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# Introduction to Java (cs2514)

## Lecture 9: Abstract Classes

M. R. C. van Dongen

February 13, 2017

## Outline

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- Learn how to create abstract classes, which cannot be extended.
- Decide class membership with `instanceof`.
- Learn how to override some common methods:
  - `toString( )`;
  - `equals( )`;
- Control inheritance with `final` classes and methods.
- We study *multiple inheritance*:
  - We start with a case study;
  - We see advantages and disadvantages of different designs;
  - We end up with a disastrous design complication;
  - We learn how overcome the complication.
- We study the *strategy design pattern*:
  - Defines a class of related algorithms;
  - Encapsulates them;
  - Makes them interchangeable.
- We learn three design principles:
  - Encapsulate what varies;
  - Program to an interface;
  - Favour composition over inheritance.

# Abstract Classes

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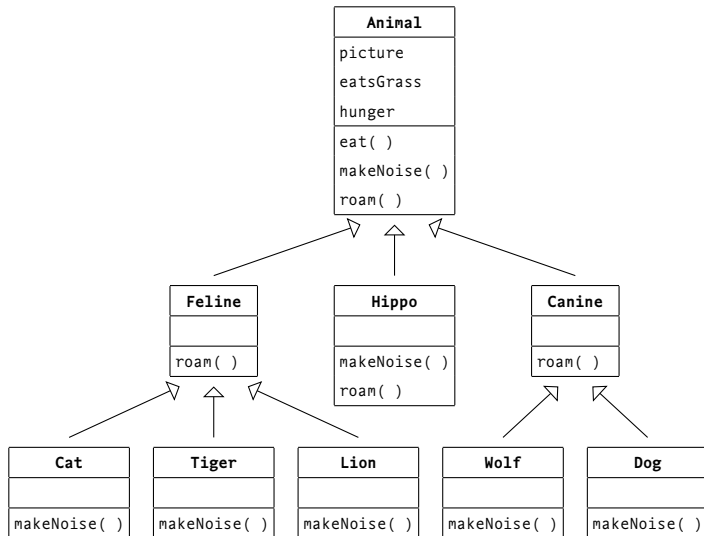
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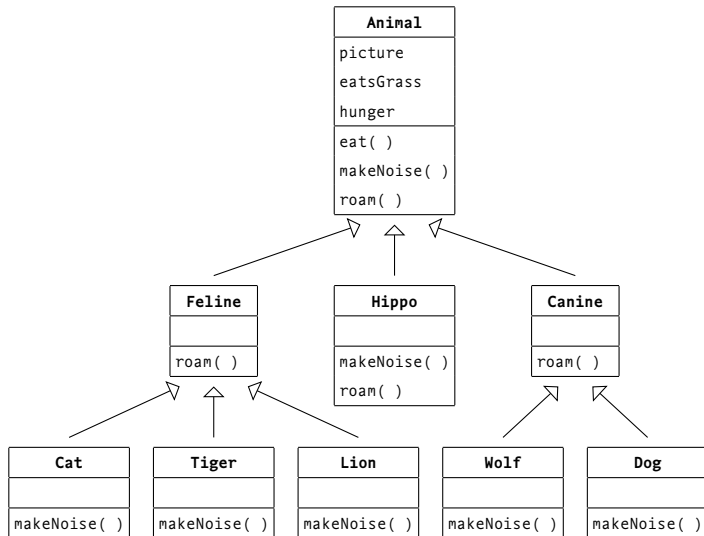
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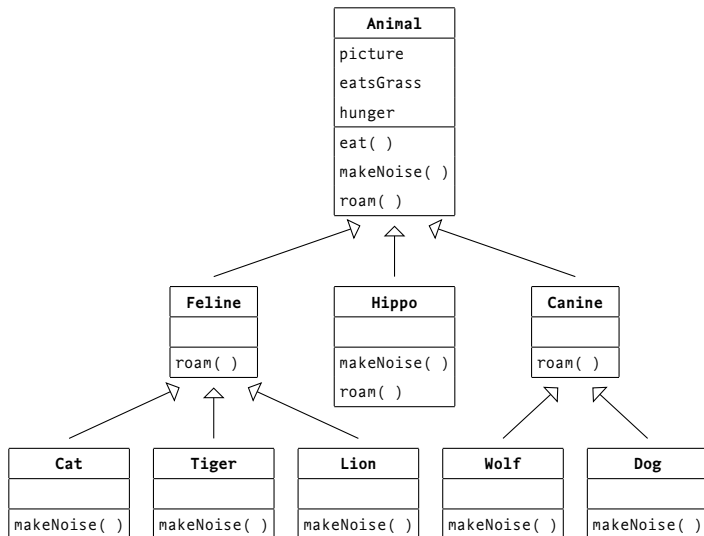
# Abstract Classes

```
Hippo hippo = new Hippo( )
```



