

**AQA Computer Science A-Level**  
**4.1.2 Programming paradigms**  
Intermediate Notes



## **Specification:**

### **4.1.2.1 Programming paradigms:**

Understand the characteristics of the procedural and object-oriented programming paradigms, and have experience of programming in each.

### **4.1.2.2 Procedural-oriented programming:**

Understand the structured approach to program design and construction.

Be able to construct and use hierarchy charts when designing programs.

Be able to explain the advantages of the structured approach.

### **4.1.2.3 Object-oriented programming:**

Be familiar with the concepts of:

- class
- object
- instantiation
- encapsulation
- inheritance
- aggregation
- composition
- polymorphism
- overriding

Know why the object-oriented paradigm is used.

Be aware of the following object-oriented design principles:

- encapsulate what varies
- favour composition over inheritance
- program to interfaces, not implementation

Be able to write object-oriented programs

Be able to draw and interpret class diagrams



## The procedural programming paradigm

Programs written in the procedural programming paradigm are formed from **sequences of instructions** that are executed **in the order in which they appear**. Procedures like **functions** and **subroutines** form parts of the program and can be **called from anywhere** within the program or by other procedures.

Data is stored in procedural programs by **constants and variables**.

Most of the programs that you may have written are likely to have been procedural.

### The structured approach

Using the **structured approach** to program design and construction keeps programs **easy to understand and manage**. Four basic **structures** are used: assignment, sequence, selection and iteration.

Structured programs are said to be **designed from the top down**, meaning that the most important elements of a problem are **broken down into smaller tasks**, each of which can be solved in a block of code such as a procedure or module which goes on to form part of the overall solution.

Designing a program from the top down makes **maintaining the program** easier as navigation of different elements of the overall solution is improved. If all of a program's code is contained within the same module, finding the specific line of code that needs fixing can be incredibly difficult - especially in large projects.

When a program is split into modules, **testing can be carried out on the individual modules** before they are combined to form the overall solution.

### Synoptic Link

**Assignment, sequence, selection and iteration** are defined in the notes for **abstraction and automation under theory of computation**.



## Hierarchy charts

A hierarchy chart graphically represents **the structure of a structured program**. Each procedure is **displayed as a rectangle** which is connected to any other procedures that are used within it.

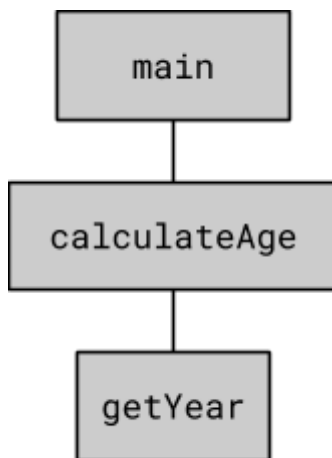
### Example

```

SUBROUTINE Main()
  name ← INPUT
  yearBorn ← INPUT
  age ← calculateAge(yearBorn)
  IF age > 17 THEN
    OUTPUT name + "can drive"
  ELSE
    OUTPUT name + "can't drive"
  END IF
END SUBROUTINE

FUNCTION calculateAge(year)
  yearNow ← getYear()
  age ← yearNow - year
  RETURN age
END FUNCTION

FUNCTION getYear()
  RETURN system.year
END FUNCTION
  
```



The three procedures above (main, calculateAge and getYear) form a program which **could be represented by the hierarchy chart** on the left.

Each rectangle represents a part of the overall program. The lines between the rectangles show the **relationships** that exist between the different parts of the program.

In more complicated programs, each rectangle can be linked to **more than one** other. This occurs when a procedure calls more than one other procedure.

## **The object-oriented programming paradigm**

### Objects

Rather than storing data with constants and variables like procedural programs, object-oriented programs use **objects** as containers of both data and instructions.

New objects are **created from classes**. The process of creating an object is called **instantiation**. It is possible for one program to have **many different objects of the same class** which will all have identical methods and procedures, however the **actual values** of their properties are unique to the object. For example, a program could have three different objects of the class car which all have a property called manufacturer. All three cars could have different manufacturers.



## Classes & class definitions

An object is defined as an instance of a **class**. A class is **like a blueprint** for objects, they specify what properties (data) and methods (instructions) objects of their type will have.

For example, a class for creating car objects might have the properties EngineSize and Colour and the methods StartEngine, ApplyHandbrake and TurnOnLights.

A class can be expressed on paper as a **class definition** which lists a class' name, properties and methods. Exam questions often ask you to write or interpret class definitions.

The class definition for the car class could look like this:

```
Car = Class {  
  Private:  
    Manufacturer: String  
    Model: String  
    EngineCapacity: Float  
    IsTaxed: Boolean  
  Public:  
    Function GetManufacturer  
    Function GetModel  
    Function GetEngineCapacity  
    Function GetIsTaxed  
    Procedure SetDetails  
}
```

A method or property that is listed as **private** can only be accessed from within an object. **Public** methods allow an interface for accessing and modifying a class' private properties.

## Encapsulation

Encapsulation is the name given to the process of **combining methods and procedures to form an object** in object-oriented programming. An object is said to **encapsulate its contents**, forming a **single entity** which encompasses all of the object's properties and methods.

Encapsulation allows the development of large programs to be **split across a team of developers**, each of whom can be **allocated a class** to develop.

### Synoptic Link

This idea is essential to the design principle **program to Interfaces, not Implementation** which is covered later in these notes.



