

CMSC433, Spring 2007

Programming Language Technology and Paradigms

Java Review

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Java

- Descended from Simula67, SmallTalk, others
 - Superficially similar to C, C++
- Fully specified, compiles to *virtual machine*
 - machine-independent
- Secure
 - bytecode verification (“type-safe”)
 - security manager

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Object Orientation

- Combining data and behavior
 - objects, not developers, decide how to carry out operations
- Sharing via abstraction and inheritance
 - similar operations and structures are implemented once
- Emphasis on object-structure rather than procedure structure
 - ... but procedure structure still useful

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Example

```
public class Complex {  
    private double r, i;  
  
    public Complex(double r, double i) {  
        this.r = r; this.i = i;  
    }  
    public String toString() {  
        return "(" + r + ", " + i + ")";  
    }  
    public Complex plus(Complex that) {  
        return new Complex(r + that.r, i + that.i);  
    }  
}
```

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Using Complex

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    Complex a = new Complex(5.5,9.2);  
    Complex b = new Complex(2.3,-5.1);  
    Complex c;  
    c = a.plus(b);  
    System.out.println("a = " + a);  
    System.out.println("b = " + b);  
    System.out.println("c = " + c);  
}
```

- instantiation
- `println` calls the `java.io.PrintStream.print(Object)` method
 - which calls the `String.valueOf` method
- The `String.valueOf` method is very simple:

```
public static String valueOf(Object obj)  
{ return (obj == null) ? "null" : obj.toString();  
}
```

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The Class Hierarchy

- Classes by themselves are a powerful tool
 - Support *abstraction* and *encapsulation*
- Java also provides
 - *Inheritance* allows code reuse
 - Note: When you inherit from a class, you also “implement” the class’s “interface” (will come back to interface)

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Inheritance

- Each Java class *extends* or inherits code from exactly one superclass
- Permits reusing classes to define new objects
 - Can define the behavior of the new object in terms of the old one

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Example

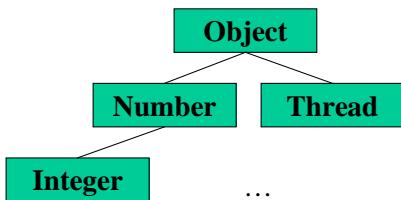
```
class Point {  
    int getX() { ... }  
    int getY() { ... }  
}  
class ColorPoint extends Point {  
    int getColor() { ... }  
}
```

- **ColorPoint** reuses `getX()` and `getY()` from **Point**
- **ColorPoint** “implements” the **Point** “interface”
 - They can be used anywhere a **Point** can be

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Java Design

- Everything inherits from **Object***
 - Even arrays
 - Allows sharing, generics, and more



* Well, almost: there are primitive int, long, float, etc.

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Interfaces

```
public interface MiniServlet extends Runnable {  
    void setArg(String arg);  
    void setOutputStream(OutputStream out);  
}  
  
class HelloWorld implements MiniServlet { ... }  
class Print implements MiniServlet { ... }  
  
MiniServlet s = new HelloWorld();  
if (...) s = new Print();  
s.setArg(...);
```

– Interfaces allow different classes to be treated the same 10

Interfaces

- An interface lists supported (public) methods
 - No constructors or implementations allowed
 - Can have final static variables
- A class can implement zero or more interfaces
- Given some interface **I**, declaring **I x = ...** means
 - **x** must refer to an instance of a class that implements **I**, or else **null**

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Interface Inheritance

- Interfaces can *extend* other interfaces
 - Sometimes convenient form of reuse
- Given interfaces **I1** and **I2** where **I2** extends **I1**
 - If **C** implements **I2**, then **C** implements **I1**
- Because a class can implement multiple interfaces, interface extensions are often not needed

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No Multiple Inheritance

- A class type can implement many interfaces
- But can only extend one superclass
- Not a big deal
 - Multiple inheritance rarely, if ever, necessary and often badly used
 - And it's complicated to implement well

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Abstract Classes

- Sometimes want a class with some code, but with some methods unwritten
 - It can't be an interface because it has code
 - It can't be a regular class because it doesn't have all the code
 - You can't instantiate such a class
- Instead, we can mark such a class as *abstract*
 - And mark the unimplemented methods as *abstract*

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Example from JDK

