

# CSE 11: Lecture 6

- ✓ Mixing data types in numerical expressions and assignment
- ✓ Casts
- ✓ Operator precedence and associativity
- ✓ Increment and decrement operators
- ✓ Loop invariants
- ✓ Variable lifetime
- ✓ Software design in two paradigms
- ✓ Software testing: stubs and drivers
- ✓ Tracing for debugging

(Reading: Savitch, parts of Ch 2, 3, 5)

Midterm Exam #1 will be next Thurs Oct 16 , during lecture time

Location: >>> here <<<

Closed-book, closed-notes, no calculators. Bring something to write with, and picture ID!

Coverage: Chapters 1-5, Lectures 1-6, Assignments P1-P2

Midterm review: Discussion sections Wed Oct 15

A practice midterm is available online (PDF format)

Lecture notes are available online

## Mixing data types in arithmetic expressions

- ✓ As you know by now, a value in Java (for example, the value of a variable or a literal constant or an expression) is of a particular type
- ✓ The type of a value is important! It determines how the value is interpreted when it is used in a computation
- ✓ But if you build an arithmetic expression using operators whose arguments are of different types, what happens?
- ✓ Here are the Java rules for type conversion with binary numeric operators and arguments that are of primitive numeric type (including char, but not boolean):
  - ✗ If either operand is of type double, the value of the other operand is converted to double and the operation produces a double value.
  - ✗ Otherwise, if either operand is of type float, the value of the other operand is converted to float and the operation produces a float value.
  - ✗ Otherwise, if either operand is of type long, the value of the other operand is converted to long and the operation produces a long value.
  - ✗ Otherwise, the values of both operands are converted to int and the operation produces an int value.

## Mixing data types in assignment

- ✓ In Java, you can assign a value of a certain type to a variable of that same type (not too surprising!)

```
int i=3, j;  
j = i + 2;           // assigning an int value to an int
```

- ✓ But you can also assign a value of a certain primitive type to a variable of a different but "larger" type (where there can never be loss of magnitude information):

```
int i=3;    long j;  
j = i + 2;   // assigning an int value to a long: okay
```

- ✓ In fact, you can assign a value of any type on the following list to a variable of any type that you can get to by following arrows on this list:

```
byte → short → int → long → float → double  
          ↑  
        char
```

... and Java will automatically do the type conversion ("promotion") for you.

- ✓ Also, Java will permit assigning a non-long integral literal or named constant expression to an integral-type variable if the constant expression has a value that is in the range that the variable can hold
- ✓ Since passing arguments is like assignment, these rules apply to that as well
- ✓ But anything else is a compile-time error!

## Mixing data types in assignment: examples

✓ Question: Are the following statements legal in Java or not?

```
byte a;  
byte b = 0;  
char c = 'x';  
int i = 100;  
double d = 3.0;  
final short S = 100;  
a = S;  
a = i;  
a = d;  
a = b + b;                                // tricky...
```

## Explicit type conversions in Java: casting

- ✓ As we have seen, Java does many type conversions for you automatically
- ✓ To "manually" convert the value of an expression to a certain datatype, use a *cast*
- ✓ A cast of the value of *expression* to type *typename* has the form

*(typename)expression*

For example, the expression

*4 / 5*

has value *0* of type *int*, while the expression

*4 / (double)5*

has value *0.8* of type *double*.

(.... what about the expression *(double)( 4/5 )* ? )

- ✓ casts have no side effects! (A cast produces a value of the desired type, but does *not* change the type or value of any already existing variable.)