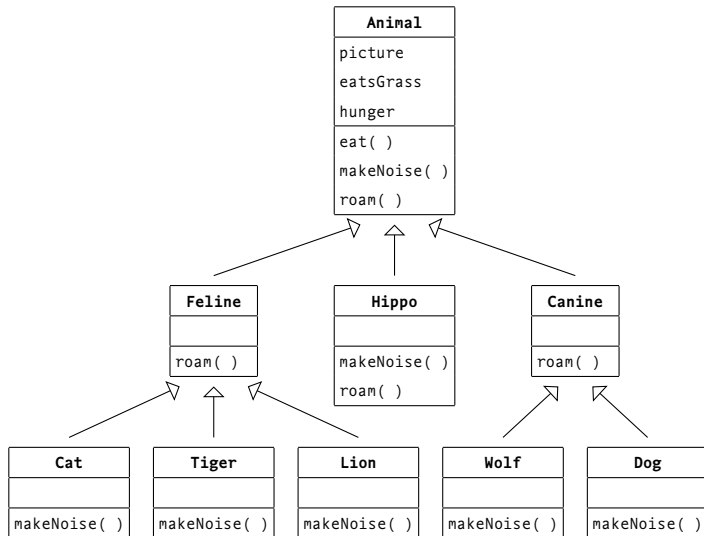
# Abstract Classes

Hippo hippo = new Hippo( ) ✓



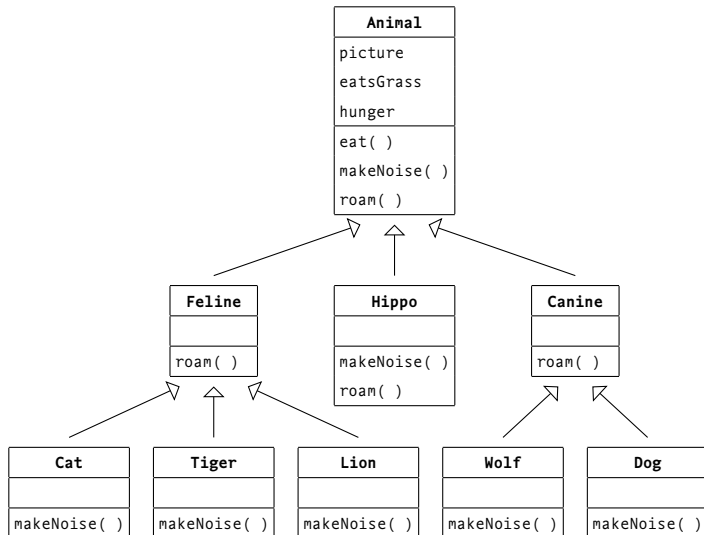
# Abstract Classes

```
Cat cat = new Cat( )
```



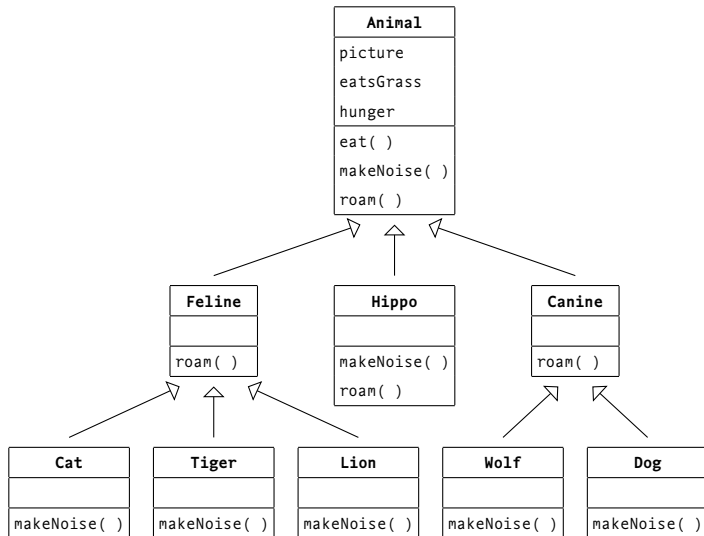
# Abstract Classes

```
Cat cat = new Cat( ) ✓
```



# Abstract Classes

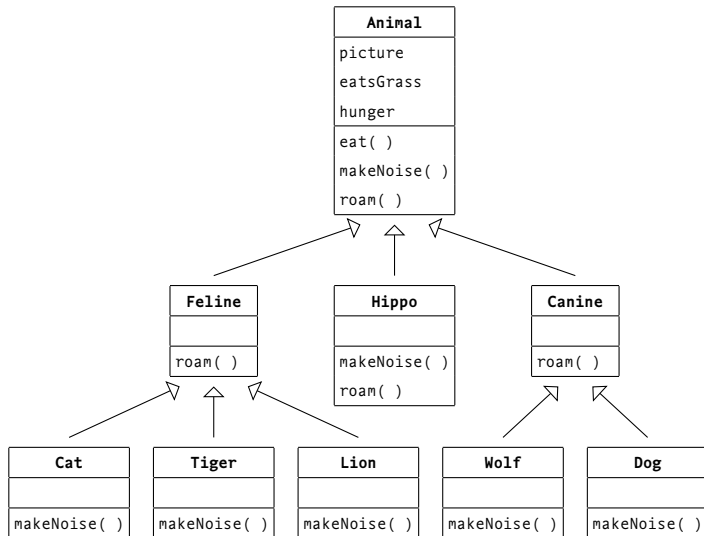
```
Animal animal = new Cat( )
```





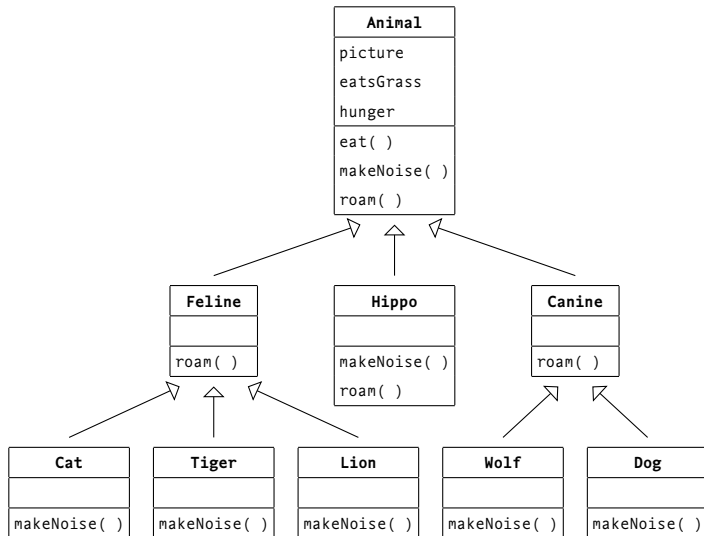
# Abstract Classes

Animal animal = new Cat( ) ✓



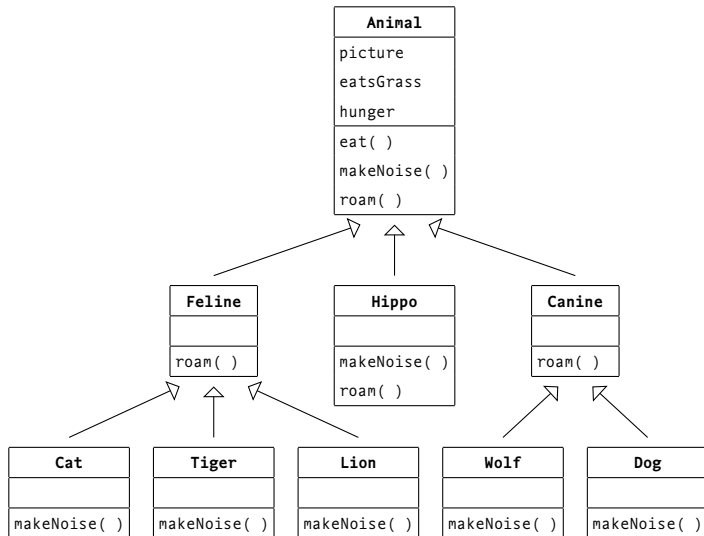
# Abstract Classes

```
Animal animal = new Animal( )
```



# Abstract Classes

```
Animal animal = new Animal( )???
```



# Why do we Need the Animal Class?

- We need it for inheritance, so we can:
  - Share common code, and
  - Define a common API for `Animals`.
- We need it for polymorphism, so we can:
  - Write code that will still work if we add subclasses.

