

# Inheritance

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## Object Oriented Programming



**SoftEng**  
<http://softeng.polito.it>

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# Inheritance

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- A class can be a sub-type of another class
- The derived class contains
  - ♦ all the members of the class it inherits from
  - ♦ plus any member it defines explicitly
- The derived class can **override** the definition of existing methods by providing its own implementation
- The code of the derived class consists of the changes and additions to the base class

# Addition

---

```
class Employee{  
    String name;  
    double wage;  
    void incrementWage() {...}  
}
```

```
class Manager extends Employee{  
    String managedUnit;  
    void changeUnit() {...}  
}
```

```
Manager m = new Manager();  
m.incrementWage(); // OK, inherited
```

# Override

---

```
class Vector{  
    int vect[];  
    void add(int x) {...}  
}
```

```
class OrderedVector extends Vector{  
    void add(int x){...}  
}
```

# Inheritance and polymorphism

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```
class Employee{  
    private String name;  
    public void print(){  
        System.out.println(name);  
    }  
}
```

```
Employee e1 = new Employee();  
Employee e2 = new Manager();  
e1.print(); // name  
e2.print(); // name and unit
```

```
class Manager extends Employee{  
    private String managedUnit;  
  
    public void print(){ //override  
        System.out.println(name); //un-optimized!  
        System.out.println(managedUnit);  
    }  
}
```

# Inheritance and polymorphism

---

```
Employee e1 = new Employee();  
Employee e2 = new Manager(); //ok, is_a  
e1.print(); // name  
e2.print(); // name and unit
```

# Why inheritance

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- Frequently, a class is merely a modification of another class. Inheritance minimizes the repetition of the same code
- Localization of code
  - ♦ Fixing a bug in the base class automatically fixes it in the subclasses
  - ♦ Adding a new functionality in the base class automatically adds it in the subclasses too
  - ♦ Less chances of different (and inconsistent) implementations of the same operation

# Why inheritance

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- Often we need to treat in a similar way different objects,
  - ◆ Polymorphism allow feeding algorithms with different objects
  - ◆ Dynamic binding allow accomodating different behavior behind the same interface



# Terminology

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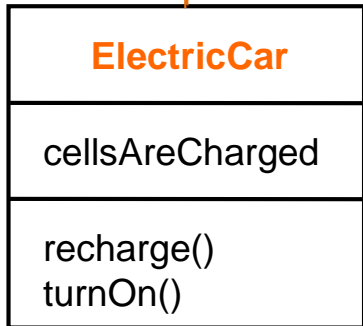
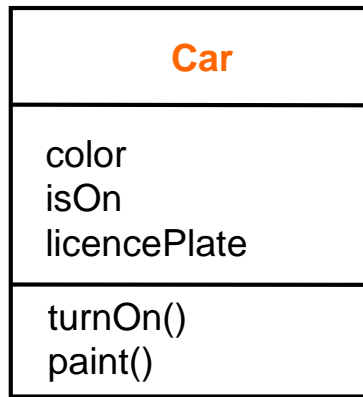
- Class one above
  - ◆ Parent class
- Class one below
  - ◆ Child class
- Class one or more above
  - ◆ Superclass, Ancestor class, Base class
- Class one or more below
  - ◆ Subclass, Descendent class

# Inheritance in a few words

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- Subclass
  - ◆ Inherits attributes and methods defined in base classes
  - ◆ Can modify inherited attributes and methods (*override*)
  - ◆ Can add new attributes and methods

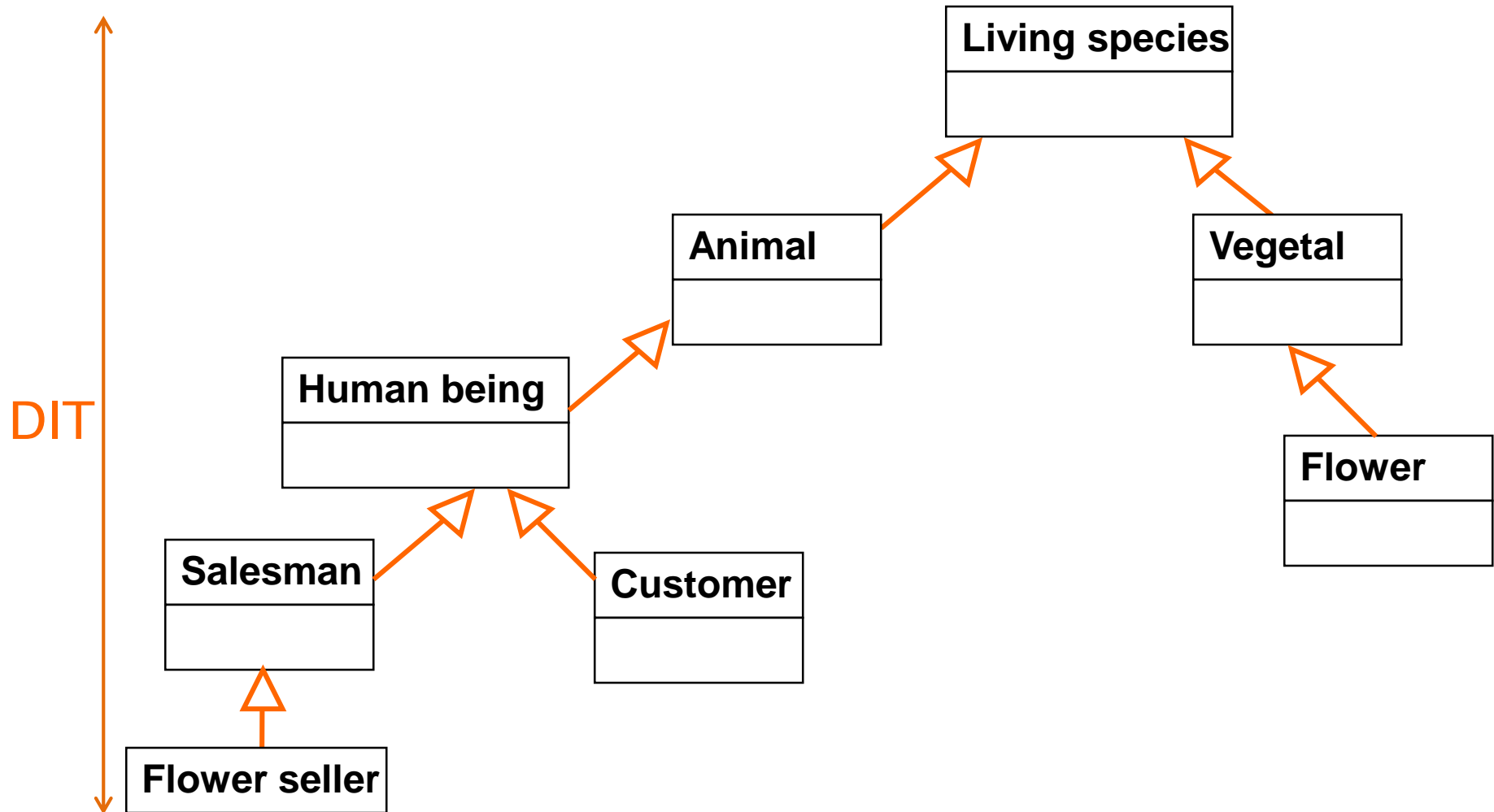
# Inheritance syntax: extends



```
class Car {  
  
    String color;  
    boolean isOn;  
    String licencePlate;  
  
    void paint(String color) {  
        this.color = color;  
    }  
  
    void turnOn() {  
        isOn=true;  
    }  
}
```

```
class ElectricCar extends Car{  
  
    boolean cellsAreCharged;  
  
    void recharge() {  
        cellsAreCharged = true;  
    }  
  
    void turnOn() {  
        if(cellsAreCharged )  
            isOn=true;  
    }  
}
```

# Inheritance tree



# Depth of Inheritance Tree

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- Too deep inheritance trees put at risk the understandability of the code
- $DIT \leq 5$ 
  - ◆ Empirical limit

---

# CASTING

# Types

---

- Java is a strictly typed language, i.e., each variable has a type

```
float f;  
f = 4.7;    // legal  
f = "string"; // illegal  
  
Car c;  
c = new Car(); // legal  
c = new String(); // illegal
```

# Cast

---

- Type conversion

- ◆ explicit or implicit

```
int i = 44;
```

```
float f = i;
```

```
// implicit cast 2c -> fp
```

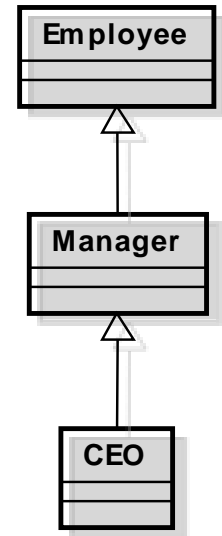
```
f = (float) 44;
```