## Casting and assignment

- ✓ Because of Java's rules for automatic type conversion in assignment statements, the following is illegal -- Java will try to prevent the loss of magnitude information that can happen when you assign a floating-point value to an integer variable:

```
double x = 3.99;  
int i;  
i = x;                // error!  
System.out.println(i);
```

- ✓ However, if you explicitly cast, the program will compile and run -- Java, in effect, will assume you know what you are doing if you explicitly cast:

```
double x = 3.99;  
int i;  
i = (int) x;  
System.out.println(i);    // prints 3
```

- ✓ Explicit casts are permitted among all the numeric types (including **char**)
- ✓ Casts are not permitted between **boolean** and any other type
- ✓ Casts between reference types is a topic we will get to when we discuss inheritance

## Operators: computing with data

- ✓ An operator operates on data (variables or constants or the results of other operations)
  - ✗ An operator always *returns a value* that can be used in further computation
  - ✗ An operator may also have “*side effects*” (things it does other than returning a value): it may change the value of variables, print something, etc.
- ✓ The pieces of data an operator operates on are its *arguments* or *operands*
  - ✗ If an operator takes one argument it’s called “unary”; a “binary” operator takes two, a “ternary” operator takes three
- ✓ An operator has *precedence level* and an *associativity direction*, which determine how it combines with other operators in an expression
  - ✗ Operator precedence and associativity can be overridden by use of parentheses
  - ✗ When in doubt, parenthesize!



# Precedence and associativity rules

- ✓ Operator precedence:
  - ✗ In an expression containing more than one operator, high-precedence operators apply before low-precedence ones
- ✓ Operator associativity:
  - ✗ In an expression with more than one operator of the same precedence...
    - leftmost operator applies first if the operator has left-to-right associativity
    - rightmost operator applies first if the operator has right-to-left associativity
- ✓ The precedence and associativity rules in Java often turn out to be the “usual” ones you already know from algebra and logic
- ✓ And the use of parentheses to override the precedence rules is also familiar from mathematics

## Java operator precedence and associativity

- ✓ This table shows the precedence and associativity of the Java operators we will cover in this course (precedence decreases as you go from top to bottom in the table):

Operators	Associativity
- (unary)    + (unary)    ++    --    !    typecasts	right to left
*    /    %	left to right
+    -	left to right
<    <=    >    >=	left to right
==    !=	left to right
&&	left to right
	left to right
=    +=    -=    *=    /=	right to left

# Increment and decrement operators

- ✓ The unary increment and decrement operators **++**, **--**
  - ✗ high precedence
  - ✗ the argument must be an "lvalue" (e.g. a variable)
- ✓ **++foo** returns the value **foo + 1**  
It has the side effect of increasing the value of **foo** by 1: *pre-increment*
- ✓ **foo++** returns the (old) value of **foo**  
It has the side effect of increasing the value of **foo** by 1: *post-increment*
- ✓ **--foo** returns the value **foo - 1**  
It has the side effect of decreasing the value of **foo** by 1: *pre-decrement*
- ✓ **foo--** returns the (old) value of **foo**  
It has the side effect of decreasing the value of **foo** by 1: *post-decrement*

## Practice with increment and decrement operators

```
public static void main(String args[])
{
    int foo = 3;

    System.out.println(foo);           // prints 3
    System.out.println(foo++);         // prints 3
    System.out.println(foo);           // prints 4
    System.out.println(++foo);         // prints 5
    System.out.println(foo);           // prints 5
    System.out.println(--foo);          // prints 4
    System.out.println(foo);           // prints 4
    System.out.println(foo--);         // prints 4
    System.out.println(foo);           // prints 3
}
```

## Combined assignment-and-numeric operators

- ✓ Java provides operators which combine a numeric operation with assignment. For example:

`<variable> += <expression>`

does exactly the same thing as

`<variable> = <variable> + ( <expression> )`

That is,

`foo += bar * 50 - baz`

is a more compact way of writing

`foo = foo + (bar * 50 - baz)`

- ✓ And likewise for

`<variable> -= <expression>`

`<variable> *= <expression>`

`<variable> /= <expression>`

`<variable> %= <expression>`

## Doing the same thing 3 different ways

- ✓ These expressions return the same values, and have the same side effects:

```
foo = foo + 1
```

```
foo += 1
```

```
++foo
```

# Understanding expressions

- ✓ In the context of these declarations:

```
double x1 = 1.0;
```

```
double x2 = 5.0;
```

```
double x3 = 2.0;
```