```
public abstract class OutputStream {  
    public abstract void write(int b) ...;  
    public void write(byte b[], int off, int len) ... {  
        ... write(b[off + i]);...  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

- Subclasses of OutputStream need not override the second version of write(...)
 - But they do need to override the first one as it is abstract

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I/O streams

- Raw communication takes place using streams

The diagram shows a rectangular box labeled 'Process' containing two smaller boxes: 'InStream' on top and 'OutStream' below it. Two horizontal arrows, one pointing left and one pointing right, connect the 'InStream' and 'OutStream' boxes to a larger, solid black rectangular box on the right, representing raw communication.

- Java also provides readers and writers
 - character streams
- Applies to files, network connections, strings, etc.

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I/O Classes

- **OutputStream** – byte stream going out
- **Writer** – character stream going out
- **InputStream** – byte stream coming in
- **Reader** – character stream coming in

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Applications and I/O

- Java “external interface” is a public class
 - **public static void main(String [] args)**
- **args[0]** is first argument
 - unlike C/C++
- **System.out** and **System.err** are **PrintStreams**
 - **System.out.print(...)** prints a string
 - **System.out.println(...)** prints a string with a newline

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Java Networking

- class **Socket**
 - **Communication channel**
- class **ServerSocket**
 - Server-side “listen” socket
 - Awaits and responds to connection requests

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Example Client/Server

```
ServerSocket s = new ServerSocket(5001);
Socket conn = s.accept();
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Server code



```
Socket conn = new Socket ("www.cs.umd.edu", 5001);
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Client code

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Example Client/Server

```
ServerSocket s = new ServerSocket(5001);  
Socket conn = s.accept();  
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();  
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Server code



```
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```

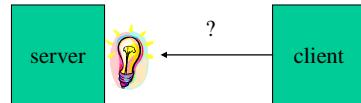
Client code

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Example Client/Server

```
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Server code



```
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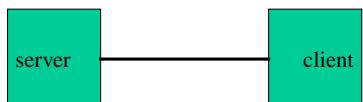
Client code

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Example Client/Server

```
ServerSocket s = new ServerSocket(5001);  
Socket conn = s.accept();  
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();  
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Server code



Note: The server can still accept other connection requests on port 5001

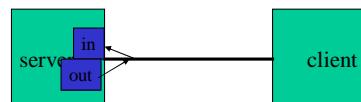
Client code

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Example Client/Server

```
ServerSocket s = new ServerSocket(5001);  
Socket conn = s.accept();  
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OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Server code



```
Socket conn = new Socket ("www.cs.umd.edu", 5001);  
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();  
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

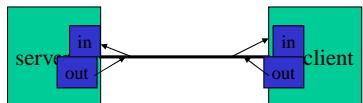
Client code

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Example Client/Server

```
ServerSocket s = new ServerSocket(5001);
Socket conn = s.accept();
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Server code



```
Socket conn = new Socket ("www.cs.umd.edu", 5001);
InputStream in = conn.getInputStream();
OutputStream out = conn.getOutputStream();
```

Client code

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Possible Failures

- Server-side
 - ServerSocket port already in use
 - Client dies on accept
- Client-side
 - Server dead
 - No one listening on port
- In all cases IOException thrown
 - Must use appropriate throw/try/catch constructs