```
// explicit cast
```



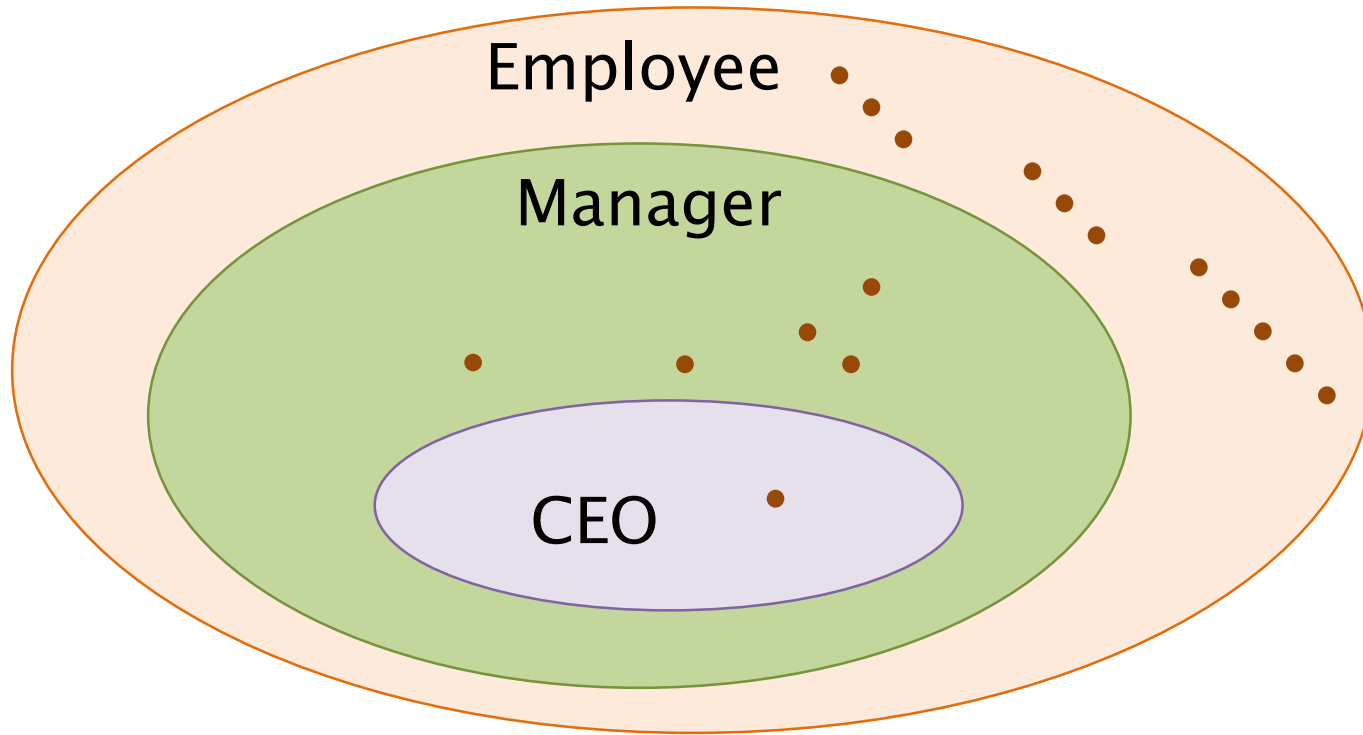
# Cast – Generalization

- Things change slightly with inheritance
- Normal case...



```
Employee e = new Employee("Smith", 12000);  
Manager m = new Manager("Black", 25000, "IT");
```

# Generalization



# Upcast

---

- Assignment from a more specific type (subtype) to a more general type (supertype)
  - ♦ `Employee e = new Employee(...);`  
`Manager m = new Manager(...);`  
`Employee em = m`
  - ♦  $\forall m \in \text{Manager} : m \in \text{Employee}$
- Upcasts are always type-safe and are performed implicitly by the compiler
  - ♦ Though it is legal to explicitly indicate the cast

# Upcast

---

- Motivation

- ◆ You can treat indifferently object of different classes, provided they inherit from a common class

```
Employee[] team = {  
    new Manager("Mary Black", 25000, "IT"),  
    new Employee("John Smith", 12000),  
    new Employee("Jane Doe", 12000)  
};
```

# Cast

---

- Reference type and object type are distinct concepts
- A reference cast only affects the reference
  - ♦ In the previous example the object referenced to by 'em' continues to be of Manager type
- Notably, in contrast, a primitive type cast involves a value conversion

# Downcast

---

- Assignment from a more general type (super-type) to a more specific type (sub-type)
  - ♦ `Manager mm = (Manager) em;`
    - $\exists em \in \text{Employee} : em \in \text{Manager}$
    - $\exists em \in \text{Employee} : em \notin \text{Manager}$
- Not safe by default, no automatic conversion provided by the compiler
  - ♦ MUST be explicit

# Downcast

---

- Motivation

- ◆ To access a member defined in a class you need a reference of that class type
  - Or any subclass

Syntax Error: The method  
getDepartment() is  
undefined for the type  
Employee


```
Employee emp = staff[0];  
s = emp.getDepartment();  
  
Manager mgr = (Manager)staff[0];  
s = mgr.getDepartment();
```

# Downcast – Warning

---

- The compiler trusts any downcast
- The JVM at run-time checks type consistency for all reference assignments

```
mgr = (Manager)staff[1];
```



**ClassCastException:**  
Employee cannot be cast to Manager



# Down cast safety

---

- Use the `instanceof` operator

`aReference instanceof aClass`

- ◆ Returns true if the object referred to by the reference can be cast to the class
  - i.e. if the object belongs to the given class or any of its subclasses

```
if (staff[1] instanceof Manager) {  
    mgr = (Manager) staff[1];  
}
```

---

# POLYMORPHISM AND DYNAMIC BINDING

# Polymorphism

---

- A reference of type  $T$  can point to an object of type  $S$  if-and-only-if
  - ♦  $S$  is  $T$  or
  - ♦  $S$  is a subclass of  $T$

```
Car myCar;  
myCar = new Car();  
myCar = new ElectricCar();
```

# Polymorphism

---

```
Car[] garage = new Car[4];  
garage[0] = new Car();  
garage[1] = new ElectricCar();  
garage[2] = new ElectricCar();  
garage[3] = new Car();  
for(Car a : garage) {  
    a.turnOn();  
}
```

# Static type checking

- The compiler performs a check on method invocation on the basis of the reference type

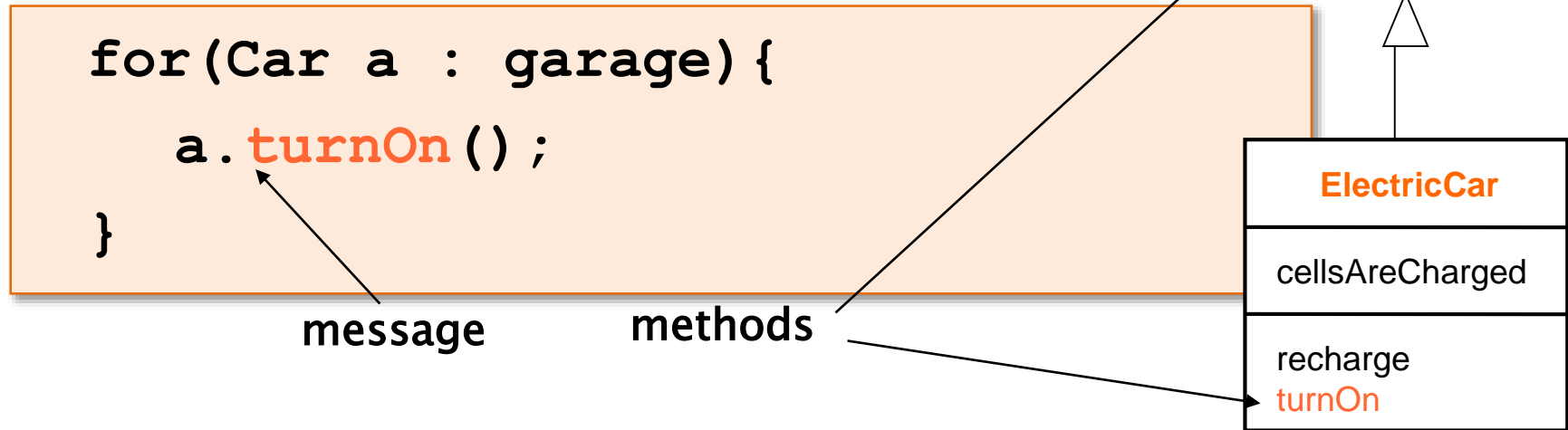
```
for (Car a : garage) {  
    a.turnOn();  
}
```

Does the type of **a** (i.e. **Car**) provide method **turnOn()**?

Car
color isOn licencePlate
turnOn() paint()

# Dynamic Binding

- Association message – method
  - ♦ Performed by JVM at run-time
- Constraint
  - ♦ Same signature



# Dynamic binding procedure

---

- The JVM retrieves the effective class of the target object
- If that class contains the invoked method it is executed
- Otherwise the parent class is considered and the previous step is repeated
- Note: the procedure is guaranteed to terminate
  - ◆ The compiler checks the reference type class (a base of the actual one) defined the method

# Why dynamic binding

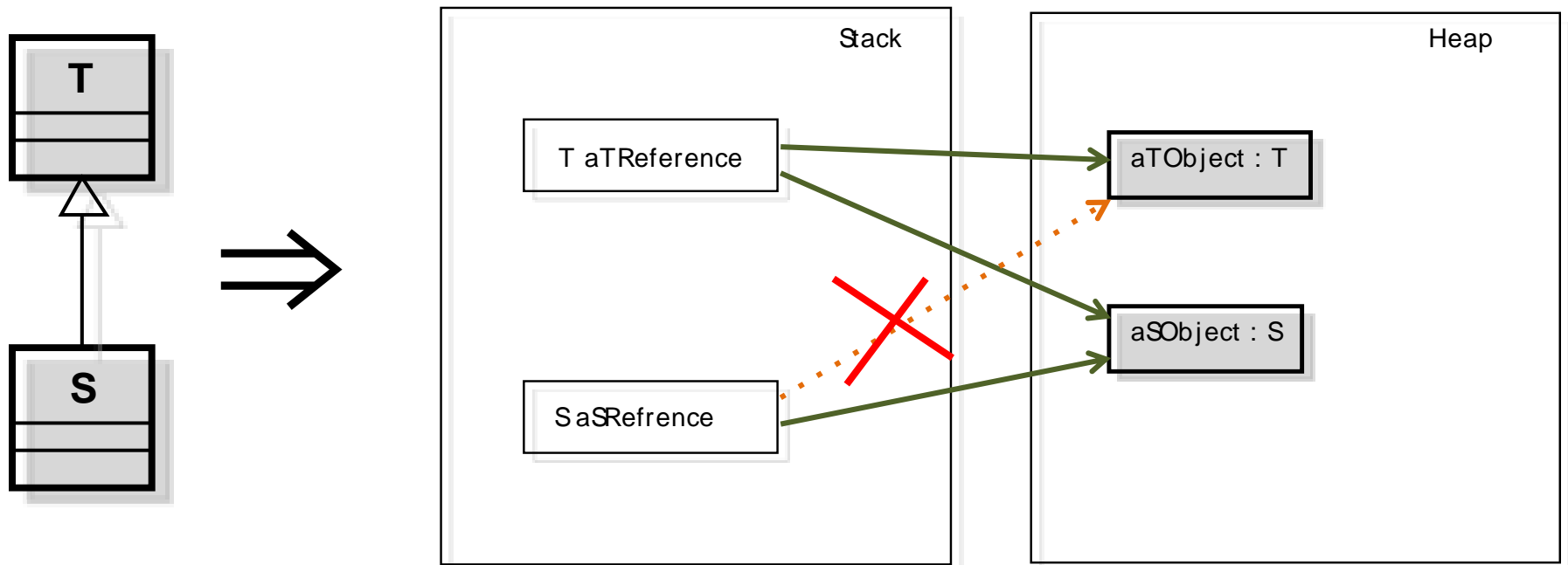
---

- Several objects from different classes, sharing a common ancestor class
- Can be treated uniformly
- Algorithms can be written for the base class (using the relative methods) and applied to any subclass



# Substitutability principle

- If  $S$  is a subtype of  $T$ , then objects of type  $T$  may be replaced with objects of type  $S$ 
  - ♦ A.k.a. Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)

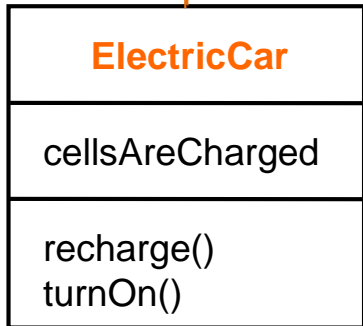
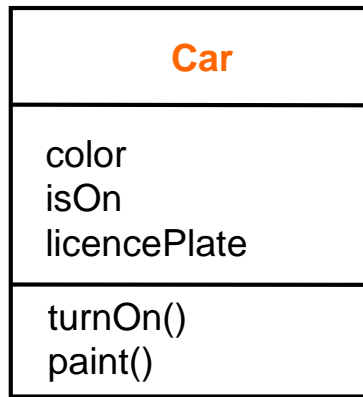


# Masked overridden methods

---

- The presence of an override practically masks the method in the base class
  - ◆ Makes it invisible
- This behavior might be a problem if we wish to re-use the original overridden methods inside a subclass

# Super (reference)



