

# Data Structures

## OOP and Class Hierarchies

CS284

# Method `Object.equals`

- ▶ `Object.equals` method has a parameter of type `Object`

```
public boolean equals (Object other) {...}
```

- ▶ Compares two objects to determine if they are equal
- ▶ A class must override `equals` in order to support comparison

Employee.equals()

```
/** Determines whether the current object matches its
argument.
    @param obj The object to be compared to the current
    object;
    @return true if the objects have the same name and
    address; otherwise, return false
*/
@Override
public boolean equals(Object obj) {
    if (obj == this) return true;
    if (obj == null) return false;
    if (this.getClass() == obj.getClass()) {
        Employee other = (Employee) obj;
        return name.equals(other.name) &&
            address.equals(other.address);
    } else {
        return false;
    }
}
```

## Method `getClass`

- ▶ Every class *has* a `Class` object (that is created automatically when the class is loaded into an application)
- ▶ Method `getClass()` returns a reference to this unique object

```
Employee employee = new Employee();  
System.out.println(employee.getClass());
```

```
// class Employee
```

```
Object employee = new Employee();  
System.out.println(employee.getClass());
```

```
// class Employee
```

# Incompatible Types

- ▶ The following code generates a syntax error:

```
Object num_1 = new Integer(25);  
  
Integer num_2 = num_1;
```

## Casting in a Class Hierarchy

- ▶ Casting obtains a reference of a different, but matching, type
- ▶ Casting does not change the object! It creates an anonymous reference to the object

```
Integer aNum = (Integer) aThing;
```

- ▶ The following line will work:

```
((Integer) aThing).intValue()
```

## Casting in a Class Hierarchy (cont.)

- ▶ Upcast:
  - ▶ Always valid but unnecessary
- ▶ Downcast:
  - ▶ Cast superclass type to subclass type
  - ▶ Java checks at run time to make sure it's legal
  - ▶ If it's not legal, it throws `ClassCastException`
- ▶ Question: when is a downcast legal?
  - ▶ Only when instantiated as a subclass object
  - ▶ Demo

# Using instanceof to Guard a Casting Operation

**instanceof** can guard against a `ClassCastException`

```
Object obj = ...;
if (obj instanceof Integer) {
    Integer i = (Integer) obj;
    int val = i;
    ...;
} else {
    ...
}
```



# Polymorphism Eliminates Nested if Statements

```
Number[] stuff = new Number[10];  
// each element of stuff must reference actual  
// object which is a subclass of Number  
...  
  
// Non OO style:  
if (stuff[i] instanceof Integer)  
    sum += ((Integer) stuff[i]).doubleValue();  
else if (stuff[i] instanceof Double)  
    sum += ((Double) stuff[i]).doubleValue();  
...  
  
// OO style:  
sum += stuff[i].doubleValue();
```

## Polymorphism Eliminates Nested if Statements (cont.)

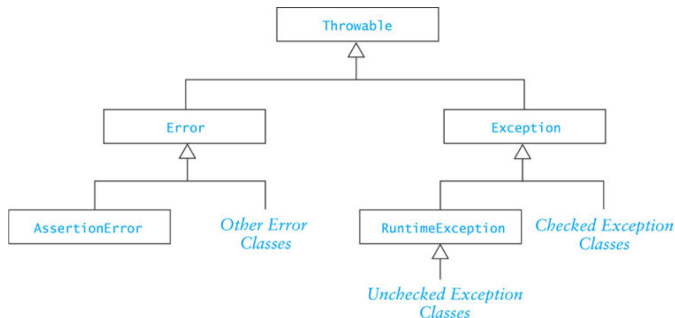
- ▶ Polymorphic code style is more extensible; it works automatically with new subclasses
- ▶ Polymorphic code is more efficient; the system does one indirect branch versus many tests
- ▶ Uses of instanceof may suggest poor coding style

