Advanced Programming

Object-Oriented Programming

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OOP

- Object-oriented programming (OOP) involves programming using objects.
- An **object** represents an entity in the real world that can be distinctly identified.
 - For example: a student, a desk, a circle, a button, and even a loan can all be viewed as objects.
- An object has a unique identity, state, and behavior

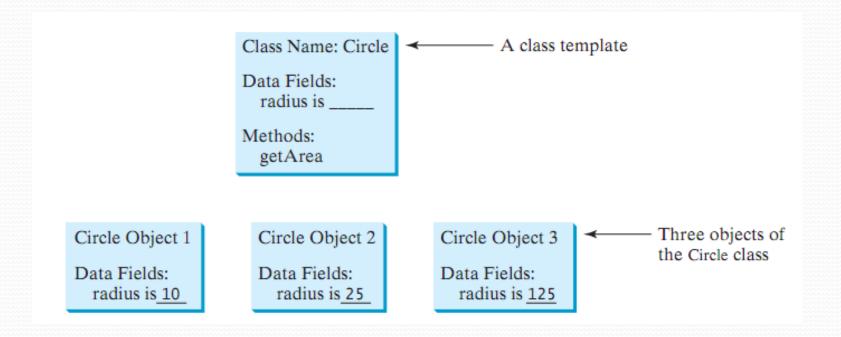
State and behavior

- The *state* of an object (also known as its **properties** or **attributes**) is represented by *data fields* with their current values.
 - A **circle object** has a data field *radius*, which is the property that characterizes a circle.
- The *behavior* of an object is defined by *methods*. To invoke a *method* on an object is to ask the object to perform an action.
 - Define a method named **getArea**() for circle objects. A circle object may invoke **getArea**() to return its area.

Class, Object, Instance

- A class is a template, blueprint, or contract that defines what an object's data fields and methods will be.
- An **object** is an **instance** of a class. You can create many instances of a class.

Class, Object, Instance



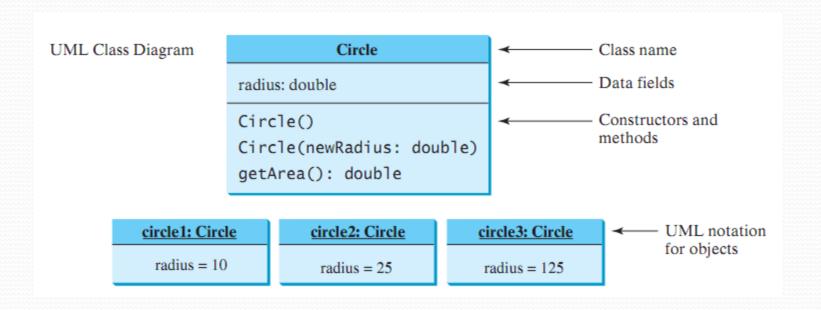
Constructor

- A Java class uses variables to define data fields and methods to define actions.
- A class provides methods of a special type, known as constructors, which are invoked to create a new object.
- A **constructor** can perform any action, but constructors are designed to perform *initializing actions*, such as initializing the data fields of objects.

Class example

```
class Circle {
  /** The radius of this circle */
  double radius = 1.0; \leftarrow
                                              Data field
  /** Construct a circle object */-
  Circle() {
                                              Constructors
  /** Construct a circle object */
  Circle(double newRadius) {
    radius = newRadius;
  /** Return the area of this circle */
  double getArea() {
                                              Method
    return radius * radius * Math.PI;
```

Class diagram



Constructing Objects Using Constructors

- Constructors have three peculiarities:
 - A constructor must have the same name as the class itself.
 - Constructors do not have a return type—not even void.
 - Constructors are invoked using the **new** operator when an object is created. Constructors play the role of initializing objects.
- It is a common mistake to put the *void* keyword in front of a constructor.
 - public void Circle() {}
 - → Circle() is a *method*, not a *constructor*.

Accessing Object via Reference Variables

Newly created objects are allocated in the memory.
 They can be accessed via reference variables.

Reference Variables and Reference Types

- Objects are accessed via object reference variables, which contain references to the object.
 - Syntax: ClassName objectRefVar;
- A class is a *reference type*, which means that a variable of the class type can reference an *instance of the class*.
 - **Circle** myCircle;
- Creates an object and assigns its reference to *myCircle*:
 - myCircle = new Circle();

Reference Variables and Reference Types

 You can write a single statement that combines the declaration of an object reference variable:

ClassName objectRefVar = new ClassName();

- the *creation* of an object: **Circle** myCircle;
- the assigning of an object reference to the variable: myCircle = new Circle();

Accessing an Object's Data and Methods

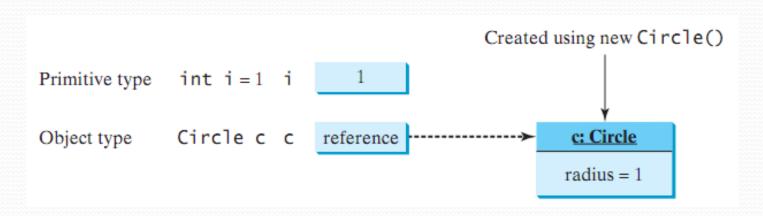
- After an object is created, its data can be accessed and its methods invoked using the dot operator (.), also known as the object member access operator.
 - **objectRefVar.dataField** references a data field in the object.
 - objectRefVar.method(arguments) invokes a method on the object.

