



CS/ENGRD 2110 Object-Oriented Programming and Data Structures

Spring 2011
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Lecture 2: Java Review

Outline

- A brief (biased) history of programming languages
- Review of some Java/OOP concepts
- Java tips, trick, and pitfalls
- Debugging and experimentation

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Machine Language

- Used with the earliest electronic computers (1940s)
 - Machines use vacuum tubes instead of transistors
- Programs are entered by setting switches or reading punch cards
- All instructions are numbers



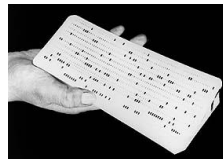
- Example code


```
0110 0001 0000 0110
add reg1 6
```
- An idea for improvement
 - Use words instead of numbers
 - Result: Assembly Language

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Assembly Language

- **Idea:** Use a program (an *assembler*) to convert assembly language into machine code
- Early assemblers were some of the most complicated code of the time (1950s)



- Example code


```
ADD R1 6
MOV R1 COST
SET R1 0
JMP TOP
```



- Idea for improvement
 - Let's make it easier for humans by designing a high-level computer language
 - Result: high-level languages

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High-Level Language

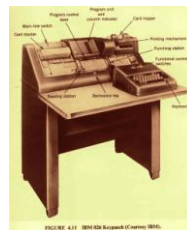
- **Idea:** Use a program (a *compiler* or an *interpreter*) to convert high-level code into machine code
- **Pro**
 - Easier for humans to write, read, and maintain code
- **Con**
 - The resulting program will never be as efficient as good assembly-code
 - Waste of memory
 - Waste of time



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FORTRAN

- Initial version developed in 1957 by IBM



- Example code


```
C SUM OF SQUARES
ISUM = 0
DO 100 I=1,10
ISUM = ISUM + I*I
100 CONTINUE
```

- FORTRAN introduced many high-level language constructs still in use today
 - Variables & assignment
 - Loops
 - Conditionals
 - Subroutines
 - Comments

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ALGOL



- **ALGOL** = ALGOrithmic Language
- Developed by an international committee
- First version in 1958 (not widely used)
- Second version in 1960 (widely used)

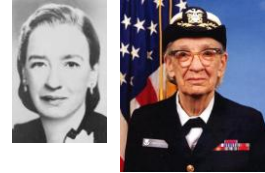
- Sample code


```
comment Sum of squares
begin
  integer i, sum;
  for i:=1 until 10 do
    sum := sum + i*i;
end
```
- ALGOL 60 included *recursion*
 - Pro: easier to design clear, succinct algorithms
 - Con: too hard to implement; too inefficient

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COBOL

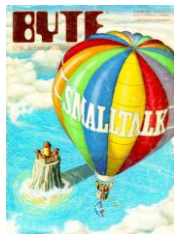
- **COBOL** = **C**OMMON **B**USINESS **O**RIENTED **L**ANGUAGE
- Developed by the US government (about 1960)
 - Design was greatly influenced by Grace Hopper
- Goal: Programs should look like English
 - Idea was that *anyone* should be able to read and understand a COBOL program
- COBOL included the idea of *records* (a single data structure with multiple *fields*, each field holding a value)



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Simula & Smalltalk

- These languages introduced and popularized *Object Oriented Programming* (OOP)
 - Simula was developed in Norway as a language for simulation in the 60s
 - Smalltalk was developed at Xerox PARC in the 70s
- These languages included
 - Classes
 - Objects
 - Subclasses & Inheritance



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Java – 1995

- Java includes
 - Assignment statements, loops, conditionals from **F**ORTRAN (but syntax from C)
 - Recursion from **A**LGOL
 - Fields from **C**OBOL
 - OOP from **S**imula & **S**malltalk



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We assume you already know Java...

- Classes and objects
- Static vs instance fields and methods
- Primitive vs reference types
- Private vs public vs package
- Constructors
- Method signatures
- Local variables
- Arrays
- Subtypes and Inheritance, Shadowing

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Java is object oriented

- In most prior languages, code was executed line by line and accessed variables or record
- In Java, we think of the data as being organized into objects that come with their own methods, which are used to access them
 - This shift in perspective is critical
 - When coding in Java one is always thinking about “which object is running this code?”

