

CMSC 131: Chapter 10 (Supplement)

Interfaces and Flow

Motivation

Two Opposing Goals that Java programmers must deal with:

Strong Typing: In strongly typed languages, like Java, the type of every variable must be specified.

General-Purpose Functions: We would like to write methods that can be applied to many different types.

Example: Sorting involves taking a list of elements and arranging them in increasing order. We would like to be able to sort lists of ints, doubles, Strings, Dates, Rationals, etc.

The Problem: Strong typing implies that to write a sorting function, we need to specify the types of the parameters (int, double, String, etc.). This makes it **impossible to write a generic sorting function**.

It is harder to **debug** and **maintain** many copies of the same method.

Java Interfaces

Java Interface: Java supports a language construct called “**interface**” which allows you to write general purpose functions.

How it works: Suppose you want to write a sorting method for objects of some class X.

- You implement a **general-purpose sorting method**, using a comparison method (e.g., `compareTo()`).
- The user of your sorting function **defines this comparison method** (`compareTo()`) for objects of class X.
- Now it is possible to **invoke** your general sorting method on objects of class X.

To make this work: Java needs to provide some mechanism for general-purpose functions (like `sort`) to specify **what behavior they require** from specific classes (like X).

Java Interfaces (continued)

A **Java Interface** is a formal way for a class to **promise** to implement certain methods. We say that a class **implements** an interface if it provides these methods.

Interface:

- Is defined by the keyword **interface** (rather than **class**).
- It defines **methods**, but does **not** provide a **method body** (the executable statements that make up the method).

Defining a Java Interface:

- A Java **interface** is collection of **method declarations**.
- These declarations are **abstract**, which means that **we do not supply the body** of the method.

```
public interface Y {  
    public void someMethod( int z );  
    public int anotherMethod( );  
}
```

- These methods are usually **public**, since they are expected to be part of an object's **public interface**.
- Notice that an **interface is not a class**. For example, you **cannot** create an instance using "new Y".

Implementing an Interface

Implementing Java Interface:

- A class is said to "**implement**" an interface if it provides definitions for these methods.
- To inform Java that a class implements a particular interface Y, we add "**implements Y**" after the class name:

```
public class X implements Y {  
    // ...(instance data and other methods)...  
    public void someMethod( int z ) { /* give implementation here */ }  
    public int anotherMethod( ) { /* give implementation here */ }  
}
```

- Now, we may use an X any place that an object of type Y is expected.

Review of Control Flow

Control Flow: Controls the order in which statements are executed in your program

if and if-else: Conditionally execute a block of statements based on a boolean conditional expression. Example:

```
if ( option == 1 )
    System.out.println( "Read image" );
else if ( option == 2 )
    System.out.println( "Double" );
else if ( option == 9 )
    System.out.println( "Quit" );
else
    System.out.println( "Sorry, invalid" );
```

while and do-while loops: Repeatedly execute some block of statements as long as a condition holds.

The Switch Statement

Switch Statement: is a convenient (and often more efficient) way to perform a **multi-way conditional** based on a single control value.

Example:

```
switch ( option ) {
    case 1:
        System.out.println( "Read image" );
        break;
    case 2:
        System.out.println( "Double" );
        break;
    case 9:
        System.out.println( "Quit" );
        break;
    default:
        System.out.println( "Sorry, invalid" );
        break;
}
```

The Switch Statement

General form:

```
switch ( <control-expression> ) {  
  case <case-label-1> :  
    <statement-sequence-1>  
    break;  
  case <case-label-2> :  
    <statement-sequence-2>  
    break;  
  ...  
  case <case-label-n> :  
    <statement-sequence-n>  
    break;  
  default :  
    <default-statement-sequence>  
    break;  
}
```

The Switch Statement

The control **expression** can be of one of the following types:

char, int, short, byte.

- not float or double,
- not boolean or long
- not an object (Too bad! Strings would have been nice.)

The **"break"** statement jumps out of the switch statement. Otherwise control flow just **"falls through"** into the next case.

```
int option = 2;  
switch ( option ) {  
  case 1:  
    System.out.println( "Read image" );  
  case 2:  
    System.out.println( "Double" );  
  case 9:  
    System.out.println( "Quit" );  
  default:  
    System.out.println( "Sorry, invalid" );  
}
```

The Switch Statement

The **falling through** behavior is handy, because it allows you to combine cases. **Example:** Allowing either upper-case or lower-case for characters:

```
char command = 'D';
switch ( command ) {
    case 'i':
    case 'I':
        MyUtility.insert( );
        numberOfItems++;
        break;
    case 'd':
    case 'D':
        MyUtility.delete( );
        numberOfItems--;
        break;
    ...
}
```

The Switch Statement

The **"default"** case is **optional**. If it is not included, and no case matches, then the switch statement **does nothing**.

It is considered **good practice** to **always include** a default case, if only to **print an error message** of an illegal choice.

Cases are **not required to be in order**. The following is legal, but is **confusing** for the reader.

```
switch ( option ) {
    case 2:
    ...
    case 9:
    ...
    default:
    ...
    case 1:
    ...
}
```

Recommended: List cases in **increasing order**, and put the **default last**.

