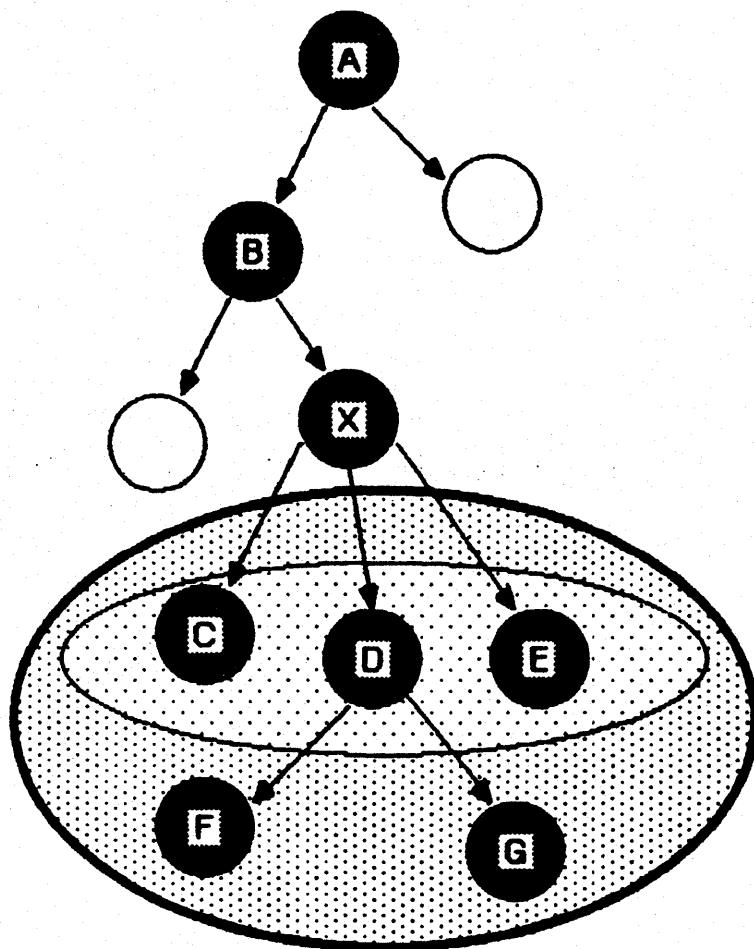


An Introduction to Clascal



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Preface

This is a conceptual introduction to Clascal, not a reference manual. Example programs and syntax diagrams follow the text.

The purpose of this document is to introduce experienced Pascal programmers to the concepts necessary to make the transition from a traditional procedure-oriented environment to Clascal's object-oriented environment.

This document assumes you are familiar with Lisa Pascal and QuickDraw. All programs and program fragments are boldface in this document. For example, **thisShape.Erase** is a program fragment.

Table of Contents

Introduction	1
Comparing Pascal and Clascal	1
Pascal	2
Clascal	4
Class Types	8
Objects	9
Methods	12
SELF	16
Class Hierarchy and Inheritance	17
Assignment Checking and Typecasting	20
Creating and Freeing Objects	21
SUPERSELF and Extensibility	22
Clascal vs. Pascal	25
Clascal and the Lisa Applications ToolKit	26
When to Use the Clascal Extensions	26
Advanced Topics	27
The Example Programs	30

An Introduction to Clascal

Introduction

Clascal is a set of extensions to Lisa Pascal that adds objects and classes of objects to the language. The semantic extensions of Clascal were inspired by the language Smalltalk 76. The syntactic extensions were influenced by the language Simula 67. It is not necessary to know Smalltalk or Simula before learning Clascal.

Clascal differs little from Pascal syntactically. The major difference between the languages is in programming technique.

When you write a Pascal program, your procedure and function specifications are separate from your data structure specifications. When a Pascal program is run, data is passed to a procedure or function, and the procedure or function acts on the data.

In Clascal the data structures of an object and its procedures and functions are specified together in a class declaration. When the program is run, objects are created. These objects use the functions and procedures that the programmer specified when defining the data structure. All the operations that an object can perform are defined by the object's class. As a result, program modularity is improved.

In Pascal, to add new variations to an old data type, you must either define new types incompatible with the old type, or edit existing code to add new cases to a variant record type and to procedures that act on that type. In Clascal, you can define subclasses of existing classes without editing existing code and without introducing incompatible types. As a result, program extensibility is improved.

Comparing Pascal and Clascal

Clascal is a superset of Lisa Pascal. Because the readers of this document are Pascal programmers, Clascal concepts are compared to Pascal concepts throughout this document. As a Pascal programmer, you should have little difficulty adjusting to Clascal, because most of what you know about Pascal is true for Clascal.

This document uses a Pascal program and a parallel Clascal program to give examples, and to contrast the two languages. The programs are listed under The Example Programs at the end of this document (see page 30). All examples within this document are from these programs.

The Pascal program and Clascal program, when run, do the same things. The difference between the programs is that the Clascal program, because of the structure of Clascal, can be easily extended, while the Pascal program cannot.

Pascal

PasExample, the Pascal program, is written in Lisa Pascal. When PasExample is run, in the Lisa WorkShop, it prints a command line on the top of the screen. The user chooses, from this command line, to draw and move arcs or rectangles with rounded corners. Only one shape appears on the screen at a time; when a shape is drawn or moved the old shape is erased.

Note

PasExample uses QuickDraw to draw and erase shapes. It helps to have read the *Appendix E, QuickDraw* in the *Pascal Reference Manual* before reading this document.

In PasExample, arcs and rectangles with rounded corners are defined in a record-type definition:

```
AShape = RECORD
  boundRect: Rect;
  CASE kind: EShape of
    kArc: (startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER);
    kRoundRect: (ovalWidth, ovalHeight: INTEGER);
  END;
```

This example is the record definition of AShape. Thus, both arcs and rounded rectangles have a boundRect field. Note that a variant record part is used to add startAngle and arcAngle to the kArc variant, and ovalWidth and ovalHeight to the kRoundRect variant of AShape. The figure below illustrates the fields an arc or rounded rectangle have.

kArc
fields
boundRect
startAngle
arcAngle

kRoundRect
fields
boundRect
ovalWidth
ovalHeight

Data fields in kArc and kRoundRect

Aside from storage allocation procedures, PasExample defines six procedures and functions. The Run procedure controls the execution of the program. The other five procedures and functions act on arcs and rounded rectangles. The NewArc function creates an arc and the NewRoundRect function creates a rectangle with rounded corners. The DrawShape procedure draws an arc or a rectangle with rounded corners, and the EraseShape procedure erases an arc or a rectangle with rounded corners. The RandomRect procedure assigns the rectangle within which the arc or rounded rectangle is drawn.

PasExample was implemented using "handles" -- double-indirect pointers (^^) to records -- and a heap on which the records are stored. The heap is compactable. The type TShape is a handle on an AShape-type record.

Within Pascal programs, information is grouped by operations (procedures and functions). This grouping by operations scatters information about each type of data structure within a Pascal program. For example, if you want to see what can be done with arcs in PasExample, you have to look at NewArc, DrawShape, EraseShape, and RandomRect.

In PasExample, there is one Draw procedure for all shapes.

```
PROCEDURE DrawShape(SELF: TShape);
BEGIN
  CASE SELF^^kind of
    kArc: FrameArc(SELF^^.boundRect, SELF^^.startAngle,
                  SELF^^.arcAngle);
    kRoundRect: FrameRoundRect(SELF^^.boundRect,
                              SELF^^.ovalWidth, SELF^^.ovalHeight);
  END;
END;
```

The CASE statement determines how to draw a particular shape. In PasExample, as in all Pascal programs, it would be easy to add a new operation because it is a procedure-oriented language and information is grouped by operation. It would, however, be difficult to add another variant of AShape. To do so, you have to edit the declaration of RECORD AShape in PasExample, and add to the case statements in all procedures and functions in the program. If the source code is unavailable, or if the object code is from a shared library, it is impossible to add another data structure.

Clascal

Clascal programs are structured around classes. A Clascal object is defined by its class. An object's class defines both the type of data structure the object has, and the operations (procedures and functions) that the object can perform. Classes belong to a hierarchy. This hierarchy makes it possible for classes to share characteristics belonging to classes above them in the class hierarchy. Figure 1 illustrates the basic Clascal hierarchy, and introduces some fundamental Clascal terms.

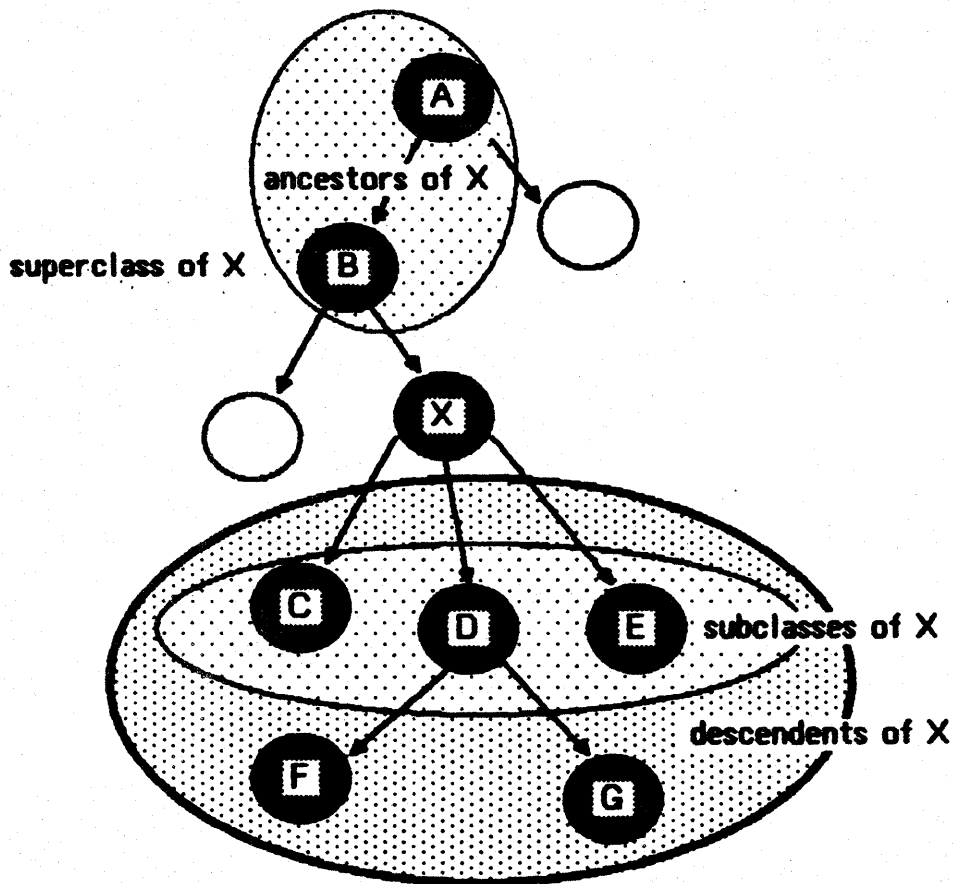


Figure 1. Clascal Hierarchy

Every circle in diagram above is a class. Within the hierarchy, classes have relationships. A *subclass* is a class that is one level below in the hierarchy -- C, D, and E are subclasses of X. A *superclass* is a class that is one level above a class in the hierarchy -- B is X's superclass. Ancestor classes are classes that are above a class on the hierarchy -- A and B are X's ancestors. Descendent classes are classes that are below a class in the hierarchy -- C, D,

E, F, and G are descendents of X. These concepts are discussed in more detail later in this document.

