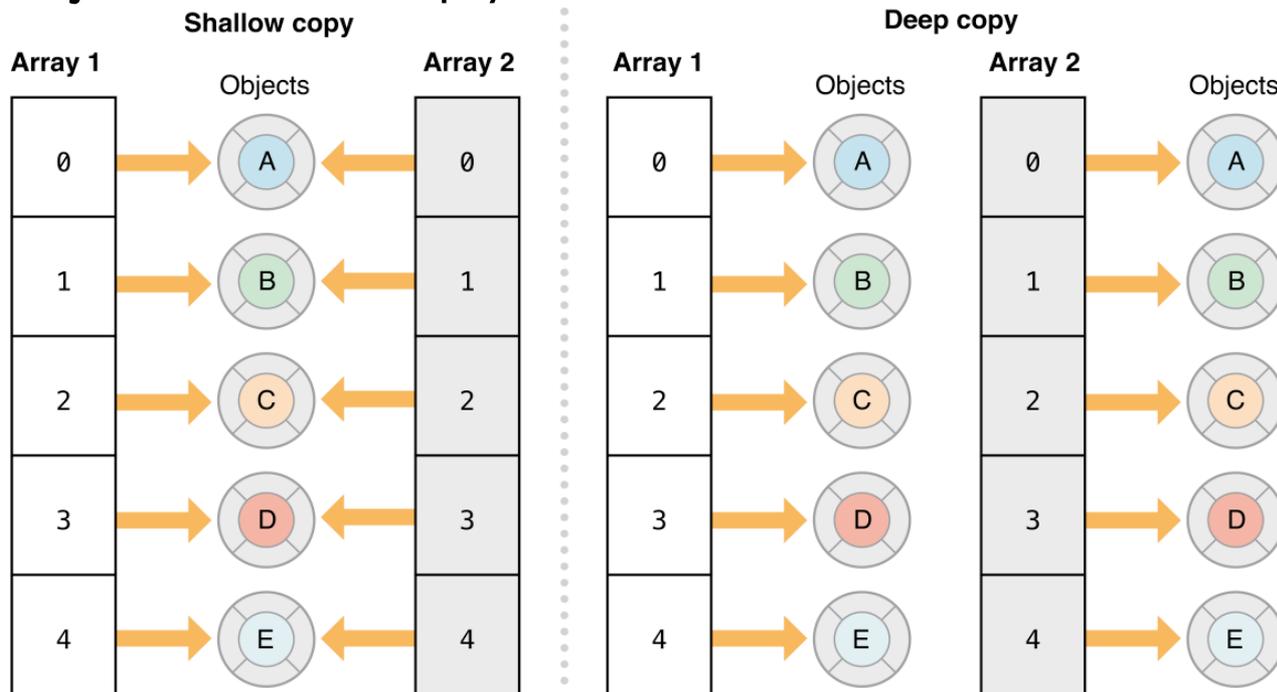
    init(num : Int, den : Int) {
        self.num = num
        self.den = den
    }

    func copy() -> Fraction {
        return Fraction(num: self.num, den: self.den);
    }
}

var f: Fraction = Fraction(num: 1, den: 3)
var y = f.copy()
```

# Copying objects

- What if an instance variable is an object?
  - Shallow copy—copy its reference
  - Deep copy—create new instance of the internal object and copy the state



# Comparing object references

- Do you mean to check whether two references point to the same object instance?

```
var f: Fraction
var y: Fraction

▪
▪
▪

if y === f {
    print("y and f refer to the same object")
}
```

# Comparing objects' values

- What does it mean for different object instances to be equal?

```
func == (left: Fraction, right: Fraction) -> Bool {
    if (left.num == right.num) &&
        (left.den == right.den) {
        return true
    } else {
        return false
    }
}

var f: Fraction
var y: Fraction

.
.
.

if y == f {
    print("Objects are the same")
}
```



# Comparing objects by value

- Can the objects be ordered in some fashion?

```
func < (left: Fraction, right: Fraction) -> Bool {
    if left.decimal < right.decimal {
        return true
    } else {
        return false
    }
}

var f: Fraction
var y: Fraction

.
.
.

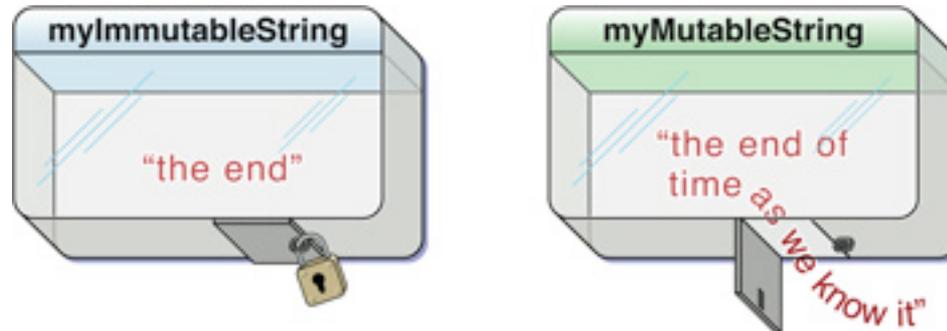
if y < f {
    print("y is smaller than f")
} else {
    print("f is smaller than y")
}
```

←  
Computed  
property that  
calculates a float  
value from  
Fraction's state



# Mutable and immutable

- Mutable object—internal state can be modified at any point
- Immutable object—internal state does not change after initialisation: a read only object



# Mutable and immutable

- Declaring stored properties as constant makes the class objects immutable
  - Properties can only be set once in an initialiser

```
class Fraction {  
    let num: Int;  
    let den: Int;  
  
    init(num : Int, den : Int) {  
        self.num = num  
        self.den = den  
    }  
  
    func copy() -> Fraction {  
        return Fraction(num: self.num, den: self.den);  
    }  
  
    static func add(f1: Fraction, to f2: Fraction) -> Fraction {  
        return Fraction (num: f1.num*f2.den + f1.den*f2.num,  
            den: f1.den*f2.den)  
    }  
}  
  
var f: Fraction = Fraction(num: 1, den: 3)  
var y = f.copy()  
y.num = 2  
print ("f= \(f.num)/ \(f.den)")
```

Stored properties  
declared as constants

The only place where the  
stored properties can be set

! Cannot assign to 'num' in 'y'

# Pattern of the Day - Singleton

- **Creational**
  - Only allow creation of a limited number of instances of a class (usually just one)
- Often abused/misused
- Considered to be an *anti-pattern*

What OOP principle does the singleton break?

```
public final class Singleton {
    private static final Singleton INSTANCE = new Singleton();

    private Singleton() {}

    public static Singleton getInstance() {
        return INSTANCE;
    }
}
```

```
public final class Singleton {
    private static Singleton instance = null;

    private Singleton() {}

    public static Singleton getInstance() {
        if (instance == null) {
            instance = new Singleton();
        }
        return instance;
    }
}
```

```
class DeathStarSuperlaser {  
  
    static let sharedInstance = DeathStarSuperlaser()  
  
    private init() {  
        // Private initialization to ensure just one  
        // instance is created.  
    }  
}  
  
let laser = DeathStarSuperlaser.sharedInstance
```

<https://github.com/ochococo/Design-Patterns-In-Swift/blob/master/source/creational/singleton.swift>

# Summary?

# Summary

- Instantiation
- Access Control
- Overloading
- Object References and Copying
  - Deep vs Shallow
- Immutability
- Design Pattern - Singleton