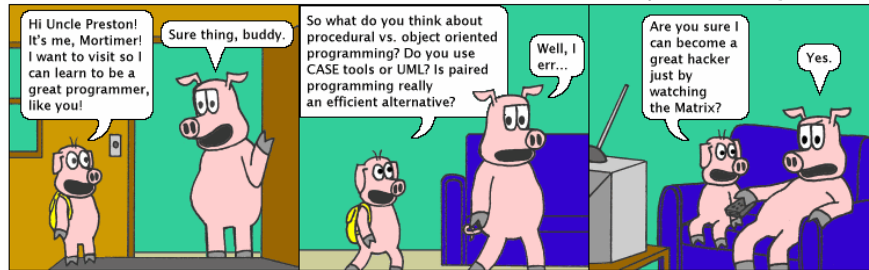




Introduction: Programming Languages & Paradigms

Hackles

By Drake Emko & Jen Brodzik



<http://hackles.org>

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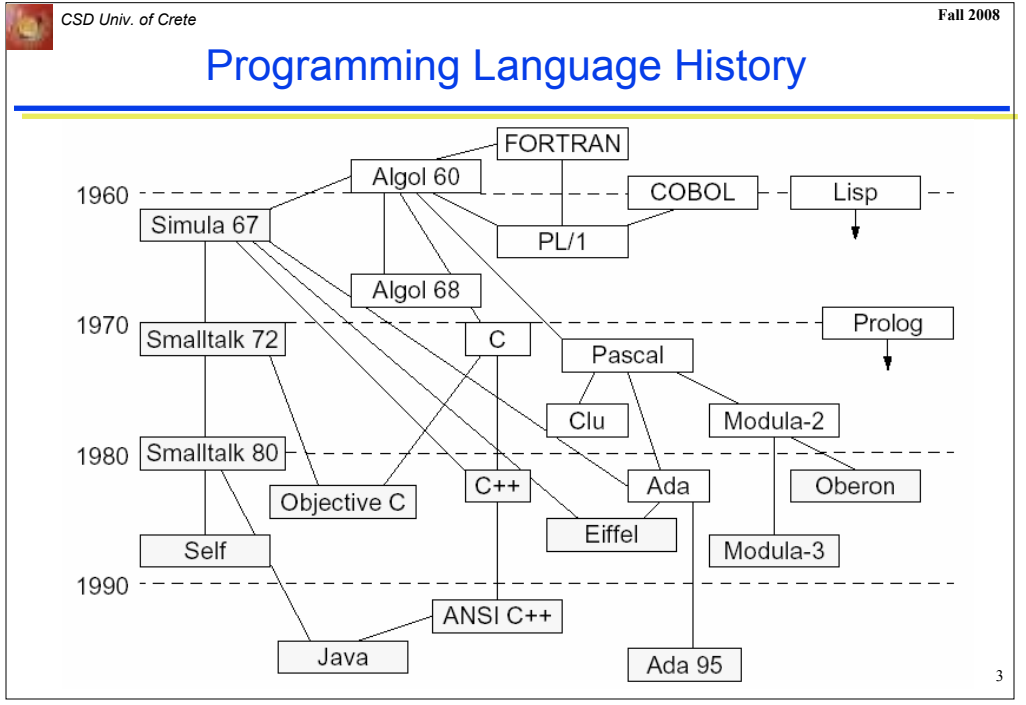
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Programming Language Timeline

- **FlowMatic**
 - ◆ 1955 Grace Hopper UNIVAC
- **ForTran**
 - ◆ 1956 John Backus IBM
- **AlgOL**
 - ◆ 1958 ACM Language Committee
- **LISP**
 - ◆ 1958 John McCarthy MIT
- **CoBOL**
 - ◆ 1960 Committee on Data Systems Languages
- **BASIC**
 - ◆ 1964 John Kemeny & Thomas Kurtz Dartmouth
- **PL/I**
 - ◆ 1964 IBM Committee
- **Simula**
 - ◆ 1967 Norwegian Computing Center Kristen Nygård & Ole-Johan Dahl
- **Logo**
 - ◆ 1968 Seymour Papert MIT
- **Pascal**
 - ◆ 1970 Nicklaus Wirth Switzerland
- **C**
 - ◆ 1972 Dennis Ritchie & Kenneth Thompson Bell Labs
- **Smalltalk**
 - ◆ 1972 Alan Kay Xerox PARC
- **ADA**
 - ◆ 1981 DOD
- **Objective C**
 - ◆ 1985 Brad Cox Stepstone Systems
- **C++**
 - ◆ 1986 Bjarne Stroustrup Bell Labs
- **Eiffel**
 - ◆ 1989 Bertrand Meyer France
- **Visual BASIC**
 - ◆ 1990 Microsoft
- **Delphi**
 - ◆ 1995 Borland
- **Object CoBOL**
 - ◆ 1995 MicroFocus
- **Java**
 - ◆ 1995 Sun Microsystems

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Five Generations of Programming Languages

- First **Machine** Languages
 - ◆ machine codes
- Second **Assembly** Languages
 - ◆ symbolic assemblers
- Third **High Level Procedural** Languages
 - ◆ (machine independent) imperative languages
- Fourth **Non-procedural** Languages
 - ◆ domain specific application generators
- Fifth **Natural** Languages

● Each generation is at a higher level of abstraction

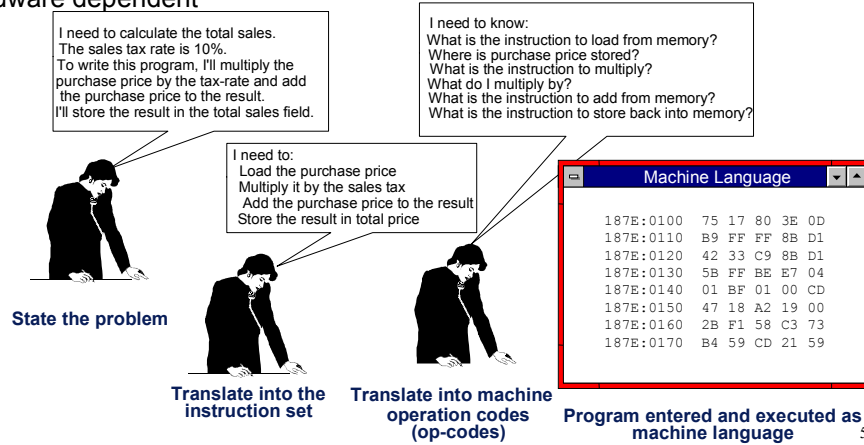



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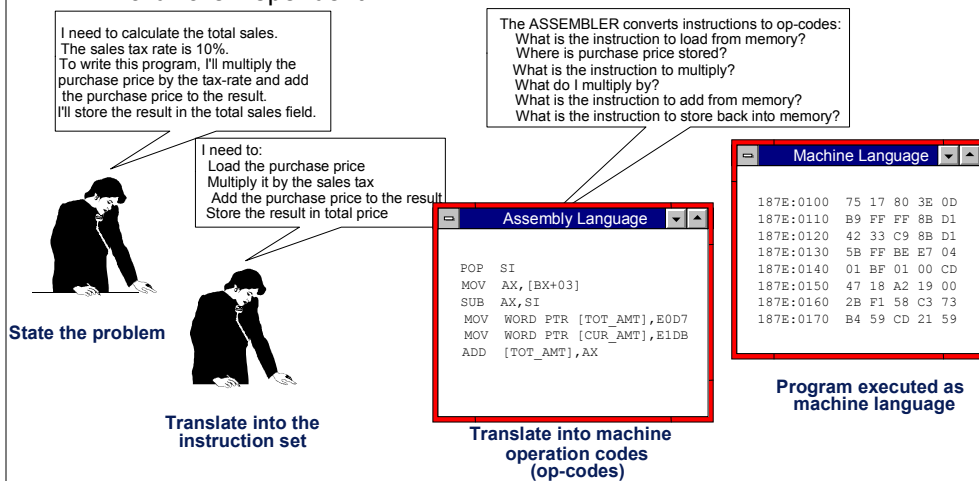
The First Generation (1940s)

- In the beginning ... was the Stone Age: **Machine Languages**
 - ◆ Binary instruction strings
 - ◆ Introduced with the first programmable computer
 - ◆ Hardware dependent



The Second Generation (Early 1950s)

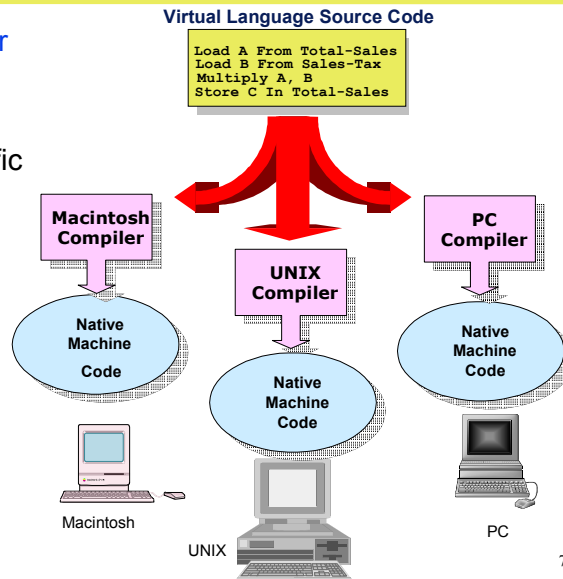
- Then we begin to study improvements: **Assembly Languages**
 - ◆ 1-to-1 substitution of mnemonics for machine language commands
 - ◆ Hardware Dependent