Objects are organized in classes. A class is a kind of data type that defines objects. A class is a *type* in the traditional Pascal sense; it is similar to a record type, but also associates operations with the class. These operations are procedures and functions. In Clascal terminology, procedures and functions are called *methods* to indicate that they are associated with a class. An object uses the methods associated with its class. So, when you define a class, you define the data fields, and all the methods an object of that class can use.

A class type is like a Pascal record type, but more. Unlike a record type, a class has associated with it, in addition to data fields, methods (procedures and functions).

An object is an instance of a class, just as a record variable is an instance of a record type. An object is not the same as a class. A class defines the fields and methods an object of its type will have, but is not one of the objects it defines; just as a Pascal RECORD type defines a record, but is not one of the records it defines.

The standard Clascal unit, UObject, defines a class, TObject. TObject defines the most general characteristics of all Clascal objects. For example, TObject provides a general method for copying an object, and a method for discarding an object. Additional classes in a program are defined in unit UObject and other units.

A primary Clascal concept is that the data fields and methods from one class can be inherited by another class. Classes are organized in a tree-structured hierarchy, with TObject the ultimate ancestor class.

A new class is created by declaring it a subclass of another class. This establishes a place for the new class in the hierarchy. The subclass inherits the characteristics of the superclass, and new characteristics can be added.

An object of any class is an instance of its own class, and a member of all its ancestor classes. For example, all objects are members of the class TObject, as well as members of their own classes.

ClasExample has two subclasses of TObject: TShape and TControl. TShape has two subclasses: TArc and TRoundRect. Figure 2 shows the class hierarchy in ClasExample.

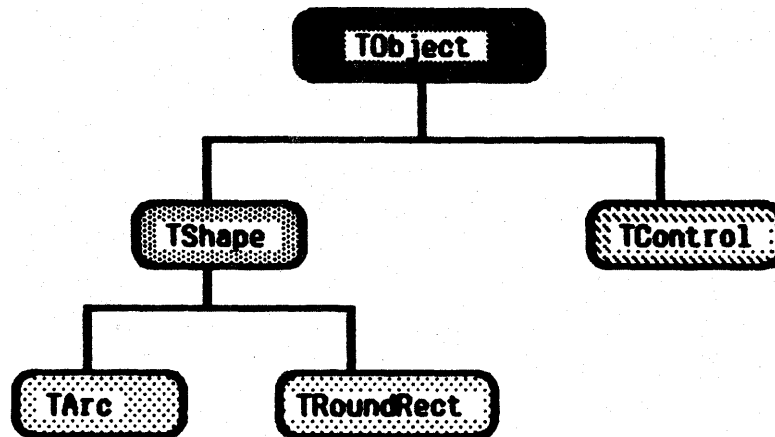


Figure 2. Class Hierarchy in ClasExample

Inherited data fields cannot be reimplemented in a subclass, but inherited methods can be reimplemented. Reimplementing a method is called "overriding a method".

For example, consider **ClasExample**. **ClasExample** draws and moves arcs and rounded rectangles. **TShape** defines the most general characteristics of shapes. These characteristics are a data field, **boundRect** and four non-CREATE methods:

- **CREATE** (Creates an object of class **TShape**)
- **Draw** (Draws an object of class **TShape**)
- **Erase** (Erases an object of class **TShape**)
- **Move** (Moves an object of class **TShape**)
- **RandomRect** (Initializes **boundRect** in an object of class **TShape**)

As subclasses of **TShape**, both **TArc** and **TRoundRect** inherit **boundRect** and the four non-CREATE methods defined by **TShape**. Note that **TArc** and **TRoundRect** inherit the definition of **boundRect** from **TShape**, but that each member of the class has its very own **boundRect** field. **TArc** adds two additional data fields, **startAngle** and **arcAngle**, overrides **Draw** and **Erase**, and adds its own **CREATE** function. Likewise, **TRoundRect** adds two additional data fields, **ovalWidth** and **ovalHeight**, overrides **Draw** and **Erase**, and adds its own **CREATE** function for the class. Since drawing and erasing arcs and rounded rectangles is different, **TArc** and **TRoundRect** define their own **Draw** and **Erase** methods. Initializing **boundRect** is the same for all shapes, so **RandomRect** and **Move** are inherited unchanged by both **TArc** and **TRoundRect**. Figure 3 illustrates this example.

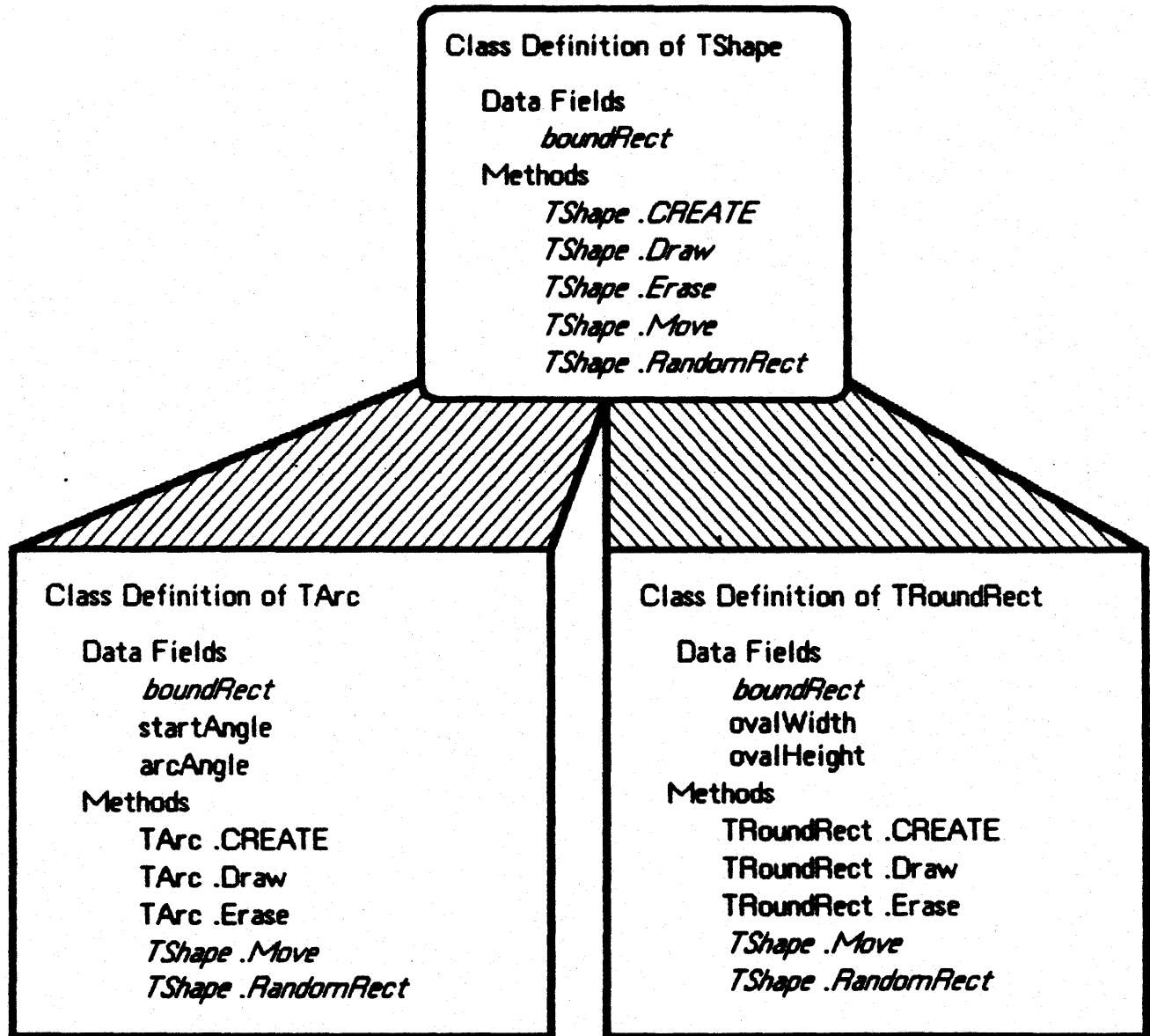


Figure 3. Inheritance in ClasExample

In Clascal, all object information is centralized within a class definition and implementation. An operation definition within a Clascal program, because it is organized within classes, is distributed throughout the program. For example, if you want to see how "Draw" is accomplished in ClasExample, you have to look in the method implementations for TShape, TRoundRect, and TArc. In PasExample, you had to look only in the one Draw procedure.

You can extend Clascal applications easily because of the class structure. In this document you will see how the class structure allows easy extension of Clascal programs, and how this ability is used by the ToolKit.

Class Types

Clascal adds a new kind of data type, *class*. A class type is like a Pascal record type, but has associated with it, in addition to data fields, methods (procedures and functions).