## Inheritance

A class can **inherit** another class. Inheritance allows one class to **share the properties and methods of another class**, while having its own properties and methods too.

```
DeLorean = Class (Car) {  
  Private:  
    ReactorOutput: Integer  
    FluxCapacitorInput: Integer  
  Public:  
    Function GetReactorOutput  
    Function GetFluxCapacitorInput  
    Procedure SetDetails (Override)  
}
```

Inheritance can be described as an “is a” relationship: a DeLorean **is a** car.

The example above shows the class description for DeLorean. The brackets after class (shown in red) indicate that the class inherits the Car class and therefore **has all of the properties and methods that the Car class has** as well as **its own** properties and methods that do not exist in the Car class such as ReactorOutput.

## Polymorphism

Polymorphism occurs when objects are **processed differently depending on their class**.

For example, if two objects with classes Car and Lorry both had a ConsumeFuelForOneMile method, it might decrease the Car’s FuelLevel property less than it would the Lorry’s. The method has taken the object’s class into account and treated them differently **based on their class**.

## Overriding

An overridden method has **the same name** as a method in an inherited class **but different implementation**. The word override after the SetDetails method in the class description above indicates that the implementation of the SetDetails method in the DeLorean class differs from the implementation of the method with the same name in the Car class.

## Association

If two objects are associated, they can be described as having a “**has a**” relationship. For example, objects of the classes Car and Driver could be associated as a car **has a** driver. An associated object **forms part of its container object** as a property. Just like a property of an object can be a string, it can be an object of another class.

There are **two specific types** of association that you need to know about: aggregation and composition.



Aggregation is the **weaker** of the two kinds of association. When an object is associated with another by aggregation, it **will still exist** if its containing object is destroyed.

*For example: a car's passengers are associated with the car by aggregation. If the car is scrapped, the passengers still exist independently.*

Composition is a **stronger** relationship between classes. If two objects are associated by composition and the containing object is destroyed, the associated object is **also destroyed**.

*For example: a car's wheels are associated with the car by composition. The wheels form an integral part of the car and scrapping the car destroys the wheels.*

### Why is object-oriented programming used?

Object-oriented programming provides programs with a **clear structure** that makes developing and testing programs **easier** for developers. Using the paradigm also allows for large projects to be **divided among a team** of developers.

The use of classes allows code to be **reused** throughout the same program and even in other programs. This improves the **space efficiency** of code.

## **Object-oriented design principles**

There are **three design principles** used in object-oriented programming that you need to be aware of. These are: encapsulate what varies, favour composition over inheritance and program to interfaces, not implementation.

### Encapsulate what varies

When designing a program in the object-oriented paradigm, any requirements **which are likely to change in the future** should be **encapsulated in a class** so that any changes can be **easily made when required**.

### Favour composition over inheritance

Wherever possible, composition should be used over inheritance. This is because **composition is seen as a more flexible relationship** between objects.

### Program to interfaces, not implementation

This design principle allows **unrelated classes** to make use of **similar methods**. An interface is defined as **a collection of abstract procedures** that can be **implemented by unrelated classes**.

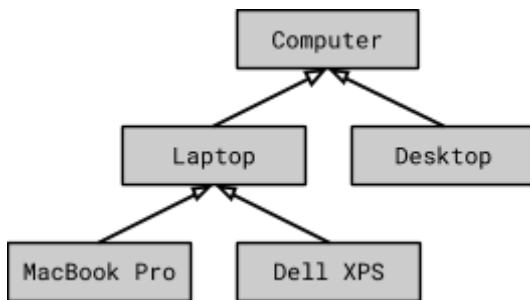


## Class diagrams

Class diagrams can be used to **visually** represent the **relationships** that exist between classes. Classes are represented by **boxes** with different **connectors** representing different kinds of relationship.

### Inheritance diagrams

A special type of class diagram, the **inheritance diagram**, shows the different inheritance relationships that exist between classes in an object-oriented program.

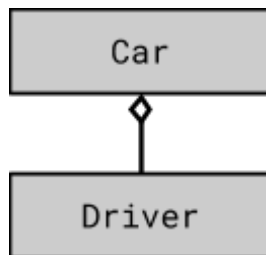


Inheritance is shown with **unfilled arrows** which point from an inherited class **towards the class which inherits it**. In this example, the Laptop class inherits the Computer class so an arrow points upwards from Laptop to Computer.

### Association

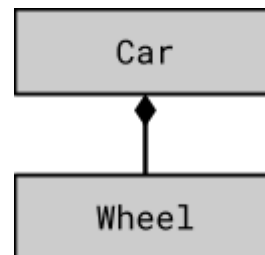
Association is shown in class diagrams with **diamond headed arrows**.

#### Aggregation



Aggregation (the weaker of the two types of association) is shown with an **unfilled** diamond headed arrow.

#### Composition



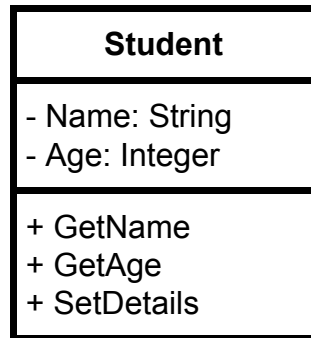
Composition (the stronger relationship) is shown with a **filled** diamond headed arrow.





### Class diagrams with properties and methods

A class diagram can contain **more information** about classes than just their name. When this is done, a class is represented by **three boxes**. The uppermost box contains the class name, the middle box contains the class' properties and the bottom box contains the class' methods.



A **plus sign** indicates that a property or method is **public** and a **minus** indicates that the property or method is **private**.

