Design Patterns

Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software

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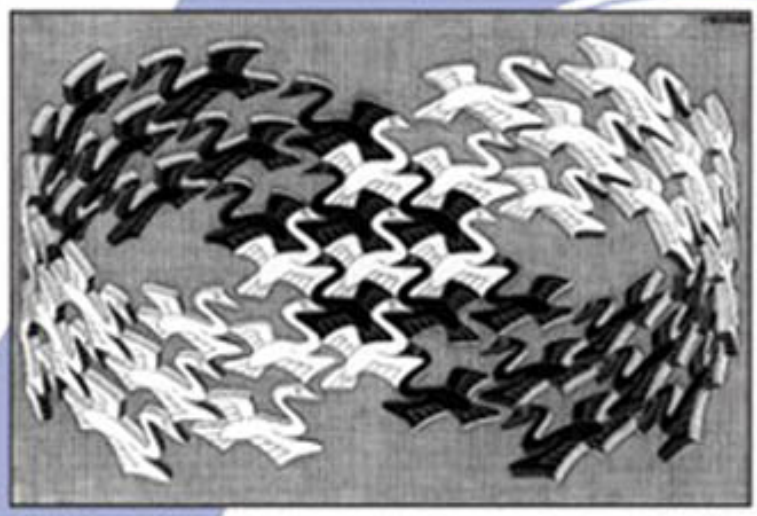

Foreword by Grady Booch

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Creational Patterns

Abstract Factory (87) Provide an interface for creating families of related or dependent objects without specifying their concrete classes.

Builder (97) Separate the construction of a complex object from its representation so that the same construction process can create different representations.

Factory Method (107) Define an interface for creating an object, but let subclasses decide which class to instantiate. Factory Method lets a class defer instantiation to subclasses.

Prototype (117) Specify the kinds of objects to create using a prototypical instance, and create new objects by copying this prototype.

Singleton (127) Ensure a class only has one instance, and provide a global point of access to it.

Structural Patterns

Adapter (139) Convert the interface of a class into another interface clients expect. Adapter lets classes work together that couldn't otherwise because of incompatible interfaces.

Bridge (151) Decouple an abstraction from its implementation so that the two can vary independently.

Composite (163) Compose objects into tree structures to represent part-whole hierarchies. Composite lets clients treat individual objects and compositions of objects uniformly.

Decorator (175) Attach additional responsibilities to an object dynamically. Decorators provide a flexible alternative to subclassing for extending functionality.

Facade (185) Provide a unified interface to a set of interfaces in a subsystem. Facade defines a higher-level interface that makes the subsystem easier to use.

Flyweight (195) Use sharing to support large numbers of fine-grained objects efficiently.

Proxy (207) Provide a surrogate or placeholder for another object to control access to it.

but as far as the Abstract Factory pattern is concerned, the product gets returned immediately.

A Composite (163) is what the builder often builds.

FACTORY METHOD

Class Creational

Intent

Define an interface for creating an object, but let subclasses decide which class to instantiate. Factory Method lets a class defer instantiation to subclasses.

Also Known As

Virtual Constructor

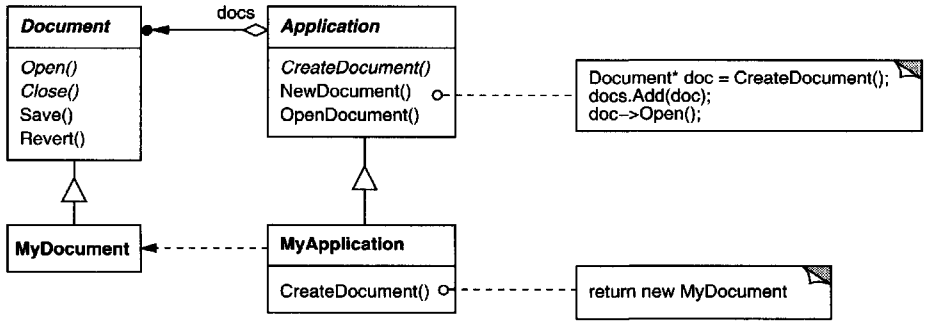
Motivation

Frameworks use abstract classes to define and maintain relationships between objects. A framework is often responsible for creating these objects as well.