Reference Data Fields and the null Value

- The data fields can be of **reference types**.
 - Student class contains a data field *name* of the **String** type.
 - **String** is a predefined Java class.
- If a data field of a reference type does not reference any object, the data field holds a special Java value, null.
 - null is a literal just like *true* and *false*. While true and false are Boolean literals, null is a literal for a *reference* type.

Differences Between Variables of Primitive Types and Reference Types

- When you declare a variable, you are telling the compiler what *type* of value the variable can hold.
 - For a variable of a primitive type, the value is of the primitive type.
 - For a variable of a reference type, the value is a *reference* to where an object is located.



Differences Between Variables of Primitive Types and Reference Types

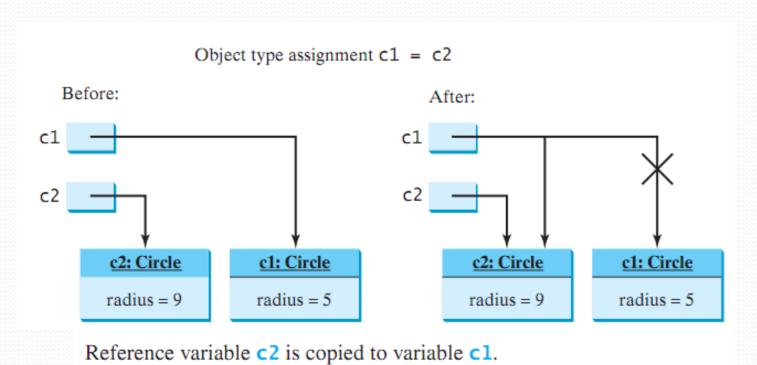
- When you assign one variable to another, the other variable is set to the same value.
 - For a variable of a primitive type, the real value of one variable is assigned to the other variable.

Primitive type assignment i = j			
Before:		After:	
i	1	i	2
j	2	j	2

Primitive variable j is copied to variable i

Differences Between Variables of Primitive Types and Reference Types

• For a variable of a reference type, the reference of one variable is assigned to the other variable.



Using Classes from the Java Library

- Date class
- Random class

The Date class

 Java provides a system-independent encapsulation of date and time in java.util.Date class

java.util.Date

```
+Date()
```

+Date(elapseTime: long)

+toString(): String

+getTime(): long

+setTime(elapseTime: long): void

Constructs a Date object for the current time.

Constructs a Date object for a given time in milliseconds elapsed since January 1, 1970, GMT.

Returns a string representing the date and time.

Returns the number of milliseconds since January 1, 1970, GMT.

Sets a new elapse time in the object.

The Date class

 Java provides a system-independent encapsulation of date and time in java.util.Date class

```
java.util.Date date = new java.util.Date();
System.out.println("The elapsed time since Jan 1, 1970 is
" + date.getTime() + " milliseconds");
System.out.println(date.toString());
```

The Random class

- You have used **Math.random**() to obtain a random double value between o.o and 1.o.
- Another way to generate random numbers is to use the java.util.Random class, which can generate a random int, long, double, float, and boolean value.

java.util.Random

```
+Random()
+Random(seed: long)
+nextInt(): int
+nextInt(n: int): int
+nextLong(): long
+nextDouble(): double
+nextFloat(): float
+nextBoolean(): boolean
```

Constructs a Random object with the current time as its seed.

Constructs a Random object with a specified seed.

Returns a random int value.

Returns a random int value between 0 and n (exclusive).

Returns a random long value.

Returns a random double value between 0.0 and 1.0 (exclusive).

Returns a random float value between 0.0F and 1.0F (exclusive).

Returns a random boolean value.

The Random class

- When you create a Random object, you have to specify a seed or use the default seed.
- The no-arg constructor creates a Random object using the current elapsed time as its seed.
- If two Random objects have the same seed, they will generate identical sequences of numbers.

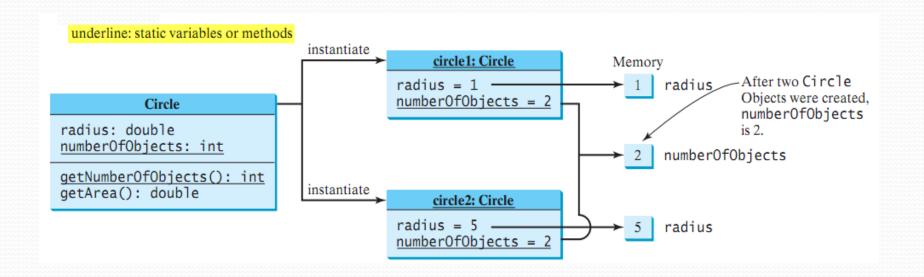
The Random class

```
Random random1 = new Random(3);
System.out.print("From random1: ");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
System.out.print(random1.nextInt(1000) + " ");
Random random2 = new Random(3);
System.out.print("\nFrom random2: ");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
System.out.print(random2.nextInt(1000) + " ");</pre>
```

The code generates the same sequence of random int values:

```
From random1: 734 660 210 581 128 202 549 564 459 961 From random2: 734 660 210 581 128 202 549 564 459 961
```

Static Variables, Constants, and Methods



Static Variables, Constants, and Methods

• The data field **radius** in the Circle class is known as an <u>instance variable</u>. An instance variable is tied to a specific instance of the class; it is **not shared** among objects of the same class.