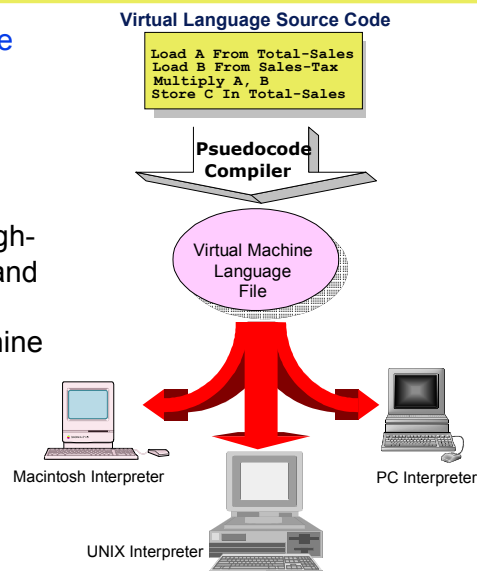
The Second Generation (1950s)

- The invention of the **Compiler**
 - ◆ Grace Murray Hopper (Flowmatic)
- Each CPU has its own specific **machine language**
 - ◆ A program must be translated into machine language before it can be executed on a particular type of CPU



The Second Generation (1950s)


- **Interpreters** and **Virtual Machine Languages**
 - ◆ Speedcoding
 - ◆ UNCOL
- **Intermediaries** between the statements and operators of high-level programming languages and the register numbers and operation codes of native machine programming languages



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The Third Generation (1955-65)

- *High-level Procedural Languages* make programming easier
 - ◆ FORTRAN, ALGOL, LISP, COBOL, BASIC, PL/I



State the problem

The **COMPILER** translates:
 Load the purchase price
 Multiply it by the sales tax
 Add the purchase price to the result
 Store the result in total price

High-Level Language

```

      -
      salesTax = purchasePric * TAX_RATE;
      totalSales = purchasePrice + salesTax;
      
```

Translate into the instruction set

Assembly Language

```

      POP SI
      MOV AX, [BX+03]
      SUB AX, SI
      MOV WORD PTR [TOT_AMT], EOD
      MOV WORD PTR [CUR_AMT], ELD
      ADD [TOT_AMT], AX
      
```

Translate into machine operation codes (op-codes)

Machine Language

```

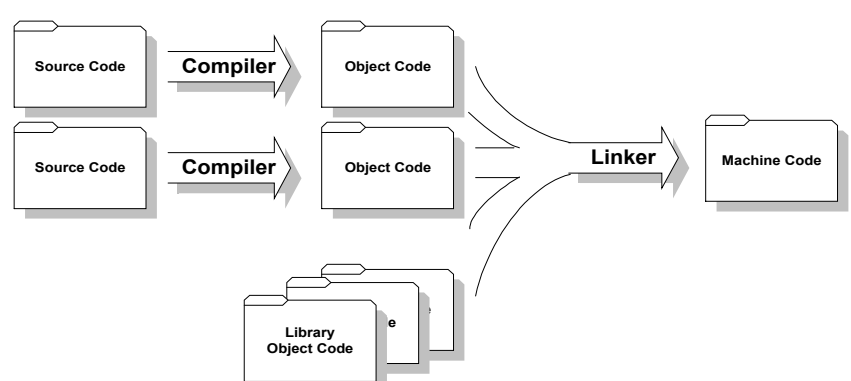
      37E:0100 75 17 80 3E 0D
      37E:0110 B9 FF FF 8B D1
      37E:0120 42 33 C9 8B D1
      37E:0130 5B FF BE E7 04
      37E:0140 01 BF 01 00 CD
      37E:0150 47 18 A2 19 00
      37E:0160 2B F1 58 C3 73
      37E:0170 B4 59 CD 21 59
      
```

Program executed as machine language

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The Conventional Programming Process



- A **compiler** is a software tool which translates source code into a specific target language for a particular CPU type
- A **linker** combines several object programs eventually developed independently.

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Fourth Generation Languages (1980)

- **Non-procedural Languages** (problem-oriented)
 - ◆ User specifies what is to be done not how it is to be accomplished
 - ◆ Less user training is required
 - ◆ Designed to solve specific problems
- **Diverse Types of 4GLs**
 - ◆ Spreadsheet Languages
 - ◆ Database Query Languages
 - ◆ Decision Support Systems
 - ◆ Statistics
 - ◆ Simulation
 - ◆ Optimization
 - ◆ Decision Analysis
 - ◆ Presentation Graphics Systems



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How do Programming Languages Differ?

- **Common Constructs:**
 - ◆ basic data types (numbers, etc.);
 - ◆ variables;
 - ◆ expressions;
 - ◆ statements;
 - ◆ keywords;
 - ◆ control constructs;
 - ◆ procedures;
 - ◆ comments;
 - ◆ errors ...
- **Uncommon Constructs:**
 - ◆ type declarations;
 - ◆ special types (strings, arrays, matrices, ...);
 - ◆ sequential execution;
 - ◆ concurrency constructs;
 - ◆ packages/modules;
 - ◆ objects;
 - ◆ general functions;
 - ◆ generics;
 - ◆ modifiable state; ...

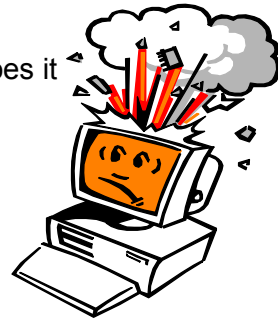


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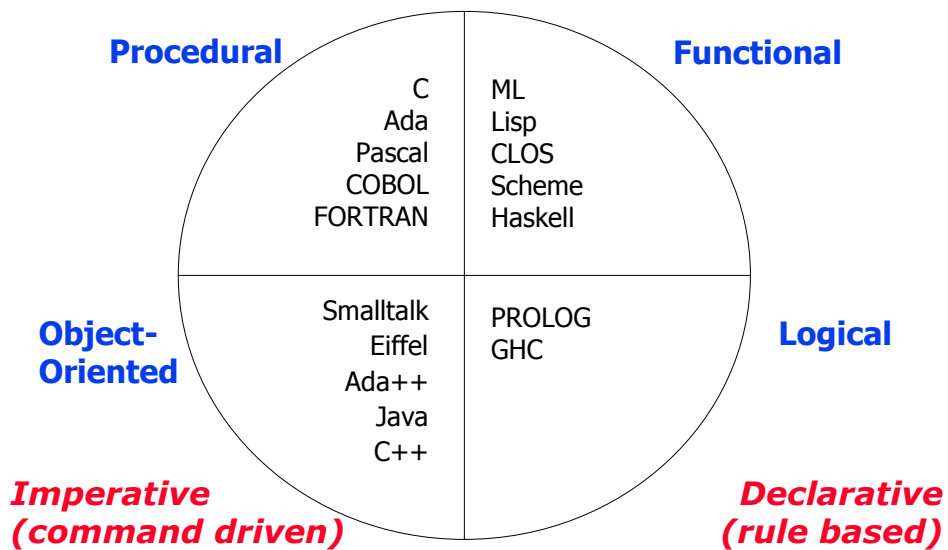


Language Styles ...

- **Procedural Languages**
 - ◆ Individual statements
 - ◆ FORTRAN, ALGOL60, ALGOL68, Cobol, Pascal, C, Ada
- **Functional Languages**
 - ◆ When you tell the computer to do something it does it
 - ◆ LISP, Scheme, CLOS, ML, Haskell
- **Logic Languages**
 - ◆ Inference engine that drives things
 - ◆ Prolog, GHC
- **Object-oriented Languages**
 - ◆ Bring together data and operations
 - ◆ Smalltalk, C++, Eiffel, Sather, Python, Ada95, Java, OCAML



... and Programming Paradigms





Programming Paradigms

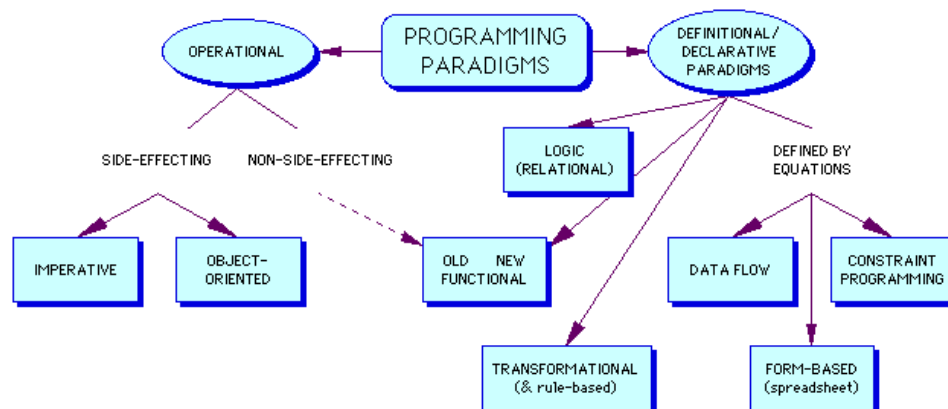
- A programming language is a problem-solving tool

Procedural:	program =algorithms + data good for decomposition
Functional:	program =functions ● functions good for reasoning
Logic programming:	program =facts + rules good for searching
Object-oriented:	program =objects + messages good for encapsulation

- Other styles and paradigms: blackboard, pipes and filters, constraints, lists,...



