Week 7

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Recap: Interface vs. Abstract Class

Interface

- Methods can be declared but No method bodies
- Constant can be declared
- Has no constructors
- Multiple inheritance possible
- Has no top interface
- Multiple "parent" interfaces

Abstract class

- Methods can be declared and method bodies can be defined
- All types of variables can be declared
- Can have constructors
- Multiple inheritance not possible
- Always inherits from Object
- Only one parent class

Recap: Inheritance vs SubTyping

Inheritance

- Used to reuse code from one class in another.
- Works with method and variable definitions.
- Relation between classes.
- Achieved by using the extends keyword (in java).

Subtyping

- Used to pass one type in place of another.
- Works with API intefaces.

- Relation between types.
- Achieved by using the extends or implements keyword.

Static Overloading vs Dynamic dispatch

- Every method call is dynamically dispatched in Java.
- Dynamic dispatch looks at calling objects.
- Since a subtype object can be passed instead of a parent type, the object in hand could belong to either the parent type or any of its subtype.
- The method called on the object is always the one that is defined closest to its actual type.
- Overriding is a result of dynamic dispatch.
- Within a class, the parameters are disambiguated using Static Overloading.

```
class A {
void callme() {
 System.out.println("Inside A's callme method");
class B extends A {
void callme() {
 System.out.println("Inside B's callme method");
class C extends A {
void callme() {
 System.out.println("Inside C's callme method");
```

```
class Dispatch {
public static void main(String args[]) {
 A = \text{new } A(); // \text{ object of type } A
 B b = new B(); // object of type B
 C c = new C(); // object of type C
 A r; // obtain a reference of type A
 r = a; // r refers to an A object
 r.callme(); // calls A's version of callme
 r = b; // r refers to a B object
 r.callme(); // calls B's version of callme
 r = c; // r refers to a C object
 r.callme(); // calls C's version of callme
```

• Example 2 (Java test code)

Understanding Java's Memory model

Objects always are on the heap.

Variables are on the stack.

Variables can only store references (pointers) to objects.

• The dot (.) operator is actually a pointer dereference to access object fields.

- C c1 = new C();
 - Here c1 is a pointer to an object on the heap.
- C c2 = c1;
 - Now c2 points to the exact same object that c1 points to.
- Now if I make any change to c1, c2 has the same change (and vice versa)!
- The only way to create a copy of the old object is to create a new object
 - using the "new" keyword with a constructor that is passed an older object of the same type.
 - the clone function.

```
class Int {
  public int val;
                                      i=new Int(123); j=new Int(3456);
 public Int(int val) {
   this.val = val:
                                      a) i.swap_with_1(j);
 void swap_with_1(Int j) {
                                      Ans: i.val =3456, j.val =3456
   int value = this.val;
   this.val = j.val;
   j = new Int(value);
                                      b) i.swap with 2(j);
 void swap_with_2(Int j) {
                                      Ans: i.val = 123, j.val = 123
   Int j_copy = j;
   j.val = this.val;
   this.val = j_copy.val;
                                      c) i.swap with 3(j);
 void swap_with_3(Int j) {
                                      Ans: i.val = 3456, j.val = 123
   this.val += j.val;
   j.val = this.val - j.val;
   this.val -= j.val;
 }}
```

Understanding Java Primitives

- All Java primitives have wrapper classes that can convert the primitive to the equivalent class.
 - int -> Integer
 - double -> Double
- All generic classes use the reference classes for type parameters rather than the primitives.
- The primitives can be converted to the wrapped objects and vice-versa by auto-boxing and auto-unboxing.
- == : referential equivalence
- .equals(): value equivalence/logical equivalence

Let I be a list with elements 3 -> 4 -> 5. get(i) returns the ith element of the list.

- Q: System.out.println(3 == l.get(0).intValue())
- -> true
- Q: System.out.println(3 == l.get(0))
- -> true
- Q: System.out.println(new Integer(3) == l.get(0))
- -> false
- Q: System.out.println(new Integer(3).equals(l.get(0)))
- -> true
- Q: System.out.println(l.get(0).equals(l.get(0)))
- -> true

Java's Parametric Polymorphism (Generics)

```
    List without Generics:

interface myList{
 boolean contains(Object o);
 void add(Object o);
 Object get(int i);
                                                   l.add("hi");
class myListImpl implements myList{...}
```

```
myList I = new myListImpl();
  l.add("hi");
  String s = l.get(0);
    Compiler complains about Object and
    String not being the same type!
myList I = new myListImpl();
String s = (String)l.get(0);
             Compiler happy!
```

List without Generics:

```
interface myList{
  boolean contains(Object o);
  void add(Object o);
  Object get(int i);
}
```

class myListImpl implements myList{...}

```
myList I = new myListImpl();
l.add("hi");
Integer s = (Integer) l.get(0);

Compiler is happy!
```

But at runtime the cast fails!

Hence Generics!

• List without Generics:

```
interface myList<T>{
  boolean contains(T o);
  void add(T o);
  T get(int i);
}
```

class myListImpl implements myList{...}

```
myList I = new
myListImpl<String>();
l.add("hi");
l.add(1);
String $ = l.get(0);
```

Does not compile as Integers and Strings are not the same type

So Generics gives us:

- Stronger type checks at compile time.
- If the generic version type checks, then all instantiations will work perfectly!
- No need to cast clients.
- Programmers can write generic code!

Type Erasure

• Explicit type annotation are removed from a program

```
ArrayList<Integer> li = new ArrayList<Integer>();
ArrayList<Float> lf = new ArrayList<Float>();
System.out.println(li.getClass()); // class java.util.ArrayList
System.out.println(lf.getClass()); // class java.util.ArrayList
if (li.getClass() == lf.getClass()) { // evaluates to true
    System.out.println("Equal");
}
```

Java's first class functions

Java doesn't technically have first-class functions.

Java can simulate first-class functions to a certain extent, with anonymous classes and generic function interface.

Writing my own compare

Method 1:

```
    class Reverse implements Comparator<String>{
        public int compare(String s1, String s2){
            return s2.compareTo(s1)
        }
}
```

Collections.sort(l, new Reverse());

Method 2:

Method 3:

Collections.sort(I, (String s1, String s2)-> s2.compareTo(s1));

Method 4:

Collections.sort(l, (s1, s2)-> s2.compareTo(s1));

Peek into next week: Parallelization

- Automatic parallelization, also auto parallelization, autoparallelization, or parallelization, the
 last one of which implies automation when used in context, refers to converting sequential code
 into multi-threaded or vectorized (or even both) code in order to utilize multiple processors
 simultaneously in a shared-memory multiprocessor (SMP) machine.
- The goal of automatic parallelization is to relieve programmers from the hectic and error-prone manual parallelization process.
- Though the quality of automatic parallelization has improved in the past several decades, fully automatic parallelization of sequential programs by compilers remains a grand challenge due to its need for complex program analysis and the unknown factors (such as input data range) during compilation.
- Your operations must be state independent and associative in order to achieve parallelism.

```
public class SumStream{
        public static void main(String[] args){
                 int size = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);
                 int[] a = new int[size];
                 for (int i=0; i<size; i++)
                          a[i]=i;
                 int sum = Arrays.stream(a).reduce(0, (i1,i2) -> i1+i2);
                 // to parallelize :
                 // int sum = Arrays.stream(a).parallel(l).reduce(0, (i1,i2) -> i1+i2);
                 System.out.println(sum);
```