Circle circle1 = new Circle();
Circle circle2 = new Circle(5);

- The radius in circle1 is *independent* of the radius in circle2 and is stored in a different memory location.
- Changes made to **circle**1's radius do not affect **circle**2's radius, and vice versa.

Static Variables, Constants, and Methods

- If you want all the instances of a class to *share data*, use *static variables*, also known as *class variables*.
- *Static variables* store values for the variables in a common memory location.
- Because of this common location, if one object changes the value of a static variable, *all* objects of the same class are affected.
- Static methods can be called without creating an instance of the class

```
static int numberOfObjects;

static int getNumberObjects() {
  return numberOfObjects;
}
Object Oriented Programming
```

Example

```
public class Circle {
       double radius;
       static int numberOfObjects = 0; //Number of objects created
        public Circle() {
               radius = 1.0;
              numberOfObjects++;
        public Circle(double newRadius) {
              numberOfObjects++;
       static int getNumberOfObjects() {
               return numberOfObjects;
       public double getArea() {
               return radius * radius * Math.PI;
```

- You can use the public visibility modifier for classes, methods, and data fields to denote that they can be accessed from any other classes.
- If no visibility modifier is used, then by default the classes, methods, and data fields are accessible by any class in the same package. This is known as *package-private* or *package-access*.

• The **private** modifier makes methods and data fields accessible only from within its own class.

```
package p1;

public class C1 {
   public int x;
   int y;
   private int z;

public void m1() {
   }
   void m2() {
   }
   private void m3() {
   }
}
```

```
package p1;

public class C2 {
   void aMethod() {
    C1 o = new C1();
    can access o.x;
   can access o.y;
   cannot access o.z;

   can invoke o.m1();
   can invoke o.m2();
   cannot invoke o.m3();
  }
}
```

```
package p2;

public class C3 {
   void aMethod() {
    C1 o = new C1();
    can access o.x;
   cannot access o.y;
   cannot access o.z;

   can invoke o.m1();
   cannot invoke o.m2();
   cannot invoke o.m3();
  }
}
```

• If a class is not defined **public**, it can be accessed only within the same package

```
package p1;
class C1 {
    ...
}
```

```
package p1;
public class C2 {
   can access C1
}
```

```
package p2;

public class C3 {
   cannot access C1;
   can access C2;
}
```

- To allow subclasses to access data fields or methods defined in the superclass, but not allow nonsubclasses to access these data fields and methods → use the protected keyword.
- A protected data field or method in a superclass can be accessed in its subclasses.

```
package p1;
                                public class C2 {
  public class C1 {
     public int x;
                                  C1 o = new C1();
     protected int y;
                                  can access o.x:
     int z:
                                  can access o.y;
     private int u;
                                  can access o.z;
                                  cannot access o.u;
     protected void m() {
                                  can invoke o.m();
                                  package p2;
  public class C3
                                     public class C4
                                                                  public class C5 {
            extends C1 {
                                               extends C1 {
                                                                     C1 o = new C1();
     can access x;
                                       can access x;
                                                                     can access o.x;
     can access y;
                                       can access y;
                                                                     cannot access o.y;
                                                                     cannot access o.z;
     can access z;
                                       cannot access z;
     cannot access u:
                                       cannot access u:
                                                                     cannot access o.u;
     can invoke m():
                                       can invoke m():
                                                                     cannot invoke o.m():
```

Datafield Encapsulation

- The data fields radius and numberOfObjects in the Circle2 class can modified directly
 - myCircle.radius = 5
 - Circle.numberOfObjects = 1
- This is not a good practice—for two reasons:
 - First, data may be tampered with.
 - For example, numberOfObjects is to count the number of objects created, but it may be mistakenly set to an arbitrary value (e.g., Circle.numberOfObjects = 10).
 - Second, the class becomes difficult to maintain and vulnerable to bugs.
 - Suppose you want to modify the **Circle** class to ensure that the **radius** is nonnegative after other programs have already used the class. You have to change not only the **Circle** class but also the programs that use it, because the clients may have modified the radius directly (e.g., myCircle.radius = -5).