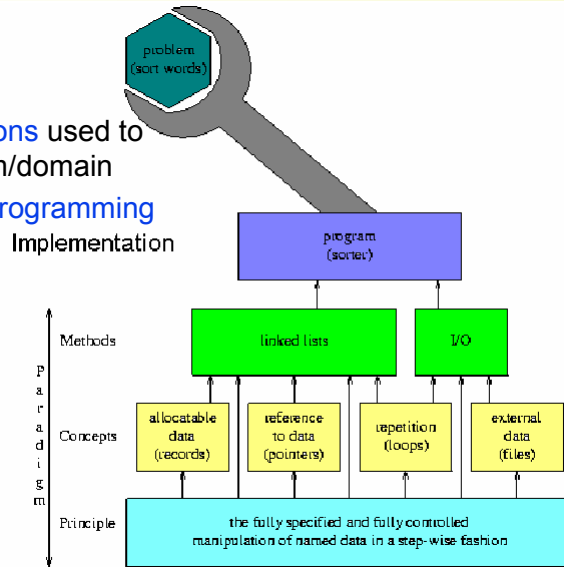
Programming Paradigms





What is a Programming Paradigm ?

- A set of coherent **abstractions** used to effectively **model** a problem/domain
- A **mode of thinking** aka a **programming methodology**



What about Abstractions?

- The **intellectual tool** that allows us to deal with **concepts** apart from particular instances of those concepts (Fairley, 1985)
- An **abstraction** denotes the **essential characteristics of an object** that distinguish it from all other objects and thus provide crisply defined conceptual boundaries, relative to the perspective of the viewer. (Booch, 1991)
- **Abstraction, as a process**, denotes the extracting of the essential details about an item, or a group of items, while ignoring the inessential details
- **Abstraction, as an entity**, denotes a **model**, a view or some other focused representation for an actual item (Berard, 1993)
- The **separation of the logical properties of data or function from their implementation** (Dale and Lily, 1995)



What about Abstractions?

- In summary, abstraction allows us **access to the relevant information** regarding a problem/domain, and ignores the remainder
- Abstraction is a **technique to manage, and cope with, the complexity of the tasks we perform**
 - ◆ The ability to model at the right level a problem/domain, while ignore the rest
- The use of abstraction, both as a noun and a verb, allows us to
 - ◆ **control the level and amount of detail,**
 - ◆ **communicate effectively with customers and users**



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Mechanisms of Abstraction

- **Abstraction by parameterization** abstracts from the identity of the data by replacing them with parameters
 - ◆ Example: a function to square an integer
- **Abstraction by specification** abstracts from the implementation details to the behavior users can depend on.
 - ◆ Related terms: contract, interface
- The history of PLs is a long road towards richer abstraction forms

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Examples of Abstractions in PLs

- **Procedural** (abstraction of a statement) allows us to introduce new operations
 - ◆ Using the name of a sequence of instructions in place of the sequence of instructions
 - ◆ **Parameterization** allows high level of flexibility in the performance of operations
- **Data** (abstraction of a data type) allows us to introduce new types of data
 - ◆ A named collection that describes a data object
 - ◆ Provides a **logical reference to the data object** without concern for the underlying memory representation
- **Control** (abstraction of access details) allows us e.g., to iterate over items without knowing how the items are stored or obtained
 - ◆ A way of indicating the desired effect without establishing the actual control mechanism
 - ◆ Allows designers to **model iteration** (e.g., Iterator), **concurrency**, and **synchronization**

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Examples of Abstractions

- **Procedural**

```
int function search(ListTYPE inList; int item)
double function square(int x)
void function sort(ListTYPE ioList)
```
- **Data**

```
public abstract class Employee implements Serializable
{ private Name name;
  private Address address;
  private String ssn="999999999";
  private String gender="female";
  private String maritalStatus="single";}
```
- **Control**

```
#('name' 32 (1/2)) do: [:value|value printon: Transcript]
#(9 12 6 14 35 67 18) select: [:value|value even]
Iterator y= x.iterator();
while (y.hasNext()) examine(y.next());
```

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Programming Methodologies & Abstraction Concepts

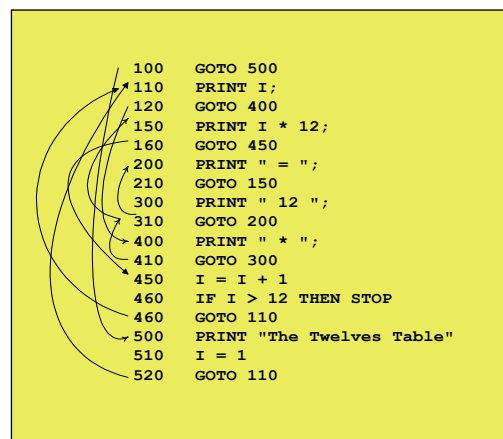
Programming Methodologies	Abstraction Concepts	Programming Languages Constructs
Structured Programming	Explicit Control Structures	Do-while and other loops Blocks and so forth
Modular Programming	Information Hiding	Modules with well-defined interfaces
Abstract Data Types Programming	Data Representation Hiding	User-defined Data Types
Object-Oriented Programming	Reusing Software Artifacts	Classes, Inheritance, Polymorphism

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Conversional Programming (1950s)

- Execute one statement after the other
- Uses GOTO to jump
- Single Entrance, Single Exit
- Subroutine (GOSUB)
 - ◆ Provided a natural division of labor
 - ◆ Could be reused in other programs
 - ◆ Elimination of Spaghetti-code



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Procedure-Based Programming

- Only 4 programming constructs
 - ◆ Sequence
 - ◆ Selection
 - ◆ Iteration
 - ◆ Recursion
- Modularization

New Procedures

Procedure 1

Procedure 4

Old Procedures

Procedure 3

Procedure 4

→

```

graph TD
    Begin --> P1[Procedure 1]
    P1 --> If{If}
    If -- Yes --> P2[Procedure 2]
    If -- No --> P3[Procedure 3]
    P2 --> P4[Procedure 4]
    P3 --> P4
    P4 --> End[End]
    End --> OR[Output Results]
    ID[Input Data] --> OR
  
```

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Structured Programming (1965)

- Divide and Conquer
 - ◆ Break large-scale problems into smaller components that are constructed independently
 - ◆ A program is a collection of procedures, each containing a sequence of instructions
- Functional Decomposition

```

graph TD
    Main --> T1[Task 1]
    Main --> T2[Task 2]
    Main --> T3[Task 3]
    T1 --> ST1.1[Sub-Task 1.1]
    T1 --> ST1.2[Sub-Task 1.2]
    ST1.2 --> ST1.2.1[Sub-Task 1.2.1]
    T3 --> Dots[...]
  