# Some Classes Should Never be Instantiated

- We never wanted the `Animal` class to be instantiated.
- We want `Cat` and `Dog` objects, but not `Animal` objects.
- The spell `abstract` prevents classes from being instantiated.

## Java

```
public abstract class Animal {  
    ...  
}
```

- Now `javac` won't let you instantiate abstract classes:

## Don't Try This at Home

```
Animal animal = new Animal( );
```

# Subclasses can be Abstract Too

## Java

```
public abstract class Canine extends Animal {  
    ...  
}
```

# Abstract and Concrete Classes

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- A class is *abstract* if it's defined with the keyword `abstract`.
- Otherwise it is *concrete*.

# Abstract and Concrete Classes (Continued)

- You can still use abstract polymorphic reference variables.

## Java

```
Dog dog = new Dog( );  
Cat cat = new Cat( );  
Animal animal = dog;  
animal = cat;
```

- But, you can only instantiate concrete classes.

## Java

```
Cat cat = new Cat( );  
Animal dog = new Dog( );
```

- Instantiating an abstract base class *array* is also allowed.

## Java

```
Animal[] animals = new Animal[ 3 ];
```



# Abstract Methods

- Java also has *abstract methods*.
  - They are defined in abstract classes,
  - They are defined with the keyword `abstract`, and
  - They have no body.

## Java

```
public abstract void roam( );
```

# Why Have Abstract Methods

- Abstract classes *must* be *extended*.
- Abstract methods *must* be *overridden*.
  - They define the nature of the common protocol.
  - They don't require a default implementation.
  - Saves you from forgetting to implement proper behaviour.

# Why Have Abstract Methods

- Abstract classes *must* be *extended*.
- Abstract methods *must* be *overridden*.
  - They define the nature of the common protocol. ✓
  - They don't require a default implementation. ✓
  - Saves you from forgetting to implement proper behaviour. ✓

# Implementing Abstract Methods

- Abstract methods have no body.
  - They only occur in abstract classes.
  - They have no default behaviour.
- Each concrete subclass needs the behaviour for its API.
- Therefore, you *have to* implement the abstract method.
- You implement an abstract method by providing a body.
  - This is called *overriding* the method.
  - This may be done in any class on the shortest path from concrete class to the abstract class that defines the abstract method.
  - So, implementing in abstract subclasses is allowed.
  - Of course, a method may be overridden, and overridden, ....

# How does this Work?

## Implementing the Method

### Java

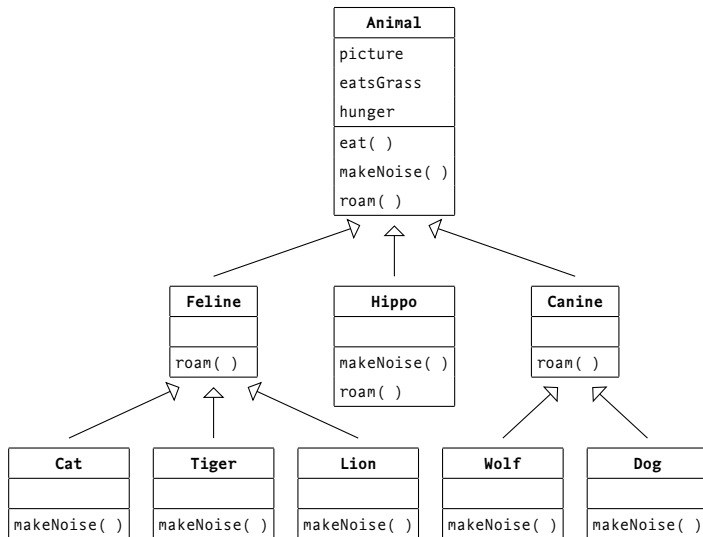
```
public abstract class Animal {  
    public abstract void makeNoise( );  
}
```

### Java

```
public class Dog extends Animal {  
    @Override  
    public void makeNoise( ) { ... }  
}
```

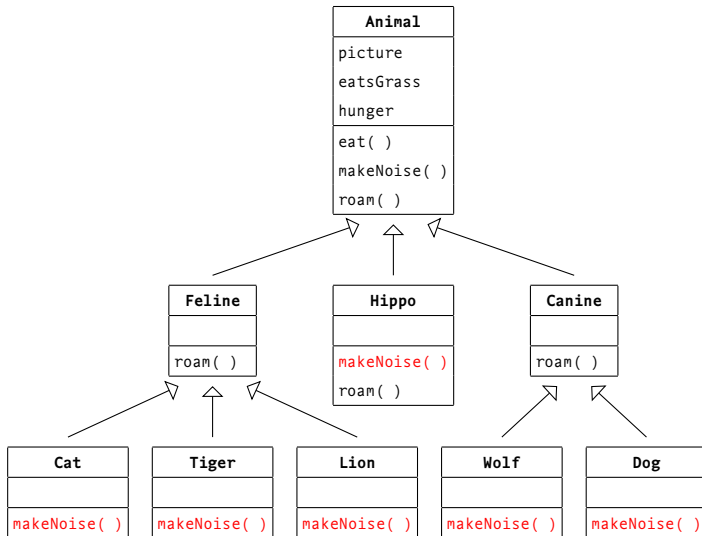
# How does this Work?