Datafield Encapsulation

- To prevent direct modifications of data fields, you should declare the data fields private, using the private modifier. This is known as data field encapsulation.
- A **private** data field cannot be accessed by an object from outside the class. But often a client needs to retrieve and modify a data field.
 - To make a private data field accessible, provide a **get** method to return its value:
 - public returnType getPropertyName()
 - To enable a private data field to be updated, provide a **set** method to set a new value.
 - public void setPropertyName(dataType propertyValue)

Passing Objects to Methods

• You can pass **objects** to methods. Passing an object is actually passing the **reference** of the object.

```
public class Test {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      Circle myCircle = new Circle(5.0);
      printCircle(myCircle);
   public static void printCircle(Circle c) {
      System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius
                    c.getRadius() + " is " + c.getArea());
```

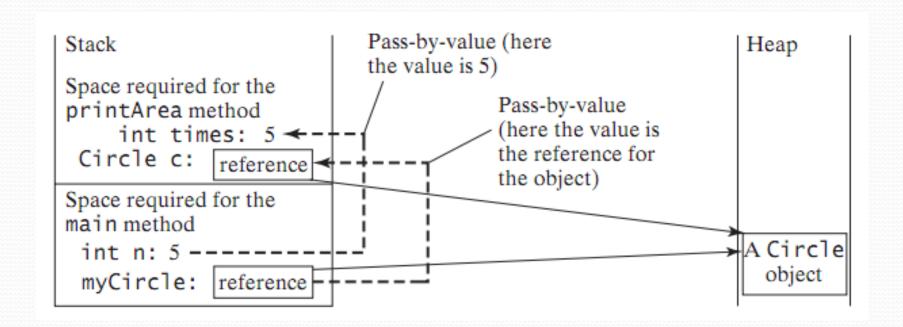
Example

```
public class Circle {
       double radius;
       static int numberOfObjects = 0; //Number of objects created
        public Circle() {
               radius = 1.0;
              numberOfObjects++;
        public Circle(double newRadius) {
              numberOfObjects++;
       static int getNumberOfObjects() {
               return numberOfObjects;
       public double getArea() {
               return radius * radius * Math.PI;
```

Passing Objects to Methods

- When passing an argument of a reference type, the reference of the object is passed.
 - c contains a reference for the object that is also referenced via myCircle.
 - Changing the properties of the object through c inside the printAreas method has the same effect as doing so outside the method through the variable myCircle.

Passing Objects to Methods



Array of objects

You can create arrays of objects.

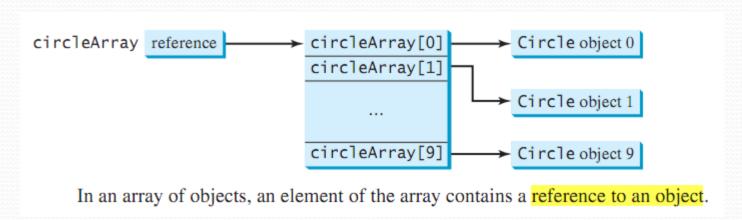
```
Circle[] circleArray = new Circle[10];
```

 To initialize the circleArray, you can use a for loop like this one:

```
for (int i = o; i < circleArray.length; i++) {
    circleArray[i] = new Circle();
}</pre>
```

Array of objects

- An array of objects is actually an array of reference variables. Invoking circleArray[1].getArea() involves two levels of referencing.
 - circleArray references the entire array.
 - circleArray[1] references a Circle object.



Example

```
public class TotalArea {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       Circle[] circleArray;
       circleArray = createCircleArray();
       printCircleArray(circleArray);
       createCircleArray();
   /** Create an array of Circle objects */
   public static Circle[] createCircleArray() {
       Circle[] circleArray = new Circle[5];
       for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++) {</pre>
               ircleArray[i] = new Circle(Math.random() * 100);
       return circleArray;
```

```
public static void printCircleArray(Circle[] circleArray) {
       System.out.printf("%-30s%-15s\n", "Radius", "Area");
       for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++) {</pre>
               System.out.printf("%-30f%-15f\n",
       circleArray[i].getRadius(), circleArray[i].getArea());
       System.out.println("————
       // Compute and display the result
       System.out.printf("%-30s%-15f\n", "The total area of
circles is",sum(circleArray));
   public static double sum(Circle[] circleArray) {
       double sum = 0; // Initialize sum
       for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++)</pre>
       sum += circleArray[i].getArea();
       return sum;
```

- Normally, you create an object and allow its contents to be changed later.
- Occasionally it is desirable to create an object whose contents cannot be changed, once the object is created.
 We call such an object an immutable object and its class an immutable class.
 - The String class is **immutable**.
 - If you deleted the **set** method in the **Circle** class, the class would be immutable, because radius is *private* and *cannot be changed* without a **set** method.