An *object-reference variable* is a special pointer-type variable that is used to reference an object. The type of an object-reference variable is always a class type. The value of an object-reference variable is either NIL or a reference to an object. The machine representation of an object reference is a *handle*, a pointer to a pointer to a block on the Clascal heap. In ClasExample:

```
control: TControl
```

```
thisShape: TShape
```

are object-reference variable definitions, control is of class TControl and thisShape is of class TShape.

Thus, an object-reference variable is not an object. When you refer to an object's field or a method with an object-reference variable, the handle is automatically dereferenced. This is different in syntax from Pascal. In PasExample, SELF refers to an object. To reference the arcAngle field in an arc, you would have to explicitly write

```
SELF^^.arcAngle
```

In Clascal, the double indirection is taken care of automatically. To reference the same field in an arc object, you would write

```
SELF.arcAngle
```

Objects

An object is an instance of a class. An object is stored in a block of dynamic memory on a Clascal heap. An object knows its class, and so knows which methods to use.

Data fields and associated methods make up an object. All objects that are instances of one class use the set of field names defined in the class definition.

An *object reference* is anything that refers to an object. An object reference stores a *handle* on an object. A handle is a double-indirect pointer an application uses to reference an object on the heap. A handle points to a *master pointer*, which points to the object's block on the heap.

Master pointers are maintained by the storage manager. When the space on the heap is relocated to make room for other objects, the storage manager changes the master pointer. Since the application uses the handle (which points to the master pointer), the application does not need to know about the change in the heap.

To reference a data field in an object, the format is *objectReference.variableName*. Note that no carets (^) are used to resolve the handle -- the double indirection is implicit. In *ClasExample*:

INTERFACE

TYPE

TArc = SUBCLASS OF TShape
startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER;

END;

IMPLEMENTATION

BEGIN

SELF.arcAngle := randa;

assigns the value of randa to SELF.arcAngle. SELF is the object reference to the object which contains the field arcAngle. Note that in *PasExample*, SELF was declared explicitly as a variable. In *ClasExample*, it is predeclared by the compiler, as will be explained later in this document.

To maximize modularity, pure object-oriented programs make the restriction that fields of an object can only be accessed from the bodies of methods of that same object. In other words, all field references are of the form SELF.variableName. Access by other objects is forced to go through the method interface. For performance reasons, Clascal programs often compromise this principle, allowing read and sometimes write access by other objects. The fields that can be accessed from outside should be chosen with care, otherwise, future modifications to the program could have unexpected repercussions. Documentation of each class should indicate which fields, if any, permit external read and/or write access. Our documentation uses the letters *R* and *W* to the left of the field name for this purpose.

Figure 4 shows that object references in ClasExample are handles on objects in the heap. SELF is the object reference, ovalWidth is the field name, and that SELF.ovalWidth is a field designator that refers to the object's ovalWidth field.

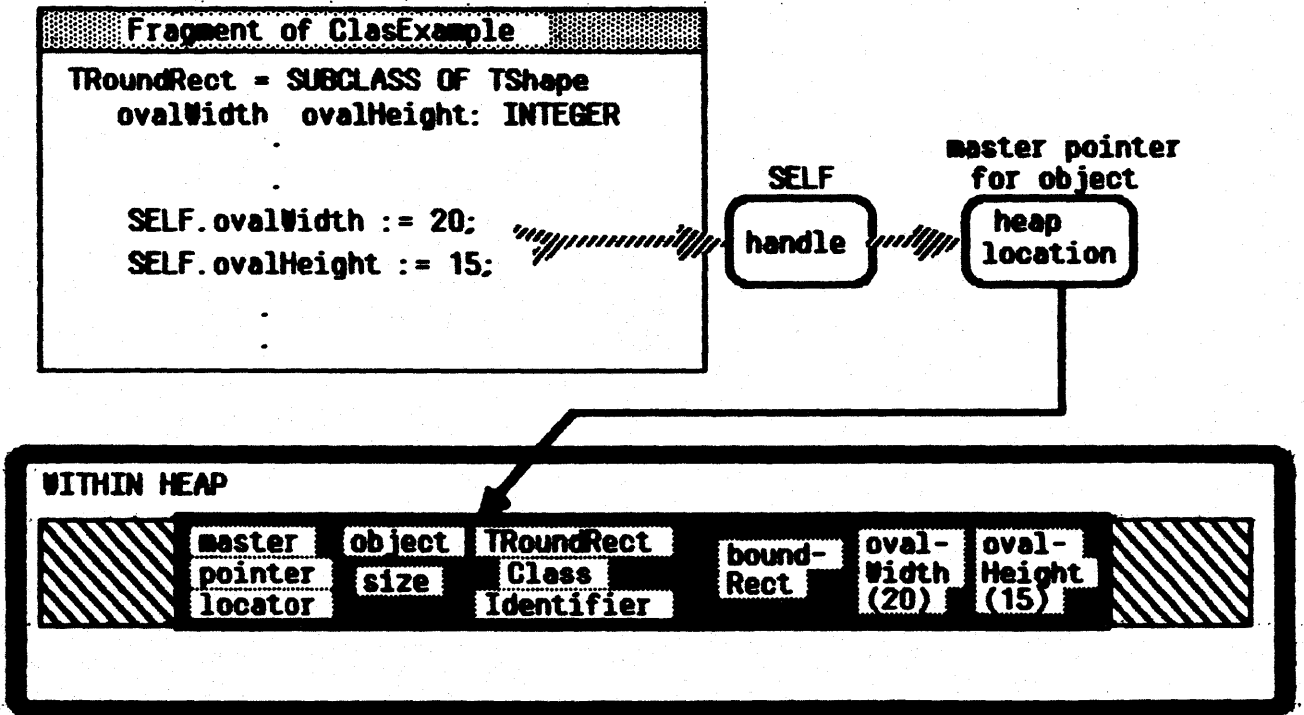


Figure 4. Object References in ClasExample.

An object can have more than one handle, but each object has only one master pointer. The master pointer is the direct link to objects on the heap. More than one object-reference variable can contain equal handles; they would all point to the same master pointer. Assigning the same handle to another object-reference variable creates a new path to the same object. Figure 5 illustrates the assignment of one object-reference variable to another in ClasExample. Note that `thisShape` and `nextShape` are object-reference variables, and so reference an object of class `TShape`, `TArc`, or `TRoundRect`.

Since the value of an object-reference variable is actually a handle on a block on the heap, when the value of one class-type variable is assigned to another, the two variables point to the same block on the heap. Assigning the value of one handle to another parallels assigning the value of one Pascal pointer-type variable to another.

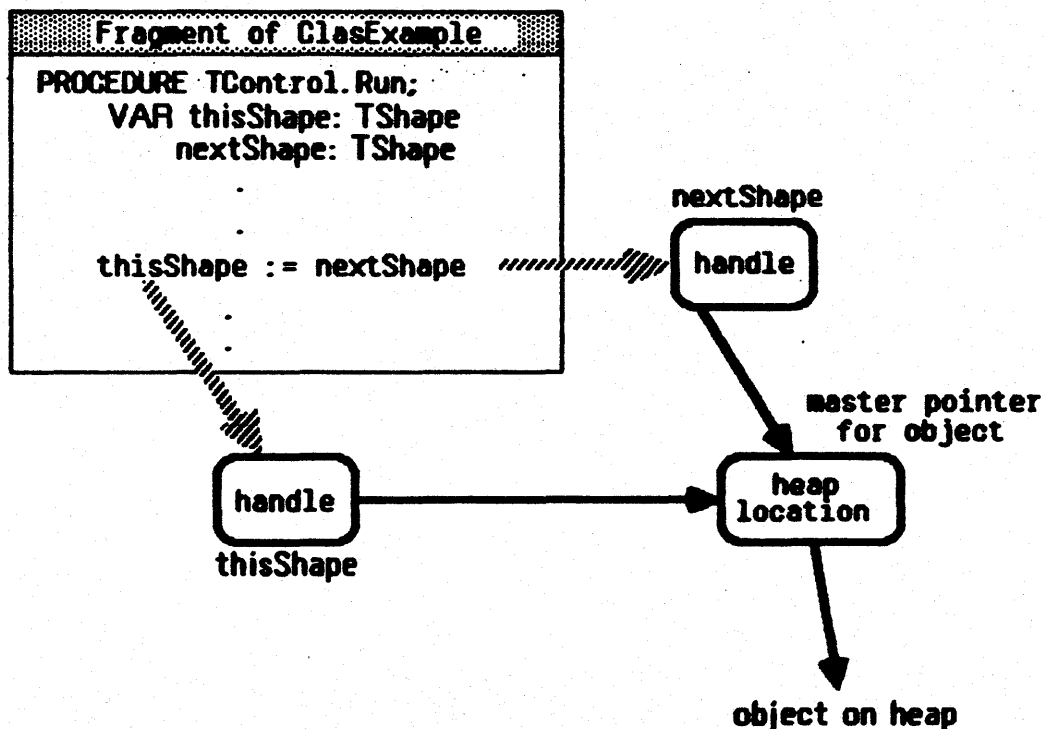


Figure 5. A New Path to the Same Object.

Methods

Methods are functions and procedures associated with a class. Methods define the operations an object can perform. All objects of the same class use the same methods.

A method declaration consists of a heading (name, arguments, and return type, if a function) and a body. The heading is specified in a SUBCLASS declaration in the TYPE section of a UNIT interface. The bodies are specified in a METHODS block in the IMPLEMENTATION section of the same unit. See ClasExample for illustrations.

An object's methods are defined in its class, and are associated with the object, as well as with all other objects of the same class. The data structure and methods together are one entity -- an object.

The association of an object with its methods makes it possible for the object to act on its own data. A *method call* tells an object to execute one of its methods. Whenever an object executes a method, the method acts on the data which that object stores. A method call is similar to a procedure or function call.

All objects of the same class respond to the same method calls. The format of a method call is *objectReference.Method(arguments)*. *Method(arguments)* has the same syntax as a Pascal procedure or a function call and may, optionally, have arguments. From ClasExample

Program MClasExample

VAR

control: TControl

BEGIN

control.Run;

control.Run is a method call with no arguments. control is an object-reference variable of type TControl. control.Run tells the object referenced by control to execute its Run method. Figure 6 illustrates these steps.