```

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Structured Programming Problems

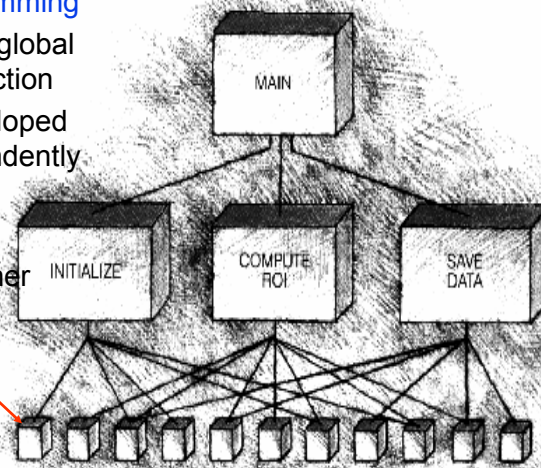
- Structured programming has a serious **limitation**:
 - ◆ It's rarely possible to anticipate the design of a completed system before it's implemented
 - ◆ The larger the system, the more restructuring takes place
- Software development had focused on the **modularization of code**
 - ◆ data moved around
 - argument/parameter associations
 - ◆ or data was global
 - works okay for tiny programs
 - Not so good when variables number in the hundreds

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Don't use Global Variables

- Sharing data (global variables) is a violation of **modular programming**
- All modules can access all global variables without any restriction
 - ◆ No module can be developed and understood independently
- Global data are dangerous
 - ◆ This makes all modules dependent on one another



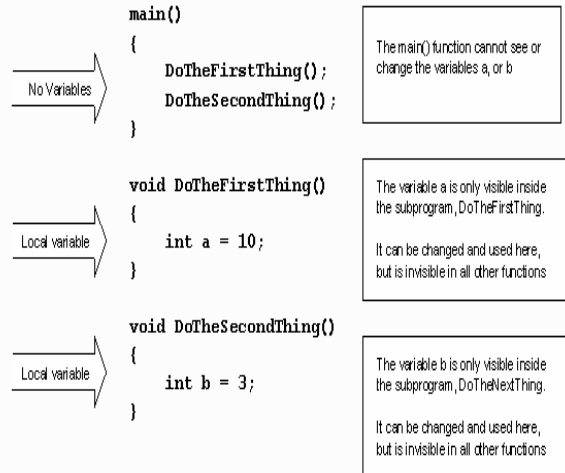
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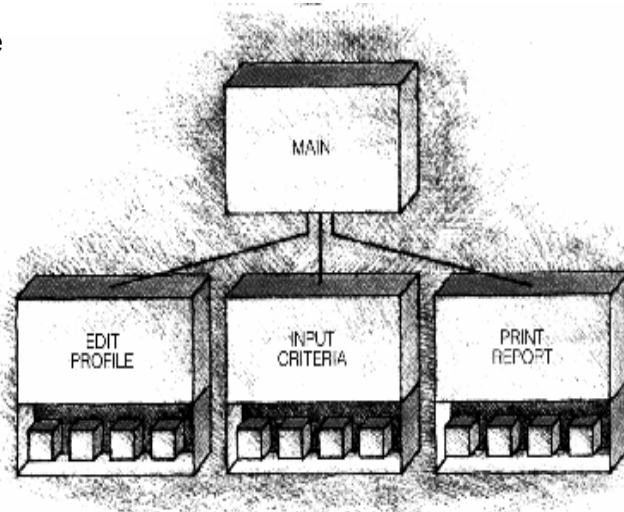
Information Hiding

- An improvement:
 - ◆ Give each procedure (module) it's own local data
 - ◆ This data can only be "touched" by that single subroutine
 - ◆ Subroutines can be designed, implemented, and maintained more easily
- Other necessary data is passed amongst the procedures via argument/parameter associations



Modularized Data

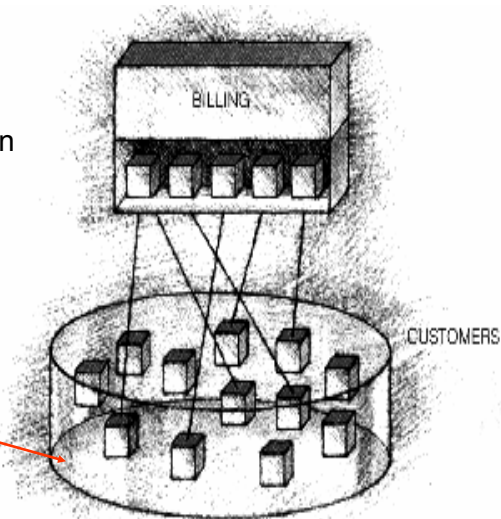
- Localize data inside the modules
- This makes modules more independent of one another
 - ◆ Local Data





Data Outside of Programs

- Small programs require little input and output
- Large programs work with the same data over and over again
 - ◆ Inventory control systems
 - ◆ accounting systems
 - ◆ engineering design tools
- A program that accesses data store outside of the program
 - ◆ Store data in external files



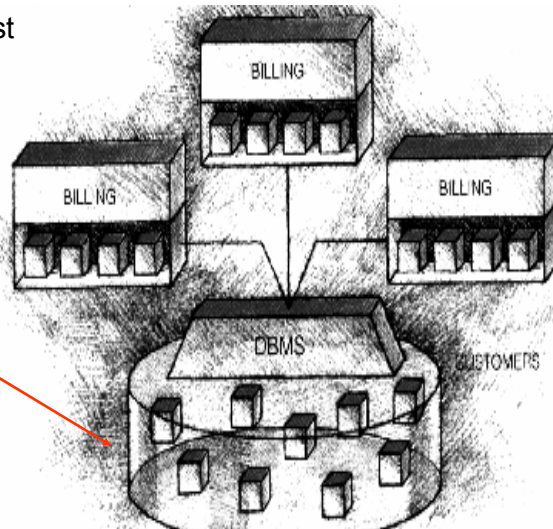
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Sharing Data

- Many people or programs must access the same file data
 - ◆ Requires a data base management system (DBMS)
- Data protected by a DBMS



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The Procedural Programming Style

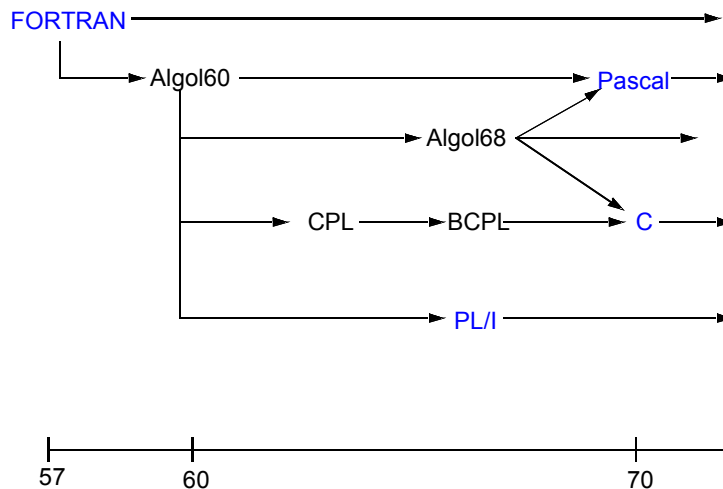
- Defines the world as 'procedures' operating on 'data'
 - ◆ procedures have clearly defined interfaces

- This approach doesn't work well in large systems
 - ◆ The result is defective software that is difficult to maintain
 - ◆ Code reuse limited

- There is a better way !!!



Procedural Programming: History





Imperative Programming

- It is the oldest but still the dominant paradigm
 - ◆ It is based on **commands** that update variables held in storage
 - ◆ **Variables** and **assignment commands** constitute a simple but useful abstraction from the memory fetch and update of machine instruction sets
 - ◆ Imperative programming languages can be implemented very efficiently

- Why imperative paradigm still dominant?
 - ◆ It is related to the nature and purpose of programming

- What is a program?
 - ◆ Programs are written to model **real-world processes** affecting **real-world objects**
 - ◆ Imperative programs model such processes
 - ◆ Variables model such objects

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Object-Oriented Programming

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The Roots of Object-Oriented Programming

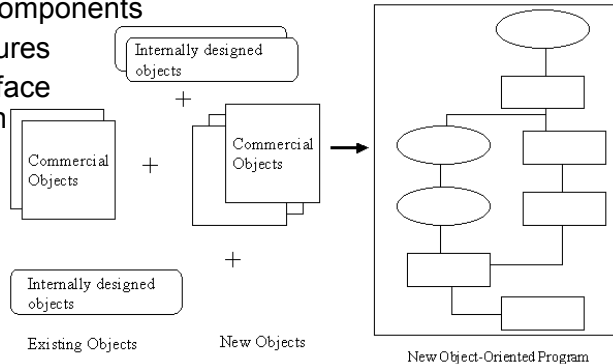
Programming ↓	<i>sequencing of instructions for the computer</i>
Procedural Programming ↓	<i>functional decomposition: functions are building blocks, data is global.</i>
Modular Programming ↓	<i>data organized into modules for functions which operate on them</i>
Object-Based Programming ↓	<i>models of objects which encapsulate data and functions together: abstraction and info hiding</i>
Object-Oriented Programming	<i>modeling of objects also support of inheritance and polymorphism.</i>

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Object-Oriented Programming

- **Software Objects:** software packet abstracting the salient behavior and attributes of a real object into a software package that simulates the real object
- **Well-constructed programs** are built on a solid foundation using previously-tested components
 - ◆ Link data with procedures
 - ◆ If object function/interface is clearly defined, then object implementation may change at will
- OOP key concepts:
 - ◆ Object Classes
 - ◆ Encapsulation
 - ◆ Inheritance
 - ◆ Polymorphism



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What is Data Abstraction?