- If a class is **immutable**, then all its data fields must be *private* and it *cannot contain public* **set** methods for any data fields.
- A class with all private data fields and no mutators is not necssarily immutable.
 - For example, the following Student class has all private data fields and *no* **set** methods, but it is *not an immutable class*.

```
public class Student {
       private int id;
       private String name;
       private java.util.Date dateCreated;
       public Student(int ssn, String newName) {
               id = ssn;
              name = newName;
              dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
       public int getId() {
              return id;
       public String getName() {
              return name;
       public java.util.Date getDateCreated() {
              return dateCreated;
```

```
public class TestStudent {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      Student student = new Student(111223333, "John");
      java.util.Date dateCreated = student.getDateCreated();
      dateCreated.setTime(200000);
      // Now dateCreated field is changed!
   }
}
```

- For a class to be immutable, it must meet the following requirements:
 - all data fields private;
 - no mutator methods;
 - no accessor method that returns a reference to a data field that is mutable.

The scope of Variables

- Instance and static variables in a class are referred to as the class's variables or data fields.
- A variable defined inside a method is referred to as a local variable.
- The scope of a class's variables is the entire class, regardless of where the variables are declared. A class's variables and methods can appear in any order in the

class.

```
public class Circle {
  public double findArea() {
    return radius * radius * Math.PI;
  private double radius = 1;
```

The scope of Variables

 The exception is when a data field is initialized based on a reference to another data field → the other data field must be declared first.

```
public class Foo {
  private int i;
  private int j = i + 1;
}
```

The scope of Variables

- You can declare a *class's variable* only once, but you can declare the same variable name in a method many times in different nonnesting blocks.
 - If a local variable has the same name as a class's variable, the local variable takes precedence, the class's variable with the same name is hidden.

```
public class Foo {
  private int x = 0; // Instance variable
  private int y = 0;

public Foo() {
  }

public void p() {
   int x = 1; // Local variable
   System.out.println("x = " + x);
   System.out.println("y = " + y);
  }
}
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```

The this Reference

• The this keyword is the name of a reference that refers to a *calling object* itself.

The this Reference

- The line this.i = i means "assign the value of parameter i to the data field i of the calling object."
- The keyword this refers to the object that invokes the instance

```
public class Foo {
  int i = 5;
  static double k = 0;