- ✓ ... what are the values of these expressions? Pay attention to associativity, precedence, and type-conversion rules:

```
x1 + 1.0 * x2
```

```
(x1 + 1.0) * x2
```

```
x2 / 2 * x3
```

```
(x2 / 2) * x3
```

```
x1 ++ + 3
```

```
x1 = x2 = x3
```

# Understanding loops

- ✓ Loops are important and powerful control constructs, that can be hard to get right
- ✓ To help write loops that do what you want them to do, think about these things:
  - x What initial conditions must be satisfied before execution of the loop?
    - These are called “loop preconditions”
    - Statements executed before the loop is reached establish the preconditions
    - You can also state loop preconditions in a comment, for help in thinking about what is going on
  - x What conditions must be satisfied before and/or after each execution of the loop body?
    - These are called “loop invariants”
    - The boolean test in a while or do-while loop can express a loop invariant
    - You can state other loop invariants in comments, for help in thinking about what is going on
  - x What actions must be performed during each iteration?
    - Statements in the loop body perform these actions (the boolean test expression can perform actions -- side effects -- as well)



## Understanding loops, continued

- ✓ Figuring out what a loop does can be tricky...!
- ✓ It is a very common mistake to be off by one when thinking about the number of times a loop body will execute
  - x these are called “off by one errors” (really) or “fencepost errors”

For this program fragment,

How many lines are printed out?

What is the value of the largest number printed?

```
int j = 1;

do {
    System.out.println(j);
    j += 2;
} while (j < 50);
```

- x Possible answers for # of lines printed:  
24? 25? 26? 27? .... 50? .... something else?

## Understanding loops and loop invariants

- ✓ Loop invariants are useful in reasoning about what a loop will do
- ✓ It can take some thought to come up with good loop invariants... in this example, here are some relevant ones:

```
int j = 1;

do {
    System.out.println(j);
    j += 2;
    // LOOP INVARIANTS AT THIS POINT:
    // largest_number_printed == j-2
    // 2*number_of_lines_printed == j-1
    // j is an odd number
} while (j < 50);
```

- ✓ From this we can see that
  - x the loop ends when **j==51** (the first odd number that makes **j<50** false)
  - x ... and so when the loop ends the largest number printed is \_\_\_\_\_
  - x ... and when the loop ends the number of lines printed is \_\_\_\_\_

## More hints for writing loops

- ✓ Java has while-loops: the loop continues *while* the boolean condition is true
- ✓ Sometimes it is easier to think in terms of until-loops: an until loop continues *until* its boolean condition becomes true
- ✓ Java doesn't have until loops, but you can easily have the effect of them:
  - ✗ Think clearly about the condition that must end the loop, and make the while loop boolean expression clearly state the logical *negation* of that condition (DeMorgan's laws can sometimes be useful here)
- ✓ As a simple example: You know you want to continue a loop until you are done. You can write code with a structure like this:

```
boolean done = false;

while (!done) {
    // stuff
    if (some_hairy_condition) done = true;
    // more stuff
}
```

## Yet more hints for writing loops

- ✓ Make sure the test expression for a loop will eventually become false: avoid infinite loops!

```
int i=1;
do
{
    System.out.println(i); // duh
} while (i>0);
```

--Or--

```
int i=1;
while (i<50) ; // subtle
{
    System.out.println(i++);
}
```

- ✓ Make sure the loop body contains only necessary statements... They may be executed many times
  - x usually avoid declaration statements in the loop body...  
declaration statements create variables, and are “expensive” to execute

## Variable visibility and creation

- ✓ We have learned about about Java's visibility ('scope') rules for variables (instance, static, parameter, local), and methods (instance and static)
- ✓ And you also know when instances of primitive types, pointer variables, and actual objects are created in Java:
  - ✗ primitive type values and reference type pointers: when their declaration is executed
    - if static variable: this happens when the class is loaded (usually, when your program starts)
    - if instance variable: this happens when the object is created
    - if formal parameter: this happens when the method is called
    - if local variable: this happens when execution reaches the declaration
  - ✗ objects: when **new** is invoked
    - this use of new may be hidden in the body of a method you call
    - Strings are a special case: a String object is created when a String literal constant is evaluated, or the String concatenation operator is invoked

## Variable destruction and lifetime

- ✓ But when are these instances destroyed (i.e., when is the memory used for them reclaimed)?
- ✓ How and when variables are created and destroyed is the issue of variable *lifetime*
- ✓ The basic rule for variable destruction in Java is:

A variable will be destroyed after it can no longer be accessed in your program

- ✓ As for other things, this is somewhat different for primitive types vs. objects...