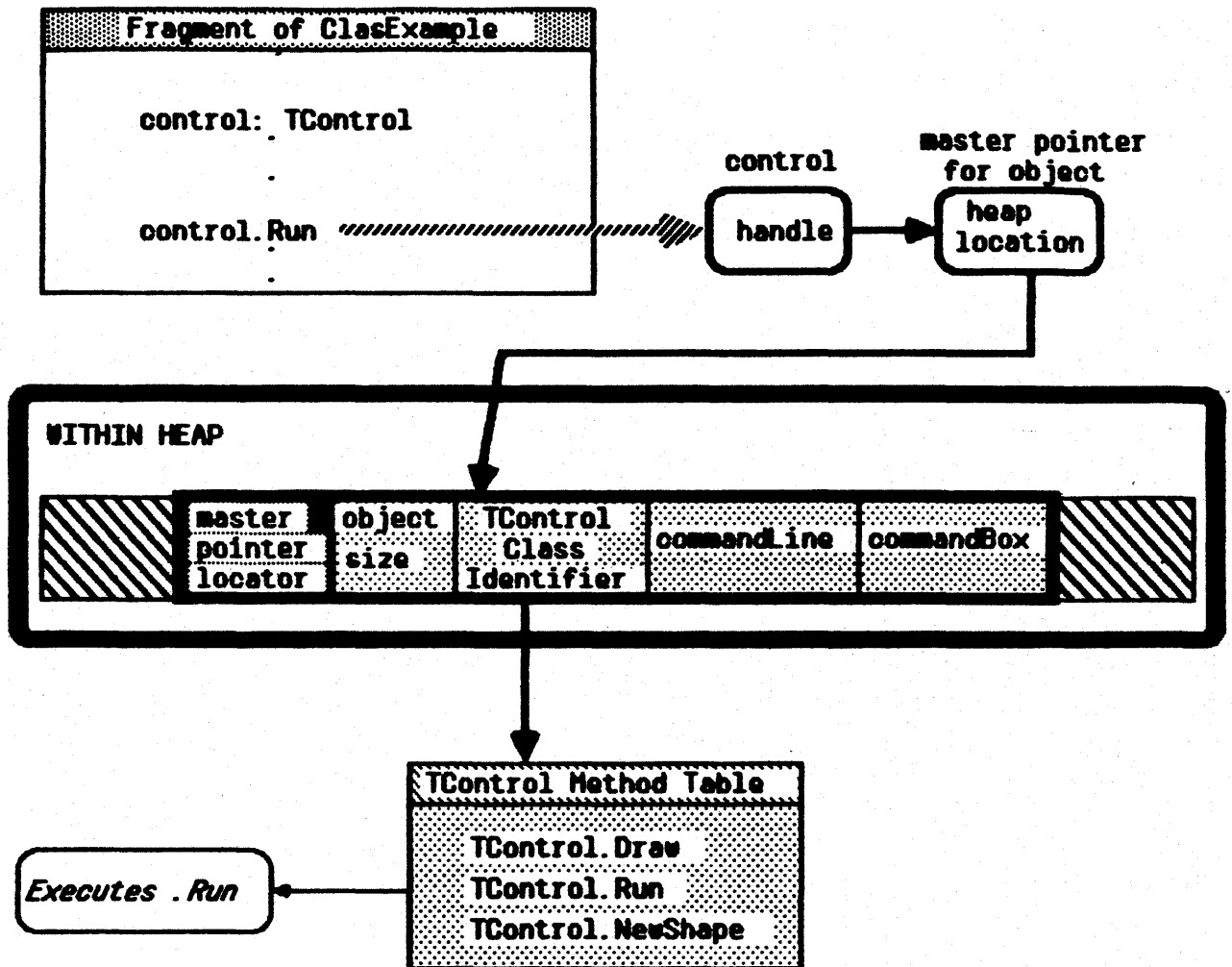


Figure 6. Method Call.

Classes and methods, combined with object references, allow you to write code with method calls upon objects, without knowing what object

will be referenced at run time. This is beneficial because it increases the extensibility of Clascoal code. (Code extensibility is discussed later in this document.) For example, in ClasExample

```
IF (ch = 'a') or (ch = 'A') THEN
  thisShape := TArc.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)
ELSE
  thisShape := TRoundRect.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap);
thisShape.Draw;
```

the value of thisShape is not determined until run time when the user chooses to draw an arc or a rounded rectangle. TArc and TRoundRect each have a Draw method. At run time, the correct Draw is executed.

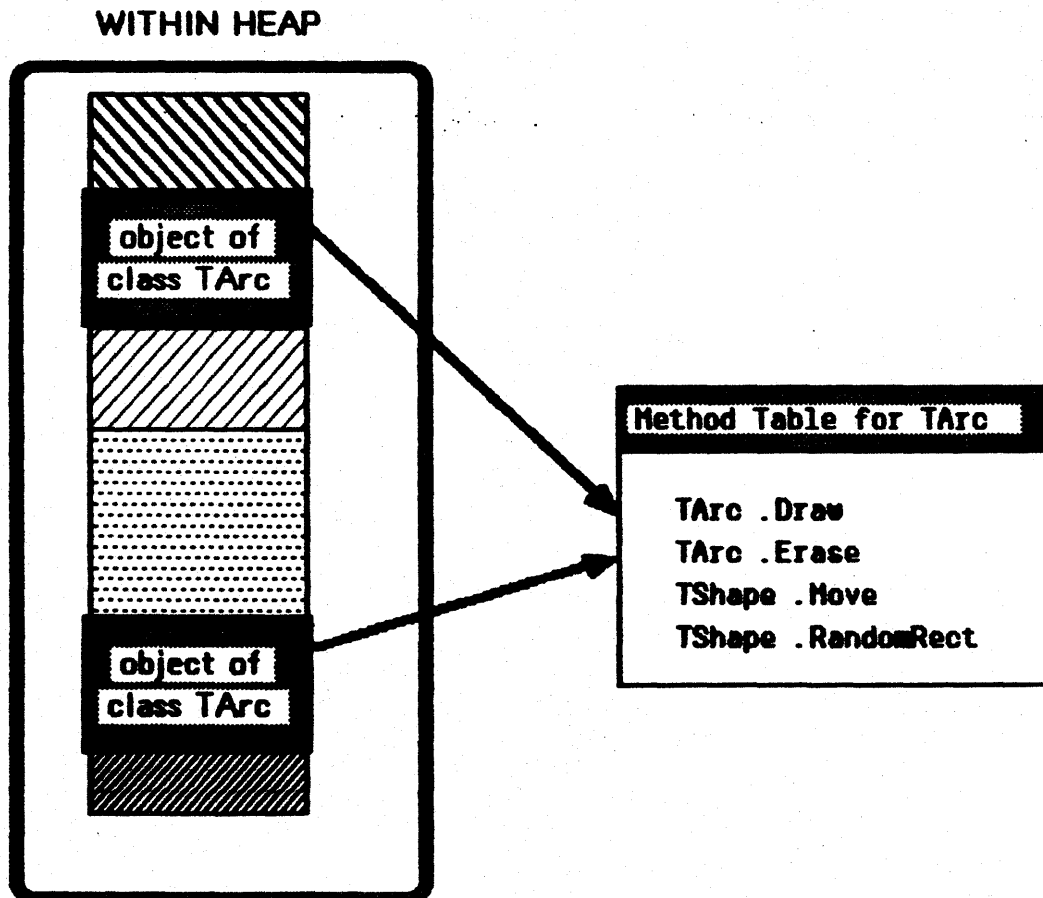


Figure 7. One Method Table per Class.

A run-time *method table* is set up for each class by the Clascal compiler. The method table for a particular class contains pointers to the methods that objects in that class use. All objects of the same class share the same method table. Figure 7 illustrates this. Notice that the method table includes methods defined specifically for the class as well as methods inherited from the superclass.

At compile time, `thisShape.Draw` is ambiguous. The method tables enable the correct implementation of `Draw` to be invoked at run time. Note that the method table does not include the `CREATE` method. The reason is that the call `TArc.CREATE` is unambiguous at compile time (see page 21).

In programming language theory, a procedure with multiple implementations is called generic. `Draw` is generic, with two specific implementations, `TArc.Draw` and `TRoundRect.Draw`. In languages like Ada, it is possible to determine at compile time which of several implementations a given generic procedure call will invoke. In languages like Clascal and Smalltalk, it is not possible to choose among implementations until run time. A generic procedure which can not be resolved until run time is sometimes called polymorphic.

You may have noticed that the syntax for a reference to a data field within an object and the syntax for a method call with no arguments are identical. Their syntax is:

- *objectReference.variableName* for a reference to a data field
- *objectReference.Method* for a method call

To help readers tell them apart, Toolkit typographical conventions begin variable names with a lowercase letter, whereas method names begin with an uppercase letter. Thus, `control.Run` is a method call, and `SELF.arcAngle` is a reference to a data field within an object.

SELF

SELF is an object reference. Any method can refer to SELF, and it always means *the object that is executing the method*. Every method has a SELF the compiler declares automatically. Its type is the class that contains the method. For example, in `ClasExample`

```
    thisShape.Draw(gray);
```

calls the `Draw` method for the object. Within this method, SELF refers to the same object `thisShape` did. In other words, assuming that `thisShape` stores a handle on an object of class `TArc`, `thisShape.Draw(gray)` calls

```
    PROCEDURE TArc.Draw(pat: pattern)
```

which behaves as if it were declared

```
    PROCEDURE TArc.Draw(pat: pattern; SELF: TArc)
```

in which

```
    pat := gray
```

```
    SELF := thisShape
```

Note that it is illegal to declare SELF as a parameter for a method. It is automatically declared as a parameter by the compiler.

Like any other object-reference variable, SELF can be used to call a method, or to reference a data field, of an object that will be determined at run time. For example, in `ClasExample`, `RandomRect` is used to assign a value to the `boundRect` field of an object that is determined at run time.