  void setI(int i) {
    this.i = i;
  }

  static void setK(double k) {
    Foo.k = k;
  }
}
```

```
Suppose that f1 and f2 are two objects of Foo.
Invoking f1.setI(10) is to execute
   this.i = 10, where this refers f1
Invoking f2.setI(45) is to execute
   this.i = 45, where this refers f2
```

The this Reference

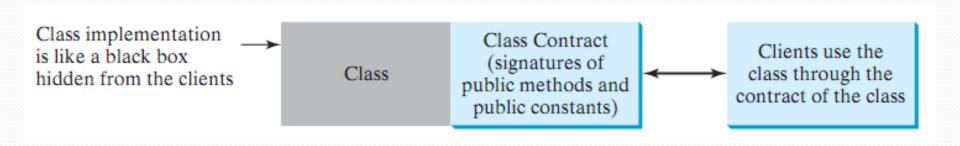
```
public class Circle {
  private double radius;
  public Circle(double radius) {
    this.radius = radius;
                              this must be explicitly used to reference the data
                                field radius of the object being constructed
  public Circle() {
    this(1.0);
                               this is used to invoke another constructor.
  public double getArea() {
    return this.radius * this.radius * Math.PI;
           Every instance variable belongs to an instance represented by this,
           which is normally omitted
```

Class Abstraction and Encapsulation

- **Class abstraction** is the separation of class implementation from the use of a class.
 - The creator of a class describes it and lets the user know how it can be used.
- The collection of methods and fields that are accessible from outside the class, together with the description of how these members are expected to behave, serves as the **class's contract**.

Class Abstraction and Encapsulation

- The user of the class does not need to know how the class is implemented. The details of implementation are encapsulated and hidden from the user.
 - This is known as class encapsulation.

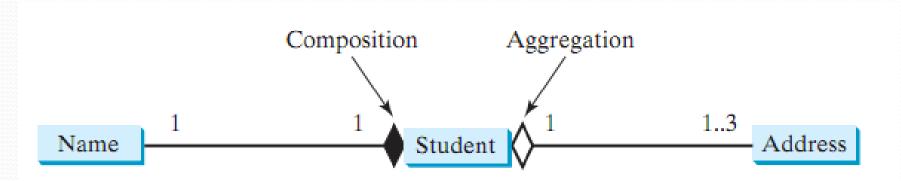


Example: Building a computer system

- Your personal computer has many components—a CPU, memory, disk, motherboard, fan,...
- Each component can be viewed as an object that has properties and methods.
- To get the components to work together, you need know only how each component is used and how it interacts with the others. You don't need to know how the components work internally.
- The internal implementation is encapsulated and hidden from you. You can build a computer without knowing how a component is implemented.

- An object can *contain* another object. The relationship between the two is called **composition**.
 - **Composition** is actually a special case of the **aggregation** relationship.
- Aggregation models has-a relationships and represents an ownership relationship between two objects.
 - The **owner object** is called an aggregating object and its class an **aggregating class**.
 - The **subject object** is called an aggregated object and its class an **aggregated class**.

- If an object is exclusively owned by an aggregating object, the relationship between them is referred to as **composition**.
 - "a student has a name" is a **composition** relationship between the **Student** class and the **Name** class.
 - "a student has an address" is an aggregation relationship between the Student class and the Address class, since an address may be shared by several students.



A student has a name and an address.

- Each class involved in a relationship may specify a multiplicity. A multiplicity could be a number or an interval that specifies how many objects of the class are involved in the relationship.
- The character * means an unlimited number of objects, and the interval m..n means that the number of objects should be between m and n, inclusive.
- In above example:
 - Each student has only one address, and each address may be shared by up to 3 students.
 - Each student has one name, and a name is unique for each student.

Inheritance

- Object-oriented programming allows you to derive new classes from existing classes. This is called inheritance.
- **Inheritance** is an important and powerful feature in Java for reusing software.
- Example:
 - Suppose you are to define classes to model *circles*, rectangles, and triangles. These classes have many common features.
 - What is the best way to design these classes so to avoid redundancy and make the system easy to comprehend and easy to maintain?

Superclass and subclass

- A class C1 extended from another class C2 is called a subclass, and C2 is called a superclass.
 - A superclass is also referred to as a parent class, or a base class.
- A subclass as a child class, an extended class, or a derived class.
 - A **subclass** inherits accessible *data fields* and *methods* from its **superclass** and may also *add new data fields* and *methods*.

GeometricObject

-color: String
-filled: boolean

-dateCreated: java.util.Date

+GeometricObject()

+GeometricObject(color: String, filled: boolean)

+qetColor(): String

+setColor(color: String): void

+isFilled(): boolean

+setFilled(filled: boolean): void

+getDateCreated(): java.util.Date

+toString(): String

The color of the object (default: white).

Indicates whether the object is filled with a color (default: false).

The date when the object was created.

Creates a GeometricObject.

Creates a GeometricObject with the specified color and filled

values.

Returns the color.

Sets a new color.

Returns the filled property.

Sets a new filled property.

Returns the dateCreated.

Returns a string representation of this object.

Circle

-radius: double

+Circle()

+Circle(radius: double)

+Circle(radius: double, color: String,

filled: boolean)

+getRadius(): double

+setRadius(radius: double): void

+getArea(): double

+getPerimeter(): double

+getDiameter(): double

+printCircle(): void

Rectangle

-width: double -height: double

+Rectangle()

+Rectangle(width: double, height: double)

+Rectangle(width: double, height: double

color: String, filled: boolean)

+getWidth(): double

+setWidth(width: double): void

+getHeight(): double

+setHeight(height: double): void

+getArea(): double

+getPerimeter(): double

Calling Superclass Constructors

- Syntax:
 - **super()** invokes the *no-arg constructor* of its superclass
 - **super(arguments)** invokes the superclass constructor that matches the arguments.
- The statement super() or super(arguments) must appear in the first line of the subclass constructor.
 public Circle(double radius, String color, boolean filled) {
 super(color, filled);
 this.radius = radius;
 }

Overriding Methods

- A **subclass** inherits methods from a **superclass**.
 - The subclass modify the implementation of a method defined in the superclass.
 - This is referred to a method overriding.

Overriding Methods

- An instance method can be overridden only if it is accessible.
 - a **private method** cannot be overridden, because it is not accessible outside its own class.
- A static method can be inherited. A static method cannot be overridden.
 - If a **static method** defined in the superclass is redefined in a subclass, the method defined in the superclass is hidden.
 - The hidden **static methods** can be invoked using the syntax **SuperClassName.staticMethodName**.

Overriding vs. Overloading

- Overloading means to define multiple methods with the same name but different signatures.
 - The method is already defined in the superclass.
 - The method must be defined in the subclass using the same signature and the same return type.

Override example

```
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
   A a = new A();
    a.p(10);
    a.p(10.0);
class B {
  public void p(double i) {
    System.out.println(i * 2);
class A extends B {
  // This method overrides the method in B
  public void p(double i) {
    System.out.println(i);
```

Overload example

```
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    A a = new A();
    a.p(10);
    a.p(10.0);
class B {
  public void p(double i) {
    System.out.println(i * 2);
class A extends B {
  // This method overloads the method in B
  public void p(int i) {
    System.out.println(i);
```

The Object Class and Its toString() Method

- Every class in Java is descended from the java.lang.Object class.
- If no inheritance is specified when a class is defined, the superclass of the class is **Object** by default.

```
public class ClassName {
    ...
}
Equivalent

public class ClassName extends Object {
    ...
}
```

 You can use the methods provided by the Object class in your classes.

The Object Class and Its toString() Method

- Invoking toString() on an object returns a string that describes the object.
 - It returns a string consisting of a class name of which the object is an instance, an at sign (@), and the object's memory address in hexadecimal.
 - Example:

```
Loan loan = new Loan();
System.out.println(loan.toString());
```

• Result: Loan@15037e5.

The Object Class and Its toString() Method

 You should override the toString method so that it returns a descriptive string representation of the object.