Consider a framework for applications that can present multiple documents to the user. Two key abstractions in this framework are the classes Application and Document. Both classes are abstract, and clients have to subclass them to realize their application-specific implementations. To create a drawing application, for example, we define the classes DrawingApplication and DrawingDocument. The Application class is responsible for managing Documents and will create them as required—when the user selects Open or New from a menu, for example.

Because the particular Document subclass to instantiate is application-specific, the Application class can't predict the subclass of Document to instantiate—the Application class only knows *when* a new document should be created, not *what kind* of Document to create. This creates a dilemma: The framework must instantiate classes, but it only knows about abstract classes, which it cannot instantiate.

The Factory Method pattern offers a solution. It encapsulates the knowledge of which Document subclass to create and moves this knowledge out of the framework.



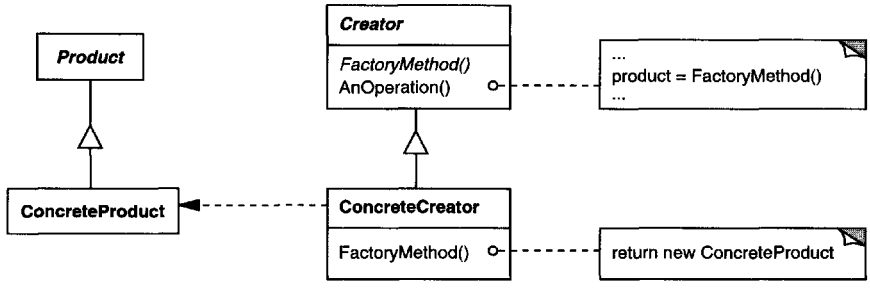
Application subclasses redefine an abstract CreateDocument operation on Application to return the appropriate Document subclass. Once an Application subclass is instantiated, it can then instantiate application-specific Documents without knowing their class. We call CreateDocument a **factory method** because it's responsible for "manufacturing" an object.

Applicability

Use the Factory Method pattern when

- a class can't anticipate the class of objects it must create.
- a class wants its subclasses to specify the objects it creates.
- classes delegate responsibility to one of several helper subclasses, and you want to localize the knowledge of which helper subclass is the delegate.

Structure



Participants

- **Product** (Document)
  - defines the interface of objects the factory method creates.
- **ConcreteProduct** (MyDocument)
  - implements the Product interface.
- **Creator** (Application)
  - declares the factory method, which returns an object of type Product. Creator may also define a default implementation of the factory method that returns a default ConcreteProduct object.
  - may call the factory method to create a Product object.

- **ConcreteCreator** (MyApplication)
  - overrides the factory method to return an instance of a ConcreteProduct.

Collaborations

- Creator relies on its subclasses to define the factory method so that it returns an instance of the appropriate ConcreteProduct.

Consequences

Factory methods eliminate the need to bind application-specific classes into your code. The code only deals with the Product interface; therefore it can work with any user-defined ConcreteProduct classes.

A potential disadvantage of factory methods is that clients might have to subclass the Creator class just to create a particular ConcreteProduct object. Subclassing is fine when the client has to subclass the Creator class anyway, but otherwise the client now must deal with another point of evolution.

Here are two additional consequences of the Factory Method pattern:

1. *Provides hooks for subclasses.* Creating objects inside a class with a factory method is always more flexible than creating an object directly. Factory Method gives subclasses a hook for providing an extended version of an object.

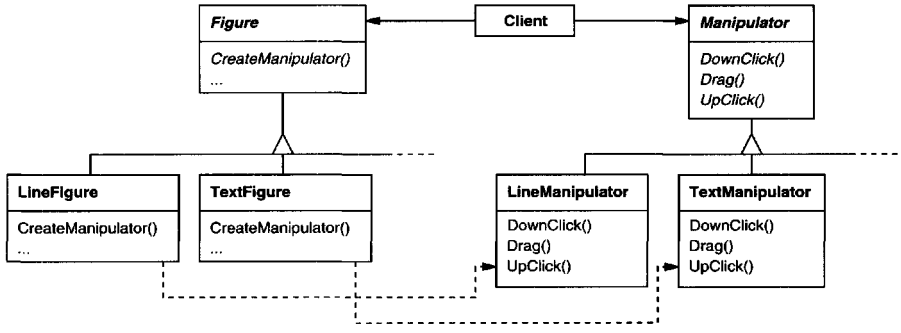
   In the Document example, the Document class could define a factory method called CreateFileDialog that creates a default file dialog object for opening an existing document. A Document subclass can define an application-specific file dialog by overriding this factory method. In this case the factory method is not abstract but provides a reasonable default implementation.