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What is this code doing?

```
import java.lang.reflect.*;
public class ReflectionTest {
    public static void main(String args[])
        throws ClassNotFoundException,
        NoSuchMethodException,
        SecurityException,
        IllegalAccessException,
        InvocationTargetException
    {
        if( args.length != 2 ||
            !(args[0].equals("toUpperCase") ||
            args[0].equals("toLowerCase")) ) {
            throw new IllegalArgumentException();
        }
        String command = args[0];
        Class str = Class.forName( "java.lang.String" );
        Method m = str.getMethod( command, null );
        Object result = m.invoke( args[1], null );
        System.out.println( result.toString() );
    }
}
```

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Class Objects

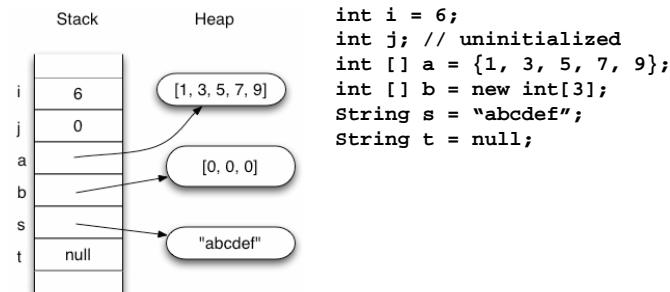
- For each class, there is an object of type **Class**
- Describes the class as a whole
 - used extensively in **Reflection** package
- **Class.forName("MyClass")**
 - returns class object for **MyClass**
 - will load **MyClass** if needed
- **Class.forName("MyClass").newInstance()**
 - creates a new instance of **MyClass**
- **MyClass.class** gives the **Class** object for **MyClass**

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Objects and Variables

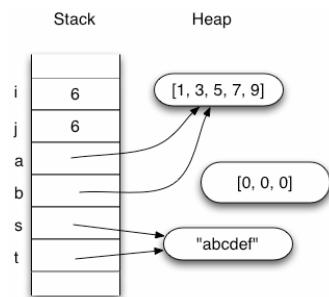
- Variables of a primitive type contain *values*
 - e.g., byte, char, int, ...
 - `int i = 6;`
 - Uninitialized values contain 0
 - Assignment copies values
- Variables of other types contain *references* to the heap
 - `int[] a = new int[3];`
 - Objects are allocated with `new`
 - Uninitialized object references are `null`
 - Assignment copies *references*, not the objects themselves²⁹

Example



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Example: Assignments



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Garbage Collection

- What happens to array [0, 0, 0] in previous example?
 - It is no longer accessible
 - When Java performs *garbage collection* (GC) it will automatically reclaim the memory it uses
- Notice: No `free()` or `delete` in Java
 - Makes it much easier to write correct programs
 - Most of the time, very efficient

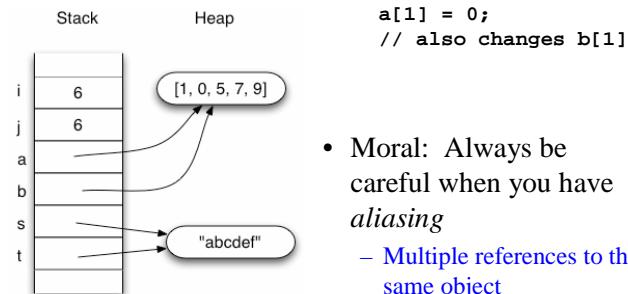
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Mutability

- An object is mutable if its state can change
 - Example: Arrays are mutable
- An object is immutable if its state never changes
 - Once its been initialized
 - Example: Strings in Java are not mutable
 - There are no methods to change the state of a string

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Example: Mutability



- Moral: Always be careful when you have *aliasing*
 - Multiple references to the same object

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Method Invocation

- Syntax
 - o.m(arg1, arg2, ..., argn);
 - Run the **m** method of object **o** with arguments **arg1...argn**
- Two ways to reuse method names:
 - Methods can be overridden
 - Methods can be overloaded

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Overriding

- Define a method also defined by a superclass

```
class Parent {
    int cost;
    void add(int x) {
        cost += x;
    }
}

class Child extends Parent {
    void add(int x) {
        if (x > 0) cost += x;
    }
}
```

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Overriding (cont'd)

- Method with same name and argument types in child class overrides method in parent class
- Arguments and result types must be identical
 - otherwise you are overloading the method
- Must raise the same or fewer exceptions
 - Why?