```
class Car {  
  
    String color;  
    boolean isOn;  
    String licencePlate;  
  
    void paint(String color) {  
        this.color = color;  
    }  
  
    void turnOn() {  
        isOn=true;  
    }  
}
```

```
class ElectricCar extends Car{  
  
    boolean cellsAreCharged;  
  
    void recharge() {  
        cellsAreCharged = true;  
    }  
  
    void turnOn() {  
        if(cellsAreCharged )  
            super.turnOn();  
    }  
}
```

# Super (reference)

---

- **this** is a reference to the current object
- **super** is a reference to the parent class

# Attributes redefinition

---

```
class Parent{  
    protected int attr = 7;  
}
```

```
class Child extends Parent{  
    protected String attr = "hello";  
  
    void print(){  
        System.out.println(super.attr);  
        System.out.println(attr);  
    }  
}
```

# Improper override

---

- A method override must use exactly the original method signature
  - ◆ Might widen visibility
- A slightly different method is not an override and therefore not considered in the dynamic binding procedure
- Annotation **@Override**
  - ◆ Inform the compiler that a method is intended as an override

---

# VISIBILITY (SCOPE)

# Example

```
class Employee {  
    private String name;  
    private double wage;  
}
```

```
class Manager extends Employee {  
  
    void print() {  
        System.out.println("Manager" +  
                             name + " " + wage) ;  
    }  
}
```

Not visible





# Protected

---

- Attributes and methods marked as
  - ◆ **public** are always accessible
  - ◆ **private** are accessible from within the declaring class only
  - ◆ **protected** are accessible from within the class and its subclasses

# In summary

---

	Method in the same class	Method of other class in the same package	Method of subclass	Method of class in other package
<b>private</b>	✓			
<i>package</i>	✓	✓		
<b>protected</b>	✓	✓	✓	
<b>public</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓

---

# INHERITANCE AND CONSTRUCTORS

# Construction of child's objects

---

- Since each object “contains” an instance of the parent class, the latter **must** be initialized
- Java compiler automatically inserts a call to **default constructor** (w/o parameters) of the parent class
- The call is inserted as the **first** statement of each child constructor

# Construction of child objects

---

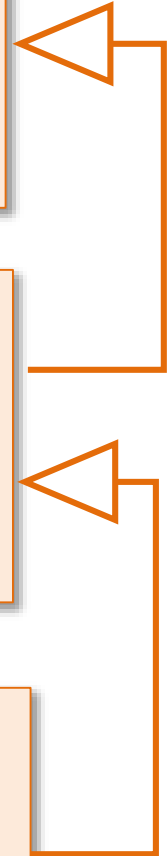
- Execution of constructors proceeds **top-down** in the inheritance hierarchy
- In this way, when a method of the child class is executed (constructor included), the super-class is completely initialized already

# Example

```
class ArtWork {  
    ArtWork() {  
        System.out.println("ctor ArtWork"); }  
}
```

```
class Drawing extends ArtWork {  
    Drawing() {  
        System.out.println("ctor Drawing"); }  
}
```

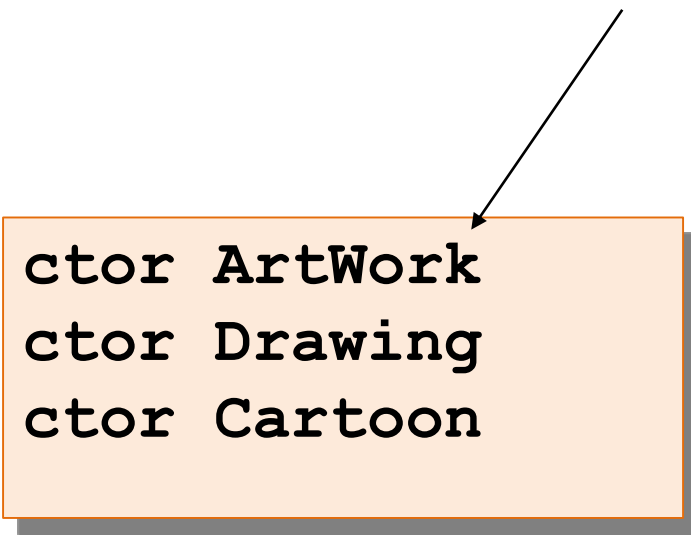
```
class Cartoon extends Drawing {  
    Cartoon() {  
        System.out.println("ctor Cartoon"); }  
}
```



# Example (cont' d)

---

```
Cartoon obj = new Cartoon();
```



A diagram illustrating inheritance. An arrow points from the `Cartoon` class in the code above to the `ArtWork` class in a box below. The box contains a list of classes: `ArtWork`, `Drawing`, and `Cartoon`, all preceded by the keyword `ctor`. This indicates that `Cartoon` inherits from `Drawing`, which in turn inherits from `ArtWork`.

```
ctor ArtWork  
ctor Drawing  
ctor Cartoon
```

# A word of advice

---

- Default constructor “disappears” if custom constructors are defined

```
class Parent{  
    Parent(int i){}  
  
}  
class Child  
extends Parent{ }  
// error!
```

```
class Parent{  
    Parent(int i){}  
    Parent(){} //explicit  
}  
class Child  
extends Parent { }  
// ok!
```



# Super

---

- If you define custom **constructors with arguments**
  - and default constructor is not defined explicitly
- ➔ the compiler cannot insert the call automatically
- ◆ The arguments cannot be inferred

# Super

---

- The child class constructor must call the right constructor of the parent class, **explicitly**
- Use **super()** to identify constructors of parent class
- Must be the **first** statement in child constructors

# Example

```
class Employee {  
    private String name;  
    private double wage;  
    ???  
    Employee(String n, double w) {  
        name = n;  
        wage = w;  
    }  
}
```

```
class Manager extends Employee {  
    private int unit;  
  
    Manager(String n, double w, int u) {  
        super(); ERROR !!!  
        unit = u;  
    }  
}
```

# Example

```
class Employee {  
    private String name;  
    private double wage;  
  
    Employee(String n, double w) {  
        name = n;  
        wage = w;  
    }  
}
```

```
class Manager extends Employee {  
    private int unit;  
  