Dynamic vs. Static

- Some kinds of information is “static”
 - There can only be one instance
 - Like a “global variable” in C or C++ (or assembler)
 - In languages like FORTRAN, COBOL most data is static.
- Object-oriented information is “dynamic”
 - Each object has its own private copy
 - When we create a new object, we make new copies of the variables it uses to keep its state
 - Languages like C and C++ allow us to allocate memory at runtime, but don’t offer a lot of help for managing it
- In Java this distinction becomes very important

Constructors

- Called to create new instances of a class
- Default constructor initializes all fields to default values (0 or null)

```
class Thing {
    int val;

    Thing(int val) {
        this.val = val;
    }

    Thing() {
        this(3);
    }
}

Thing one = new Thing(1);
Thing two = new Thing(2);
Thing three = new Thing();
```

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Static Initializers

- Run once when class is loaded
- Used to initialize static objects

```
class StaticInit {
    static Set<String> courses = new HashSet<String>();

    static {
        courses.add("CS 2110");
        courses.add("CS 2111");
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ...
    }
}
```

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Static methods and variables

- If a method or a variable is declared “static” there will be just one instance for the class
 - Otherwise, we think of each object as having its own “version” of the method or variable
- Anyone can call a static method or access a static variable
- But to access a dynamic method or variable Java needs to know which object you mean

Static vs Instance Example

```
class Widget {
    static int nextSerialNumber = 10000;
    int serialNumber;

    Widget() {
        serialNumber = nextSerialNumber++;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Widget a = new Widget();
        Widget b = new Widget();
        Widget c = new Widget();
        System.out.println(a.serialNumber);
        System.out.println(b.serialNumber);
        System.out.println(c.serialNumber);
    }
}
```

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Names

- Refer to my **static** and **instance** fields & methods by (unqualified) name:
 - `serialNumber`
 - `nextSerialNumber`
- Refer to **static** fields & methods in another class using name of the **class**
 - `Widget.nextSerialNumber`
- Refer to **instance** fields & methods of another object using name of the **object**
 - `a.serialNumber`
- Example
 - `System.out.println(a.serialNumber)`
 - `out` is a static field in class `System`
 - The value of `System.out` is an instance of a class that has an instance method `println(int)`
- If an object must refer to itself, use **this**

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A Common Pitfall

local variable shadows field

```
class Thing {
    int val;

    boolean setVal(int v) {
        int val = v;
    }
}
```

- you would like to set the instance field `val = v`
- but you have declared a new local variable `val`
- assignment has no effect on the field `val`

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The `main` Method

Can be called from anywhere

A class method; don't need an object to call it

No return value

Method must be named `main`

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    ...
}
```

Parameters passed to program, either from command line or from "Run"/"Debug" dialog box in Eclipse

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Avoiding trouble

- Keep in mind that "main" is a static method
 - Hence anything main calls needs to have an associated object instance, or itself be static
- Use of static methods is discouraged

```
class Thing {
    int counter;
    static int sequence;

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int c = ++counter; // Illegal: counter is assoc
                          // with an object of type
                          // Thing. But which object?

        int s = ++sequence; // Legal: sequence is
                            // static too
    }
}
```

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Overloading of Methods

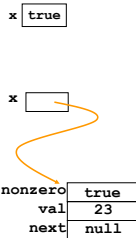
- A class can have several methods of the same name
 - But all methods must have different *signatures*
 - The *signature* of a method is its name plus types of its parameters
- Example: `String.valueOf(...)` in Java API
 - There are 9 of them:
 - `valueOf(boolean);`
 - `valueOf(int);`
 - `valueOf(long);`
 - ...
- Parameter types are part of the method's signature

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Primitive vs Reference Types

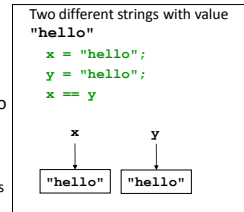
- Primitive types
 - `int, short, long, float, byte, char, boolean, double`
 - efficient
 - 1 or 2 words
 - not an `Object` — *unboxed*
- Reference types
 - objects and arrays
 - `String, int[], HashSet`
 - usually require more memory
 - can have special value `null`
 - can compare `null` with `==, !=`
 - generate `NullPointerException` if you try to dereference `null`



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"==" is not "equals ()"

- `==` tests whether variables hold identical values
 - shallow equality
 - works fine for primitive types
- `equals ()` test whether two objects (e.g., `String`) contain equivalent data
 - deep equality
 - need to use for reference types



- To compare object *contents*, override `Object.equals ()`
- But if you do this, must also override `Object.hashCode ()` (more on this later)

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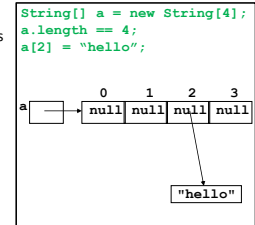
"==" VS "equals()" for String

What you wrote.	Value?	What you should write.
<code>"xy" == new String("xy")</code>	False	
<code>"xy" == "xy"</code>	True	<code>"xy".equals("xy")</code>
<code>"xy" == "x" + "y"</code>	True	<code>"xy".equals("x" + "y")</code>

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Arrays

- Arrays are reference types
- Array *elements* can be reference types or primitive types
 - E.g., `int[]` or `String[]`
- If `a` is an array, `a.length` is its length
- Its elements are `a[0], a[1], ..., a[a.length-1]`
- The length is fixed!



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Accessing Array Elements Sequentially

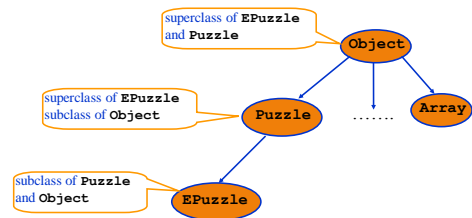
```
public class CommandLineArgs {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(args.length);