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Declared vs. Actual Types

- The *actual type* of an object is its allocated type
 - `Integer o = new Integer(1);`
- A *declared type* is a type at which an object is being viewed
 - `Object o = new Integer(1);`
 - `void m(Object o) { ... }`
- Each object always has *one* actual type, but can have *many* declared types

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Method Dispatch

- Consider again
 - `o.m(arg1, arg2, ..., argn);`
- Only compiles if **o**'s declared type contains an appropriate **m** method
- Method corresponding to **o**'s actual type is what is invoked

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Dynamic Dispatch Example

```
public class A {  
    String f() { return "I'm an A! "; }  
}  
  
public class B extends A {  
    String f() { return "I'm a B! "; }  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        A a = new B();  
        B b = new B();  
        System.out.println(a.f() + b.f());  
    }  
}
```

Prints `I'm a B! I'm a B!`

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Self Reference

- **this** refers to the object the method is invoked on
 - Thus can access fields of this object as `this.x` or `this.y`
 - But more concise to omit
- **super** refers to the same object as **this**
 - But used to access methods/variables in superclass

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Example of super

- Call a superclass method from a subclass

```
class Parent {           class Child extends Parent {  
    int cost;           void add(int x) {  
    void add(int x) {   if (x > 0) super.add(x);  
        cost += x;     }  
    }                   }  
}
```

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Overloading

- Methods with the same name, but different parameters (count or types) are overloaded
 - Invocation determined by name and types of params
 - Not return value or exceptions
- Resolved at **compile-time**, based on declared types
- Be careful: Easy to inadvertently overload instead of override!

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Overloading Example

```
class Parent {  
    int cost;  
    void add(int x) {  
        cost += x;  
    }  
    void add(Object s) throws NumberFormatException {  
        cost += Integer.parseInt((String)s);  
    }  
}  
class Child extends Parent {  
    void add(String s) throws NumberFormatException {  
        if (x > 0) cost += Integer.parseInt(s);  
    }  
}  
Child c = new Child();  
c.add((Object)-1);  
System.out.println(c.cost);
```

Prints -1

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Static Fields and Methods

- *static* – stored “with the class”
 - Static fields allocated once, no matter how many objects created
 - Static methods are not specific to any class instance, so cannot refer to **this** or **super**
- Can reference class variables and methods through either class name or an object ref
 - Clearer to reference via the class name

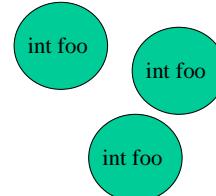
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Static Field Example

Class definition

```
Public class Foo {  
    int foo;  
    static int bar;  
}
```

Objects of class Foo



Class implementation

Foo

int bar;

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Some Static Fields and Methods

- public **static** void main(String args[]) { ... }
- public class Math {
 public final **static** PI = 3.14159...;
}
- public class System {
 public **static** PrintStream out = ...;
}

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Static Method Dispatch

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Static Method Dispatch Example

```
public class A {  
    static String g() { return "This is A! "; }  
}  
public class B extends A {  
    static String g() { return "This is B! "; }  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        A a = new B();  
        B b = new B();  
        System.out.println(a.g() + b.g());  
    }  
}
```

Prints This is A! This is B!

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Better Use of Static Methods

```
public class A {  
    static String g() { return "This is A! "; }  
}  
public class B extends A {  
    static String g() { return "This is B! "; }  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
  
        System.out.println(A.g() + B.g());  
    }  
}
```

Prints This is A! This is B!