# Run-time Errors or Exceptions

- ▶ Run-time errors
  - ▶ occur during program execution (i.e. at run-time)
  - ▶ occur when the JVM detects an operation that it knows to be incorrect
  - ▶ cause the JVM to throw an exception
- ▶ Examples of run-time errors include
  - ▶ division by zero
  - ▶ array index out of bounds
  - ▶ number format error
  - ▶ null pointer exception

## Class Throwable

- ▶ Throwable is the superclass of all exceptions
- ▶ All exception classes inherit its methods



# Checked and Unchecked Exceptions

- ▶ **Checked** exceptions
  - ▶ normally not due to programmer error
  - ▶ generally beyond the control of the programmer
  - ▶ all input/output errors are checked exceptions
  - ▶ Examples: IOException, FileNotFoundException
- ▶ **Unchecked** exceptions result from
  - ▶ programmer error (try to prevent them with defensive programming)
  - ▶ a serious external condition that is unrecoverable
  - ▶ Examples: NullPointerException, ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException

## Checked Example

Suppose we type this code in order to prepare for reading from a text file...

```
File file = new File("file.txt");  
BufferedReader reader = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(file));
```

Error: Unhandled exception type  
FileNotFoundException

# Unchecked Exceptions

- ▶ The class `Error` and its subclasses represent errors due to serious external conditions; they are unchecked
  - ▶ Example: `OutOfMemoryError`
  - ▶ You cannot foresee or guard against them
  - ▶ While you can attempt to handle them, it is generally not a good idea as you will probably be unsuccessful
- ▶ The class `Exception` and its subclasses can be handled by a program; they are also unchecked
  - ▶ `RuntimeException` and its subclasses are unchecked
  - ▶ All others must be either: explicitly caught or explicitly mentioned as thrown by the method

# Some Common Unchecked Exceptions

- ▶ `ArithmeticException`: division by zero, etc.
- ▶ `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`
- ▶ `NumberFormatException`: converting a “bad” string to a number
- ▶ `NullPointerException`

```
@Override
public boolean equal (Shape s) {
    return this.area()==s.area();
}
```

What if `s` is null? Java does not force us to catch/throw  
`NullPointerException`



# Discussion

## ► Why are arithmetic exceptions unchecked?



`ArithmeticException` extends `RuntimeException`, therefore it's unchecked.

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Why this design decision? If `ArithmeticException` was checked, then you would have to encapsulate every (!) integer division in `try catch` or add a `throws` to the surrounding method.



The following program wouldn't compile:



```
class MyClass {  
    int i = 10;  
    void myMethod() {  
        int j = 1 / i;  
        // do something with j  
    }  
}
```

You would have to write either

```
void myMethod() throws ArithmeticException {  
    int j = 1 / i;  
    // do something with j  
}
```

- Why are null pointer exceptions unchecked?
- User defined exceptions are all *checked* exceptions

# Handling Exceptions

- ▶ When an exception is thrown, the normal sequence of execution is interrupted
- ▶ Default behavior (no handler)
  - ▶ Program stops
  - ▶ JVM displays an error message
- ▶ The programmer may provide a handle
  - ▶ Enclose statements in a **try** block
  - ▶ Process the exception in a **catch** block

# The `try-catch` Sequence

The try-catch sequence resembles an if-then-else statement

```
try {  
    // Execute the following statements until an  
    // exception is thrown  
    ...  
    // Skip the catch blocks if no exceptions were thrown  
} catch (ExceptionTypeA ex) {  
    // Execute this catch block if an exception of type  
    // ExceptionTypeA was thrown in the try block  
    ...  
} catch (ExceptionTypeB ex) {  
    // Execute this catch block if an exception of type  
    // ExceptionTypeB was thrown in the try block  
    ...  
}
```

- ▶ `ExceptionTypeB` cannot be a subclass of `ExceptionTypeA`. If it was, its exceptions would be caught by the first catch clause and its catch clause would be unreachable.