```
public String toString() {
    return "created on " + dateCreated + "\ncolor: "
    +color + " and filled: " + filled;
}
```

Polymorphism

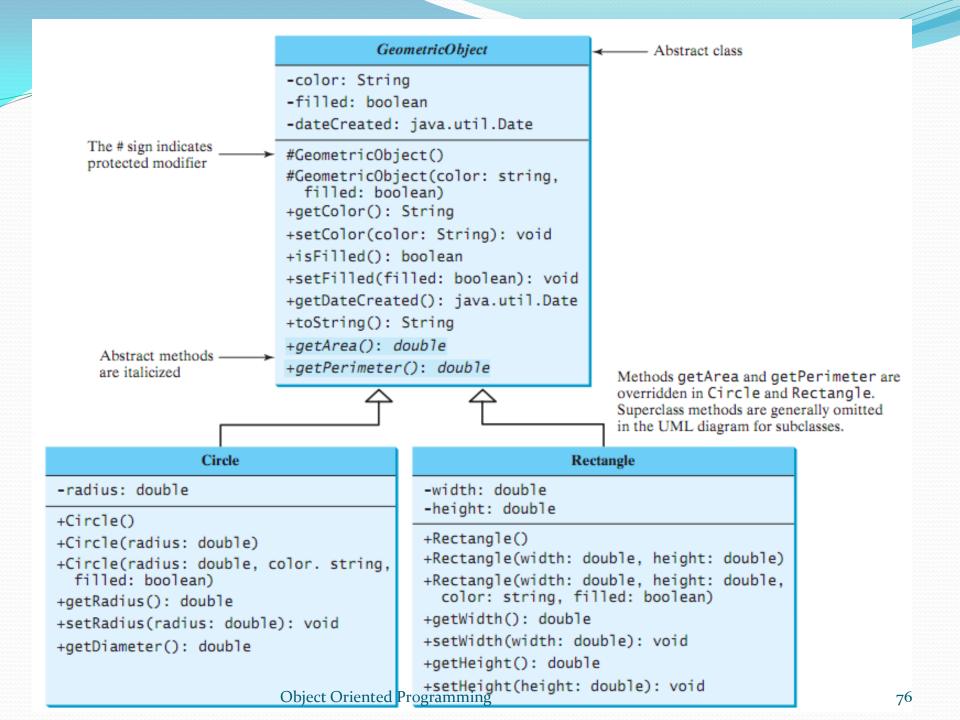
- Define two useful terms: subtype and supertype.
 - A class defines a type.
 - A type defined by a subclass is called a subtype.
 - A type defined by its superclass is called a supertype.
- Example: Circle is a subtype of GeometricObject and GeometricObject is a supertype for Circle.

Polymorphism

```
public class PolymorphismDemo {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      // Display circle and rectangle properties
      displayObject(new Circle(1, "red", false));
      displayObject(new Rectangle(1, 1, "black", true));
   /** Display geometric object properties */
   public static void displayObject(GeometricObject object) {
      System.out.println("Created on " +
             object.getDateCreated() + ". Color is " +
             object.getColor());
```

Abstract Classes

- Class design should ensure that a superclass contains *common features* of its subclasses.
 - Sometimes a superclass is so abstract that it cannot have any specific instances.
- Such a class is referred to as an **abstract class**.



Abstract classes

- Abstract classes are like regular classes, but you cannot create instances of abstract classes using the new operator.
- An **abstract method** is defined without implementation. Its implementation is provided by the subclasses.
- A class that contains abstract methods must be defined abstract.

Abstract classes

- The constructor in the abstract class is defined protected, because it is used only by subclasses.
- When you create an instance of a concrete subclass, its superclass's constructor is invoked to initialize data fields defined in the superclass.

Interesting Points on Abstract Classes

- In a nonabstract subclass extended from an abstract class, all the abstract methods must be implemented.
 - Abstract methods are nonstatic.
- An abstract class cannot be instantiated using the new operator, but you can still define its constructors, which are invoked in the constructors of its subclasses.
- A class that **contains** abstract methods must be abstract.
 - It is possible to define an abstract class that contains **no abstract methods**.
 - This class is used as a base class for defining a new subclass

Interesting Points on Abstract Classes

 You cannot create an instance from an abstract class using the new operator, but an abstract class can be used as a data type.

GeometricObject[] objects = **new** GeometricObject[10];

 You can create an instance of GeometricObject and assign its reference to the array like this:

Interfaces

- An interface is a classlike construct that contains only **constants** and **abstract methods**.
- In many ways an interface is similar to an abstract class, but its intent is to specify common behavior for objects.
 - For example, using appropriate interfaces, you can specify that the objects are *comparable*, *edible*, and/or *cloneable*.

```
public interface Edible {
   /** Describe how to eat */
   public abstract String howToEat();
}
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```

Interfaces

- As with an abstract class, you cannot create an instance from an interface using the new operator, but in most cases you can use an interface more or less the same way you use an abstract class.
 - For example, you can use an interface as a data type for a reference variable.