## Implementing the Method for all Relevant Classes



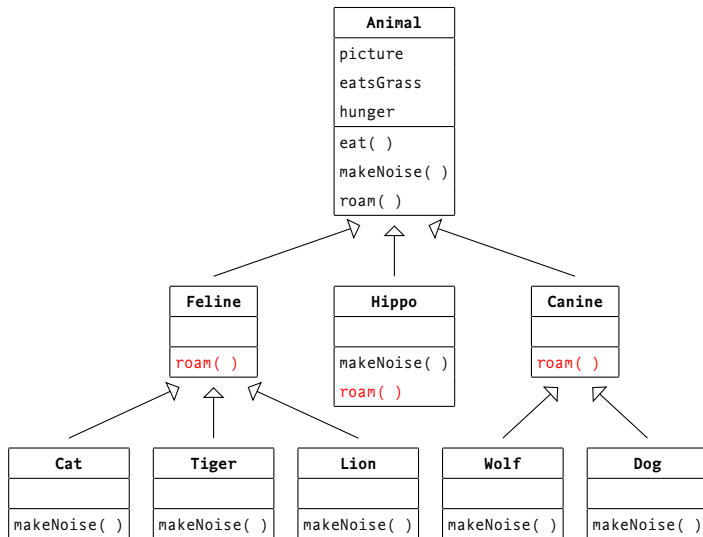
# How does this Work?

## Implementing the Method for all Relevant Classes



# How does this Work?

## Implementing the Method for all Relevant Classes





# The Barber Paradox?

- A barber shaves people who don't shave themselves.
- There's a small town with only one barber.

# The Barber Paradox?

- A barber shaves people who don't shave themselves.
- There's a small town with only one barber.
- Who shaves the barber?

# Deciding Class Membership

- Sometimes you need to decide class/interface membership.
- For example, when a polymorphic variable's type is too loose.

## Java

```
public class Person {  
    public static void main( String[] args ) {  
        final Barber barber = Barber.orderBarber( );  
        final Person person = new Person( );  
        person.shave( );  
        barber.shave( );  
    }  
  
    public void shave( ) {  
        final Person person = this;  
        if (/* person is a Barber */) {  
            final Barber barber = (Barber)person;  
            barber.shaveYourself( );  
        } else {  
            final Barber barber = Barber.orderBarber( );  
            barber.shave( person );  
        }  
    }  
}
```

- More important applications a few slides further on.

# Deciding Class Membership

- Sometimes you need to decide class/interface membership.
- For example, when a polymorphic variable's type is too loose.

## Java

```
public class Barber extends Person {  
    private Barber( ) { }  
  
    public static Barber orderBarber( ) {  
        return new Barber( );  
    }  
  
    public void shaveYourself( ) {  
        System.out.println( "Shaving myself" );  
    }  
  
    public void shave( final Person person ) {  
        System.out.println( "Shaving person" );  
    }  
}
```

- More important applications a few slides further on.

# Deciding Class Membership

- Sometimes you need to decide class/interface membership.
- For example, when a polymorphic variable's type is too loose.

## Java

```
public class Person {  
    public static void main( String[] args ) {  
        final Barber barber = Barber.orderBarber( );  
        final Person person = new Person( );  
        person.shave( );  
        barber.shave( );  
    }  
  
    public void shave( ) {  
        final Person person = this;  
        if (person instanceof Barber) {  
            final Barber barber = (Barber)person;  
            barber.shaveYourself( );  
        } else {  
            final Barber barber = Barber.orderBarber( );  
            barber.shave( person );  
        }  
    }  
}
```

- More important applications a few slides further on.

# Deciding Subclass Membership

- The spell `reference instanceof Classz` tests for class membership of `Classz`.
- It returns:
  - true if `reference` references an instance of `Classz`;
  - true if `reference` references an instance of a subclass of `Classz`;
  - false otherwise (including when `reference == null`).
- The test also works for interfaces.

## Java

```
final String bomb = "blast";

if (bomb instanceof Comparable) {
    System.out.println( bomb );
}
```

# Overriding toString( )

- The Object class defines `public String toString( )`;
  - It's an instance method.
- It should return a “meaningful” representation of its instance.
- Arguably most classes should override the method.
- It's especially useful when testing.

# How?

Depends on the Class

## Java

```
public class Person {  
    private final String firstName;  
    private final String surname;  
  
    ...  
  
    @Override  
    public String toString( ) {  
        return firstName + " " + surname;  
    }  
}
```

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# How?

Depends on the Class

## Java

```
public class Die {  
    private final Random generator; // not printed  
    private int faceValue;  
    ...  
  
    @Override  
    public String toString( ) {  
        return Integer.toString( faceValue );  
    }  
}
```

# How?

Depends on the Class

## Java

```
public class DataBaseConnection {
    private final Database db;
    private final long id;
    private final Port port;
    ...

    @Override
    public String toString( ) {
        return "DataBaseConnection[ id = " + id
            + ", db = " + db
            + ", port = " + port
            + ... // all attributes
            + " ]";
    }
}
```

# How?

Depends on the Class

## Java

```
public class DataBaseConnection {
    private final Database db;
    private final long id;
    private final Port port;
    ...

    @Override
    public String toString( ) {
        return "DatabaseConnection[ id = " + id
            + ", db = " + db // ???
            + ", port = " + port
            + ... // all attributes
            + " ]";
    }
}
```

# How?

Depends on the Class

## Java

```
public interface Testable {
    public String getTestOutput( );
}

public class Port implements Testable { ... }
public class Database implements Testable { ... }

public class DataBaseConnection implements Testable {
    private final Database db;
    private final long id;
    private final Port port;
    ...

    // Better!
    @Override
    public String getTestOutput( ) {
        return "DatabaseConnection[ id = " + id
            + ", db = " + db.getTestOutput( )
            + ", port = " + port.getTestOutput( )
            + ... // all attributes
            + " ]"1
    }
}
```

# Overriding equals( )

- public boolean equals( Object object ):
  - Also defined in the Object class.
- Method is supposed to test for deep equality.
- Easy if you know the base class of object:

## Java

```
public class Person {  
    private final String firstName;  
    private final String surname;  
  
    ...  
  
    @Override  
    public boolean equals( Object object ) {  
        final Person that = (Person)object;  
        return this.firstName.equals( that.firstName )  
            && this.surname.equals( that.surname );  
    }  
}
```

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# Overriding equals( )

- public boolean equals( Object object ):
  - Also defined in the Object class.
- Method is supposed to test for deep equality.
- Easy if you know the base class of object:

## Java

```
public class Person {  
    private final String firstName;  
    private final String surname;  
  
    ...  
  
    @Override  
    public boolean equals( Object object ) {  
        final Person that = (Person)object;  
        return this.firstName.equals( that.firstName )  
            && this.surname.equals( that.surname );  
    }  
}
```

- But what if you don't know the base class?