    Manager(String n, double w, int u) {  
        super(n,w) ;  
        unit = u;  
    }  
}
```

# Final method

---

- The keyword **final** applied to a method makes it not overridable by subclasses
  - ◆ When methods must keep a predefined behavior
  - ◆ E.g. method provide basic service to other methods

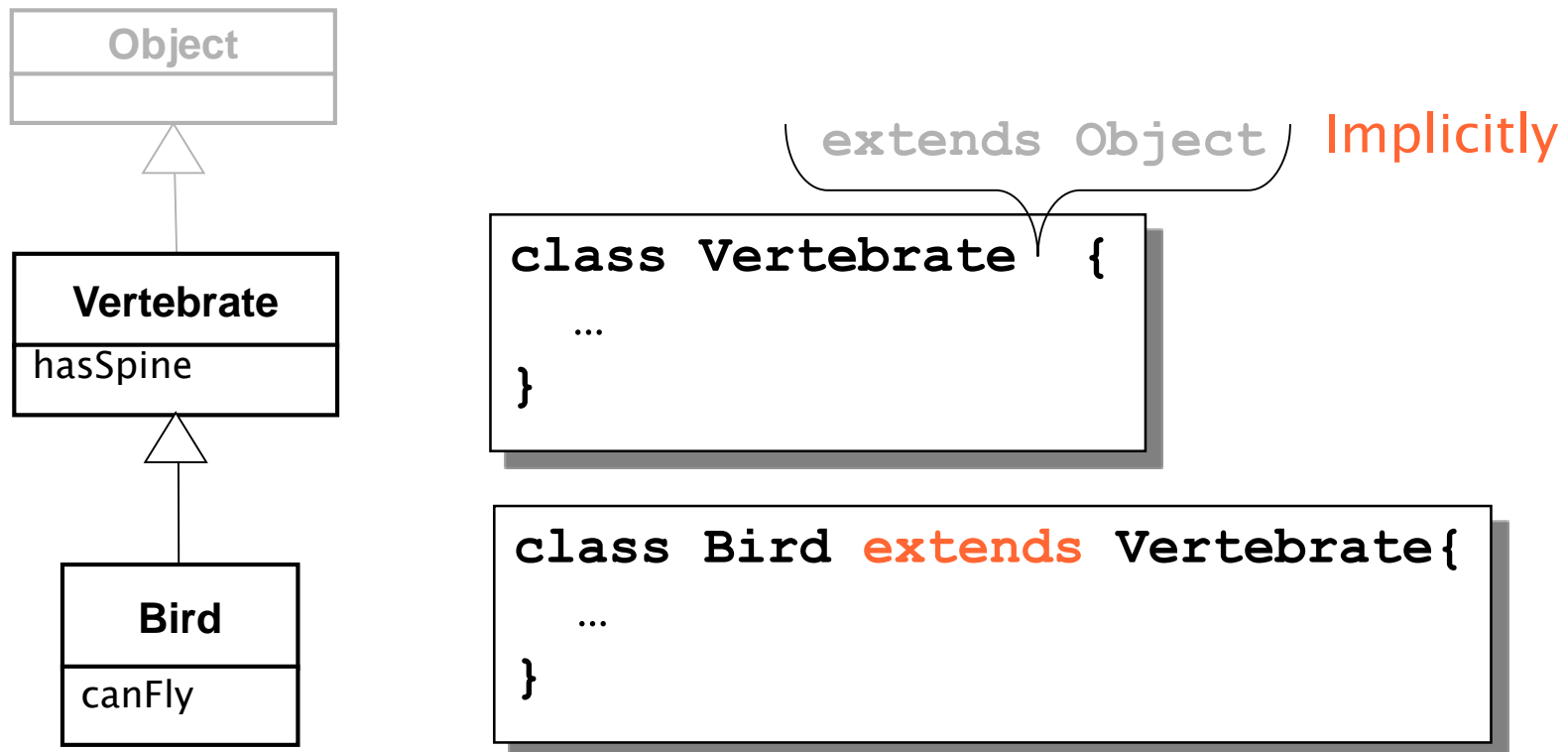
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Not an antinomy:  
in Java there is a class called “Object”

# OBJECT CLASS

# Class Object

- `java.lang.Object`
- All classes are subtypes of Object



# Class Object

---

- Each instance can be seen as an **Object instance** (see Collection)
- Class **Object** defines some **services**, which are useful for all classes
- Often, they are **overridden** in sub-classes

Object
toString() : String equals(Object) : boolean



# Objects' collections

---

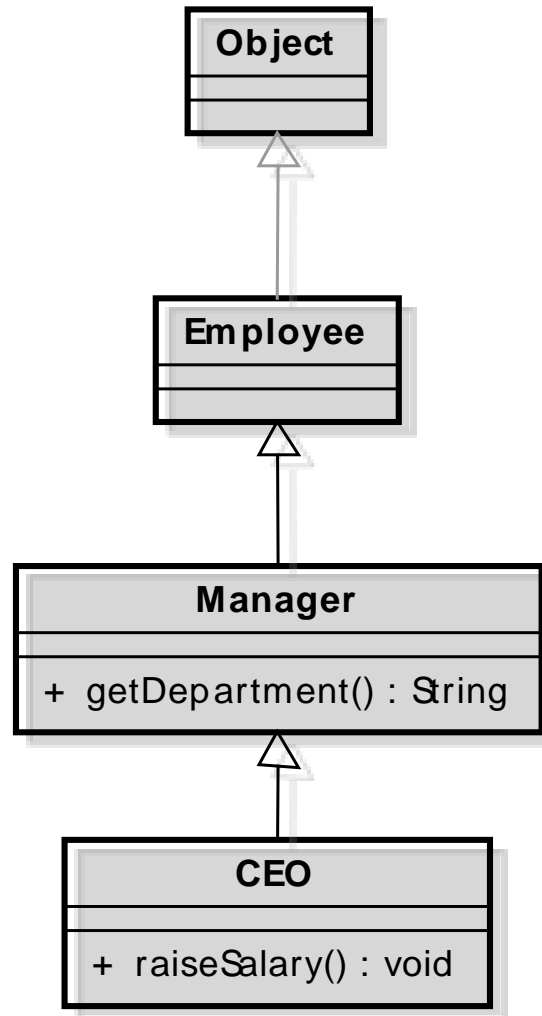
- References of type **Object** play a role similar to `void*` in C

```
Object [] objects = new Object[3];  
objects[0]= "First!";  
objects[2]= new Employee("Luca", "Verdi");  
objects[1]= new Integer(2);  
for(Object obj : objects){  
    System.out.println(obj);  
}
```

Wrappers must be used instead of primitive types

# Company Employees

---



# Upcast to Object

---

- Each class is either directly or indirectly a subclass of **Object**
- It is always possible to upcast any instance to **Object** type (see **Collection**)

```
AnyClass foo = new AnyClass();
```

```
Object obj;
```

```
obj = foo;
```

# Object class methods

---

- **hashCode ()**
  - ♦ Returns a unique code
- **toString ()**
  - ♦ Returns string representation of the object
- **equals ()**
  - ♦ Checks if two objects have same contents
- **clone ()**
  - ♦ Creates a copy of the current object
- **finalize ()**
  - ♦ Invoked by GC upon memory reclamation

# Object.toString()

---

- **toString()**

- ♦ Returns a string representing the object contents
- ♦ The default implementation returns:

**ClassName@#hash#**

- ♦ Es:

**org.Employee@af9e22**

Object
toString() : String equals(Object) : boolean

# Object.equals()

## ▪ equals()

- ◆ Tests equality of values
- ◆ Default implementation compares references:

```
public boolean equals(Object other) {  
    return this == other;  
}
```

- ◆ Must be overridden to compare contents, e.g.:

```
public boolean equals(Object o) {  
    Student other = (Student)o;  
    return this.id.equals(other.id);  
}
```

## Object

```
toString() : String  
equals(Object) : boolean
```

# The equals () Contract

---

- It is **reflexive**: `x.equals(x) == true`
- It is **symmetric**: `x.equals(y) == y.equals(x)`
- It is **transitive**: for any reference values x, y and z
- if `x.equals(y) == true` && `y.equals(z) == true`  
=> `x.equals(z) == true`
- It is **consistent**: for any reference values x and y, multiple invocations of `x.equals(y)` consistently return true (or false), provided that no information used in equals comparisons on the object is modified.
- `x.equals(null) == false`

# The hashCode () contract

---

- **hashCode ()** must **consistently** return the same value, if no information used in **equals ()** is modified.
- If two objects are equal for **equals ()** method, then calling **hashCode ()** on the two objects must produce the same result
- If two objects are unequal for **equals ()** method, then calling **hashCode ()** on the two objects *may* produce distinct results.
  - ♦ producing distinct results for unequal objects may improve the performance of hash tables



# hashCode () VS. equals ()

Condition	Required	Not Required (but allowed)
<code>x.equals(y) == true</code>	<code>x.hashCode() == y.hashCode()</code>	
<code>x.hashCode() == y.hashCode()</code>		<code>x.equals(y) == true</code>
<code>x.equals(y) == false</code>		-
<code>x.hashCode() != y.hashCode()</code>	<code>x.equals(y) == false</code>	

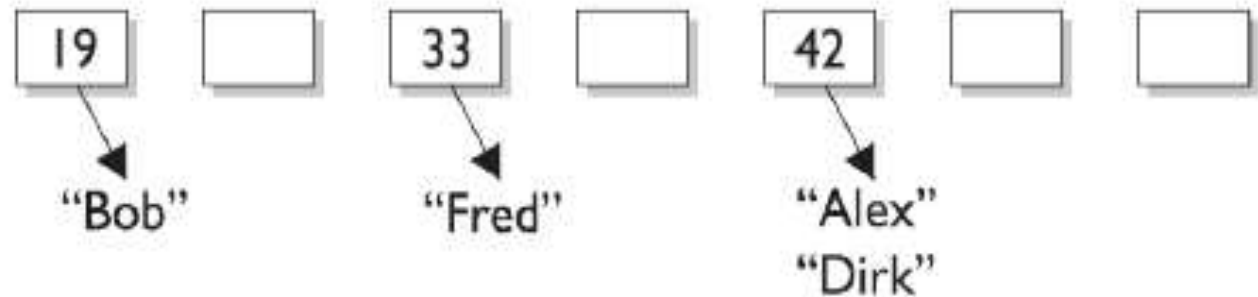
# hashCode example

---

Key	Hashcode Algorithm	Hashcode
Alex	$A(1) + L(12) + E(5) + X(24)$	$= 42$
Bob	$B(2) + O(15) + B(2)$	$= 19$
Dirk	$D(4) + I(9) + R(18) + K(11)$	$= 42$
Fred	$F(6) + R(18) + E(5) + (D)$	$= 33$

## HashMap Collection

Hashcode Buckets



# System.out.print ( Object )

---

- *print* methods implicitly invoke `toString()` on all object parameters