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Other Field Modifiers

- *final* – can't be changed
 - Must be initialized in declaration or in constructor
- *transient, volatile*
 - Will cover later
- *public, private, protected, package* (default)
 - Respectively, visible everywhere, only within this class, within same package or subclass, within same package

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Other Method Modifiers

- *final* – this method cannot be overridden
 - Useful for security
 - Allows compiler to inline method
- *abstract* – no implementation provided
 - Class must be abstract
- *public* – visible outside this package
- *native, synchronized*
 - Will cover later

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Poor man's polymorphism

- Every object is a subtype of **Object**
- Thus, a data structure **Set** that implements sets of **Objects**
 - can also hold **Strings**
 - or images
 - or ... anything!
- The trick is getting them back out:
 - When given an **Object**, you have to downcast it

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Subtyping

- Both inheritance and interfaces allow one class to be used where another is specified
 - This is really the same idea: **subtyping**
- We say that **A** is a *subtype* of **B** if
 - **A** extends **B** or a subtype of **B**, or
 - **A** implements **B** or a subtype of **B**

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Downcasting

- **(Bar) foo**
 - Run-time exception if object reference by **foo** is not a subtype of **Bar**
 - Compile-time error if **Bar** is not a subtype of **foo** (i.e., it always throws an exception)
 - No effect at run-time; just treats the result as if it were of type **Bar**
- **o instanceof Foo** returns true iff **o** is a subtype of **Foo**

```
void m1(Object object) {  
    if (object instanceof String) {  
        // it is now safe to cast it  
        String astr = (String) object; } }
```

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Example

```
class DumbSet {  
    public void insert(Object o) {...}  
    public boolean member(Object o) {...}  
    public Object any() {...}  
}  
  
class MyProgram {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        DumbSet set = new DumbSet();  
        String s1 = "foo";  
        String s2 = "bar";  
        set.insert(s1);  
        set.insert(s2);  
        System.out.println(s1+" in set? "+set.member(s1));  
        String s = (String)set.any(); // downcast  
        System.out.println("got "+s);  
    } }
```

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Java Classes and Objects

- Each object is an instance of a class
 - An array is an object
- Each class extends *one* superclass
 - **Object** if not specified
 - Class **Object** has no superclass

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Objects Have Methods

- All objects, therefore, inherit them
 - Default implementations may not be the ones you want

public boolean **equals** (Object that) – “conceptual” equality
public String **toString**() – returns printable representation
public int **hashCode**() – key for hash table
public void **finalize**() – called if object is garbage collected

– And others ...

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Equality

- Object **equals**(Object) method
 - Structural (“conceptual”) equality
- **==** operator (**!=** as well)
 - True if arguments reference the same object
 - **o == p** implies **o.equals(p)**

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Overriding Equals

```
class Foo {  
    public boolean equals(Foo f) { ... } // wrong!  
}  
  
class Foo {  
    public boolean equals(Object o) { // right!  
        if (!(o instanceof Foo))  
            return false;  
        ...  
    }  
}
```

The first case creates an *overloaded* method, while the second *overrides* the parent (**Object**) method.

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Overriding hashCode

- **hashCode()** is used for objects that may be stored in hash table
- Rule of thumb: If you override **equals()** or **hashCode()**, you should also override the other
 - **a.equals(b)** implies **a.hashCode() == b.hashCode()**
 - The default implementation of **equals()** in Object class simply checks if two object references x and y refer to the same object. i.e. It checks if **x == y**. This particular comparison is also known as "shallow comparison". However, the classes providing their own implementations of the equals method are supposed to perform a "deep comparison"; by actually comparing the relevant data members. Since Object class has no data members that define its state, it simply performs shallow comparison.