# Using try-catch

User input is a common source of exceptions

```
public static int getIntValue(Scanner scan) {  
    int nextInt = 0;           // next int value  
    boolean validInt = false; // flag for valid input  
    while(!validInt) {  
        try {  
            System.out.println("Enter number of kids: ");  
            nextInt = scan.nextInt();  
            validInt = true;  
        } catch (InputMismatchException ex) {  
            scan.nextLine(); // clear buffer  
            System.out.println("Bad data-enter an integer");  
        }  
    }  
    return nextInt;  
}
```

# Throwing an Exception When Recovery is Not Obvious

- ▶ In some cases, you may be able to write code that detects certain types of errors, but there may not be an obvious way to recover from them
- ▶ In these cases an the exception can be thrown
- ▶ The calling method receives the thrown exception and must handle it

## Throwing an Exception When Recovery is Not Obvious (cont.)

```
public static void processPositiveInteger(int n) {  
    if (n < 0) {  
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid argument");  
    } else {  
        // Process n as required  
        ...  
    }  
}
```

## Throwing an Exception When Recovery is Not Obvious (cont.)

A brief side comment: `IllegalArgumentException`, above, is unchecked. The following would not be accepted by Java

```
public static void processPositiveInteger(int n) {  
    ... {  
        throw new IOException("Invalid");  
    }  
}
```

We would have to write

```
public static void processPositiveInteger(int n)  
throws IOException {  
    ... {  
        throw new IOException("Invalid");  
    }  
}
```

## Throwing an Exception When Recovery is Not Obvious (cont.)

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    Scanner scan = new Scanner(System.in);  
    try {  
        int num = getIntValue(scan);  
        processPositiveInteger(num);  
    } catch (IllegalArgumentException ex) {  
        System.err.println(ex.getMessage());  
        System.exit(1); // error indication  
    }  
    System.exit(0); // normal exit  
}
```



# Packages and Visibility

- ▶ A Java **package** is a group of **cooperating classes**
- ▶ The Java API is organized as packages
- ▶ Indicate the package of a class at the top of the file:  
**package** classPackage;
- ▶ Classes in the same package should be in the same directory (folder)
- ▶ The folder must have the same name as the package
- ▶ Classes in the same folder must be in the same package

# Packages and Visibility

- ▶ Classes not part of a package can only access public members of classes in the package
- ▶ If a class is not part of the package, it must access the public classes by their complete name, which would be  
`packagename.className`
- ▶ For example, `x = Java.awt.Color.GREEN;`
- ▶ If the package is imported, the `packageName` prefix is not required.

```
import java.awt.Color;  
...  
x = Color.GREEN;
```

# The Default Package

- ▶ Files which do not specify a package are part of the default package
- ▶ If you do not declare packages, all of your classes belong to the default package
- ▶ The default package is intended for use during the early stages of implementation or for small prototypes
- ▶ When you develop an application, declare its classes to be in the same package

# Visibility

- ▶ We have seen three visibility layers, public, protected, private
- ▶ A fourth layer, package visibility, lies between private and protected
- ▶ Classes, data fields, and methods with package visibility are accessible to all other methods of the same package, but are not accessible to methods outside the package
- ▶ Classes, data fields, and methods that are declared protected are visible within subclasses that are declared outside the package (in addition to being visible to all members inside the package)
- ▶ There is no keyword to indicate package visibility
- ▶ Package visibility is the default in a package if public, protected, private are not used

# Java Encapsulation

- ▶ The mechanism of wrapping the data (variables) and code acting on the data (methods) together as a single unit
  - ▶ Variables are hidden from other classes
  - ▶ They can be accessed only through the methods of their current class
  - ▶ Also known as *data hiding*

# Visibility Supports Encapsulation

- ▶ Visibility rules enforce encapsulation in Java
  - ▶ private: for members that should be invisible even in subclasses
  - ▶ package: shields classes and members from classes outside the package
  - ▶ protected: provides visibility to extenders or classes in the package
  - ▶ public: provides visibility to all
- ▶ Encapsulation insulates against change: greater visibility means less encapsulation
- ▶ So use the most restrictive visibility possible to get the job done!