        // old-style
        for (int i = 0; i < args.length; i++) {
            System.out.println(args[i]);
        }

        // new style
        for (String s : args) {
            System.out.println(s);
        }
    }
}
```

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Class Hierarchy



Every class (except `Object`) has a unique immediate superclass, called its *parent*

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Overriding

- A method in a subclass **overrides** a method in superclass if:
 - both methods have the same name,
 - both methods have the same signature (number and type of parameters and return type), and
 - both are static methods or both are instance methods
- Methods are dispatched according to the runtime type of the object (dynamic binding / late binding)

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Unexpected Consequence

```
class A {
    public int m() {...}
}

class B extends A {
    private int m() {...} //illegal!
}

A supR = new B(); //upcasting
supR.m(); //would invoke private method in
           // class B at runtime!
```

An overriding method cannot have more restricted access than the method it overrides

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Accessing Overridden Methods

- Suppose a class **S** overrides a method **m** in its parent
- Methods in **S** can invoke the overridden method in the parent as
`super.m()`
- In particular, can invoke the overridden method in the overriding method!
- Caveat: cannot compose super more than once as in `super.super.m()`

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Shadowing

- Like overriding, but for fields instead of methods
 - Superclass: variable **v** of some type
 - Subclass: variable **v** perhaps of some other type
 - Method in subclass can access shadowed variable using `super.v`
- Variable references are resolved using static binding (i.e., at compile-time), not dynamic binding (i.e., not at runtime)
 - Variable reference **rv** uses the static type (declared type) of the variable **r**, not the runtime type of the object referred to by **r**
- Shadowing variables is bad medicine and should be avoided

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Overloading Revisited

```
class Base { ... }
class Derived extends Base { ... }
class Test{
    public void m (Derived b){
        System.out.println("Test.m(Derived)");
    }
    public void m (Base a){
        System.out.println("Test.m(Base)");
    }
    public static void main(String []args) {
        Test t = new Test();
        Base b = new Base();
        Base d = new Derived();
        t.m(b);
        t.m(d);
    }
}
```

Output:
Test.m(Base)
Test.m(Base)

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Array vs ArrayList vs HashMap

Three extremely useful constructs (see Java API)

- Array
 - Storage is allocated when array created; cannot change
- ArrayList (in java.util)
 - An "extensible" array
 - Can append or insert elements, access i-th element, reset to 0 length
- HashMap (in java.util)
 - Save data indexed by keys
 - Can lookup data by its key
 - Can get an iterator of the keys or the values

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HashMap Example

- Create a **HashMap** of numbers, using the names of the numbers as keys:


```
Map<String, Integer> num =
    new HashMap<String, Integer>();
num.put("one", new Integer(1));
num.put("two", new Integer(2));
num.put("three", new Integer(3));
```
- To retrieve a number:


```
Integer n = num.get("two");
```
- returns **null** if the **HashMap** does not contain the key
 - Can use `num.containsKey(key)` to check this

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Generics and Autoboxing

- Old (pre-Java 5)


```
Map num = new HashMap();
num.put("one", new Integer(1));
Integer s = (Integer)num.get("one");
```
- New (generics)


```
Map<String, Integer> num =
    new HashMap<String, Integer>();
num.put("one", new Integer(1));
Integer s = num.get("one");
```
- New (generics + autoboxing)


```
Map<String, Integer> num =
    new HashMap<String, Integer>();
num.put("one", 1);
int s = num.get("one");
```

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Experimentation and Debugging

- Don't be afraid to experiment if you are not sure how things work
 - Documentation isn't always clear
 - Interactive Development Environments (IDEs), e.g. Eclipse, make this easier
- Debugging
 - Do not just make random changes, hoping something will work
 - Think about what could cause the observed behavior
 - Isolate the bug
- An IDE makes this easier by providing a Debugging Mode
- Can set breakpoints, step through the program while watching chosen variables

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