An important fact to understand is that at run time, the object referenced by SELF in the method `TShape.RoundRect` is necessarily a member, but not necessarily an instance, of class `TShape`. SELF could reference an object of class `TArc`, `TRoundRect`, or any other descendent of `TShape`. On different calls to the method during a single program execution, the referents of SELF could be objects of different classes.

If you find SELF confusing, you can compare the RandomRect method in ClasExample with the corresponding procedure in PasExample, which does the same thing:

In PasExample:

```
PROCEDURE RandomRect(SELF: TShape);
  VAR rand1, rand2: INTEGER;
BEGIN
  rand1 := Abs(Random) MOD 600;
  SELF^.boundRect.left := rand1;
  rand2 := Abs(Random) MOD 150;
  SELF^.boundRect.top := rand2 + 75;
  SELF^.boundRect.right := SELF^.boundRect.left + 40;
  SELF^.boundRect.bottom := SELF^.boundRect.top + 40;
END;
```

In ClasExample, we include the class name in the heading, we omit the SELF parameter because it is implicitly declared as a TShape, and we write SELF.boundRect instead of SELF^.boundRect:

```
PROCEDURE TShape.RandomRect;
  VAR rand1, rand2: INTEGER;
BEGIN
  rand1 := Abs(Random) MOD 600;
  SELF.boundRect.left := rand1;
  rand2 := Abs(Random) MOD 150;
  SELF.boundRect.top := rand2 + 75;
  SELF.boundRect.right := SELF.boundRect.left + 40;
  SELF.boundRect.bottom := SELF.boundRect.top + 40;
END;
```

Class Hierarchy and Inheritance

A method can be declared a default method in the interface by using the DEFAULT qualifier. The DEFAULT qualifier indicates to the compiler that it is likely that this method will be overridden in the subclasses. A DEFAULT method does not have to be reimplemented in a subclass, and a non-DEFAULT method can still be overridden. Using the DEFAULT qualifier on methods that are usually overridden saves space at run time.

The **OVERRIDE** qualifier must be used in the interface whenever an inherited method is reimplemented. Note that you must use **OVERRIDE** regardless of whether the **DEFAULT** qualifier was used.

Every class must declare a **CREATE** method. A **CREATE** method may never be declared either **DEFAULT** or **OVERRIDE**.

The type definitions for **TShape**, **TArc**, and **TRoundRect** are listed below; note the use of **DEFAULT** and **OVERRIDE** :

```
TShape = SUBCLASS OF Tobject
  boundRect: Rect;
  FUNCTION TShape.CREATE(object: Tobject;
                        itsHeap: THeap): TShape;
  PROCEDURE TShape.Move;
  PROCEDURE TShape.RandomRect;
  PROCEDURE TShape.Draw(pat: pattern); DEFAULT;
  PROCEDURE TShape.Erase; DEFAULT;
TArc = SUBCLASS OF TShape
  startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER;
  FUNCTION TArc.CREATE(object: Tobject;
                     itsHeap: THeap): TArc;
  PROCEDURE TArc.Draw(pat: pattern); OVERRIDE;
  PROCEDURE TArc.Erase; OVERRIDE;
TRoundRect = SUBCLASS OF TShape
  ovalWidth, ovalHeight: INTEGER;
  FUNCTION TRoundRect.CREATE(object: Tobject;
                           itsHeap: THeap): TRoundRect;
  PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Draw(pat: pattern); OVERRIDE;
  PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Erase; OVERRIDE;
```

According to the syntax of Clascal, the next-to-last line above could be abbreviated:

```
PROCEDURE Draw; OVERRIDE;
```

i.e., the class name and dot are optional, and the argument list is also optional. When they are included, the compiler checks them for type agreement with the inherited method. Furthermore, including them improves readability and makes searches in the text editor far easier.

Figure 3 illustrates inheritance in ClasExample. TArc and TRoundRect inherit boundRect and add additional fields, startAngle and arcAngle for TArc and ovalWidth and ovalHeight for TRoundRect. TArc and TRoundRect reimplement the CREATE, Draw, and Erase methods, but the Move and RandomRect methods are inherited from TShape.

From ClasExample,

`thisShape.Draw(gray)`

is a method call. `thisShape` is declared as a variable of type TShape. This means that references to objects of classes TShape, TArc and TRoundRect can be assigned to it. In the example program, an object of type TShape is never created because TShape describes shapes in general, not particular shapes. Therefore, `thisShape` is a reference to an object of some subclass of TShape. As discussed above, the Draw method is implemented differently in each subclass. When the object is told to execute the Draw method, it uses the method defined for its particular subclass. Thus, if `thisShape` is an object of class TArc, it will execute PROCEDURE TArc.Draw. Likewise, if `thisShape` is an object of class TRoundRect, it will execute PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Draw.

When you create a new class, the Clascal compiler creates, in effect, a method table for that class that combines pointers to the methods from the superclass with pointers to the methods for the new class. The compiler reimplements superclass methods with the subclass' methods where applicable. Figure 8 lists the methods pointed to in the method tables for TArc and TRoundRect.

Method Table for TArc	Method Table for TRoundRect
TArc .Draw	TRoundRect .Draw
TArc .Erase	TRoundRect .Erase
TShape .Move	TShape .Move
TShape .RandomRect	TShape .RandomRect

Figure 8. Method Tables.

Assignment Checking and Typecasting

If a program declared variables `arc1, arc2: TArc` and variables `shape1, shape2: TShape`, then the following assignments would be legal and are always safe:

```
shape1 := shape2;
arc1 := arc2;
shape1 := arc1;
```

But the following assignment would be illegal, because the run-time value of `shape1` could be a `TRoundRect`:

```
arc1 := shape1;
```

If, in the context of the assignment, you know that `shape1` must be a member of class `TArc`, then write the following legal statement instead:

```
arc1 := TArc(shape1);
```

The construct `TArc(...)` is called a typecasting construct; it tells the compiler to treat the argument as if its type were `TArc`. When range-checking is on (`{SR+}`), this causes a run-time check that `shape1` is indeed a member of class `TArc`. When range-checking is off (`{SR-}`), no code is generated, no checking is done, and a mismatch will cause anomalous behavior.

The following construct is legal. Constructs like it are often useful.

```
shape1 := TControl(object).NewShape(ch);
```

It is equivalent to the following three lines of code:

```
VAR control1: TControl;
...
control1 := TControl(object);
shape1 := control1.NewShape(ch);
```

Note that `NIL` is a legal value of any object reference. However, an attempt to dereference `NIL` will cause a crash.

Creating and Freeing Objects

A new object, or instance of a class, is created by a special method, the CREATE function. A CREATE function *must* be declared in the class definition of every class. A CREATE function allocates space for an object on the heap, assigns the handle of this space to SELF, and should initialize all object fields. In ClasExample the CREATE function for TArc is:

```
FUNCTION TArc.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TArc;
  VAR rands, randa: INTEGER;
BEGIN
  IF object = NIL THEN
    object := NEWObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS);
  SELF := TArc(TShape.CREATE(Object, itsHeap));
  rands := Abs (Random) MOD 270;
  SELF.startAngle := rands;
  randa := Abs (Random) MOD 270;
  SELF.arcAngle := randa;
END;
```

This CREATE function creates an object of class TArc.

Every class must have a CREATE method written specifically for it. Its parameters can be different from the parameters in the CREATE method of the superclass. Whenever you write a CREATE function, debugging is easier if you initialize all data fields.

Except for immediate subclasses of TObject, a CREATE function usually must initialize both the fields declared in its own class and fields inherited from ancestors. To do the latter, it can simply invoke the CREATE of the superclass. However, it would be wrong to allocate the object more or less than once. The first CREATE called must do the allocation, and the ancestors must not. By convention, the first argument of CREATE is object: TObject, and the second is itsHeap: THeap. A caller normally passes NIL as the value of object, but the CREATE of a subclass passes an already-created object to its superclass CREATE instead. In the NIL case only, CREATE is expected to allocate space for the object on itsHeap. In either case, CREATE is then supposed to initialize the fields declared by ancestors (by calling the CREATE of the next superclass up) and then to initialize the fields of its own class. See TArc.CREATE (above or in U1ClasExample) and TShape.CREATE (in U1ClasExample) for illustrations.

When an application no longer needs an object, you should remove that object from the heap, using the Free method, so the space it occupied can be reallocated. The Free method removes objects from the heap and reallocates the space on the heap. Free is a method of TObject. From ClasExample,

`thisShape.Free`

frees the object referenced by the handle contained in thisShape. Generally, each new subclass does not have to provide its own Free method; typically, it can just inherit it from TObject. However, if the subclass' CREATE function causes additional objects to be created, it is usually necessary for the Free method to free them, and to do so, the Free method must be overridden. The last statement of a Free method is generally SUPERSELF.Free, explained below.

SUPERSELF and Extensibility

Applications written in Clascal can be functionally extended with a minimum of difficulty because of Clascal's class structure. In Clascal, you can create a software library that does not account for an entire set of objects, just the most general. A program can then add new objects to the set in the library, without affecting the basic structure of the system, as long as the new objects have parallel methods. For example, to add a new object to ClasExample, so that it can draw and move ovals, as well as arcs and rounded rectangles, you would add a unit. The new unit would contain an additional subclass of TShape, called TOval, and a subclass of TControl, called TMyControl. This new hierarchy is shown in Figure 9.

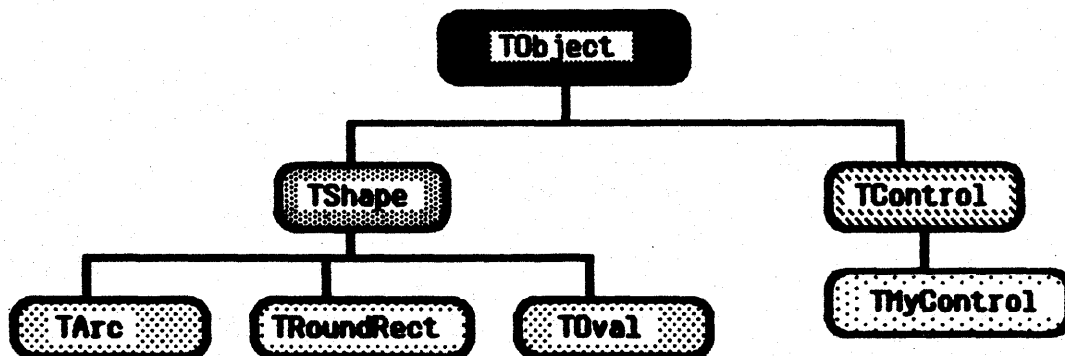


Figure 9. New Class Hierarchy in ClasExample.