# Destruction of primitive type variables, pointers, and objects

- ✓ Destruction of primitive type variables and reference type pointers:
  - if static variable: destroyed when the class is unloaded (usually, when your program ends)
  - if instance variable: destroyed when the object is destroyed
  - if formal parameter: destroyed when the method returns
  - if local variable: destroyed when execution exits the block in which it is declared (for example, when the method returns)
- ✓ Destruction of objects:
  - destroyed only if the object cannot be referenced, because no pointer in your program is pointing to the object
  - the Java *garbage collector* determines that your program is no longer able to reference the object, and reclaims its memory to use in creating other objects, if needed
- ✓ As a result, in Java, you do not have to worry about memory management for variables as much as in some other languages: their lifetime follows a few simple rules, and much of the hard work is done automatically for you

# Lifetime of objects: an example, frame 1

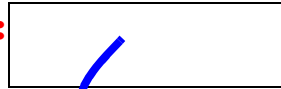
```
public static void main (String args[]) {
```

```
Circle b,c;
```

```
b = new Circle();
```

*create new Circle object, make b point to it.  
The constructor initializes the instance variables*

b:



c:



radius:

1.0

center\_x:

0

center\_y:

0



## Lifetime of objects: an example, frame 2

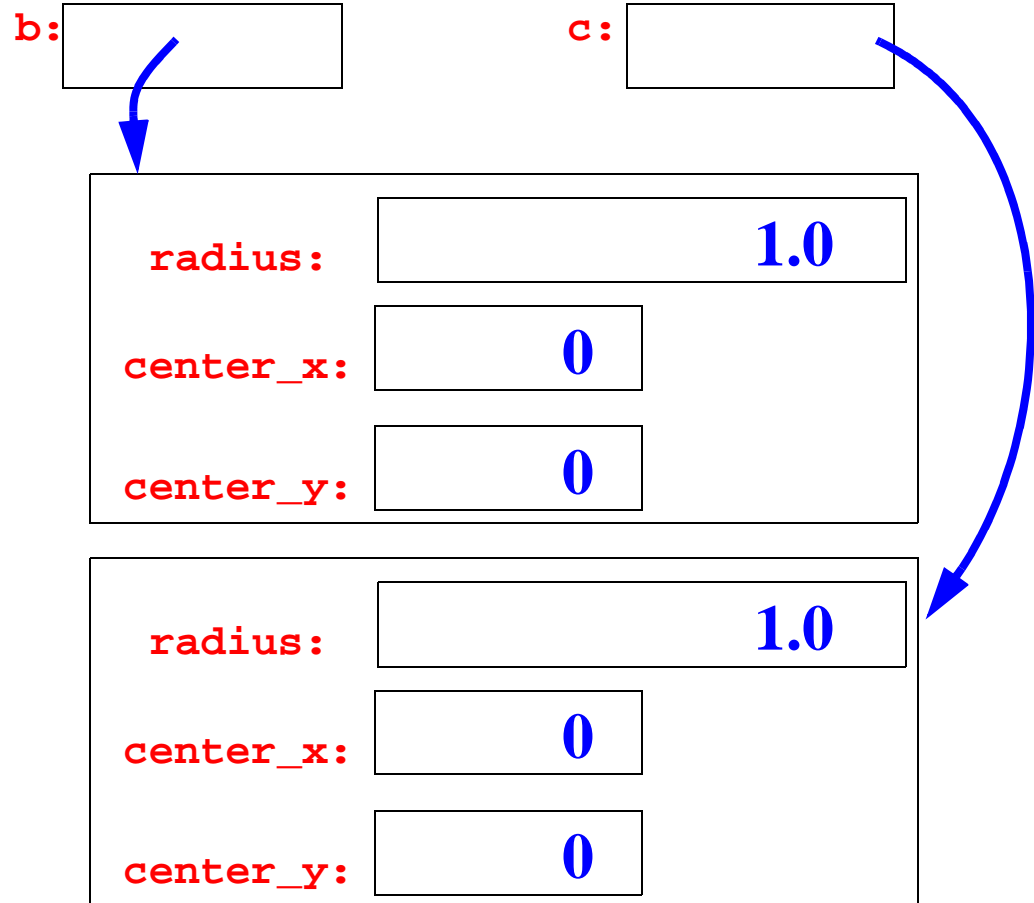
```
public static void main (String args[]) {
```