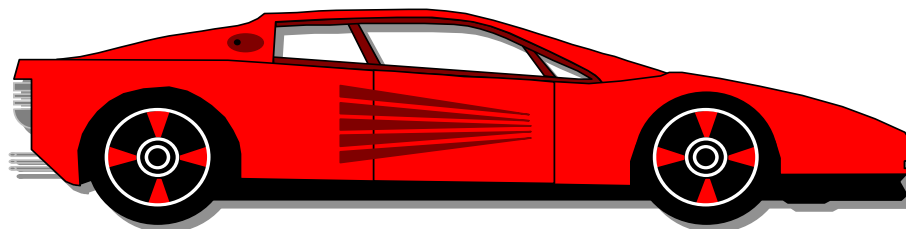
- focuses on the essential characteristics of some object which yields clearly defined boundaries
- It is relative to the perspective of the viewer

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What are Objects ?

- Real objects are such things as: Ferrari



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What are Objects ?

- Real objects are such things as: Greece



What are Objects ?

- Real objects are such things as: Professor





What are Objects ?

- Real objects are such things as: Versateller



What are Objects ?

- Real objects are such things as:
 - ① Things Ferrari
 - ② Places Greece
 - ③ Persons Professor
 - ④ Systems Versateller



What are Objects ?

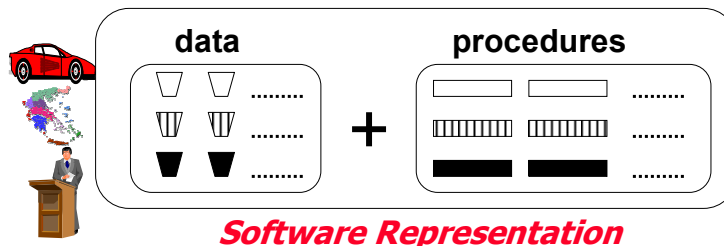
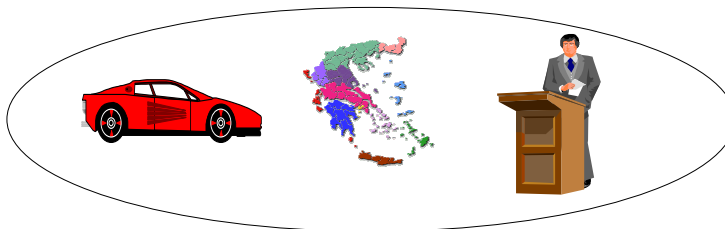
- Real objects have **attributes**:
 - ① Ferrari Top Speed
 - ② Greece Population
 - ③ Professor Courses
 - ④ Versatellers Amount on Hand
- Real objects also have **behavior**:
 - ① Ferrari Accelerate
 - ② Greece Tax
 - ③ Professor Teaches
 - ④ Versatellers Dispense Cash

① Ferrari	Top Speed	Accelerate
② Greece	Population	Tax
③ Professors	Courses	Teaches
④ Versatellers	Amount on Hand	Dispense Cash



Traditional Representation

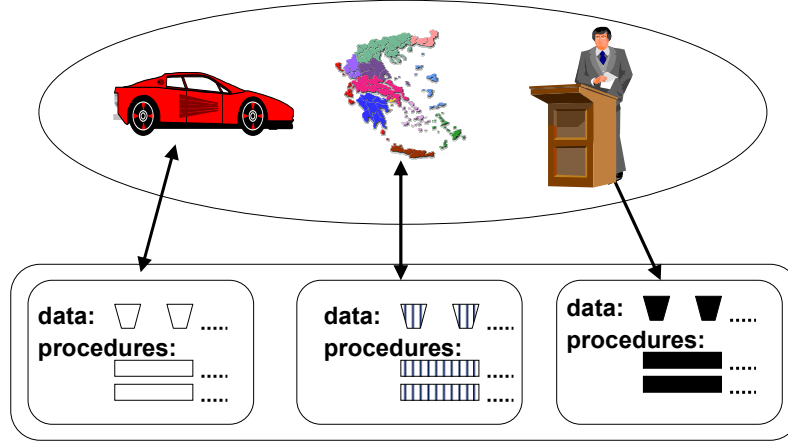
Real world entities





Object-Oriented Representation

Real world entities

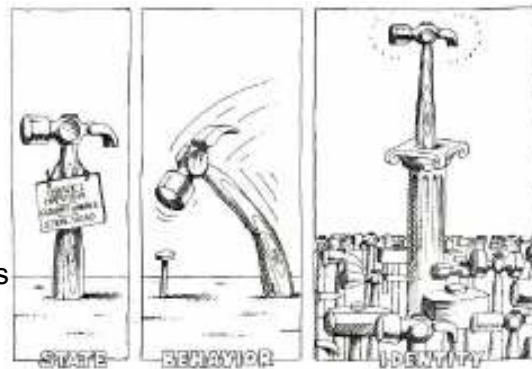


Software Representation



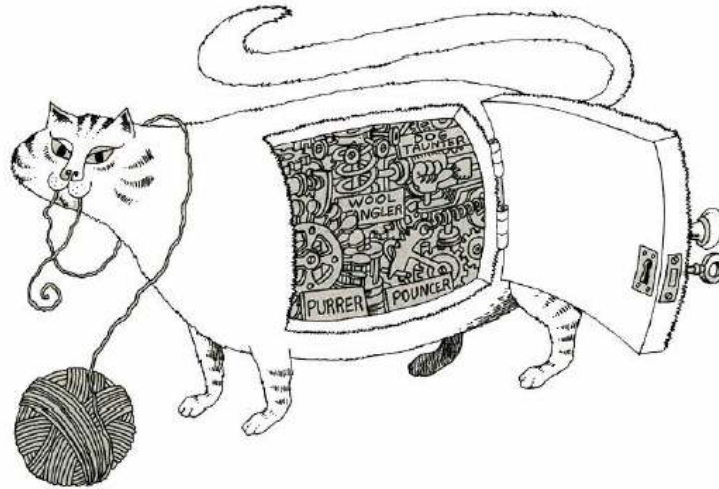
A More Formal Definition

- An object is a concept, abstraction, or thing with **sharp boundaries and meaning for an application**
- An object is something that has
 - ◆ **State**
 - one of the possible conditions in which an object may exist
 - represents over time the cumulative results of its behaviour
 - ◆ **Behavior**
 - determines how an object acts and reacts to requests from other objects
 - ◆ **Identity**
 - distinguishes it from other similar objects, even if its state is identical to that of another object





What is Encapsulation?

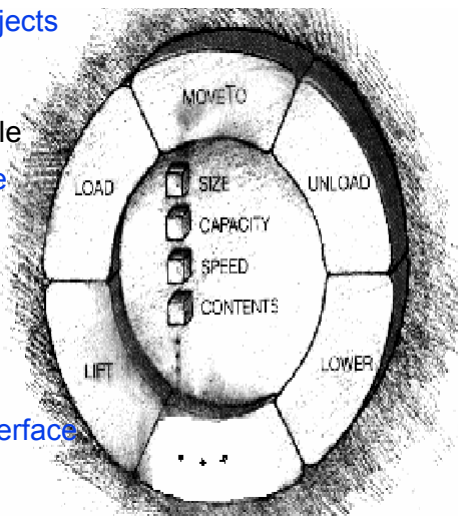


- compartmentalisation of structure and behaviour so that the details of an object's implementation are hidden



OOP Key Concepts: Encapsulation

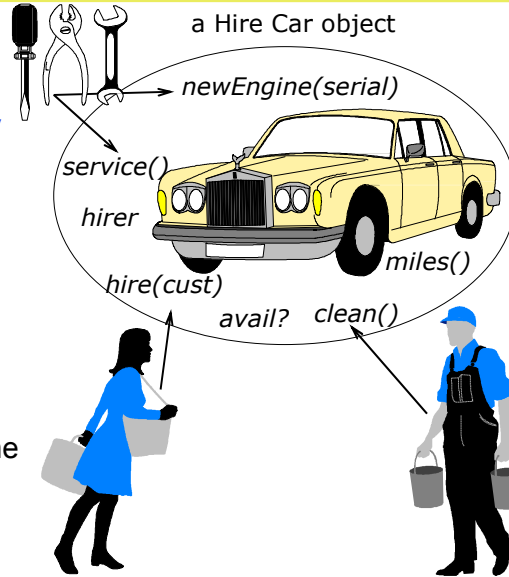
- Attributes are encapsulated by the objects behavior
 - ◆ You don't need to know how the engine works to drive an automobile
- A great deal of functionality is invisible
 - ◆ Turn a switch - radio comes on
 - ◆ Press a pedal - car accelerates
- The better the design and the tighter the integration with the state of an object makes the object work better
 - ◆ separates implementation from interface
 - ◆ controlled access to data
 - ◆ extends the built-in types
 - ◆ allows for greater modularity