In the main program, M2ClasExample, you would add the new shape to the command line. Salient parts of the new unit are listed below. The entire unit, U2ClasExample, is listed at the back of this document.

TYPE

T Oval = SUBCLASS OF TShape

FUNCTION T Oval.CREATE(object: T Object; itsHeap: T Heap):
T Oval;

PROCEDURE T Oval.Draw(pat: pattern); OVERRIDE;

PROCEDURE T Oval.Erase; OVERRIDE;

END;

T MyControl = SUBCLASS of TControl

FUNCTION T MyControl.CREATE(object: T Object;
itsHeap: T Heap; itsLine: S255; itsBox: Rect): T MyControl;

FUNCTION T MyControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape; OVERRIDE;

END;

IMPLEMENTATION

METHODS OF T Oval:

FUNCTION T Oval.CREATE(object: T Object; itsHeap: T Heap):
T Oval;

BEGIN

IF object = NIL THEN

object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS);

SELF := T Oval(TShape.CREATE(object, itsHeap));

END;

PROCEDURE T Oval.Draw(pat: pattern);

BEGIN

FillOval(SELF.boundRect, pat);

END;

PROCEDURE T Oval.Erase;

BEGIN

EraseOval(SELF.boundRect);

END;

END;

METHODS OF TMyControl;

```
FUNCTION TMyControl.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap;  
    itsLine: S255; itsBox: Rect): TMyControl;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
IF object = NIL THEN
```

```
    object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS);
```

```
    SELF := TMyControl(TControl.CREATE(object, itsHeap,  
        itsLine, itsBox));
```

```
END;
```

```
FUNCTION TMyControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
IF (ch = 'o') OR (ch = 'O') THEN
```

```
    NewShape := TOval.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)
```

```
ELSE
```

```
    NewShape := SUPERSELF.NewShape(ch);
```

```
END;
```

```
END;
```

Note that **FUNCTION TMyControl.NewShape** adds functionality and then calls the method from the superclass, **TControl**. **FUNCTION TMyControl.NewShape** extends the functionality of the function by adding an 'o' command which creates an oval.

```
IF (ch = 'o') OR (ch = 'O') THEN
```

```
    NewShape := TOval.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)
```

If the command the user enters is not an 'o', it must be one of the original commands that **TControl.NewShape** recognizes. The following method call is used to deal with that situation.

```
    NewShape := SUPERSELF.NewShape(ch);
```

This calls **TControl.NewShape**. **SUPERSELF** is usually used in an **OVERRIDE** method to allow an inherited method to be not completely overridden, but rather extended. At the point (or points) in the **OVERRIDE** method where you want the inherited method to be invoked, call it using **SUPERSELF**.

Rule

When SUPERSELF.Meth appears in the body of a method of class C, subclass of S, it tells SELF to invoke the implementation of Meth that was declared in METHODS OF S or that was inherited by S from its ancestors.

Note that a SUPERSELF call is unambiguous at compile time. The method called need not have the same name as the caller, but it usually does. The method name may not be CREATE.

The change required in MClasExample is

```
control := TControl.CREATE(NIL, mainHeap, 'Round Rectangle,
                          A)rc, M)ove, Q)uit', tempRect);
```

to

```
control := TMyControl.CREATE(NIL, mainHeap, 'Round Rectangle,
                             A)rc, O)val, M)ove, Q)uit', tempRect);
```

so that the user can choose to draw and move ovals. Note that by calling TMyControl.CREATE instead of TControl.CREATE, the control object is of class TMyControl, and adds the additional functionality to the program.

Clascal vs. Pascal -- What Does Clascal Really Do for You

Subclasses are the Clascal alternative to variant records. A subclass is a more specific definition of its superclass. In other words, the superclass defines general characteristics of a class, the subclass inherits these characteristics and adds additional data fields or methods, or reimplements inherited methods. In ClasExample, TShape contains boundRect: Rect as its only field. TArc, a subclass of TShape, contains the following fields:

```
boundRect: Rect
startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER
```

Thus, TArc inherits boundRect from TShape and adds startAngle and arcAngle.

In Clascal, subclasses are used instead of variant record parts to handle special cases. In PasExample

```
AShape = RECORD
  boundRect: Rect;
  CASE kind: EShape of
    kArc: (startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER);
    kRoundRect: (ovalWidth, ovalHeight: INTEGER);
  END;
```

is the record definition of AShape. Note that a variant record part is used to add the kArc variant to type AShape. Unlike the situation with variant records, in Clascal you can add a subclass like TArc and not affect the rest of your application. You can even add the subclass in a unit separate from the one in which the superclass is declared.

Clascal and the Lisa Applications ToolKit

Clascal was developed for use with the Lisa Applications ToolKit. The ToolKit is comprised of libraries of Clascal code with predefined classes that provide certain standard functions for an applications writer. The ToolKit defines the *Generic Application*. The Generic Application provides standard Lisa Application behavior. When you write a ToolKit program you add extensions to the Generic Application, by creating subclasses and methods to perform the work of your application. For more information, see *The Lisa Applications ToolKit Reference Manual* and the *ToolKit Segments*.

One of the most important features of Clascal is that method calls are used to tell an object to perform a method on itself. This means that a ToolKit library can tell one of your application's objects to invoke a method. For example, if a user pulls down a menu and selects Cut, the ToolKit will tell a selection object in your application to run a method of a certain name. You may have different selection classes for different kinds of selections (text, graphic, table row, etc.) and the appropriate cutting method will be invoked in every case.

When to Use the Clascal Extensions

As a general rule, you would use Clascal when you want to define abstract or standard behavior in one place, and concrete or special behavior in other places. The more complex a Pascal program is, the more Clascal typically saves you. You can do equivalent things with Pascal programs, but Clascal makes it much easier.

Whenever you write a program using the Lisa Applications Toolkit you must use Clascal to define the user interface portion of the program. In the rest of your program, you may use straight Pascal, if you wish, or you may define your own classes.

Advanced Topics

Squishing Production Code.

When a program has been completely debugged, you can reduce object code size by using the compiler switches `{SR-}` and `{SD-}`. The former turns off range checking for array subscripts and turns off run-time compatibility checking for class-typecasting expressions. The latter turns off emission of procedure, function, and method names into the object code and thus precludes symbolic debugging.

Abstract methods and classes.

An *abstract* method is one that is declared in a class C, but that can be implemented only in descendents of class C, not in C itself. An example is `Draw` in `ClasExample`. Note that `TShape.Draw` is declared `DEFAULT` in the interface of `TShape` and that it emits an error message in the implementation. After the program has been debugged and is ready to ship, one might want to reduce code size by deleting the implementation of `TShape.Draw`. The compiler would complain that the method is declared in the interface but not in the implementation. To suppress the error message, declare `TShape.Draw` to be `ABSTRACT` in the interface instead of `DEFAULT`. An abstract method may not be implemented in its own class, but only in descendent classes.

A `CREATE` method may be declared `ABSTRACT`. It has no implementation, and should not be invoked from anywhere in the program, even from a descendent's `CREATE` method. (Reminder: a `CREATE` method can not be declared `DEFAULT` or `OVERRIDE`.)

If an `ABSTRACT` method is invoked accidentally, it will cause a crash.

Classes like `TShape` that are not meant to be instantiated are called *abstract classes*. Usually--but not always--an abstract class has many abstract methods, often including `CREATE`. An abstract class defines an interface that is shared by all its descendent classes.

Conditional compilation is recommended for all of the above techniques, for example:

INTERFACE

...

PROCEDURE TShape.Draw(pat: Pattern); {\$IFC myDebugFlag} DEFAULT
{\$ELSE} ABSTRACT {\$ENDC};

...

IMPLEMENTATION

...

{\$IFC myDebugFlag}

PROCEDURE TShape.Draw(pat: Pattern);

BEGIN

 WriteLn('You can only draw in subclasses of TShape, not TShape');

END;

{\$ENDC}

SuperduperSELF.

As explained earlier, SUPERSELF.Meth appearing in a method of class C will cause the Meth of the superclass of C to be invoked regardless of the run-time class of SELF. In the same spirit, Cls.Meth, where Cls is either C or any ancestor of C, will cause SELF to execute the Meth of Cls regardless of the run-time class of SELF. This construct is called the superduperSELF construct, because it is generally used to skip over the ancestor's implementation to the one at the next level. Be sure to use the actual class name, not "SuperduperSELF."

Suppose TShape had declared a Free method, and that TArc had overridden it, but for some reason TArc.Free wanted to invoke TObject.Free instead of TShape.Free. Instead of writing SUPERSELF.Free;--which would be equivalent to TShape.Free--one would write TObject.Free;.

The superduperself construct is rarely necessary, and is somewhat confusing, so most people avoid it whenever possible, and try to make SUPERSELF suffice.

Yanking the chair out from under you.

In TArO.CREATE, the following two lines appear:

```
rands := Abs(Random) MOD 270;  
SELF.startAngle := rands;
```

One might expect to be able to write simply:

```
SELF.startAngle := Abs(Random) MOD 270;
```

However, this would generate a syntax error from the compiler alluding to "unsafe use of handle." The reason is that the code generated by the Pascal compiler leaves a pointer (not a handle) to SELF.startAngle on the stack before calling the function Random. If the function happened to cause a heap compaction, the pointer would become invalid. The compiler does not know which procedures and functions (including methods) can cause compaction. Therefore, to be safe, it assumes that all of them compact, and it always gives you an error message.