*create another Circle object, make c point to it*

```
Circle b,c;
```

```
b = new Circle();
```

```
c = new Circle();
```



## Lifetime of objects: an example, frame 3

```
public static void main (String args[]) {
```

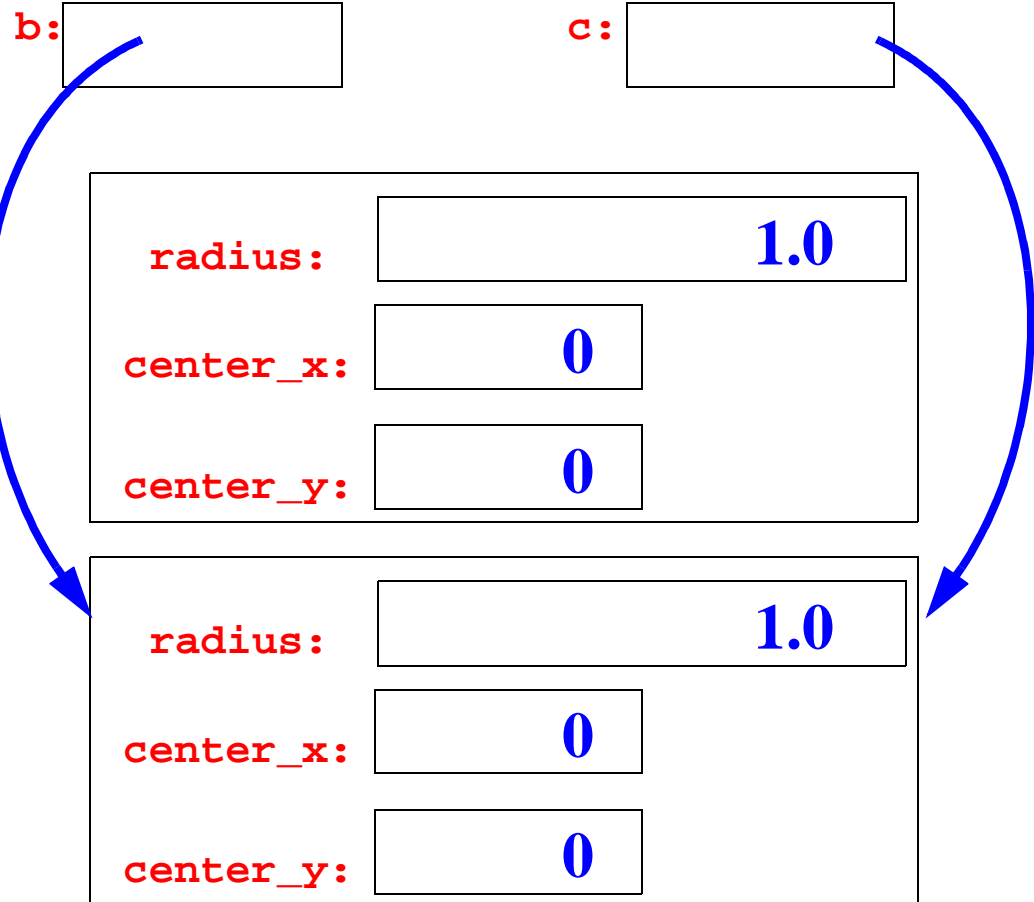
*assign c to b.  
Now b and c point to the same object*

```
Circle b,c;
```

```
b = new Circle();
```

```
c = new Circle();
```

```
b = c;
```



