

# COM6516

# Object Oriented Programming and Software Design

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# 1. Introduction to Java

## **Aims**

Briefly cover basic Java constructs that are similar to other languages

## **Objectives**

At the end of this lecture, and by studying the additional info signposted, you will know how to use the basic constructs of the Java language

# 1. Introduction to Java

## Outline

- Structure of a simple Java program
- Variables: assignments, data types, typecasting
- Control structure
- Arrays: initialisation, copying
- Characters & Strings

# A simple Java application

```
public class Welcome{  
    public static void main(String[ ] args){  
        System.out.println("Welcome to . . .");  
        System.out.println("the Java language");  
    }  
}
```

**public** — access modifier, indicates what parts of a program can use this code

**class** — everything in Java programs live in classes

**Welcome** — class name

- must begin with a letter, case is important
- should be same as file name (**Welcome.java**)

Classes contain methods, in this case there is one method — **main**

Methods are enclosed by braces **{ }**, and each statement is terminated with a semicolon

Bracket styles and indentation should be consistent

# Variables and assignment

```
public class DistanceConverter{  
    public static void main(String[ ] args){  
        double distanceInMiles;  
        distanceMiles = 10.0;  
        double distanceInKm = distanceInMiles * 8/5;  
        System.out.println("Distance is " + distanceInMiles + " miles  
(" + distanceInKm + " km)");  
    }  
}
```

Variables in Java have a name and a type (Java is a **strongly** type language)

Variables are declared by a type <variable name>; statement

The operator = assigns a value to a variable

Can declare and initialise a variable on the same line anywhere in a program

# Primitive data types

In Java, *primitive types* store a data value, whereas *object types* store a reference (memory address) to a data value

Type	Size	Description	Range	Default
<b>boolean</b>	1 bit		true or false	FALSE
<b>byte</b>	8 bits	Signed integer	[-128, 127]	0
<b>short</b>	16 bits	Signed integer	[-32,768, 32,767]	0
<b>char</b>	32 bits	Unicode character	['\u0000', '\uffff'] or [0, 65535]	\u0000'
<b>int</b>	32 bits	Signed integer	[-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647]	0
<b>long</b>	64 bits	Signed integer	$[-2^{63}, 2^{63}-1]$	0
<b>float</b>	32 bits	Floating point	32-bit IEEE 754 floating-point	0.0
<b>double</b>	64 bits	Floating point	64-bit IEEE 754 floating-point	0.0

# Type promotion and casting

Converting variables from one type to another

Arithmetic expressions can mix types, but beware (see *TypeCast.java*)

```
...
int int1 = 4;
int int2 = 5;
int average = (int1+int2)/2;           // average = 4 (all operands are integer)
double average = (int1+int2)/2;        // average = 4.0 (all operands are integer)
double average = (int1+int2)/2.0;      // average = 4.5
                                       // one floating point operand
                                       // -> all operands converted to floating point
```

# Type promotion and casting

“Smaller” types are promoted to “larger” types

Sometimes a manual cast is required

```
...  
int int1 = 4;  
int int2 = 5;  
double average = (double) (int1 + int2) /2;  
double average = (int1 + int2)/(double) 2;
```



# Operators for primitive types

The following operators are commonly used with primitive Java types

Operator	Operand type	Operation performed
=	primitive	variable assignment
==	primitive	equals
!=	primitive	not equal
+, -	arithmetic	addition, subtraction
++, --	arithmetic	increment, decrement
*, /, %	arithmetic	multiplication, division, remainder
!	boolean	logical complement
&&,	boolean	logical AND, OR
>, >=	arithmetic	greater than; great than or equal
<, <=	arithmetic	less than; less than or equal

# Enumerated types

Java 5.0 and later version allow definition of enumerated types

These are useful where a variable can only hold a restricted set of values

For example, a `Size` variable may be restricted to the values `SMALL`, `MEDIUM`, `LARGE` and `EXTRA_LARGE`

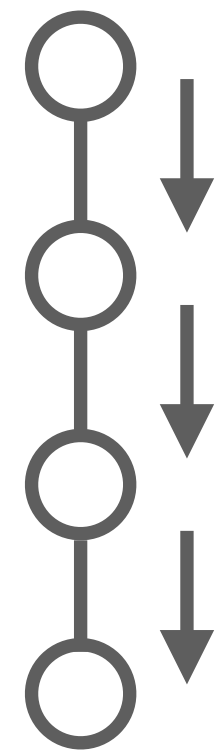
```
enum Size {SMALL, MEDIUM, LARGE, EXTRA_LARGE};  
Size s = Size.MEDIUM;
```