# Overriding equals( )

If You're Not Sure About Base Class

## Java

```
public class Person {
    private final String firstName;
    private final String surname;

    ...

    @Override
    public boolean equals( Object object ) {
        final boolean result;

        if (object instanceof Person) {
            final Person that = (Person)object;
            result = this.firstName.equals( that.firstName )
                    && this.surname.equals( that.surname );
        } else {
            result = false;
        }

        return result;
    }
}
```

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# Controlling Inheritance

- In Java a subclass inherits all public methods and attributes.
- This is useful but public methods may lead to problems.
  - E.g. what if a malicious subclass overrides a method?
- It's clear that more control is needed.
- In Java you can restrict inheritance and method overriding:
  - 1 If you make a class `final` you can't extend it.
  - 2 If you make a method `final` you can't override it.



# Making the Class Final

## Java

```
public class Word {  
    public void word( ) {  
        System.out.println( "It is." );  
    }  
}
```

# Making the Class Final

## Java

```
public class Word {
    public void word( ) {
        System.out.println( "It is." );
    }
}

public class Rebuttal extends Word {
    // You can extend this class.
    public void word( ) {
        System.out.println( "Oh no it isn't." );
    }
}
```

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# Making the Class Final

## Java

```
public class Word {
    public void word( ) {
        System.out.println( "It is." );
    }
}

public class Rebuttal extends Word {
    // You can extend this class.
    public void word( ) {
        System.out.println( "Oh no it isn't." );
    }
}

public final class LastWord extends Rebuttal {
    // You cannot extend this class.
    ...
    @Override
    public void word( ) {
        System.out.println( "Oh yes it is." );
    }
}
```

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# Why Make a Class Final?

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# Why Make a Class Final?

## Inheritance Violates Encapsulation

- With method overriding, client classes may change behaviour.
- Almost as bad as providing them direct attribute access.
- Here methods, not attributes, are exposed to modification.

**Security:** Makes sure the class does what it should do.

- An overridden method may misbehave.
  - Makes it impossible to enforce invariants.
- A String should behave as a String.
  - Should be impossible to override this method.

**Maintenance:** Clients may start to rely on overridden behaviour.

# Making the Method Final

## Java

```
public class Example {  
    // You may not override this method.  
    public final void finalMethod( ) { ... }  
    // You may override this method.  
    public void overridableMethod( ) { ... }  
}
```

# Multiple Inheritance

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**Multiple Inheritance**

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Option III

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- Let's introduce Pets to our Animal class hierarchy.
- The Pets can beFriendly( ).
- Other animals don't have beFriendly( ) behaviour.
- Our design should allow for polymorphic pet variables.

# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option I: Adding the Pet Method to the Animal Class

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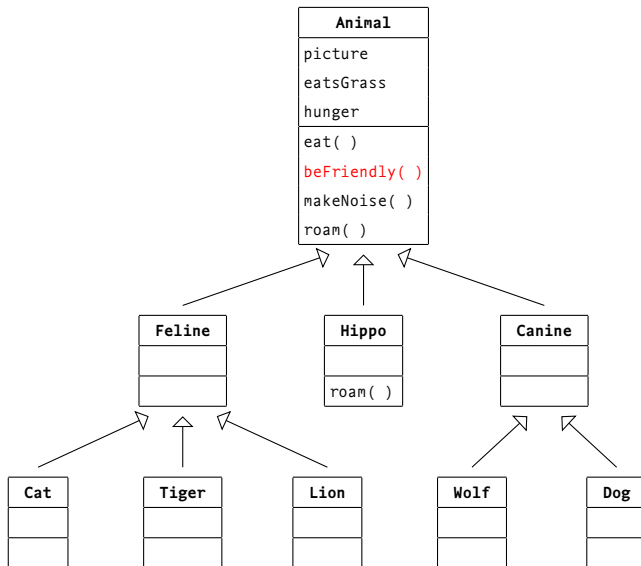
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# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option I: Adding the Pet Method to the Animal Class

**Pros:** There are two main advantages:

- 1 All Pets will inherit Pet behaviour, and
- 2 Animal can act as a polymorphic type for Pets.

**Cons:** There are also disadvantages:

- 1 We don't have a proper Pet type.
- 2 Non-Pets will also get beFriendly( ) behaviour.
- 3 Still must override beFriendly( ) for Dog & Cat.

**Conclusion:** Clearly the disadvantages outweigh the advantages.

**Cause:** The Is-A test fails for non-Pets.

# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option II: As Option I but Make Animal Class Abstract

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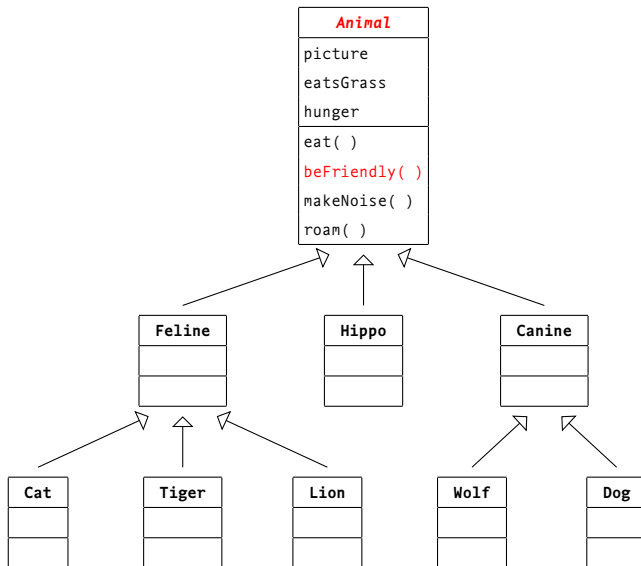
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# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option II: As Option I but Make Animal Class Abstract

**Pros:** The advantages are better than before.

- 1 We can make all animals behave appropriately.
- 2 Animal can act as a polymorphic type for Pets.