## Lifetime of objects: an example, frame 4

```
public static void main (String args[]) {
```

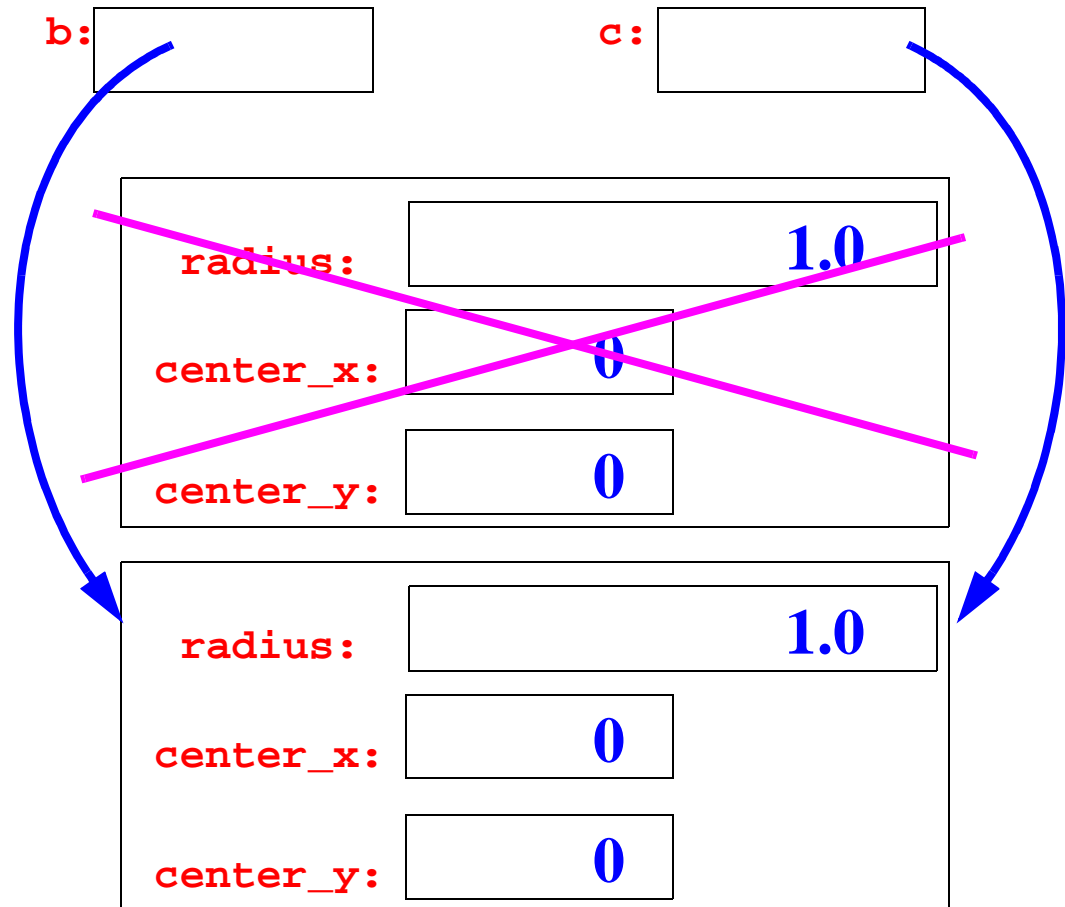
*There is no pointer to the first object...  
Its lifetime is over, and the GC can reclaim it*

```
Circle b,c;
```

```
b = new Circle();
```

```
c = new Circle();
```

```
b = c;
```