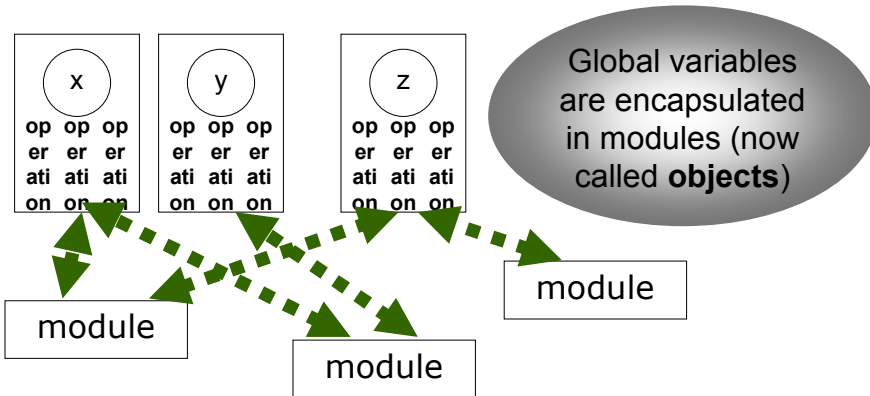


Separation of Responsibilities

- We give an **object responsibility**
- We can provide two types of operations:
 - ◆ **Accessors**
 - Methods which return (state) information
 - ◆ **Transformers**
 - Methods which change the object (state) information



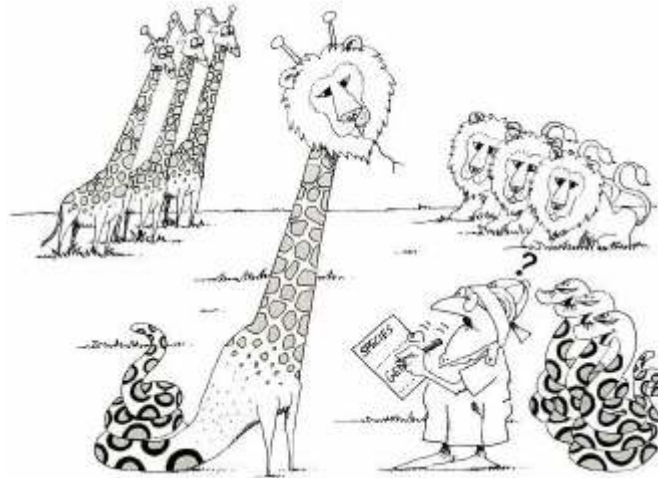
More on Encapsulation



- OOP is a **discipline** that relies on objects to impose a modular structure on programs
- OOP is more securely founded in an imperative language that supports the concept of **encapsulation**



What is a Class?

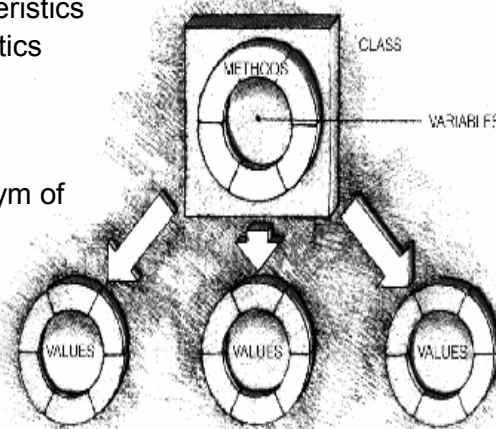


- a set of objects that share a common structure and behaviour
- every class has zero or more instances



Object Classes

- A class is an abstraction in that it:
 - ◆ Emphasizes relevant characteristics
 - ◆ Suppresses other characteristics
- Classes are templates used to manufacture objects (instances)
 - ◆ Note that instance is a synonym of object
- Objects are similar
 - ◆ all cars are similar (belong to class *Car*)
 - ◆ difference between a generic concept and a particular instance (a *Ferrari*)

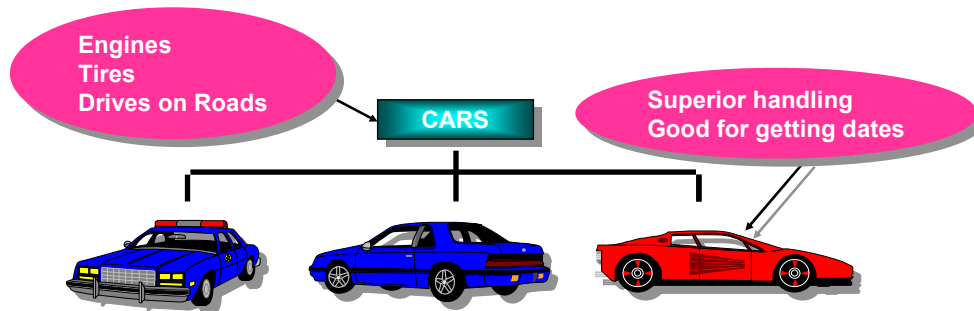


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A More Formal Definition

- A class is a description of a group of objects with common properties (attributes), behavior (operations), relationships, and semantics
 - ◆ Related to others by characteristics



Interpretation/Representation of Objects & Classes

	Interpretation in the real world	Representation in the computer program
Object	An object represents anything in the real world that can be distinctly identified	An object has a unique identity, a state, and behaviors
Class	A class represents a set of objects with similar characteristics and behaviors. These objects are called instance of the class	A class characterizes the structure of states and behaviors that are shared by all its instances



Object Classes for C Programmers

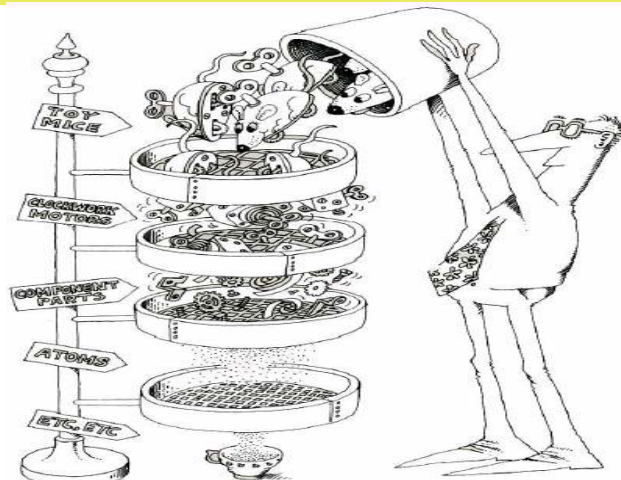
- A class is similar to a C struct


```
typedef struct {
  char* name;
  int age;
} Person;
Person alice;
```

 - ◆ **alice** is an instance of struct **Person**
 - ◆ In object-oriented programming **alice** is an object of class **Person**
- Unlike scripting languages and Java, all C data objects have a fixed size over their lifetime
 - ◆ except dynamically created objects
- Every data object in C has
 - ◆ a name and data type (specified in definition)
 - ◆ an address (its relative location in memory)
 - ◆ a size (number of bytes of memory it occupies)
 - ◆ visibility (which parts of program can refer to it)
 - ◆ lifetime (period during which it exists)



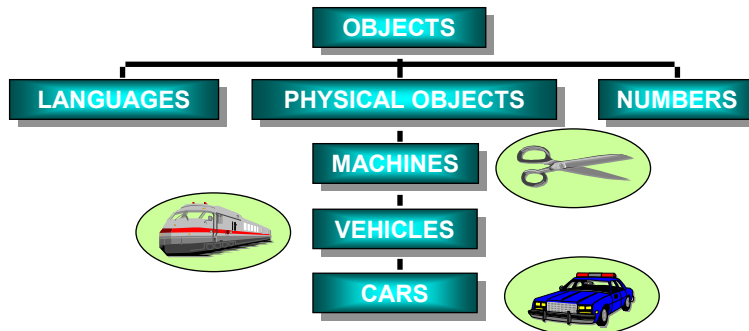
What is Inheritance?



- the **ordering or ranking of class abstractions**
 - ◆ important traits are built in at high levels (engine, lights)
 - ◆ similar things, work in a similar way (gas pedal on the right)



OOP Key Concepts: Inheritance

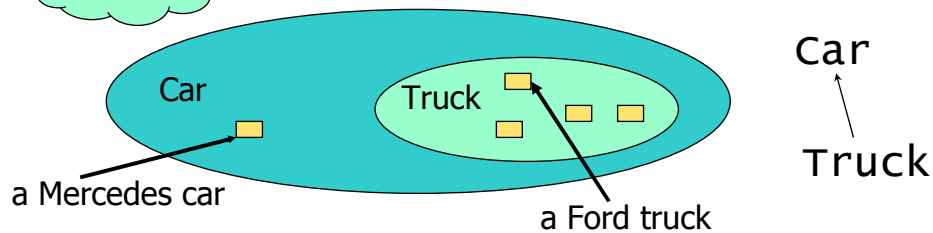


- Inheritance allow classes to use parent classes behavior and structure
 - ◆ improves **reliability** and manageability
 - ◆ allows **code reusability**
 - ◆ enforces **consistency** of interfaces
 - ◆ supports **rapid software prototyping**