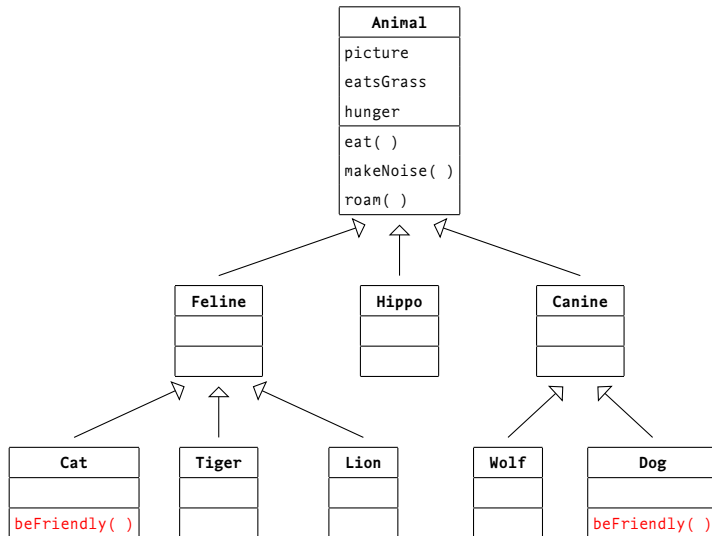
**Cons:** We still don't have a proper Pet type.  
Must override beFriendly( ) in all concrete classes.

**Conclusion:** This design is worse than Option I.

**Cause:** The Is-A test fails for non-Pets.

# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option III: Put the Pet Method where It Belongs



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# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option III: Put the Pet Method where It Belongs

**Pros:** The following are some advantages.

- Definition of `beFriendly()` is where it belongs.
- Implementing `beFriendly()` requires little effort.
- All animals behave appropriately.

**Cons:** The following are some disadvantages.

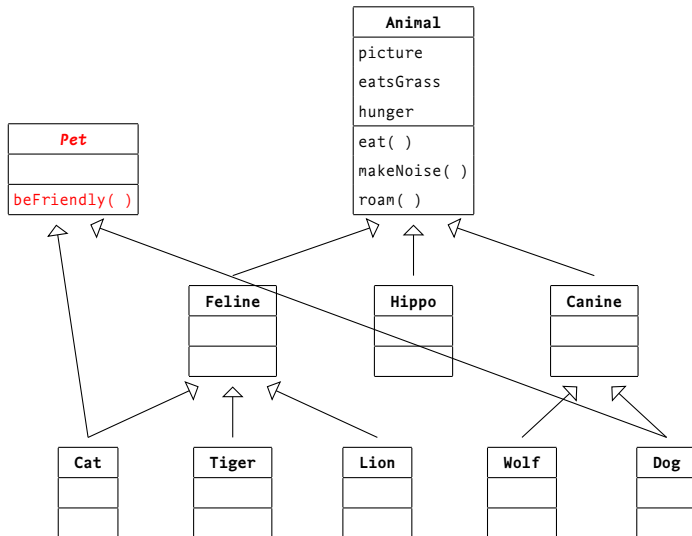
- We still don't have a proper Pet type.
- The `befriendly()` method isn't abstract.
  - We can't guarantee a consistent `beFriendly()`.
- We lose a proper polymorphic type for Pets.

**Conclusion:** This design makes Pets difficult to work with.

**Cause:** Polymorphism is a requirement for most applications.

# Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option IV: Two Superclasses for Pets



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## Adding Pets to our Fota Application

## Option IV: Two Superclasses for Pets

**Pros:** The following are the advantages.

- The beFriendly( ) method is where it belongs.
- Implementing beFriendly( ) requires little effort.
- Guarantees consistent beFriendly( ) definitions.
- Pet can act as a polymorphic type for pets.

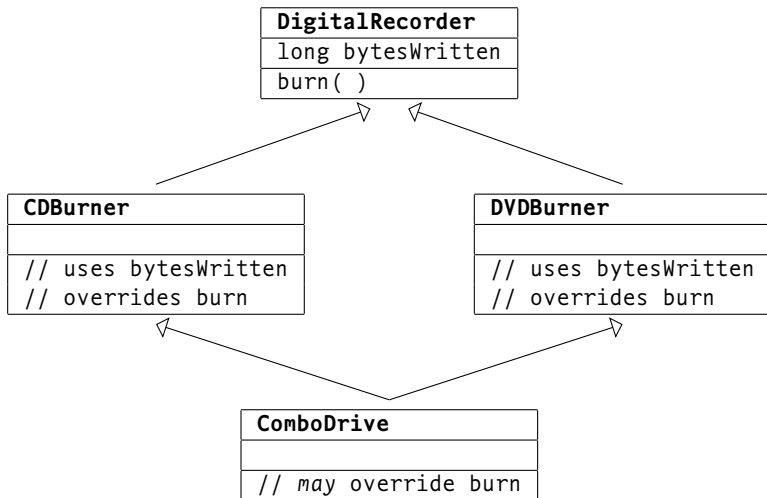
**Cons:** Java doesn't allow *multiple inheritance*.

**Conclusion:** This design is ideal but impossible.

**Cause:** A decision by the Java language designers.

# Deadly Diamond of Death

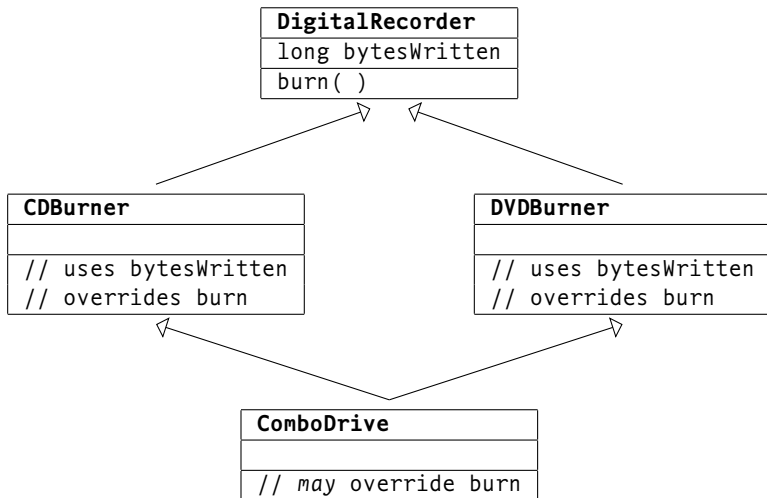
Different Assumptions about Valid Values for `bytesWritten`