# Top-down software design

- ✓ A large problem can be broken down into a collection of subproblems
  - ✗ Each subproblem can be solved separately, and the solutions combined into an overall solution
  - ✗ (And the subproblems can be broken down into sub-subproblems, etc!)
  - ✗ Known as “top-down design”, “stepwise refinement”, “divide-and-conquer”...
- ✓ Top-down design is another example of abstraction in computer programming
  - ✗ By dividing the problem into subproblems that can be solved independently, you can concentrate on some details while abstracting away the rest
  - ✗ This is essential in making really large problems solvable
- ✓ Top-down design can apply in procedural programming, and OO programming

# Top-down design in two paradigms

## ✓ In Procedural programming:

- Each subproblem is solved by designing a subprogram (also called procedure, subroutine, function)
- These functions are called by the main() function and each other to solve the overall problem

## ✓ In OO programming:

- Each subproblem is solved by designing a class
- Objects that are instances of these classes are created and their instance methods are called by a main() method and each other, to solve the overall problem

# Software testing

- ✓ Remember the 3 kinds of bugs: syntax errors, runtime errors, logic errors
- ✓ The compiler finds the first of these, but the other two require program testing to track down and fix
- ✓ Some rules of software testing:
  - ✗ Test every function in your program
  - ✗ Test every path of execution in every function (every branch of every if-else)
  - ✗ To attain “full-coverage” testing like this, you need to test on a variety of well-selected input data

## Top-down and bottom-up testing with top-down design

- ✓ Recall the idea of “top-down”, “stepwise refinement” design:
  - ✗ Start with a problem, decompose it into subproblems, decompose them into sub-subproblems, etc.
  - ✗ Each subproblem is solved by writing a class or a method that is called by methods at a “higher” level, and that calls methods at a “lower” level
- ✓ Every class and method should ultimately be tested in the context of the entire working system. But the pieces should be tested separately first. How to do that?
- ✓ “Bottom-up” testing of a method: The method will be called by other methods, which have not been written yet. So, write a *test driver* that will exercise the method, putting it through its paces in a simulation of how it might be used in the final working software system
- ✓ “Top-down” testing of a method: The method calls other methods, which have not been written yet. So, write *stubs* for these: methods which have the return type, name, and type of arguments of the real methods which will be called, but that don’t do much (maybe just return a value or print a simple message) for testing purposes

## Tracing and debugging

- ✓ When trying to track down logic or runtime errors in your program, it is helpful to look at the values of variables in your program as it is running
  - ✗ this is called *tracing* the variables
  
- ✓ A debugger is a program that lets you trace variables
  - ✗ jdb is the standard JDK Java debugger... but it is not really very easy to use
  - ✗ other development environments for Java may provide nice debuggers
  
- ✓ But instead of using a separate debugger program, you can always place statements in your program to print out the values of variables while testing and debugging it
  - ✗ remove these print statements after debugging!
  - ✗ hint: use the standard error output stream **System.err** instead of **System.out**
    - **err** also normally prints to the terminal, but **err** statements are distinctive, so easy to search for and remove when done with debugging



# Tracing variables

- ✓ Useful places to put print statements for variable tracing:
  - ✗ as the first statement in a method body
    - lets you determine that the function is called
    - lets you print out the values of the formal arguments passed in to the function
  - ✗ just before a return statement in a method body
    - lets you print out the value returned from the function
  - ✗ as the first or last statement in a loop body
    - lets you see how many times the loop body is executed
    - lets you print out initial or final values of the variables in each loop execution
  - ✗ before and after an assignment statement
    - lets you see how the value of a variable changes
  - ✗ elsewhere as needed to indicate progress as your program executes

## Example of tracing a function...

```
int computeStuff(int a1, double a2, char a3)
{
    System.err.print("Entering computeStuff: ");
    System.err.print(" a1=" + a1);
    System.err.print(" a2=" + a2);
    System.err.println(" a3=" + a3);

    int result;

    // .....

    System.err.println("Returning " + result +
        " from computeStuff");

    return result;
}
```

## Next time (after the exam)

- ✓ For-loops
- ✓ Switches
- ✓ Exceptions and exception handling
- ✓ Creating and throwing exceptions
- ✓ try-catch blocks
- ✓ throws-clause declarations
- ✓ Exception handling in SavitchIn

(Reading: Savitch, Ch. 3 and 8)