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Preconditions

- Functions often have requirements on their inputs

```
// Return maximum element in A[i..j]
int findMax(int[] A, int i, int j) { ... }



- A is non-empty
- i and j must be non-negative
- i and j must be less than A.length
- i < j (maybe)


- These are called preconditions or requires clauses

```

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Dealing with Errors

- What do you do if a precondition isn't met?
- What do you do if something unexpected happens?
 - Try to open a file that doesn't exist
 - Try to write to a full disk

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Signaling Errors

- Style 1: Return invalid value

```
// Returns value key maps to, or null if no
// such key in map
Object get(Object key);
```

- Disadvantages?

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Signaling Errors (cont'd)

- Style 2: Return an invalid value and status

```
static int lock_rdev(mdk_rdev_t *rdev) {
    ...
    if (bdev == NULL)
        return -ENOMEM;
    ...
}

// Returns NULL if error and sets global
// variable errno
FILE *fopen(const char *path, const char *mode);
```

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Problems with These Approaches

- What if all possible return values are valid?
- What if client forgets to check for error?
 - No compiler support
- What if client can't handle error?
 - Needs to be dealt with at a higher level

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Exceptions in Java

- On an error condition, we *throw* an exception
- At some point up the call chain, the exception is *caught* and the error is handled
- Separates normal from error-handling code
- A form of non-local control-flow
 - Like *goto*, but structured

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Throwing an Exception

- Create a new object of the class **Exception**, and **throw** it

```
if (i >= 0 && i < a.length )
    return a[i];
else throw new ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException();
```

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Method throws declarations

- A method declares the exceptions it might throw
 - `public void openNext() throws UnknownHostException, EmptyStackException { ... }`
- Must declare any exception the method might throw
 - Unless it is caught in (masked by) the method
 - Includes exceptions thrown by called methods
 - Certain kinds of exceptions excluded

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Exception Handling

- All exceptions eventually get caught
- First **catch** with supertype of the exception catches it
- **finally** is always executed

```
try { if (i == 0) return; myMethod(a[i]); }
catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
    System.out.println("a[] out of bounds"); }
catch (MyOwnException e) {
    System.out.println("Caught my error"); }
catch (Exception e) {
    System.out.println("Caught" + e.toString()); throw e; }
finally { /* stuff to do regardless of whether an exception */
    /* was thrown or a return taken */ }
```

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Masking Exceptions

- Handle exception and continue

```
while ((s = ...) != null) {
    try {
        FileInputStream f =
            new FileInputStream(s);
        ...
    }
    catch (FileNotFoundException e) {
        System.out.println(s + " not found");
    }
}
```

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Reflecting Exceptions

- Pass exception up to higher level
 - Automatic support for throwing same exception
 - Sometimes useful to throw different exception

```
try {
    ...
    a[5] ...
}
catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
    throw new EmptyException("Arrays.min");
}
```

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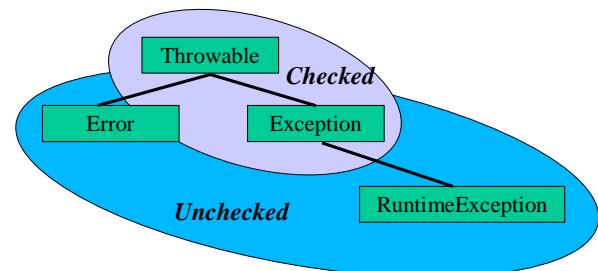
Exception Chaining

- Indicate the cause of a thrown exception
 - Specify the exception that caused this one
 - Shows cause chain in stack trace

```
try {
    ...
    a[0] ...
}
catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
    // e can be retrieved from getCause()
    throw new Exception("Arrays.min", e);
}
```

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Exception Hierarchy



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Unchecked Exceptions

- Subclasses of **RuntimeException** and **Error** are unchecked
 - Need not be listed in method specifications
- Currently used for things like
 - **NullPointerException**
 - **IndexOutOfBoundsException**
 - **VirtualMachineError**
- Is this a good design?

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