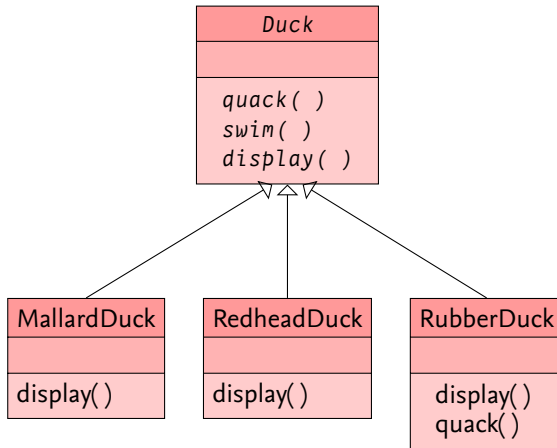
# Deadly Diamond of Death

Which `burn( )` is Inherited by `ComboDrive`?





# The Design



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# Enters Mr Change



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Joe, there's a recession is going on.



# Enters Mr Change

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Competition is extremely tough.



# Enters Mr Change



I've come up with a great idea.

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We can beat the competition.

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It requires just a bit of programming.



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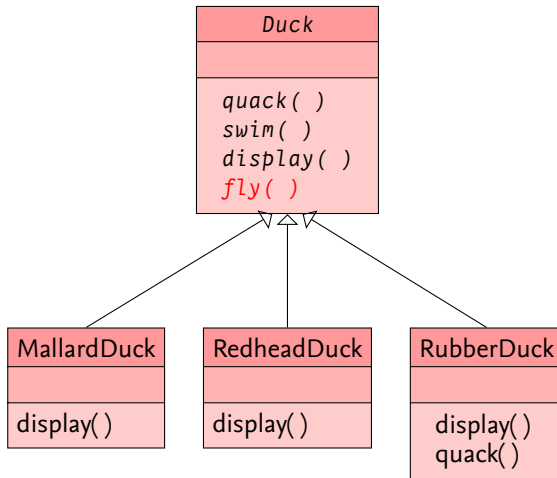
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I want you to implement me flying 🦆s.



# The Design



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# The Verdict?



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Joe, you eejit.

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# The Verdict?




Rubber 🦆s don't fly.

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# What Has Gone Wrong?

- At first Joe didn't understand what had gone wrong.

# What Has Gone Wrong?

- At first Joe didn't understand what had gone wrong.
- It was inheritance that was causing the problem.
  - The Duck class defined the default `fly()` behaviour.
  - This was inherited by *all* Duck subclasses.
  - None of the subclasses overrode the behaviour.
  - Therefore all s had the default `fly()` behaviour.
  - Including RubberDucks.

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# What Should Joe Do?

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# What Should Joe Do?

Should he override `fly()` in the `RubberDuck` Class?

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# What Should Joe Do?

Should he override `fly( )` in the `RubberDuck` Class?

- If he did that he might have to duplicate code later.
  - For example, what if a `WoodenDecoyDuck` was added later?
  - `RubberDuck` and `WoodenDecoyDuck` were almost the same,
    - Yet shared no code....
- Of course he could introduce a common superclass.
  - But that would mean much work.
  - Also there was no guarantee that work would stop there.

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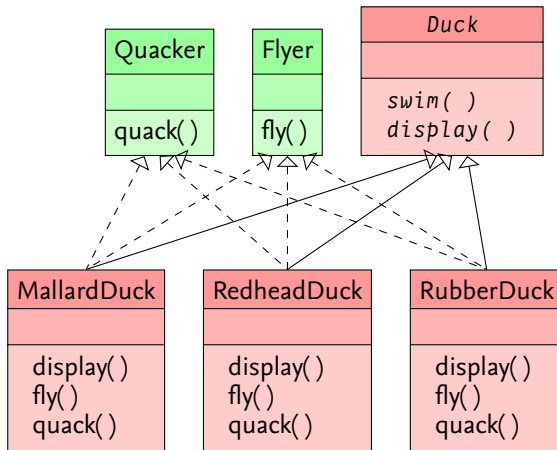
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# Should he Use Interfaces?



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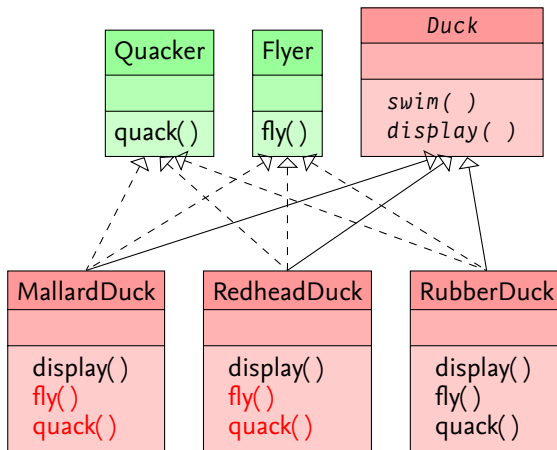
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# Should he Use Interfaces?

Did Somebody say Code Duplication?



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# What Joe Really Wants

- Joe really wants software that doesn't change.
- He does realise that change is the only constant.
- Code changes should have **little impact** on existing code.
- That would save much time rewriting existing code.

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# First Design Principle

## Encapsulate what Varies

- We've seen that inheritance didn't work for Joe.
  - When the (Duck) superclass changes this affects all subclasses.
- Interfaces cannot change but they have no implementation:
  - No code reuse.
- **Encapsulate what Varies:** Identify the aspects of your application that vary and separate them from what stays the same.
- We implement each aspect as a behaviour:
  - Implement separate classes for different behaviour.
  - Lets us choose specific behaviour by selecting a specific class.
  - Reusing the implementation comes for free.
  - Separates the implementation: increases flexibility.

# Encapsulate what Varies


- With interfaces, all classes *implemented* Flyer and Quacker.
- This is what caused the code duplication.
- We're going to encapsulate what varies:
  - We separate what varies: fly( ) and quack( ) behaviour.
  - We define a Flyer interface.
    - Encapsulate each different fly( ) behaviour as separate class.
  - We also define a Quacker interface.
    - Encapsulate each different quack( ) behaviour as separate class.
  - We reuse the behaviour in the actual Duck subclasses.
    - This is done using *delegation*.
    - (It involves a design pattern.)





