

CFS2160: Software Design and Development



Lecture 12: Objects All Around

Plus one last loop.

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Objects



Java makes sense when you believe that *everything* is an object.

But, there are things that are not objects - int, double, boolean - and some of Java's heritage lurks behind the scenes.

Today we will fill in some of the details that will explain all of this.

Strings

String is, as we know, a class.

It is defined in the java. lang package.

All the details are in the docs.

https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/api/java/lang/String.html

There are a few small details that can cause problems for the uninitiated.

Testing Equality



A common need is to test a variable's value to see if it equals some value of interest.

For a primitive type (int, double, boolean), this is easy as long as we remember the "double equals":

It is slightly more complicated with Strings (because they are objects).

Testing Equality



A common need is to test a variable's value to see if it equals some value of interest.

For a primitive type (int, double, boolean), this is easy as

long as we remember the "double eq

if (input ==

It is slightly more complicated with objects).

This is as good a moment as any
to point of that this:
if (input = 1) {
is perfectly fine, and is sometimes
what is needed.
(It's True here.)

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.



```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Bob", 35);
Person p2 = new Person ("Jim", 46);
```

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are clearly not in any sense equal.

```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Bob", 35);
Person p2 = new Person ("Jim", 46);
```

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are equal in the sense that they contain the same values, but they are not identical in that they are different objects.



```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Alf", 56);
Person p2 = new Person ("Alf", 56);
```

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are equal in the sense that they contain the same values, but they are not identical in that they are different objects.



```
public class Person {
```

```
private String name;
private int age;
```

Last week we saw how to define comparison for classes like this. Equality can be defined in much the same way.

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are *identical*. The two identifiers point to the same object.



```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Alf", 56);
Person p2 = p1;
```

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are *identical*. The two identifiers point to the same object.

(So now changing the values in p1 will now also change the values in p2.)



```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Alf", 55);
Person p2 = p1;
```

Suppose we have this very simple class.

A "Person" is represented by a String and an integer.

These two Person objects are *identical*. The two identifiers point to the same object area of memory.

(So now changing the values in p1 will now also change the values in p2.)



```
public class Person {
  private String name;
  private int age;
Person p1 = new Person ("Alf", 55);
Person p2 = p1;
```

Comparing Strings

So, there are two ways to compare objects:

- Test Identity.
- Test Equality.

Usually, with Strings, you probably want the second.



```
String foo, bar;

// Test Identity
if (foo == bar) {

// Test Equality
if (foo.equals (bar)) {

// Test Literal Value
if (foo.equals ("baz")) {
```

Comparing Strings

So, there are two ways to compare objects:

- Test Identity.
- Test Equality.

Closely related to what we did last week with a compareTo method is defining an equals method for any class.



```
String foo, bar;

// Test Identity
if (foo == bar) {

// Test Equality
if (foo.equals (bar)) {

// Test Literal Value
if (foo.equals ("baz")) {
```



As we know, Java supports several *primitive* types:

int, boolean, double, float ...

Each of these also has a convenient "wrapper class" that does basically the same thing, but in an object-oriented way.

This is useful in cases where an object is required, but the value is in a primitive-type variable.



As we know, Java supports several *primitive* types:

int, boolean, double, float ...

Each of these also has a convenient "wrapper class" that does basically the same thing, but in an object-oriented way.

Conversion between corresponding classes is usually automatic: called *autoboxing* and *unboxing*.

The wrapper class for int is called Integer.



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If the value is used in a context of a primitive type, it is *unboxed*:



```
Integer i = new Integer (10);
i ++;
```

The wrapper class for int is called Integer.

If the value is used in a context of a primitive type, it is *unboxed*.

If a wrapper class is assigned a primitive value, it is *autoboxed*:

```
Integer i = new Integer (10);
i ++;
Integer j;
j = 1;
if (j.equals (1)) {
  // Code executes.
```

A common use case is to convert a String (entered from the keyboard, say) into a numerical value.



```
Scanner in = new Scanner (System.in);
System.out.print ("Enter a Number: ");
String entered = in.nextLine ();
Integer num = Integer.parseInt (entered);
num *= 2;
System.out.println (num);
```

A common use case is to convert a String (entered from the keyboard, say) into a numerical value.