The Concept of Generalization

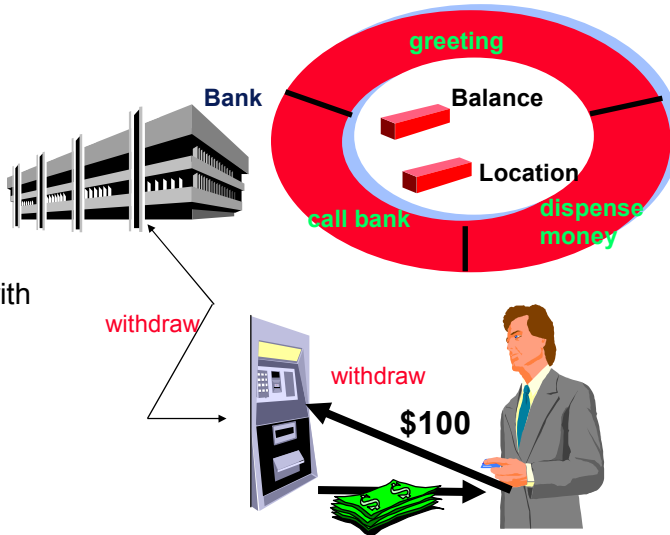
- **Class:** Implicitly defines a set of objects
 - ◆ aCar \in Car = Set of **all** cars
- **Generalization:** Subset relation
 - ◆ Truck \subseteq Car





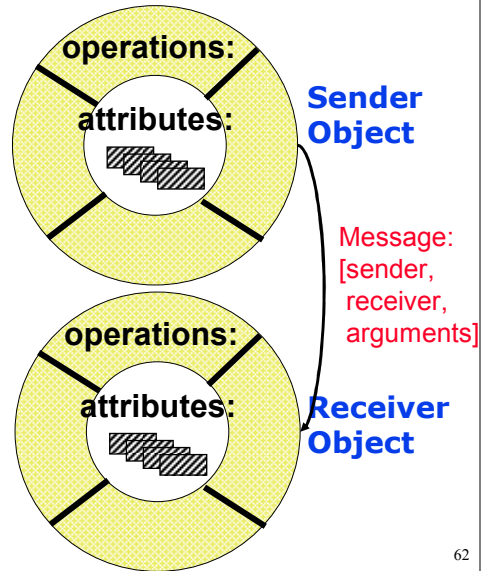
Object Messages

- An object-oriented program consists of objects interacting with other by **sending messages**



Object Messages

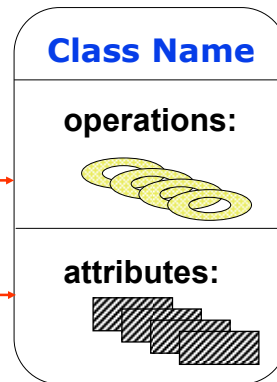
- A message has these three parts:
 - ◆ **sender**: the initiator of the message
 - ◆ **receiver**: the recipient of the message
 - ◆ **arguments**: data required by the receiver
- Receiver determines the code to be executed
 - ◆ **Procedural languages**: function name + scope
 code
 - ◆ **OO languages**: message name + receiving object
 code





Object Messages and Class Methods

- **Methods** represent an executable code that is encapsulated in a class and is designed to operate on one or more data attributes that are defined as part of the class
- Methods implement the **behavior of class objects**
 - ◆ Users invoke the methods of a class through messages
 - ◆ A class specifies the actual implementation of its methods
- Messages can **adapt themselves** to an **appropriate environment**
 - ◆ mean different things to different objects

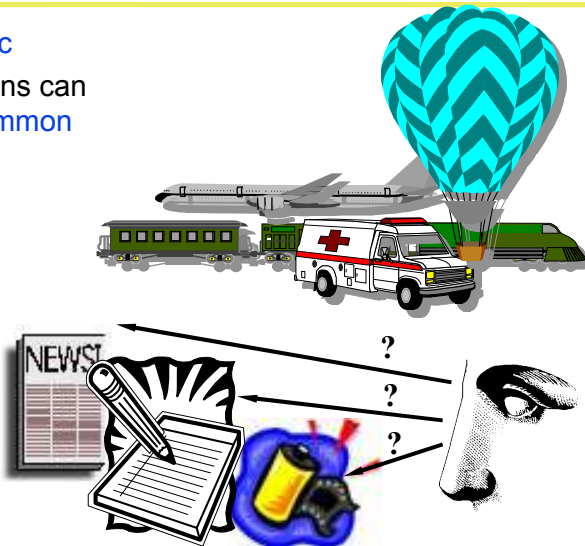


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OOP Key Concepts: Polymorphism

- Messages are **polymorphic**
 - ◆ different implementations can be hidden behind a **common interface**
- **Accelerate command**
 - ◆ automobile
 - ◆ train
 - ◆ airplane
- **Show command**
 - ◆ video clip
 - ◆ newspaper article
 - ◆ program source code

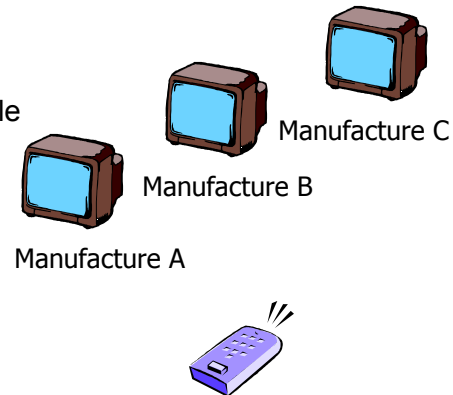


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What is an Interface?

- Interface formalize polymorphism
- Proper combination of polymorphism and information hiding enables us to design objects that are interchangeable (plug and play compatible)
 - ◆ Exact meaning of the command is packaged with the object
 - ◆ Allows a simple command to be used to get what we want with different (and future) objects
- Interface support “plug-and-play” functionality



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Procedural Programming vs. Using Polymorphism

```
For each Item in List
  if (Item.type is video)
    ShowVideo(Item);
  else if (Item.type is news)
    ShowNews(Item);
  else if (Item.type is code)
    ShowCode(Item);
```

```
For each Item in List
  Show(Item);
```

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What is Modularity?



- packages the abstractions into nice discrete units (components) which are loosely coupled and cohesive

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What is a Component?

- A non-trivial, nearly independent, and replaceable part of a system that fulfills a clear function in the context of a well-defined architecture
- A component may be
 - ◆ A source code component
 - ◆ A run time component or
 - ◆ An executable component
- Interfaces can be realized by components



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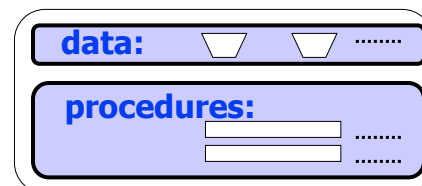
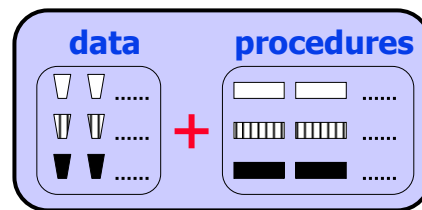
Why Reusable Components Design?

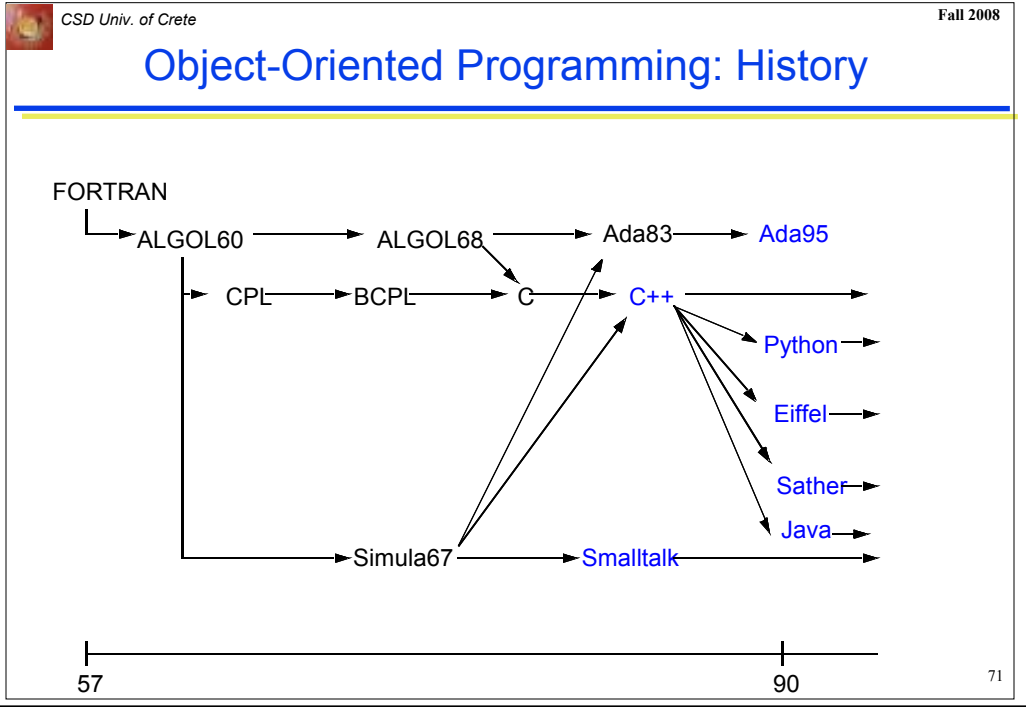
- **Autonomy**
 - ◆ a component/module should be an autonomous entity, so it could work anywhere
- **Abstraction**
 - ◆ it should have a clear abstraction, so others can easily understand it's behavior (know what to expect from it)
- **Clear interfacing**
 - ◆ it should have a clear interface so it will be easy to work with, and to maintain
- **Documentation & Naming**
 - ◆ without documentation and good naming for interface methods, no one will understand how to use it