```
class Car{ String toString(){...} }
```

```
Car c = new Car();
```

```
System.out.print(c); // same as...
```

```
... System.out.print(c.toString());
```

- Polymorphism applies when `toString()` is overridden

```
Object ob = c;
```

```
System.out.print(ob); //Car's toString() called
```

# Variable arguments– example

---

```
static void plst(String pre, Object...args) {  
    System.out.print(pre + ", ");  
    for(Object o:args) {  
        if(o!=args[0]) System.out.print(", ");  
        System.out.print(o) ;  
    }  
    System.out.println() ;  
}  
  
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    plst("List:", "A", 'b', 123, "hi!");  
}
```

---

# ABSTRACT CLASSES

# Abstract class

---

- Often, a superclass is used to define common behavior for many children classes
- Though some methods have no obvious implementation in the superclass
- The behavior is left partially unspecified
- The superclass cannot be instantiated

# Abstract modifier

---

- The **abstract** modifier marks the class as non-complete
- The modifier must be applied to all incomplete method and to the class

```
public abstract class Expression {  
  
    // to be implemented in child classes  
    public abstract double evaluate();  
}
```

No method body

# Abstract modifier

```
public class Operand extends Expression {  
    private double value;  
    public Operand(double v) {  
        value = v;  
    }  
    public double evaluate() {  
        return value;  
    }  
}
```

Expression e=new Expression(); //No: abstract

Expression v=new Operand(1); // OK: concrete

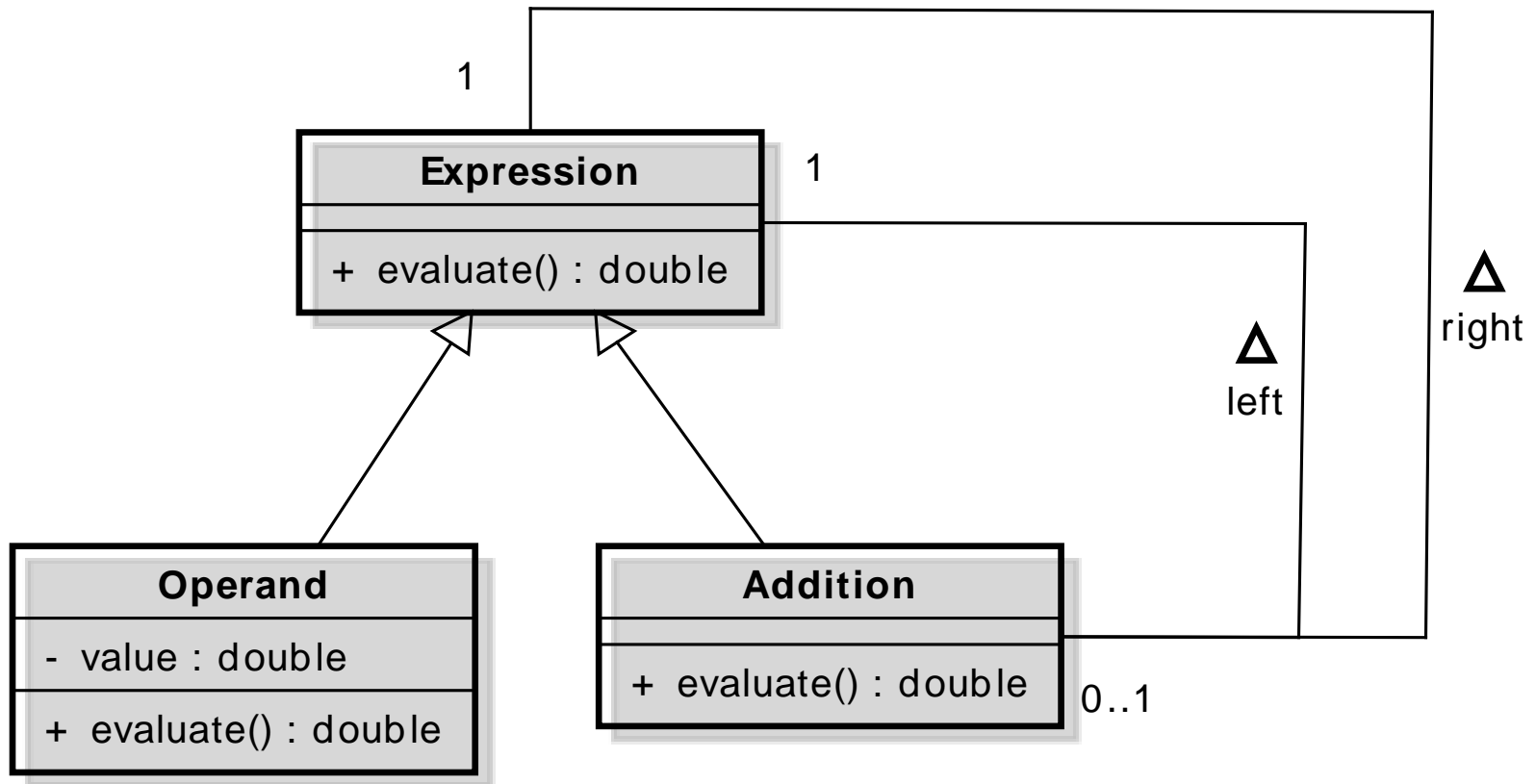


# Abstract modifier

```
public class Addition extends Expression {
    private Expression left, right;
    public Addition(Expression l,
                    Expression r) {
        left=l; right=r;
    }
    public double evaluate() {
        return left.evaluate()+right.evaluate();
    }
}
```

```
Expression s= new Addition(
                    new Operand(3) ,
                    v) ;
double res = s.evaluate();
```

# Abstract Expression Tree

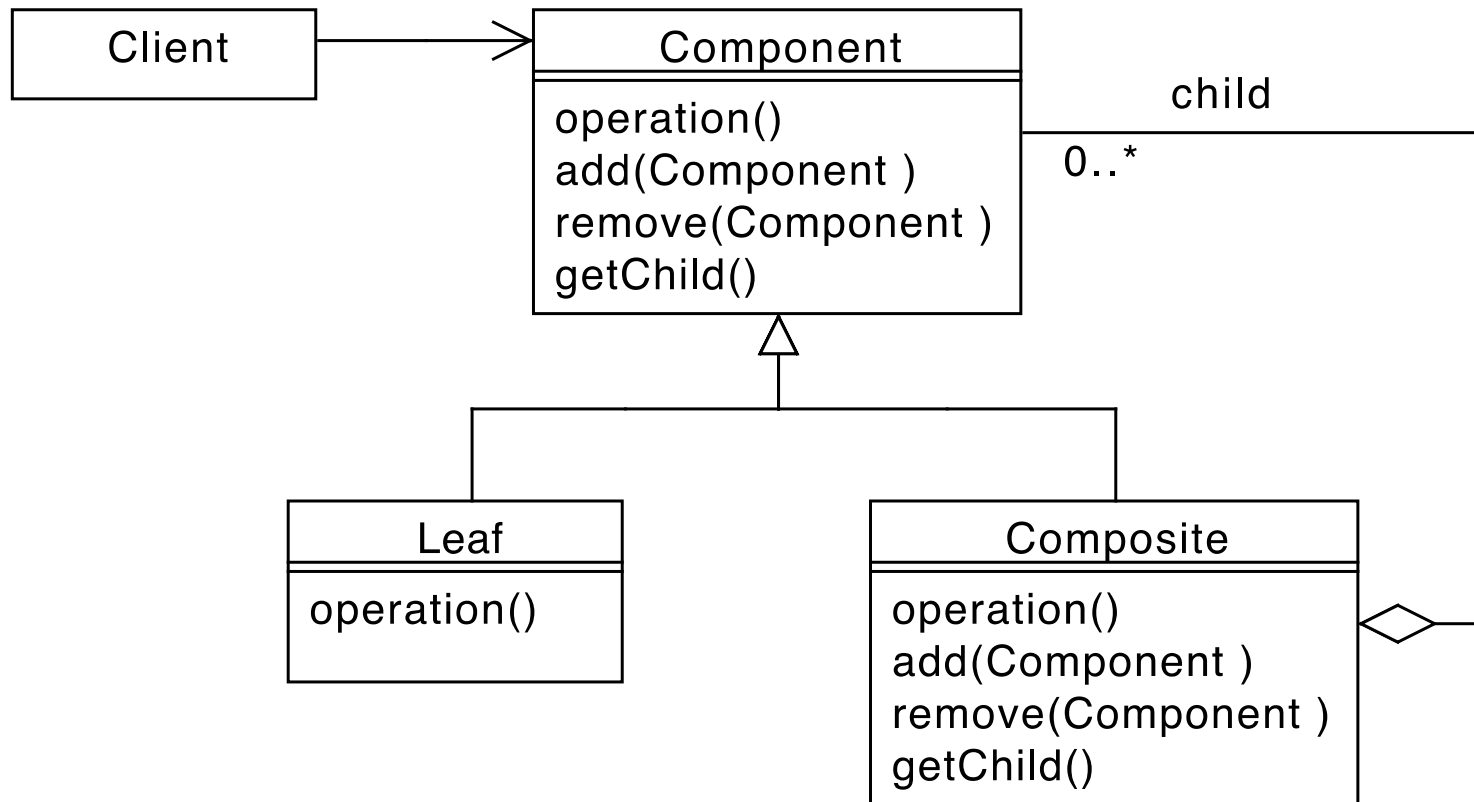


# Composite Pattern

---

- Context:
  - ◆ You need to represent part-whole hierarchies of objects
- Problem
  - ◆ Clients need to access a unique interface
  - ◆ There are structural difference between composite objects and individual objects.

# Composite Pattern



# Example: Sorter

---