The For Loop

Common loop structure:

<pre><initialization> while (<boolean-test>) { <loop-body> <update> }</pre>	<pre>sum = 0.0; n = 1; while (n <= 3) { sum += n; n++; }</pre>
---	---

The **for** loop provides a shorthand for expressing this type of loop:

```
for ( <initialization>; <boolean-test>; <update> ) {
    <loop-body>
}
```

The above loop is equivalent to:

```
sum = 0.0;
for ( n = 1; n <= 3; n++ ) {
    sum += n;
}
```

The For Loop: Examples

Loop that counts from 100 **down** to 0: (100, 99, 98, ..., 1, 0)

```
for ( count = 100; count >= 0; count-- )
    System.out.println( count + " bottles of beer on the wall" );
```

Loop that **counts by twos** from 0 up to max+10: (0, 2, 4, ..., max+10)

```
for ( m = 0; m <= max+10; m += 2 ) {
    // ... something exciting ...
}
```

It is very convenient to **declare** the loop-control variable **within** the initialization. The **scope** of the variable is limited to the for loop:

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 20; i++ ) {
    sum = sum + i;
}
System.out.println ( i );           // this is a compiler error: i only accessible inside the loop
```

The For Loop: Further Elements

Multiple Initialization/Increment: Sometimes it is useful to have multiple initializations and multiple increments. This can be achieved by separating the operations by commas.

Example:

```
for ( m = 0, n = 100; m < n; m++, n -= 2 ){
    // ... something senseless ...
}
```

Equivalent to:

```
m = 0;
n = 100;
while ( m < n ) {
    // ... something senseless ...
    m++;
    n -= 2;
}
```

The For Loop: Common Errors

Semicolon after the increment:

```
for ( int j = 0; j < 100; j++; ) System.out.println( j );
```

Semicolon after closing parenthesis:

```
for ( k = 0; k < 10; k++ ) ;
    System.out.println( k );
```

The println is executed only once, after the loop exits (prints 10).

Infinite loop due to careless loop condition:

Example: The following intended to count from low up to high-1.

```
int low = ...
int high = ...
for ( z = low; z != high; z ++ ) {
    ...
} // what if high < low?
```

Random Number Generation

Pseudo-Random Numbers: Random numbers generated in Java (and all other programming languages) are **not truly random**. They are simply so **unpredictable** that they behave as if they are random for all practical purposes.

Seed Value: A sequence of pseudo-random numbers is uniquely determined by an initial **seed value**, which is given as a **long** integer.

Math.random(): Returns a pseudo-random **double** *r* in the range

$$0.0 \leq r < 1.0$$

It works by invoking Java's more general **Random** number class, which resides in the **java.util** package.

Java's Class Random

Package: java.util (import java.util.*;)

Constructors: Each call to "**new Random**" creates a new pseudo-random sequence.

- **Random(long seed):** Creates a new sequence using the given seed. Given the same seed, the **same sequence** is generated every time.
- **Random():** (Default constructor) Creates a sequence using the **time of day** as the seed. The sequence is different every time you run it.

Getting a new Random Value:

- **nextBoolean():** Returns a random **boolean**
- **nextInt():** Returns a random **int** (over the entire range of int's)
- **nextInt(int n):** Returns a random **int** *r* over the range $0 \leq r \leq n-1$.
- **nextDouble():** Returns a random **double** *r*, where $0.0 \leq r < 1.0$.
- Also: **nextFloat()**, **nextLong()**, **setSeed(long seed)**.

Why seeds?

The "break" Statement

We saw that the break statement exits from a switch statement. It can also be used to **exit immediately from any loop**:

- while
- do-while
- for

Example: Generate up to 500 random numbers, but exit the loop as soon as a value less than 0.01 is generated.

```
int count;
for (count = 1; count <= 500; count++ ) {
    if ( Math.random( ) < 0.01 ) break;
}
System.out.println( "count = " + count );
```

The "break" Statement

Warning: A break "violates" the loop's **natural structure**, and can be hard on the reader (particularly if the loop is large). It is **best to avoid them**, unless it is needed to keep the code simple.

Example: We can easily avoid the break in the above example, by creating a boolean variable.

```
boolean foundIt = false;
for (count = 1; ( count <= 500 && ! foundIt ); count++ ) {
    if ( Math.random( ) < 0.01 ) { foundIt = true; count--;}
}
System.out.println( "count = " + count );
```

The "continue" Statement

The **break** statement **exits** entirely from a loop.

The **continue** statement is similar, but jumps immediately to the test portion of the loop, ready to start a new iteration.

Example:

```
count = 1;
while ( count < 20 ) {           // continue jumps here
    sum += count;
    if ( ... ) break;
    if ( ... ) continue;
}
System.out.println( "Done" );    // break jumps here
```

Warning: We only mention **continue** for completeness.

break: Is usually bad practice. Use it very sparingly.

continue: Is considered bad practice. Avoid it altogether.