Interfaces

• Since all data fields are **public final static** and all methods are **public abstract** in an interface, Java allows these modifiers to be omitted.

```
public interface T {
   public static final int K = 1;
   public abstract void p();
}
Equivalent

public interface T {
   int K = 1;
   void p();
}
```

Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes

Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes			
	Variables	Constructors	Methods
Abstract class	No restrictions.	Constructors are invoked by subclasses through constructor chaining. An abstract class cannot be instantiated using the new operator.	No restrictions.
Interface	All variables must be public static final.	No constructors. An interface cannot be instantiated using the new operator.	All methods must be public abstract instance methods.

Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes

 Java allows only single inheritance for class extension but allows multiple extensions for interfaces.

```
public class NewClass extends BaseClass
   implements Interface1, ..., InterfaceN {
   ...
}
```

 An interface can inherit other interfaces using the extends keyword. Such an interface is called a subinterface.

```
public interface NewInterface extends Interface1, ..., InterfaceN {
   // constants and abstract methods
}
```

Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes

- A class implementing **NewInterface** must implement the abstract methods defined in **NewInterface**, **Interface**, and **InterfaceN**.
 - An interface can extend other interfaces but not classes.
 - A **class** can *extend* its superclass and *implement* multiple interfaces.

Example

```
abstract class Animal {
    public abstract String howToEat();
Two subclasses of Animal are defined as follows:
  class Chicken extends Animal {
    public String howToEat() {
      return "Fry it";
                                   public static void main(String[] args) {
  class Duck extends Animal {
                                     Animal animal = new Chicken();
    public String howToEat() {
                                     eat(animal);
      return "Roast it";
                                     animal = new Duck();
                                     eat(animal);
                                   public static void eat(Animal animal) {
                                     animal.howToEat();
```

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```
public static void main(String[] args) {
 Edible stuff = new Chicken();
 eat(stuff);
 stuff = new Duck();
 eat(stuff);
  stuff = new Broccoli();
 eat(stuff);
public static void eat(Edible stuff) {
 stuff.howToEat();
                                      interface Edible {
                                        public String howToEat();
                                      class Chicken implements Edible {
                                        public String howToEat() {
                                           return "Fry it";
                                      class Duck implements Edible {
                                        public String howToEat() {
                                           return "Roast it";
```

- This example presents a static generic method for sorting an array of comparable objects.
- The objects are instances of the **Comparable** interface, and they are compared using the **compareTo** method.
- The method can be used to sort an array of **any** objects as long as their classes implement the **Comparable** interface.

```
public class GenericSort {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      // Create an Integer array
      Integer[] intArray = { new Integer(2), new Integer(4),
             new Integer(3) };
      // Create a Double array
      Double[] doubleArray = { new Double(3.4), new
             Double(1.3), new Double(-22.1) };
      // Create a Character array
      Character[] charArray = { new Character('a'), new
             Character('J'), new Character('r') };
      // Create a String array
      String[] stringArray = { "Tom", "John", "Fred" };
```

```
// Sort the arrays
Arrays.sort(stringArray);
Arrays.sort(charArray);
Arrays.sort(doubleArray);
Arrays.sort(intArray);
// Display the sorted arrays
System.out.print("Sorted Integer objects: ");
printList(intArray);
System.out.print("Sorted Double objects: ");
printList(doubleArray);
System.out.print("Sorted Character objects: ");
printList(charArray);
System.out.print("Sorted String objects: ");
printList(stringArray);
```

```
/** Print an array of objects */
public static void printList(Object[] list) {
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
        System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
System.out.println();
}</pre>
```

- Now suppose we want to use the sort method of the Arrays class to sort an array of **Employee** objects.
- Then the Employee class must implement the Comparable interface.

- To make a class implement an interface:
 - You declare that your class intends to implement the given interface:
 - class Employee implements Comparable
 - You supply definitions for all methods in the interface.

 Let's suppose that we want to compare employees by their SALARY:

```
public int compareTo(Employee other) {
    if (salary < other.salary)
        return -1;
    if (salary > other.salary)
        return 1;
    return 0;
}
```

• Let's suppose that we want to compare employees by their NAME:

```
public int compareTo(Employee other) {
    return name.compareToIgnoreCase(other.name);
}
```

```
public class EmployeeSortTest {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      Employee[] staff = new Employee[3];
      staff[0] = new Employee("Tony Tester", 3800);
      staff[1] = new Employee("Harry Hacker", 3500);
      staff[2] = new Employee("Carl Cracker", 7500);
      Arrays.sort(staff);
      for (Employee e : staff)
      System.out.println("name = " + e.getName() + ",
             salary = " + e.getSalary());
```

```
class Employee implements Comparable<Employee> {
      private String name;
      private double salary;
      public Employee(String n, double s) {
             name = n;
             salary = s;
      public String getName() {
             return name;
      public double getSalary() {
             return salary;
```

```
/*Compares employees by NAME
public int compareTo(Employee other) {
   return name.compareToIgnoreCase(other.name);
/* Compares employees by salary*/
 public int compareTo(Employee other) {
   if (salary < other.salary)</pre>
          return -1;
   if (salary > other.salary)
          return 1;
   return 0;
```

Reference

• Introduction to Java Programming 8th, Y. Daniel Liang.