```
public abstract class Sorter {  
    public void sort(Object v[]) {  
        for(int i=1; i<v.length; ++i)  
            for(int j=1; j<v.length; ++j) {  
                if(compare(v[j-1],v[j])>0)  
                    Object o=v[j];  
                    v[j]=v[j-1]; v[j-1]=o;  
            }  
    }  
    abstract int compare(Object a, Object b);  
}
```

# StringSorter

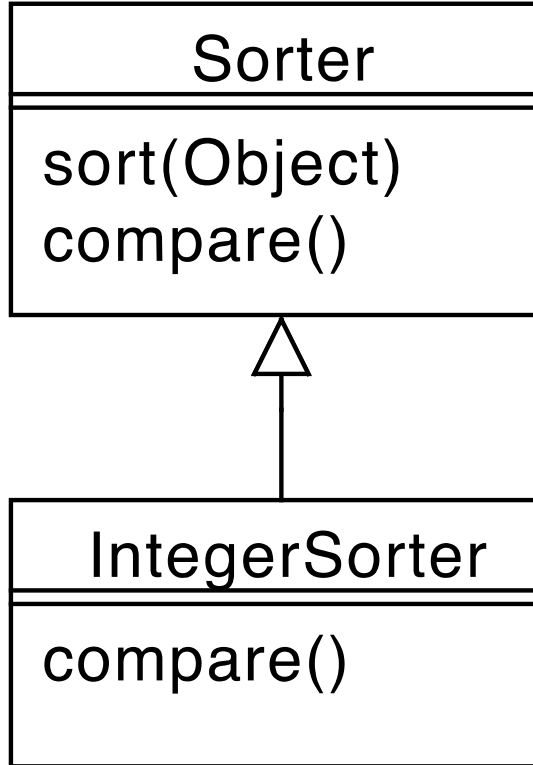
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```
class StringSorter extends Sorter {  
    int compare(Object a, Object b) {  
        String sa=(String)a;  
        String sb=(String)b;  
        return sa.compareTo(sb);  
    }  
}
```

```
Sorter ssrt = new StringSorter();  
String[] v={"g","t","h","n","j","k"};  
ssrt.sort(v);
```

# Template Method Example

---



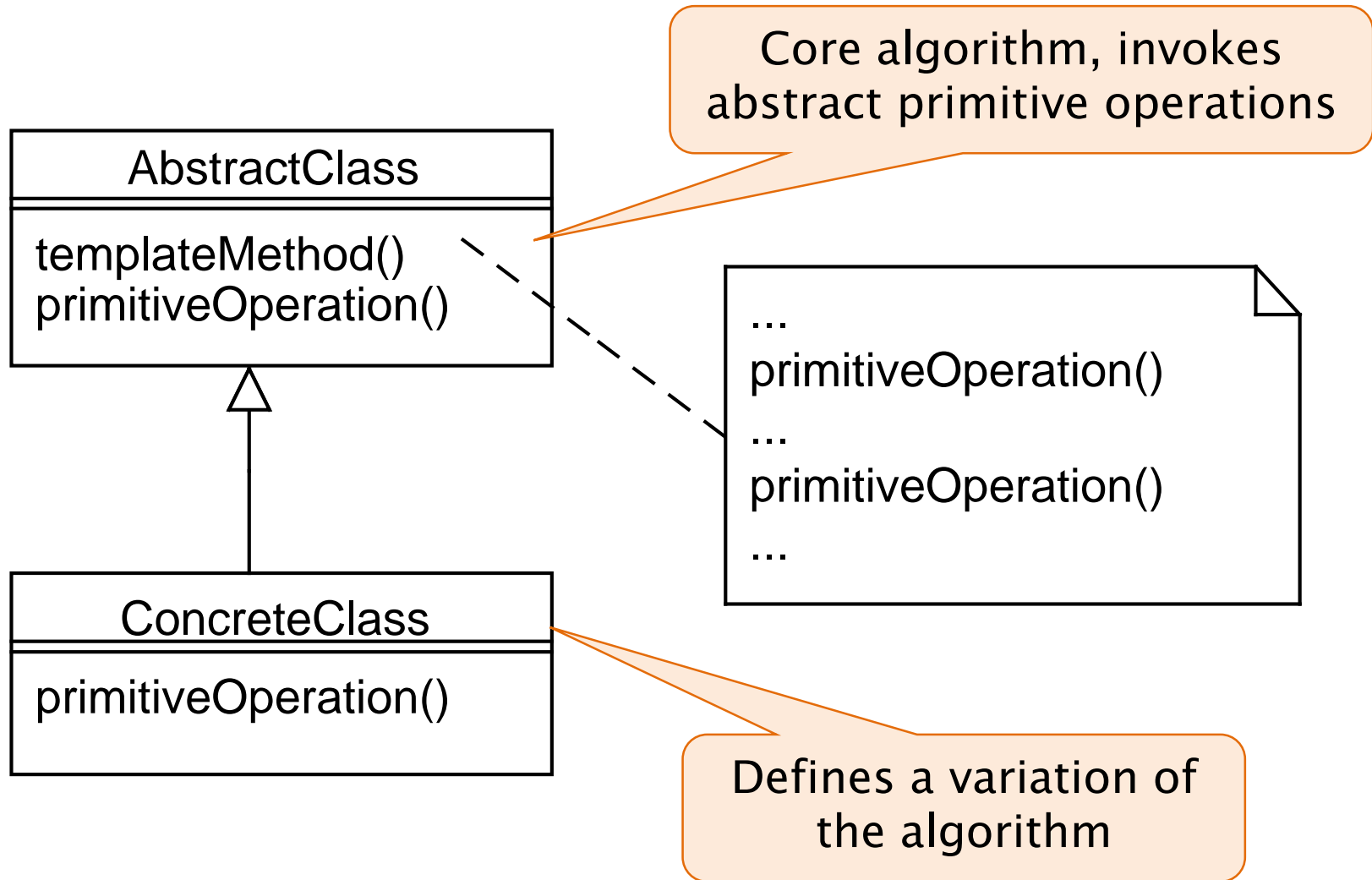
# Template Method Pattern

---

- Context:
  - ◆ An algorithm/behavior has a stable core and several variation at given points
- Problem
  - ◆ You have to implement/maintain several almost identical pieces of code



# Template Method



---

# INTERFACES

# Java interface

---

- Special type of class where
  - ◆ Methods are implicitly abstract (no body)
  - ◆ Attributes are implicitly static and final
  - ◆ Members are implicitly public
- Defined with keyword **interface**
  - ◆ Instead of `class`
- Cannot be instantiated
  - ◆ i.e. no `new`
- Can be used as a type for references
  - ◆ Similar to abstract class

# Interface implementation

---

- Class **implements** interfaces
  - ♦ A class must implement all interface methods unless the class is abstract
  - ♦ Interfaces are similar to abstract classes with only abstract methods

```
interface Iface {  
    void method();  
}
```

```
class Cls implements Iface {  
    void method() {  
        // . . .  
    }  
}
```

# Interfaces and inheritance

---

- An interface can extend another interface, cannot extend a class

```
interface Bar extends Comparable {  
    void print();  
}
```



interface

- An interface can extend multiple interfaces

```
interface Bar extends Orderable, Comparable {  
    ...  
}
```



interfaces

# Class implementations

---

- A class can **extend** only **one** class
- A class can **implement multiple** interfaces

```
class Person  
    extends Employee  
    implements Orderable, Comparable {...}
```

# Purpose of interfaces

---

- Define a **common “interface”**
  - ◆ Allows alternative implementations
- Provide a **common behavior**
  - ◆ Define a (set of) method(s) to be called by algorithms
- Enable **Behavioral parameterization**
  - ◆ Encapsulate behavior in an object passed as parameter
- Enable **Communication decoupling**
  - ◆ Define a set of callback method(s)

# Alternative implementations

---

- Complex numbers

```
public interface Complex {  
    double real();  
    double imaginary();  
    double modulus();  
    double argument();  
}
```

- ♦ Can be implemented using either Cartesian or polar coordinates storage



# Alternative implementations

---

- Context
  - ◆ Same module can be implemented in different ways by distinct classes with variations of:
    - Storage type or strategy
    - Processing
- Problem
  - ◆ The classes should be usable interchangeably
- Solution
  - ◆ Interface provides a set of methods with a well defined semantics and functional specification
  - ◆ Distinct classes can implement it

# Common behavior: sorting

---

- Class `java.util.Arrays` provides the static method `sort()`

```
int[] v = {7,2,5,1,8,5};
```

```
Arrays.sort(v);
```

- Sorting object arrays requires a way to compare two objects:
  - ♦ `java.lang.Comparable`

# Comparable

---

– Interface `java.lang.Comparable`

```
public interface Comparable{  
    int compareTo (Object obj);  
}
```

- Semantics: returns
  - ♦ a negative integer if `this` precedes `obj`
  - ♦ 0, if `this` equals `obj`
  - ♦ a positive integer if `this` follows `obj`

Note: simplified version, actual declaration uses generics

# Comparable

---

```
public class Student
    implements Comparable {
    int id;
    public int compareTo(Object o) {
        Student other = (Student)o;
        return this.id - other.id;
    }
}
```

# Common behavior idiom

---

- Context
  - ◆ An algorithm require its data to provide a predefined set of common operations
- Problem
  - ◆ The algorithm should work on a diverse set of classes
- Solution
  - ◆ Interface provides the set of required methods
  - ◆ Classes implement the interface and provide methods that are used by the algorithm

# Common behavior: iteration

---

– Interface `java.lang.Iterable`

```
public interface Iterable {  
    Iterator iterator();  
}
```