If the conversion fails, an Exception will be generated, so we can check if the user did enter a number.

But we haven't done Exceptions yet.



```
Scanner in = new Scanner (System.in);
System.out.print ("Enter a Number: ");
String entered = in.nextLine ();
Integer num = Integer.parseInt (entered);
num *= 2;
System.out.println (num);
```

Exception

```
Scanner in = new Scanner (System.in);
System.out.print ("Enter a Number: ");
String entered = in.nextLine ();
try {
  Integer num = Integer.parseInt (entered);
  num *= 2;
  System.out.println (num);
catch (NumberFormatException e) {
  System.out.println ("Enter a Number!");
```

Iteration



We are familiar with *iteration*:

- Scanning a collection to find a matching object.
- > Listing all the entries in a collection.

We have met *determinate* and *indeterminate* iteration, along with the Java code to achieve them.

There is one further (object-oriented) alternative ...

Iterator

Collections have an iterator method.

It returns an Iterator object.

The Iterator class has three methods:

- ➤ boolean hasNext ()
- ➤ E next ()
- > void remove ()



Iterator



```
Iterator <ElementType> it = myCollection.iterator ();
while (it.hasNext ()) {
   // Call it.next () to get the next object.
   // Do something with that object.
}
```

Iterator



```
Iterator <ElementType> it = myCollection.iterator ();
while (it.hasNext ()) {
  // Call it.next () to get the ng
  // Do something with that object
                                         So an iterator is an object that
                                          can iterate through a collection.
                                          (This is basically the same as a
                                                 for-each loop.)
```

So, given a simple class representing "Jobs" in a "to-do" application.



```
private String title;
```

public class Job {

So, given a simple class representing "Jobs" in a "to-do" application.

And another that represents the list of jobs to do.



```
public class Job {
   private String title;
   private int priority;
   private boolean finished;

public class ToDoList {
   private ArrayList <Job> jobs;
```

So, given a simple class representing "Jobs" in a "to-do" application.

And another that represents the list of jobs to do.

An iterator can be used to print out all the jobs.



```
public void listAllJobs () {
   Iterator <Job> it = jobs.iterator ();
   while (it.hasNext ()) {
      Job j = it.next ();
      System.out.println (j);
   }
}
```

So, given a simple class representing "Jobs" in a "to-do" application.

And another that represents the list of jobs to do.

Or to purge (remove, delete) all the completed jobs.



```
public void listAllJobs () {
  Iterator <Job> it = jobs.iterator ();
 while (it.hasNext ()) {
    Job j = it.next ();
    if (j.isFinished ()) {
      it.remove ();
```

Collections: Arrays

Java provides a rich set of "Collections".

(So do many other modern languages.)

An array is an older collection type, still available in Java, and worth knowing about because it is ubiquitous.

Arrays exist in C (and C++) and Java follows much the same syntax.

Collections: Arrays

Java provides a rich set of "Collections".



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worth knowing about because it is u

Arrays exist in C (and C++) and Java syntax.

Python doesn't really have arrays (Lists are a bit like them), but there will always be something array-like in any language.

Collections: Arrays

Java provides a rich set of "Collections".



(So do many other modern languages.)

An array is an older collection type, still available in Java, and

worth knowing about because it is u

Arrays exist in C (and C++) and Java syntax.

Most of the time ArrayList (or List) are what you need in Java, but there is one case where an old-style array can be useful.

Fixed-size Collections



Sometimes the maximum collection size can be predetermined.

A special fixed-size collection type is available: an array.

Unlike the flexible *List* collections, arrays can store object references or primitive-type values.

Arrays use a special syntax.

Fixed-size Collections



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Arrays use a special syntax.

If you want an ArrayList of integers, you actually need an ArrayList of Integers.

Fixed-size Collections



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A special fixed-size collection type is available: an array.

Unlike the flexible *List* collections, ar references or primitive-type values.