# Control structure in Java

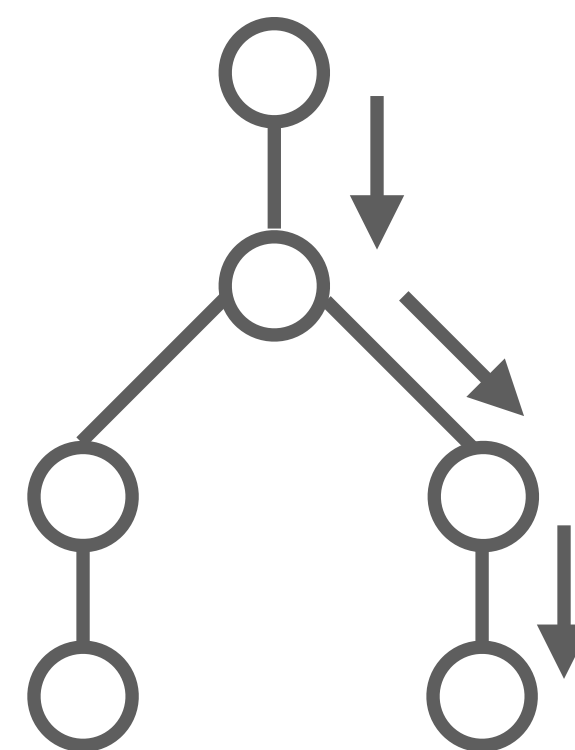
**Flow of control** — the way that Java moves from one statement to the next

- **Sequence:** simply do one statement after the next
- **Selection:** flow of control is determined by a simple decision
- **Repetition:** execute the same set of statements more than once

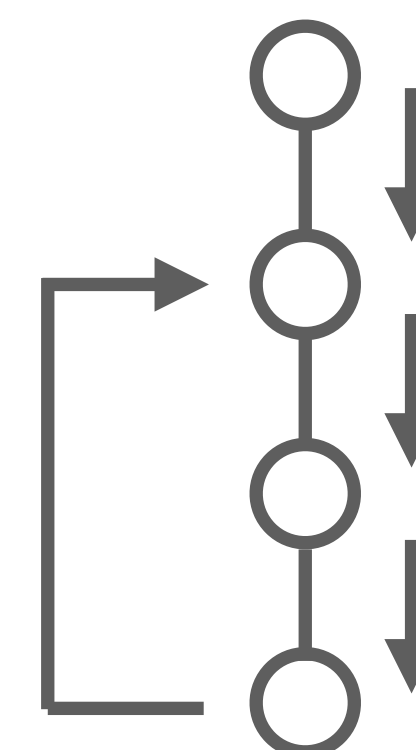
Sequence



Selection



Repetition



# Selection

Conditional statements involve Boolean expressions that can be either true or false (a so-called binary decision). The action performed depends on the value of the expression.

```
if (condition) { block } else { block }
```

where a block is a sequence of statements, sometimes called a compound statement.

Conditional statements perform a Boolean test using a relational operator (<, <=, ==, !=, >=, >):

```
if (t < worldRecord) {  
    worldRecord = t;  
    System.out.println("New world record! " + t + "s");  
}  
  
else  
    System.out.println("Better luck next time...");
```

# Precedence

More complicated expressions can be constructed using the logical operators: and (&&), or (||), not (!) and equals (==, !=).

The following are equivalent:

```
if ( (x>2000) || (x>0) && (y>0) )
```

```
if ( (x>2000) || ( (x>0) && (y>0) ) )
```

# Precedence

Precedence rules apply to the operators used in a logical expression

**Evaluated first** ++ has a higher precedence than >=, so is evaluated first

```
int a = 2;
```

```
if (++a >= 3)
```

```
    System.out.println("a >= 3, a = " + a);
```

```
else
```

```
    System.out.println("a < 3, a = " + a);
```

```
int a = 2;
```

```
if (a++ >= 3)
```

```
    System.out.println("a >= 3, a = " + a);
```

```
else
```

```
    System.out.println("a < 3, a = " + a);
```

**Evaluated after**

# Selecting alternatives

Java provides a switch statement for selecting one of many alternatives when testing the same variable or expression

Example: a vending machine computing the value of coins deposited based on their weight:

```
int credit = 0;
int weight = keyboard.readInt();
switch (weight) {
    // must be char or whole number
    case 35: credit += 50; break;
    case 19: credit += 20; break;
    case 16: credit += 10; break;
    case 9 : credit += 5;  break;
    case 7 : credit += 2;  break;
    case 3 : credit += 1;  break;
    default: screen.println("Unknown coin!");
}
// more code
```