2. *Connects parallel class hierarchies.* In the examples we've considered so far, the factory method is only called by Creators. But this doesn't have to be the case; clients can find factory methods useful, especially in the case of parallel class hierarchies.

   Parallel class hierarchies result when a class delegates some of its responsibilities to a separate class. Consider graphical figures that can be manipulated interactively; that is, they can be stretched, moved, or rotated using the mouse. Implementing such interactions isn't always easy. It often requires storing and updating information that records the state of the manipulation at a given time. This state is needed only during manipulation; therefore it needn't be kept in the figure object. Moreover, different figures behave differently when the user manipulates them. For example, stretching a line figure might have the effect of moving an endpoint, whereas stretching a text figure may change its line spacing.

   With these constraints, it's better to use a separate Manipulator object that implements the interaction and keeps track of any manipulation-specific state

that's needed. Different figures will use different Manipulator subclasses to handle particular interactions. The resulting Manipulator class hierarchy parallels (at least partially) the Figure class hierarchy:



The Figure class provides a CreateManipulator factory method that lets clients create a Figure's corresponding Manipulator. Figure subclasses override this method to return an instance of the Manipulator subclass that's right for them. Alternatively, the Figure class may implement CreateManipulator to return a default Manipulator instance, and Figure subclasses may simply inherit that default. The Figure classes that do so need no corresponding Manipulator subclass—hence the hierarchies are only partially parallel.

Notice how the factory method defines the connection between the two class hierarchies. It localizes knowledge of which classes belong together.

Implementation

Consider the following issues when applying the Factory Method pattern:

1. *Two major varieties.* The two main variations of the Factory Method pattern are (1) the case when the Creator class is an abstract class and does not provide an implementation for the factory method it declares, and (2) the case when the Creator is a concrete class and provides a default implementation for the factory method. It's also possible to have an abstract class that defines a default implementation, but this is less common.

   The first case *requires* subclasses to define an implementation, because there's no reasonable default. It gets around the dilemma of having to instantiate unforeseeable classes. In the second case, the concrete Creator uses the factory method primarily for flexibility. It's following a rule that says, "Create objects in a separate operation so that subclasses can override the way they're created." This rule ensures that designers of subclasses can change the class of objects their parent class instantiates if necessary.

2. *Parameterized factory methods.* Another variation on the pattern lets the factory method create *multiple* kinds of products. The factory method takes a

parameter that identifies the kind of object to create. All objects the factory method creates will share the Product interface. In the Document example, Application might support different kinds of Documents. You pass CreateDocument an extra parameter to specify the kind of document to create.

The Unidraw graphical editing framework [VL90] uses this approach for reconstructing objects saved on disk. Unidraw defines a `Creator` class with a factory method `Create` that takes a class identifier as an argument. The class identifier specifies the class to instantiate. When Unidraw saves an object to disk, it writes out the class identifier first and then its instance variables. When it reconstructs the object from disk, it reads the class identifier first.

Once the class identifier is read, the framework calls `Create`, passing the identifier as the parameter. `Create` looks up the constructor for the corresponding class and uses it to instantiate the object. Last, `Create` calls the object's `Read` operation, which reads the remaining information on the disk and initializes the object's instance variables.

A parameterized factory method has the following general form, where `MyProduct` and `YourProduct` are subclasses of `Product`:

```
class Creator {
public:
    virtual Product* Create(ProductId);
};

Product* Creator::Create (ProductId id) {
    if (id == MINE)  return new MyProduct;
    if (id == YOURS) return new YourProduct;
    // repeat for remaining products...

    return 0;
}
```

Overriding a parameterized factory method lets you easily and selectively extend or change the products that a Creator produces. You can introduce new identifiers for new kinds of products, or you can associate existing identifiers with different products.

For example, a subclass `MyCreator` could swap MyProduct and YourProduct and support a new `TheirProduct` subclass:

```
Product* MyCreator::Create (ProductId id) {
    if (id == YOURS)  return new MyProduct;
    if (id == MINE)   return new YourProduct;
        // N.B.: switched YOURS and MINE

    if (id == THEIRS) return new TheirProduct;

    return Creator::Create(id); // called if all others fail
}
```

Notice that the last thing this operation does is call `Create` on the parent class. That's because `MyCreator::Create` handles only `YOURS`, `MINE`, and