If you are sure and absolutely certain and fully convinced that the call will never allocate and never cause the heap to compact, you can tell the compiler and avoid breaking the statement into two. The way you tell it is to bracket the code section with {\$H-} and {\$H+}. All calls within that section will be assumed to be benign, and the error messages will be suppressed:

```
{$H-} SELF.startAngle := Abs(Random) MOD 270; {$H+}
```

The following constructs generate error messages for similar reasons: passing an object field as a VAR parameter to a procedure or function, and calling a procedure or function within a WITH object.field block. There are also constructs that are dangerous for the same reasons but that do not generate error messages, e.g., passing @object.field as an argument to a procedure or function, calling a procedure or function in the subscript of an array-type field of an object, and doing anything mentioned in these paragraphs with a doubly-dereferenced handle instead of an object reference, e.g.:

```
h^^.fld := Random;
```


The Example Programs

A Clascal program and a Pascoal program are listed in this section. These programs are referred to throughout this document. The two programs are parallel, except that the Clascal program has been extended, and the Pascoal program has not.

The two programs use the ToolKit typographic and structural conventions. The recommended ToolKit structure contains a main program and units. Thus, the examples contain a main program and unit(s).

The Clascal example is comprised of

- **M1ClasExample** (The main program for the Clascal example -- before extensions)
- **M2ClasExample** (The main program for the Clascal example -- after extensions)
- **U1ClasExample** (A unit program for the Clascal example)
- **U2ClasExample** (A unit program for the Clascal example)

The Pascoal example is comprised of

- **MPasExample** (The main program for the Pascoal example)
- **UPasExample** (A unit program for the Pascoal example)

Some other important ToolKit typographic conventions are that method names begin with a capital letter, whereas variable names begin with a lowercase letter. Thus, `boundRect` is a variable name, and `Erase` is a method name. Type names, including class names, also begin with an uppercase letter.

Within this document, `ClasExample` refers to `M1ClasExample`, `M2ClasExample`, `U1ClasExample`, and `U2ClasExample`. `PasExample` refers to `MPasExample`, `UPasExample`. Thus, an example from `ClasExample` could come from `M1ClasExample`, `M2ClasExample`, `U1ClasExample`, or `U2ClasExample`.

`ClasExample` and `PasExample` use `QuickDraw` procedures to draw shapes. These examples use `QuickDraw` to draw and erase shapes. It helps to have read *Appendix E, QuickDraw* in the *Pascal Reference Manual* before reading this document.

PROGRAM MPasExample;

USES

 {\$U UObject} UObject,
 {\$U QuickDraw} QuickDraw,
 {\$U UPasExample} UPasExample;

VAR

 error: INTEGER; {output parameter of FMOpen: positive if an
 error}
 myPort: GrafPort; {for use by QuickDraw}
 ctrlRect: Rect; {The area of the screen to be used for the
 command line}

PROCEDURE FMOpen(VAR error: INTEGER); EXTERNAL;

 {EXTERNAL because not defined in any INTERFACE we can USE}

BEGIN

 {In a Toolkit/32 program, UABC (the generic application) would have called
 FMOpen & OpenPort automatically}

 FMOpen(error); {Gain access to the Lisa Font Manager; ignore errors for
 this example}

 OpenPort (@myPort); {Provide QuickDraw with a GrafPort}

 SetRect(ctrlRect, 20, 20, 500, 40);

 Run('R)Round Rectangle, A)rc, M)ove, Q)uit', ctrlRect, mainHeap);

END.

UNIT UPasExample;

INTERFACE

USES

 {\$U UObject} UObject.
 {\$U QuickDraw} QuickDraw;

TYPE

 EShape = (kArc, kRoundRect);

 TCmdLine = string[80];

 TShape = ^PShape;

 PShape = ^AShape;

 AShape = RECORD

 boundRect: Rect;

 CASE kind: EShape of

 kArc: (startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER);

 kRoundRect: (ovalWidth, ovalHeight: INTEGER);

 END;

PROCEDURE Run(commandLine: TCmdLine; commandBox: Rect; itsHeap: THeap);

IMPLEMENTATION

{EXTERNAL routines called by HFree; do not call these directly, instead
 use HFree}

FUNCTION HzFromH(h: Handle): THeap; EXTERNAL;

PROCEDURE FreeH(heap: THeap; h: Handle); EXTERNAL;

{Allocate a handle of a certain size; EXTERNAL because not defined in any
INTERFACE we can USE}

FUNCTION HAllocate(heap: THeap; size: INTEGER): Handle; EXTERNAL;

{Free a handle that was allocated by HAllocate}

PROCEDURE HFree(h: Handle);

BEGIN

FreeH(HzFromH(h), h);

END;

PROCEDURE DrawShape(pat: Pattern; SELF: TShape);

BEGIN

CASE SELF^.kind of

kArc:

FillArc(SELF^.boundRect, SELF^.startAngle, SELF^.arcAngle, pat);

kRoundRect:

FillRoundRect(SELF^.boundRect, SELF^.ovalWidth, SELF^.ovalHeight,
pat);

END;

END;

PROCEDURE EraseShape(SELF: TShape);

BEGIN

CASE SELF^.kind of

kArc: EraseArc(SELF^.boundRect, SELF^.startAngle,
SELF^.arcAngle);

kRoundRect: EraseRoundRect(SELF^.boundRect, SELF^.ovalWidth,
SELF^.ovalHeight);

END;

END;

```
PROCEDURE RandomRect(SELF: TShape);
  VAR rand1, rand2: INTEGER;
BEGIN
  rand1 := Abs(Random) MOD 600;
  SELF^.boundRect.left := rand1;
  rand2 := Abs(Random) MOD 150;
  SELF^.boundRect.top := rand2 + 75;
  SELF^.boundRect.right := SELF^.boundRect.left + 40;
  SELF^.boundRect.bottom := SELF^.boundRect.top + 40;
END;

FUNCTION NewArc(itsheap: THeap): TShape;
  VAR SELF: TShape;
      rands, randa: INTEGER;
BEGIN
  SELF := POINTER(ORD(HAllocate(itsHeap, SIZEOF(AShape))));
  RandomRect(SELF);
  rands := Abs(Random) MOD 270;
  SELF^.startAngle := rands;
  randa := Abs(Random) MOD 270;
  SELF^.arcAngle := randa;
  SELF^.kind := kArc;
  NewArc := SELF;
END;
```

```
FUNCTION NewRoundRect(itsheap: THeap): TShape;
```

```
  VAR SELF: TShape;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
  SELF := POINTER(ORD(HAllocate(itsHeap, SIZEOF(AShape))));
```

```
  RandomRect(SELF);
```

```
  SELF^.ovalWidth := 20;
```

```
  SELF^.ovalHeight := 15;
```

```
  SELF^.kind := kRoundRect;
```

```
  NewRoundRect := SELF;
```

```
END;
```

```
PROCEDURE Run {commandLine: TCadLine; commandBox: Rect; itsHeap: THeap};
```

```
  VAR ch: char;
```

```
  shape: TShape;
```

```
  consoleFile: TEXT; {used to allow Read(Ln) or Write(Ln) with the  
  main console}
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
  shape := NIL;
```

```
  Reset(consoleFile, '-mainconsole-dummyFileName');
```

```
  EraseRect(commandBox);
```

```
  MoveTo(commandBox.left, commandBox.bottom);
```

```
  DrawString(commandLine);
```

```
  REPEAT
```

```
    Read(consoleFile, ch);
```

```
    CASE ch OF
```

```
      'r', 'R', 'a', 'A':
```

```
        BEGIN
```

```
          IF shape <> NIL THEN
```

```
            BEGIN
```

```
              EraseShape(shape);
```

```
              HFree(Pointer(ORD(shape)));
```

```
            END;
```

```
      IF (ch = 'r') or (ch = 'R') THEN
        shape := NewRoundRect(itsHeap)
      ELSE
        shape := NewArc(itsHeap);
        DrawShape(gray, shape);
      END;
    'm', 'M':
      IF shape <> NIL THEN
        BEGIN
          EraseShape(shape);
          RandomRect(shape);
          DrawShape(gray, shape);
        END;
      END;
    UNTIL (ch = 'q') or (ch = 'Q');
  END;
END.
```

PROGRAM M1ClasExample; {Main Program}

USES

{SU UObject} UObject, {Needed to compile the U1ClasExample INTERFACE}
{SU QuickDraw} QuickDraw, {Needed to compile U1ClasExample INTERFACE}
{SU U1ClasExample} U1ClasExample; {Declares classes TShape, TArc,
TRoundRect, TControl}

VAR

error: INTEGER; {output parameter of FMOpen: positive if an error}
myPort: GrafPort; {for use by QuickDraw}
control: TControl; {a reference (handle) to an instance of TControl}
ctrlRect: Rect; {The area of the screen used for the command line}

PROCEDURE FMOpen(VAR error: INTEGER); EXTERNAL;

{EXTERNAL because not defined in any INTERFACE we can USE}

BEGIN {Main Program Statements}

{In a ToolKit/32 program, UABC (the generic application) would have called
FMOpen & OpenPort automatically}

FMOpen(error); {Gain access to the Lisa Font Manager; ignore errors for
this example}

OpenPort (@myPort); {Provide QuickDraw with a GrafPort}

{Create an instance of TControl to interact with the user}

SetRect(ctrlRect, 5, 20, 500, 60);

control := TControl.CREATE(NIL, mainHeap,

'Round Rectangle, A)rc, M)ove, Q)uit', ctrlRect);

{Run the command loop until the user types "Q" for Quit}

control.Run;

END. {Main Program Statements}

UNIT U1ClasExample;

{Declares classes TShape, TArc, TRoundRect, TControl}

INTERFACE

USES

{\$U UObject} UObject, {Declares TYPE TObject and procedures such as
NewObject}

{\$U QuickDraw} QuickDraw; {Declares TYPE Pattern and procedures such as
FillArc}

TYPE

TShape = SUBCLASS OF TObject

boundRect: Rect; {Bounding box}

FUNCTION TShape.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TShape;

PROCEDURE TShape.RandomRect; {Assign random rectangle to boundRect}

PROCEDURE TShape.Move; {Assign new coordinates to boundRect}

PROCEDURE TShape.Draw(pat: Pattern); DEFAULT; {The default is an
error message}

PROCEDURE TShape.Erase; DEFAULT; {The default is an error message}

END;

TArc = SUBCLASS OF TShape

startAngle, arcAngle: INTEGER; {Clockwise degrees from vertical to
first radius & between radii}