← Break transfers control to the end of the switch block

# Repetition — for loops

The **for** statement – a ‘counting loop’

Know (or can calculate) in advance how many times we wish to execute the loop.

```
for (statement1; expression1; expression2)
    {code block}
```

The **for-each** statement enables you to traverse each element of a collection – e.g. an array. Syntax is

```
for (variable : collection)
    {code block}
```

---

```
double[] arrayData = . . .;
```

```
double sum = 0.0;
```

```
for (double elem : arrayData) {
```

```
    sum += elem;
```

```
}
```



# Repetition — while loops

The while statement – a conditional loop

- Repeatedly execute the loop while the condition is **true**
- This is an indeterminate loop since it is not known how many times a loop should be processed in advance
- Use with care!

```
while (condition) {code block}
```

The **do...while** statement – a conditional loop

- Test at the end of the loop
- Always executed at least once

```
do {block} while (condition);
```

# Nesting loops

Since a `for` loop is a kind of statement, it can be included as one of the statements in a `for` loop body — this is called a nested loop

```
public class NestedLoopExample {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int z;  
        {  
            for (int x=0; x<10; x+=1) {  
                {  
                    for (int y=0; y<10; y+=1) {  
                        z = x * y;  
                        System.out.print(x + "*" + y);  
                        System.out.print(" = " + z);  
                    }  
                }  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# Arrays

An array is a data structure to store a collection of values of the same type (e.g.) an array of `ints` has type `int[]`

An individual value of array `a` is accessed via an integer index (e.g.) `a[10]`

The first element of an array has *index* 0

The length of array `a` is given by `a.length`

# Arrays

The following creates an area of memory, which is *referenced* by the array variable `a`:

```
int[] a = new int[100];
```

Loops are natural partners for arrays:

```
for (int j=0; j<100; j++)
```

```
    a[j] = j*2;
```

```
for (int j=0; j<a.length; j++)
```

```
    System.out.println(a[j]);
```

Arrays can have more than one dimension:

```
int[][] grid = new int[3][3];
```

# Initialising arrays 1

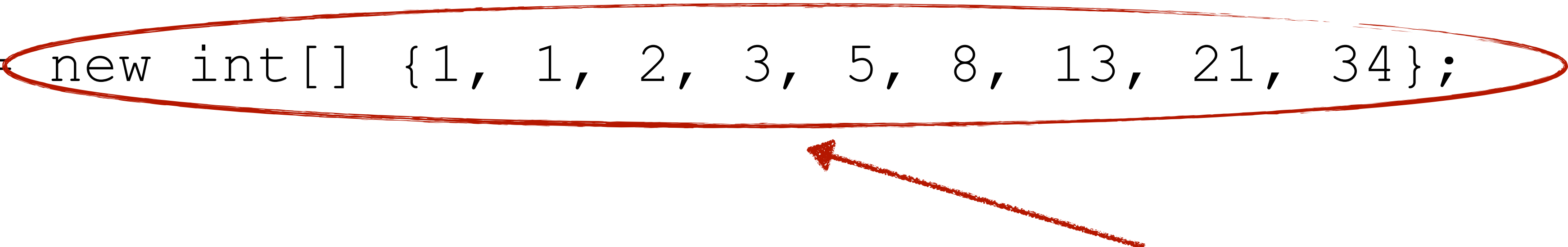
An array can be initialised when declared using a *literal array expression*:

```
int[] b = { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19};
```

Or you can reinitialise an array using an *anonymous array*:

```
int[] b;
```

```
b = new int[] {1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34};
```



Right-hand side is created in memory and then immediately assigned to existing variable ~ *anonymous*

# Initialising arrays 2

An array can be initialised in a loop:

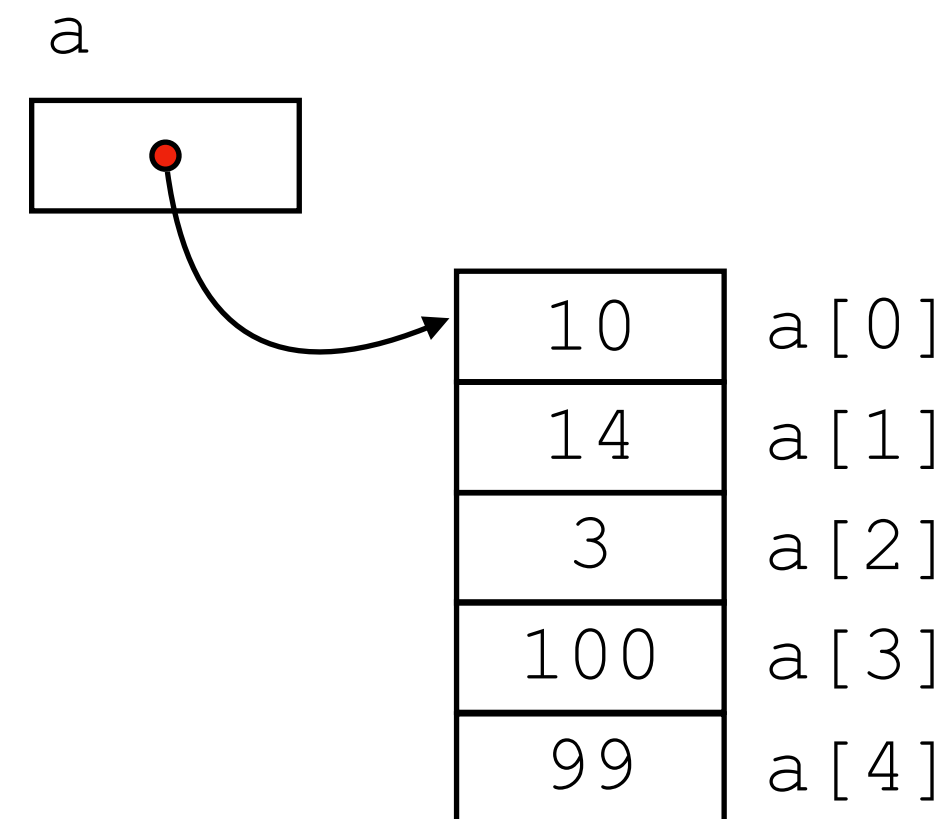
```
int[] b = new int [5]
for (int i=0; i<b.length; i++) {
    b[i] = i*i;
}
```

# Copying arrays 1

Remind ourselves what an array variable is: a *reference* to memory space.

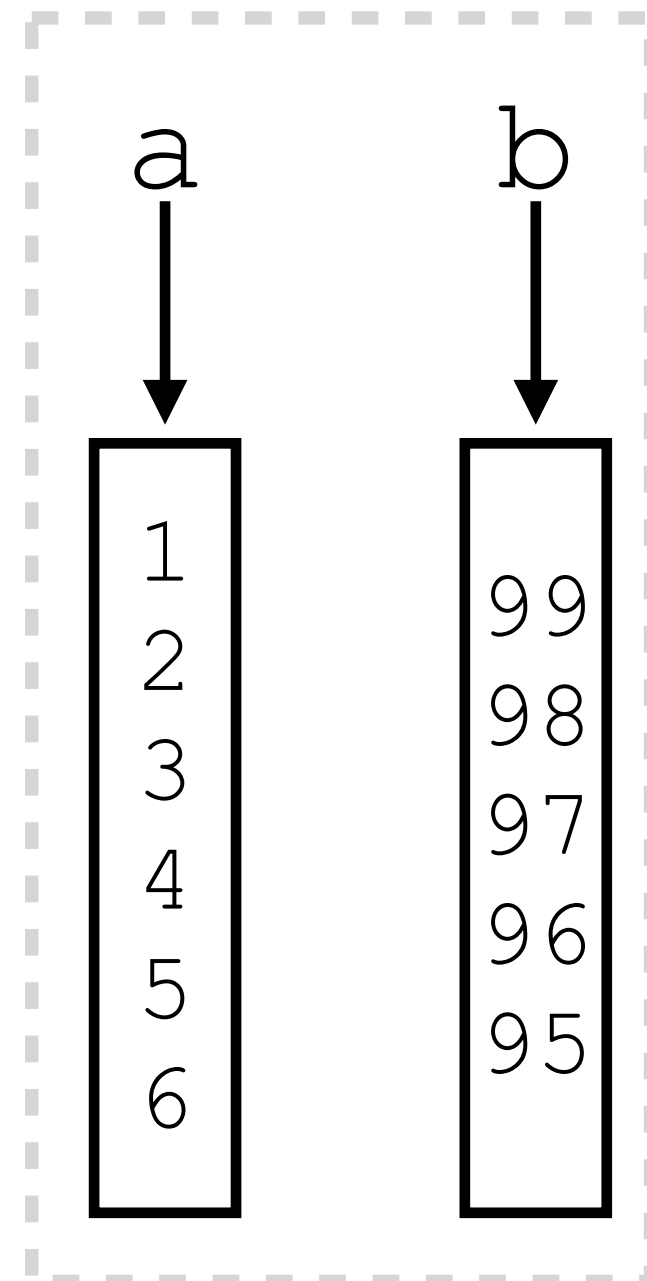
When an object is created by using “new”, a memory space is allocated and a reference is returned.