- The class implementing `Iterable` can be the target of a *foreach* construct
  - ♦ Use the `Iterator` interface

Note: simplified version, actual declaration uses generics

# Common behavior: iteration

---

- Interface `java.util.Iterator`

```
public interface Iterator {  
    boolean hasNext();  
    Object next();  
}
```

## ■ Semantics:

- ◆ Initially before the first element
- ◆ `hasNext()` tells if a next element is present
- ◆ `next()` returns the next element and advances by one position

Note: simplified version, actual declaration uses generics

# Iterable example

---

```
class Random implements Iterable {  
    private int[] values;  
    public Random(int n, int min, int max) { ... }  
    class RIterator implements Iterator {  
        private int next=0;  
        public boolean hasNext() {  
            return next < values.length; }  
        public Object next() {  
            return new Integer(values[next++]); }  
    }  
    public Iterator iterator() {  
        return new RIterator();  
    }  
}
```



# Iterable example

---

- Usage of an iterator with for-each

```
Random seq = new Random(10,5,10);  
for(Object e : seq) {  
    int v = ((Integer)e).intValue();  
    System.out.println(v);  
}
```

# Iterator pattern

---

- Context
  - ◆ A collection of objects has to be iterated
- Problem
  - ◆ Multiple concurrent iterations are required
  - ◆ The internal storage must not be exposed
- Solution
  - ◆ Provide an iterator object, attached to the collection, that can be advanced independently


# Behavioral parameterization

```
void process(Object[] v, Processor p){  
    for(Object o : v){  
        p.handle(o);  
    }  
}
```

```
public interface Processor{  
    void handle(Object o);  
}
```

```
String[] v = {"A", "B", "C", "D"};  
Processor printer = new Printer();  
process(v, printer);
```

```
public class Printer  
implements Processor{  
    public void handle(Object o){  
        System.out.println(o);  
    }  
}
```



# Behavioral parameterization

```
void process(Object[] v, Processor p) {  
    for(Object o : v) {  
        p.handle(o);  
    }  
}
```

```
public interface Processor {  
    void handle(Object o);  
}
```

```
String[] v = {"A", "B", "C", "D"};  
Processor printer = new Processor() {  
    public void handle(Object o) {  
        System.out.println(o);  
    }  
};  
process(v, printer);
```

Anonymous inner class

# Strategy Pattern

---

- Context
  - ◆ Many classes or algorithm has a stable core and several behavioral variations
    - The operation performed may vary
- Problem
  - ◆ Several different implementations are needed.
  - ◆ Multiple conditional constructs tangle the code.

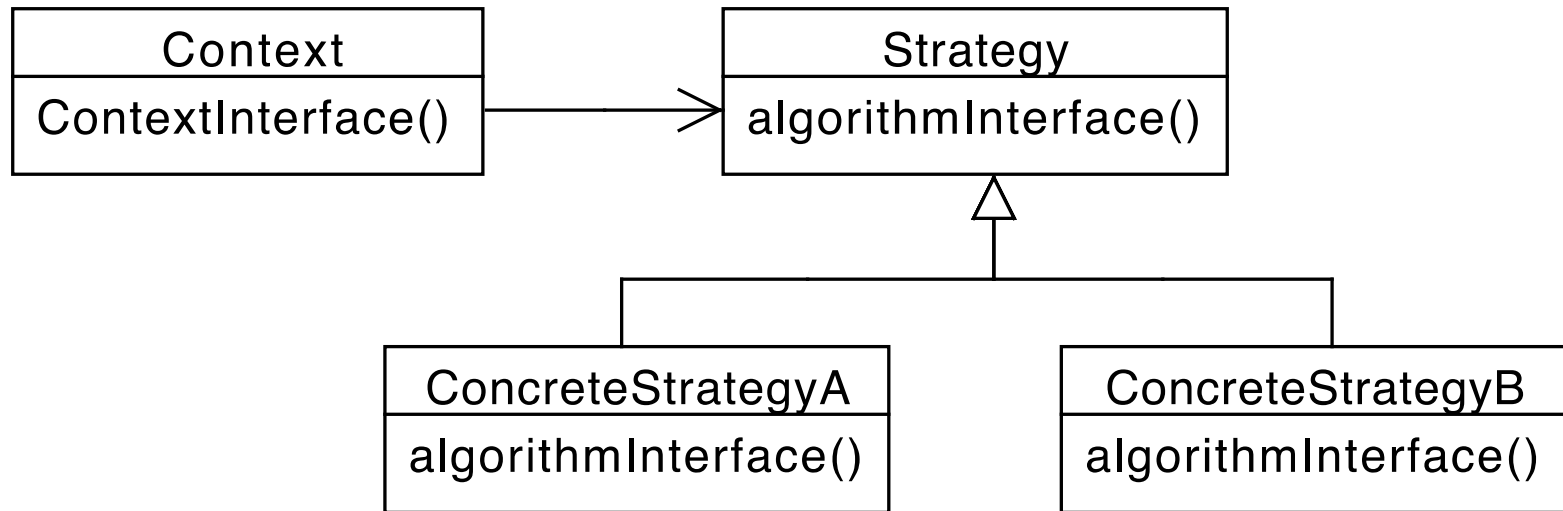
# Strategy Pattern

---

- Solution
  - ◆ Embed inside a strategy object passed as a parameter to the algorithm
  - ◆ The strategy object's class implements an interface providing the operations required by the algorithm

# Strategy Pattern

---



# Comparator

---

– Interface `java.util.Comparator`

```
public interface Comparator{  
    int compare(Object a, Object b);  
}
```

- Semantics (as comparable): returns
  - ♦ a negative integer if `a` precedes `b`
  - ♦ 0, if `a` equals `b`
  - ♦ a positive integer if `a` succeeds `b`

Note: simplified version, actual declaration uses generics



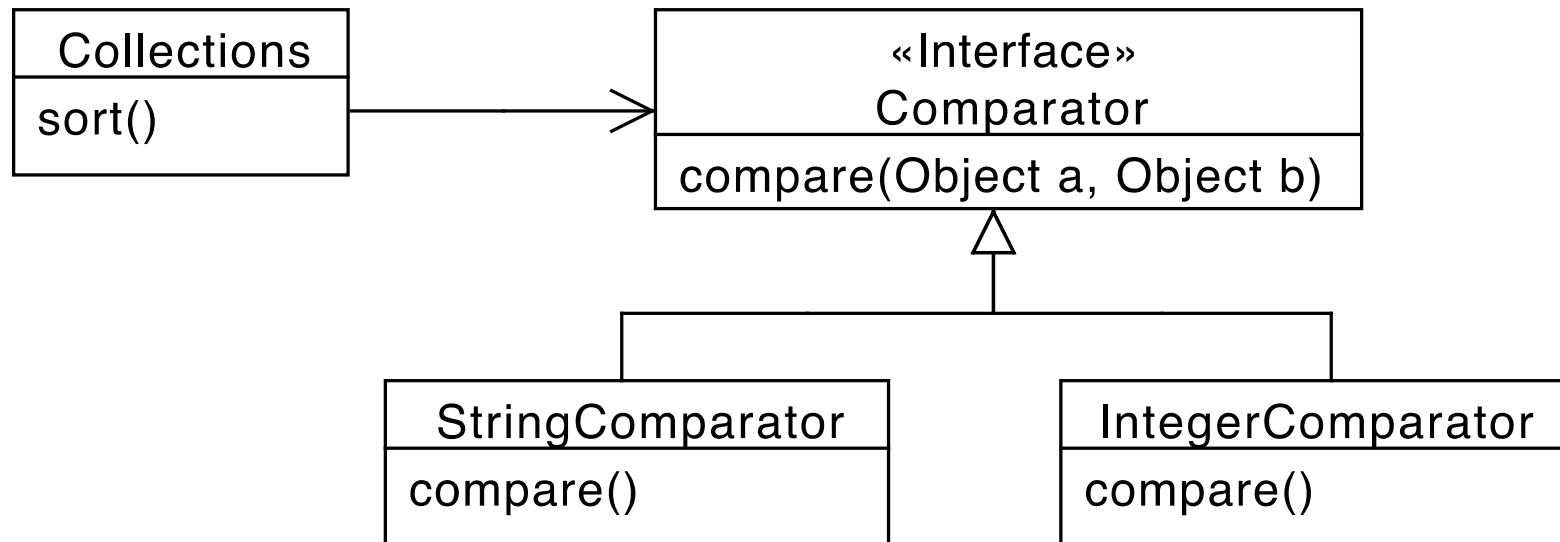
# Comparator

```
public class StudentCmp implements Comparator{  
    public int compare(Object a, Object b){  
        Student sa = (Student)a;  
        Student sb = (Student)b;  
        return a.id - b.id;  
    }  
}
```

```
Student[] sv = {new Student(11),  
                new Student(3),  
                new Student(7)};  
Arrays.sort(sv, new StudentCmp());
```

# Strategy Example: Comparator

---



# Strategy Consequences

---

- + Avoid conditional statements
- + Algorithms may be organized in families
- + Choice of implementations
- + Run-time binding
- Clients must be aware of different strategies
- Communication overhead
- Increased number of objects

# Comparator w/anonymous class

---

```
Student[] sv = {new Student(11),  
                new Student(3),  
                new Student(7)};  
  
Arrays.sort(sv, new Comparator() {  
    public int compare(Object a, Object b) {  
        Student sa = (Student)a;  
        Student sb = (Student)b;  
        return a.id - b.id;  
    }  
});
```

# Communication decoupling

---

- Separating senders and receivers is a key to:
  - ◆ Reduce code coupling
  - ◆ Improve reusability
  - ◆ Enforce layering and structure