FUNCTION TArc.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TArc;

PROCEDURE TArc.Draw(pat: Pattern); OVERRIDE;

PROCEDURE TArc.Erase; OVERRIDE;

END;

```
TRoundRect = SUBCLASS OF TShape  
  ovalWidth, ovalHeight: INTEGER; {Curvature of rounded corners}
```

```
FUNCTION TRoundRect.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap):  
  TRoundRect;
```

```
PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Draw(pat: Pattern); OVERRIDE;
```

```
PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Erase; OVERRIDE;
```

```
END;
```

```
TControl = SUBCLASS OF TOBJECT
```

```
  commandLine: Str255; {Text displayed in the command line}
```

```
  commandBox: Rect; {Screen area where command line is displayed}
```

```
FUNCTION TControl.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap;  
  itsLine: Str255; itsBox: Rect):  
  TControl;
```

```
PROCEDURE TControl.Draw; {Draw the menu}
```

```
PROCEDURE TControl.Run; {Run the command loop}
```

```
FUNCTION TControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape; {Create the TShape  
  specified by user input}
```

```
END;
```

IMPLEMENTATION

METHODS OF TShape;

```
FUNCTION TShape.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TShape;  
BEGIN  
  IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}  
    object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}  
  SELF := TShape(object); {Typecast from TObject to TShape}  
  SELF.RandomRect; {Assign a random rectangle to boundRect}  
END;
```

```
PROCEDURE TShape.Draw(pat: Pattern);  
BEGIN  
  WriteLn('You can only draw in subclasses of TShape, not TShape');  
END;
```

```
PROCEDURE TShape.Erase;  
BEGIN  
  WriteLn('You can only erase in subclasses of TShape, not TShape');  
END;
```

```
PROCEDURE TShape.Move;  
BEGIN  
  SELF.RandomRect;  
END;
```

```
PROCEDURE TShape.RandomRect;  
  VAR rand1, rand2: INTEGER;  
BEGIN  
  rand1 := Abs(Random) MOD 600;  
  SELF.boundRect.left := rand1;  
  rand2 := Abs(Random) MOD 150;  
  SELF.boundRect.top := rand2 + 75;  
  SELF.boundRect.right := SELF.boundRect.left + 40;  
  SELF.boundRect.bottom := SELF.boundRect.top + 40;  
END;  
  
END;
```

METHODS OF TArc:

FUNCTION TArc.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TArc;

VAR rands, randa: INTEGER;

BEGIN

IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}

object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}

SELF := TArc(TShape.CREATE(object, itsHeap)); {Initialize inherited fields}

rands := Abs(Random) MOD 270;

SELF.startAngle := rands;

randa := Abs(Random) MOD 270;

SELF.arcAngle := randa;

END;

PROCEDURE TArc.Draw(pat: Pattern);

BEGIN

FillArc(SELF.boundRect, SELF.startAngle, SELF.arcAngle, pat);

{A QuickDraw call}

END;

PROCEDURE TArc.Erase;

BEGIN

EraseArc(SELF.boundRect, SELF.startAngle, SELF.arcAngle);

{A QuickDraw call}

END;

END;

METHODS OF TRoundRect:

**FUNCTION TRoundRect.CREATE(object: TObjct; itsHeap: THeap): TRoundRect;
BEGIN**

IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}
 object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}
 SELF := TRoundRect(TShape.CREATE(object, itsHeap)); {Initialize
 inherited fields}

SELF.ovalWidth := 20;
 SELF.ovalHeight := 15;

END;

PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Draw(pat: Pattern);

BEGIN

FillRoundRect(SELF.boundRect, SELF.ovalWidth, SELF.ovalHeight, pat);
 {A QuickDraw call}

END;

PROCEDURE TRoundRect.Erase;

BEGIN

EraseRoundRect(SELF.boundRect, SELF.ovalWidth, SELF.ovalHeight);
 {A QuickDraw call}

END;

END;

METHODS OF TControl;

**FUNCTION TControl.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap; itsLine:
Str255; itsBox: Rect): TControl;**

BEGIN

IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}
 object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}
SELF := TControl(object); {Typecast from TObject to TControl}
SELF.commandLine := itsLine;
SELF.commandBox := itsBox;

END;

PROCEDURE TControl.Draw;

BEGIN

EraseRect(SELF.commandBox);
 {A QuickDraw call}
MoveTo(SELF.commandBox.left, SELF.commandBox.bottom);
 {A QuickDraw call}
DrawString(SELF.commandLine);
 {A QuickDraw call}

END;

PROCEDURE TControl.Run;

VAR ch: char;
 thisShape: TShape;
 nextShape: TShape;
 consoleFile: TEXT; {used to allow Read(Ln) or Write(Ln) with
 the main console}

BEGIN

thisShape := NIL;
nextShape := NIL;

```
Reset(consoleFile, '-mainconsole-dummyFileName');
SELF.Draw;                                {Draw the command line}
REPEAT
  Read(consoleFile, ch); {Accept one typed charcater from the user}
  CASE ch OF
    'm', 'M':
      IF thisShape <> NIL THEN
        BEGIN
          thisShape.Erase; {Erase the shape from its present location}
          thisShape.Move; {Assign it a new location}
          thisShape.Draw(gray); {Draw it in its new location}
        END;
      OTHERWISE
        BEGIN
          nextShape := SELF.NewShape(ch); {NIL if an unrecognized
                                          command, else a TShape}
          IF nextShape <> NIL THEN
            BEGIN
              IF thisShape <> NIL THEN {Erase and deallocate any
                                      existing shape}
                BEGIN
                  thisShape.Erase;      {Erase the old shape}
                  thisShape.Free;       {Deallocate it from the heap}
                END;
              thisShape := nextShape;
              thisShape.Draw(gray);     {Draw the new shape}
            END;
          END;
        END;
      UNTIL (ch = 'q') or (ch = 'Q');
  END;
```



```
FUNCTION TControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape;
BEGIN
  IF (ch = 'a') OR (ch = 'A') THEN
    NewShape := TArc.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)
  ELSE
    IF (ch = 'r') OR (ch = 'R') THEN
      NewShape := TRoundRect.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)
    ELSE
      NewShape := NIL;
    END;
  END;
END.
```

PROGRAM M2ClasExample;

{The only differences from M1ClasExample are:
-- Unit U2ClasExample is added to the USES chain;
-- O)val is added to the menu;
-- TMyControl is used instead of TControl.
}

USES

{**\$U UObject**} UObject, {Needed to compile the U1ClasExample INTERFACE}
{**\$U QuickDraw**} QuickDraw, {Needed to compile the U1ClasExample
INTERFACE}
{**\$U U1ClasExample**} U1ClasExample, {Declares classes TShape, TArc,
TRoundRect, TControl}
{**\$U U2ClasExample**} U2ClasExample; {Declares classes TOval,
TMyControl}

VAR

error: INTEGER; {output parameter of FMOpen: positive if an
error}
myPort: GrafPort; {for use by QuickDraw}
control: TControl; {a reference to an instance of TControl (a
handle)}
ctrlRect: Rect; {the area of the screen to be used for the
command line}

**PROCEDURE FMOpen(VAR error: INTEGER); EXTERNAL; {EXTERNAL because not
defined in any INTERFACE we can USE}**

BEGIN {Main Program Statements}

{In a ToolKit/32 program, UABC (the generic application) would have called
FMOpen & OpenPort automatically}

FMOpen(error);

OpenPort (myPort);

{Create an instance of TControl to interact with the user}

SetRect(ctrlRect, 5, 20, 500, 60);

{Run the command loop until the user types "Q" for Quit}

control := TMyControl.CREATE(NIL, mainHeap, 'Round Rectangle, A)rc,
Q)val,

M)ove, Q)uit', ctrlRect);

control.Run;

END.

UNIT U2ClasExemplé;

{Declares classes TOval (subclass of TShape), TMyControl (subclass of TControl)}

INTERFACE

USES

{SU UObject} UObject, {Needed to compile the U1ClasExample INTERFACE}
{SU QuickDraw} QuickDraw, {Declares TYPE Pattern and procedures such as FillArc}
{SU U1ClasExample} U1ClasExample; {Declares classes TShape, TArc, TRoundRect, TControl}

TYPE

TOval = SUBCLASS OF TShape

FUNCTION TOval.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TOval;

PROCEDURE TOval.Draw(pat: pattern); OVERRIDE;

PROCEDURE TOval.Erase; OVERRIDE;

END;

TMyControl = SUBCLASS OF TControl

FUNCTION TMyControl.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap;

itsLine: STR255; itsBox: Rect): TMyControl;

FUNCTION TMyControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape; OVERRIDE;
{TControl.NewShape needn't be DEFAULT}

END;

IMPLEMENTATION

METHODS OF TOval;

```
FUNCTION TOval.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap): TOval;  
BEGIN  
  IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}  
    object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}  
  SELF := TOval(TShape.CREATE(object, itsHeap)); {Initialize inherited  
    fields}
```

END;

```
PROCEDURE TOval.Draw(pat: pattern);
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
  FillOval(SELF.boundRect, pat);  
    {A QuickDraw call}
```

END;

```
PROCEDURE TOval.Erase;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
  EraseOval(SELF.boundRect);  
    {A QuickDraw call}
```

END;

END;

METHODS OF TMyControl;

```
FUNCTION TMyControl.CREATE(object: TObject; itsHeap: THeap;  
                           itsLine: STR255; itsBox: Rect):  
                           TMyControl;
```

BEGIN

```
  IF object = NIL THEN {If space is not already allocated}  
    object := NewObject(itsHeap, THISCLASS); { then allocate it}  
  SELF := TMyControl(TControl.CREATE(object, itsHeap, itsLine, itsBox));  
    {Init. inherited fields}
```

END;

```
FUNCTION TMyControl.NewShape(ch: CHAR): TShape;
```

BEGIN

```
  IF (ch = 'o') OR (ch = 'O') THEN  
    NewShape := TOval.CREATE(NIL, SELF.heap)  
  ELSE  
    NewShape := SUPERSELF.NewShape(ch); {Calls TControl.NewShape  
    regardless of SELF's class}
```

END;

END;

END.