# Second Design Principle

## Program to an Interface

- We need to design classes that implement  behaviour.
- Behaviour is *assigned* to specific Duck instance attributes.
  - Assigning behaviour can even be done at runtime.
- Program to an interface, not to an implementation.

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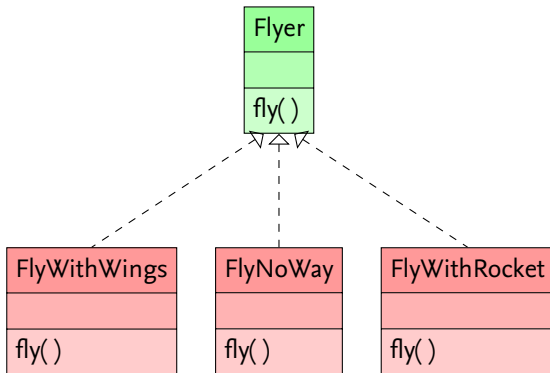
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- We use an interface (a supertype) for each behaviour.
  - Flyer, Quacker, ....
  - Specific classes implement specific behaviours.
  - We use instances of these classes to use the behaviour.
- Before we depended on an *implementation*:
  - Default or overridden *class* behaviour.
- Now we depend on an *interface*:
  - An *object* with a type.
- Clients are now *unaware* of actual type and class of object.
  - This greatly reduces subsystem dependencies.

# Implementing the fly( ) Behaviour



# Integrating the Duck Behaviour

Each Duck Delegates the `fly( )` and `quack( )` Behaviour

## *Duck*

```
private Flyer  flyer  
private Quacker quacker
```

```
public final fly( )    { flyer.fly( ); }  
public final quack( ) { quacker.quack( ); }  
public swim( )  
public display( )
```

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# Implementing the MallardDuck

## Java

```
public class MallardDuck extends Duck {
    public MallardDuck( ) {
        super( new SqueekQuack( ), new FlyWithWings( ) );
    }

    @Override
    public void display( ) {
        System.out.println( "MallardDuck here...." );
    }
}
```

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# Implementing the MutableDuck

## Java

```
public class MutableDuck extends Duck {
    public MutableDuck( ) {
        super( new SqueekQuack( ), new FlyWithWings( ) );
    }

    public void setQuackBehaviour( Quacker quacker ) {
        // Assumes quacker is public/not final now.
        this.quacker = quacker;
    }

    public void setFlyBehaviour( Flyer flyer ) {
        // Assumes flyer is public/not final now.
        this.flyer = flyer;
    }

    @Override
    public void display( ) {
        System.out.println( "MutableDuck here..." );
    }
}
```

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# Inheritance versus Object Composition

**Inheritance:** Lets us create subclasses: *white-box reuse*.

- Subclass inherits superclass behaviour.
- Subclasses can override superclass behaviour.
- You get code reuse for free.
- You cannot change behaviour at runtime.
- Violates encapsulation.
  - Subclass may rely on superclass implementation.
  - Subclass may break when superclass is changed.

**Composition:** Lets you *compose* classes: *black-box reuse*.

- A client class may use an object.
- You get code reuse but it takes more effort.
- Lets you change behaviour at runtime.
- Respects encapsulation.
  - Helps encapsulated classes focus on a single task.

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# Has-A can be better than Is-A

- In our new design we rely on Has-A (more then on Is-A):
  - Each Duck has-a flyer, and
  - Each Duck has-a quacker.
- “Has-A” lets us implement behaviour by *composing* classes.
- The result is a more flexible design:
  - It lets us encapsulate behaviour.
  - We can change behaviour at runtime.

# Third Design Principle

- In our new design we rely on Has-A (more then on Is-A):
  - Each Duck has-a flyer, and
  - Each Duck has-a quacker.
- “Has-A” lets us implement behaviour by *composing* classes.
- The result is a more flexible design:
  - It lets us encapsulate behaviour.
  - We can change behaviour at runtime.

**Favour Composition over Inheritance.**

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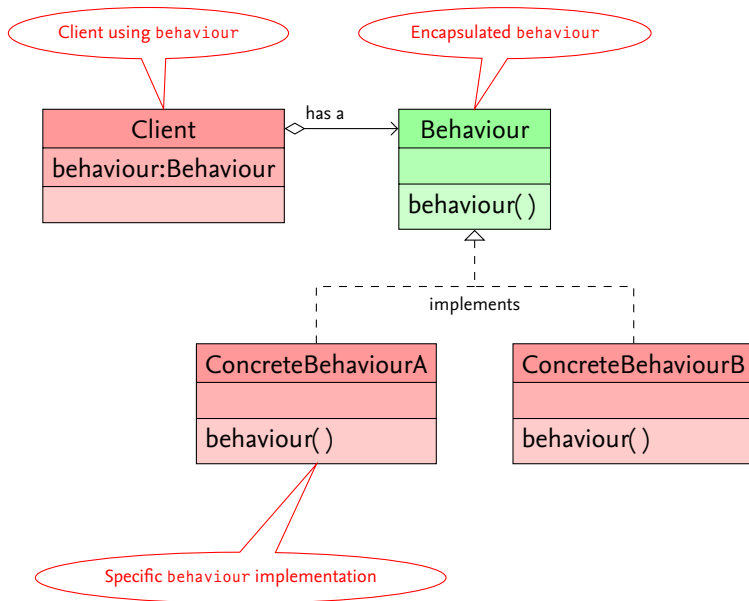
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- The *Strategy Pattern*:
  - Defines a class of algorithms;
  - Encapsulates each algorithm; and
  - Makes them interchangeable.
- Lets the algorithms vary independently from clients using it [Gamma et al. 2008].

# Finally: Strategy Pattern



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# Questions Anybody?

# For Friday

- Study the presentation.
- Study Chapter 8 from the book.

# Acknowledgements

- This lecture is partially based on
  - [Sierra, and Bates 2004].
  - [Freeman, and Freeman 2005].

## Bibliography I

## Introduction to Java

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- Gamma, Erich et al. [2008]. *Design Patterns Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software*. 36th Printing. Addison–Wesley. ISBN: 0-201-63361-2.
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