# Observer-Observable

---

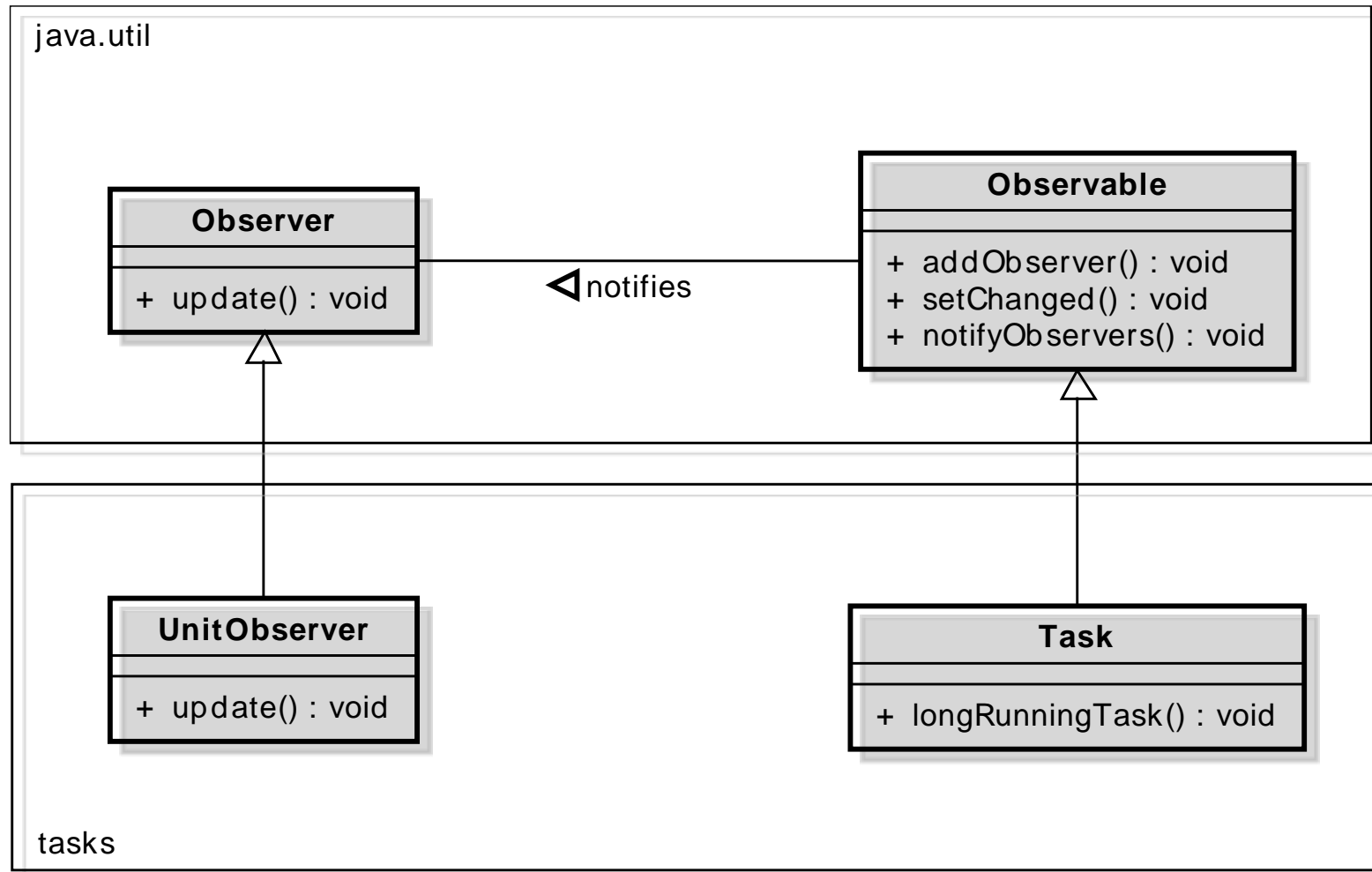
- Allows a standardized interaction between an objects that needs to notify one or more other objects
- Defined in package `java.util`
- Class `Observable`
- Interface `Observer`

# Observer-Observable

---

- Class **Observable** manages:
  - ♦ registration of interested observers by means of method **addObserver()**
  - ♦ sending the notification of the status change to the observer(s) together with additional information concerning the status (event object).
- Interface **Observer** allows:
  - ♦ Receiving standardized notification of the observer change of state through method **update()** that accepts two arguments:
    - Observable object that originated the notification
    - Additional information (the event object)

# Observer-Observable





# Observer-Observable

---

- Sending a notification from an observable element involves two steps:
  - ♦ record the fact the the status of the observable has changed, by means of method **setChanged()**,
  - ♦ send the actual notification and provide additional information (the event object), by means of method **notifyObservers()**

# Observer Pattern

---

- Context:
  - ◆ The change in one object may trigger operations in one or more other objects
- Problem
  - ◆ High coupling
  - ◆ Number and type of objects to be notified may not be known in advance

# Observer Pattern

---

- Solution

- ◆ Define a base Subject class that provides methods to
  - Manage observers registrations
  - Send notifications
- ◆ Define a standard Observer interface with a method that receives the notifications

# Observer – Consequences

---

- + Abstract coupling between Subject and Observer
- + Support for broadcast communication
- Unanticipated updates

# Default methods

---



- Interface method implementation can be provided for **default** methods
  - ♦ Cannot refer to non-static attributes
    - Since they are unknown to the interface
  - ♦ Can refer to arguments and other methods
  - ♦ Can be overridden as usual methods

# Default methods motivation

---



- Enable adding new functionality to the interfaces of libraries and ensure compatibility with code written for older versions of those interfaces.
- Provide extra functionalities through multiple inheritance

# Default method – Example

---

```
public interface Complex {  
    double real();  
    double imaginary();  
    double modulus();  
    double argument();  
    default boolean isReal() {  
        return imaginary() == 0;  
    }  
}
```

---

# FUNCTIONAL INTERFACES





# Functional interface

---



- An interface containing only one regular method
  - `static` methods do not count
  - `default` methods do not count
- The semantics is purely functional
  - ◆ The result of the method is based solely on the arguments
    - i.e. there are no side-effects on attributes
  - ◆ E.g. `java.lang.Comparator`

# Functional interface

---



- Predefined interfaces are defined in
  - ◆ `java.util.function`
  - ◆ Specific for different primitive types
  - ◆ Generic version (see Generics)
- The predefined interfaces can be used to define behavioral parameterization arguments
  - ◆ E.g. strategy objects

# Functions (int versions)

---



- Function
  - ◆ `Object apply(int value)`
- Consumer
  - ◆ `void accept(int value)`
- Predicate
  - ◆ `boolean test(int value)`
- Supplier
  - ◆ `int getAsInt()`
- BinaryOperator
  - ◆ `int applyAsInt(int left, int right)`

# Lambda function



- Definition of anonymous inner instances for functional interfaces

Processor printer =

`o -> System.out.println(o);`

```
new Processor() {  
    public void handle(Object o) {  
        System.out.println(o);  
    }  
};
```

```
public interface Processor{  
    void handle(Object o);  
}
```

# Lambda expression syntax



*parameters* -> *body*

## ■ Parameters

- ◆ None: `()`
- ◆ One: `x`
- ◆ Two or more: `(x, y)`
- ◆ Types can be omitted
  - Inferred from assignee reference type

## ■ Body

- ◆ Expression: `x + y`
- ◆ Code Block: `{ return x + y; }`

# Type inference

---



- Lambda parameter types are usually omitted
  - ♦ Compiler can infer the correct type from the context
  - ♦ Typically they match the parameter types of the only method in the functional interface

# Comparator w/lambda



```
Arrays.sort(sv,  
    (a,b) -> ((Student)a).id - ((Student)b).id  
);
```

Vs.

```
Arrays.sort(sv,new Comparator(){  
    public int compare(Object a, Object b){  
        return ((Student)a).id - ((Student)b).id;  
    }  
});
```

# Method reference



- Represent a compact representation of an instance of a functional interface that invoke single method.

```
Processor printer;  
printer = System.out::println;  
printer.handle("Hello!");
```

Equivalent to:

```
o -> System.out.println(o);
```



# Method reference syntax



**Container :: methodName**

Kind	Example
Static method	<b>Class :: staticMethodName</b>
Instance method of a particular object	<b>object :: instanceMethodName</b>
Instance method of an arbitrary object of a particular type	<b>Type :: methodName</b>
Constructor	<b>Class :: new</b>

# Static method reference



- Similar to a C function
  - ◆ The parameters are the same as the method parameters

`a,b -> Math.max(a,b)`

```
DoubleBinaryOperator combine = Math::max;  
double d=combine.applyAsDouble(1.0, 3.1);
```

```
package java.util.function;  
interface DoubleBinaryOperator {  
    double applyAsDouble(double a, double b);  
}
```

# Instance method of object



- Method is invoked on the object
  - ♦ Parameters are those of the method

`v -> hexDigits.charAt(v)`

```
String hexDigits = "0123456789ABCDEF";  
Radix hex = hexDigits::charAt;  
System.out.println("Hex for 10 : "  
                    + hex.convert(10) );
```

```
interface Radix {  
    char convert(int value);  
}
```

# Instance method reference



- The first argument is the object on which the method is invoked
  - ♦ The remaining arguments are mapped to the method arguments

`s, i -> s.charAt(i)`

```
StringValue f = String::charAt;  
for(String e : v){  
    System.out.println(f.apply(e,0));  
}
```

```
interface StringValue {  
    char apply(String s, int i);  
}
```

# Constructor reference



- The return type is a new object
  - ◆ Parameters are the constructor's parameters

`i -> new Integer(i);`

```
IntegerBuilder builder = Integer::new;
```

```
Integer i = builder.build(1);
```

```
interface IntegerBuilder{  
    Integer build(int value);  
}
```