Arrays use a special syntax.

This is not valid:
ArrayList <int> marks;

This is valid:
ArrayList <Integer> marks;

Suppose we wanted to store the number of hits to a website over 24 hours.

Say we have some logs and need to analyse them.



Suppose we wanted to store the number of hits to a website over 24 hours.

An array can be used here because we want to store a fixed amount of a primitive type.



```
public class LogAnalyzer () {
  private int [] hourCounts;
```

Suppose we wanted to store the number of hits to a website over 24 hours.

An array can be used here because we want to store a fixed amount of a primitive type.

It's created in the constructor.



```
public class LogAnalyzer () {
  private int [] hourCounts;

  public LogAnalyzer () {
    hourCounts = new int [24];
```

Suppose we wanted to store the number of hits to a website over 24 hours.

An array can be used here because we want to store a fixed number of a primitive type.

It can be visualised like this.



```
public class LogAnalyzer () {
  private int [] hourCounts;
  public LogAnalyzer () {
    hourCounts = new int [24];
 hourCounts
                  : int[]
```

Elements in the array are referenced using [].



hourCounts [1]

Elements in the array are referenced using [].

Elements can be used just like any other variable.



```
hourCounts [1]
hourCounts [1] = 0;
hourCounts [3] ++;
adjusted = hourCounts [8] - 3;
```

Elements in the array are referenced using [].

Elements can be used just like any other variable.

The value in the brackets is the *index*. It can be a variable too.



```
hourCounts [1]
hourCounts [1] = 0;
hourCounts [3] ++;
adjusted = hourCounts [8] - 3;
int busy = 7;
System.out.println (hourCounts [busy]);
```

Elements in the array are referenced using [].

Elements can be used just like any other variable.

The value in the brackets is the *index*. It can be a variable too.



```
hourCounts [1] = 0;
hourCounts [3] ++;
ad

As we might expect, the lowest index is zero.

y]);
```

The highest index is therefore one

less that the array's size.

It is often a good idea to store the size of the array in a constant.

Suppose we want to find the mean of six marks on a test.

This would work, but is a *bad thing* to do.



marks = new int [6];

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Suppose we want to find the mean of six marks on a test.

This would work, but is a *bad thing* to do.

This is much better, because we can now easily change the number of marks.



```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

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Suppose we want to find the mean of six marks on a test.

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```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

To see why, we need to meet the final type of loop.

There are two variations of the for loop:

- ➤ for-each
- > for

The "for loop" is often used to iterate a fixed number of times.

It is often used to iterate over every element of an array ...

```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

There are two variations of the for loop:

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The "for loop" is often used to iterate a fixed number of times.

It is often used to iterate over every element of an array ...

```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

Here we will want to iterate 6 NUMBER_OF_MARKS times.

There are two variations of the for loop:

- ➤ for-each
- > for

The "for loop" is often used to iterate a fixed number of times.

It is often used to iterate over every element of an array ...

```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

A for loop can always be written as a while loop.
It's basically a shorthand for a very common case.



A for loop is defined like so:

```
for (initial; condition; post-action)
    Statements
Which is identical to:
initial;
while (condition) {
   // Statements
  post-action;
```

```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
```

It's probably easier to see with an example.



```
final int NUMBER_OF_MARKS = 6;

marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];

for (int i = 0; i < 6; i ++) {
    // Process the i'th element.
}</pre>
```

Average Mark



```
Scanner in = new Scanner (System.in);
int [] marks;
marks = new int [NUMBER_OF_MARKS];
for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_MARKS; i ++) {</pre>
    System.out.print ("Enter a Mark: ");
    marks [i] = in.nextInt ();
int totalMarks = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_MARKS; i ++) {</pre>
    totalMarks += marks [i];
System.out.println ("Average Mark: " + totalMarks / (NUMBER_OF_MARKS * 1.0));
```

Assessment

There is no log book this term.

This means that I can show you my solutions to the practicals.

But remember that there are many ways to write a program, so just copying code from mine will probably not work ...

IntelliJ Demo Time