Object-Oriented Style of Design & Programming

- **Three Keys to Object-Oriented Technology**
 - ◆ Objects
 - ◆ Messages
 - ◆ Classes
- **Translation for structured programmers**
 - ◆ Variables
 - ◆ Function Calls
 - ◆ Data Types





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Procedural vs. Object Oriented Programming

- **Procedural:** Emphasizes Processes
 - ◆ Data structures are designed to fit processes
 - ◆ Processes and data structures are conceived in solution space
 - ◆ In procedural programming, the system is modeled as a collection of procedures

- **Object-Oriented:** Emphasizes Objects
 - ◆ Objects are from the problem space
 - ◆ They survive changes in functionality
 - ◆ Interpretation of messages is by objects
 - ◆ Objects are easier to classify than operations
 - ◆ In object-oriented programming, the system is modeled as a collection of interacting objects

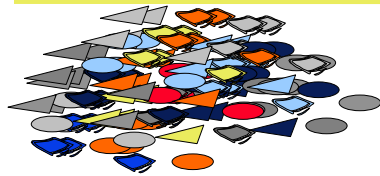
Problem Space

Objects

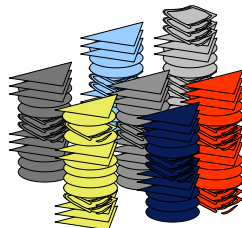
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The Evolution of Software Design Methods



1st Generation
Spaghetti-Code



2nd & 3rd Generation :
functional decomposition

Software =
Data (Shapes)
+
Functions (Colors)

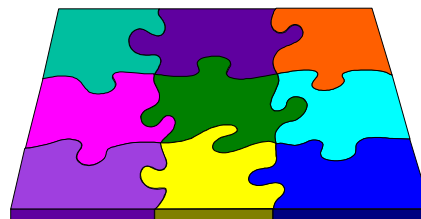


4th Generation
object decomposition



The Object Oriented Technology Mindset

- Traditionally, software was developed to satisfy a specific requirements specification
 - ◆ A billing system could not be made into something else even if were similar
 - Let the billing system handle mailings or ticklers
- Object Oriented Technology (OOT) has a different mindset
 - ◆ Instead of beginning with the task to be performed, OO design deals with the aspects of the real world that need to modeled in order to perform the task





A Wish for Reuse

- Traditional software started from scratch
 - ◆ easier than converting old code--specific task
- Object Oriented Technology stresses reuse
 - ◆ objects are the building blocks
 - ◆ majority of time spent assembling proven components: e.g., Graphical User Interface (GUI)
 - Borland's OWL, MS's MFC, or Java Swing
 - ◆ But reuse is hard to obtain!
 - Extreme programmers don't strive for it, they just do what they are getting paid to do



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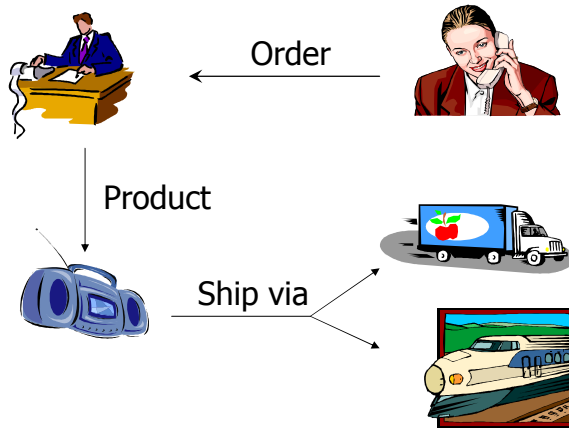
The Promise of the Approach

- Object Oriented Technology offers
 - ◆ techniques for creating flexible, natural software modules
 - ◆ systems that are much easier to adapt to new demands
 - ◆ reuse shortens the development life cycle
 - ◆ systems are more understandable and maintainable
 - easier to remember 50 real world classes rather than 500 functions!
- Basic corporate operations change more slowly than the information needs
 - ◆ software based on corporate models have a longer life span
- Do you believe it has been easy for corporations to switch to this new technology?

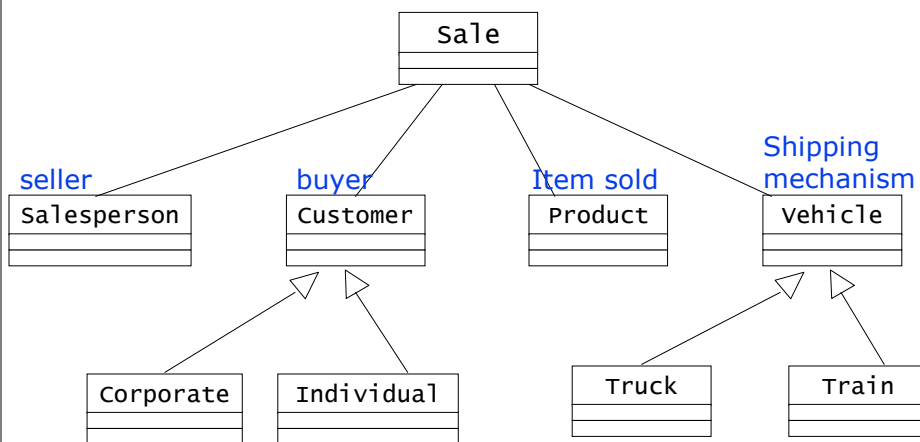
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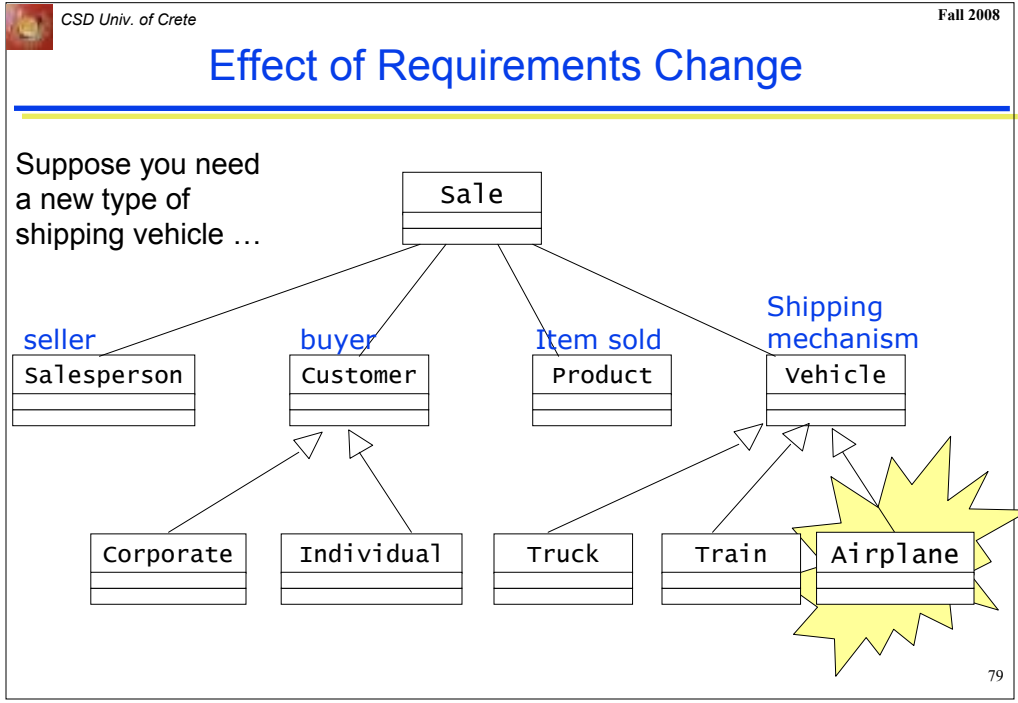


A Simple Sales Order Example



Class Diagram for the Sales Example





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Benefits of OOP in Software Development

- We should always strive to engineer our software to make it **reliable** and **maintainable**
 - ◆ Develop programs incrementally
 - ◆ Don't need to understand everything up front (including things you will never use)
 - ◆ Avoids spaghetti code
 - ◆ No need to start from scratch every time
- As the complexity of a program increases, its cost to develop and revise grows exponentially
 - ◆ OOP speeds development time

Before OOP

cost

complexity

After OOP

cost

complexity

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