```
int a[] = {10,14,3,100,99};
```



# Copying arrays 2

```
int a[] = {1,2,3,4,5,6};  
int b[] = {99,98,97,96,95};  
a = b;
```



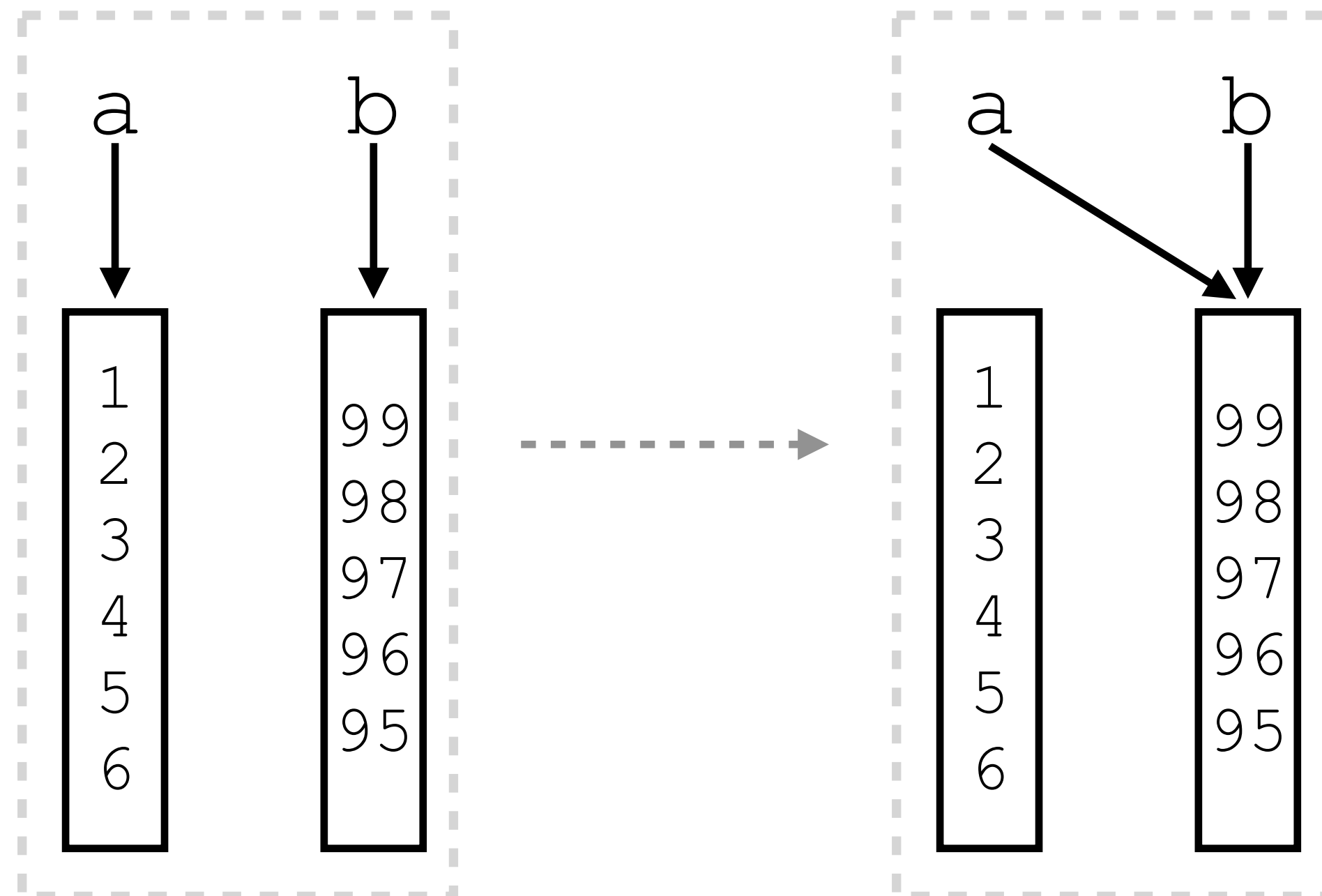
a is now pointing to the same part of the memory as b; not always what we intended



# Copying arrays 3

**Simple copying** leaves both variables pointing to the same array

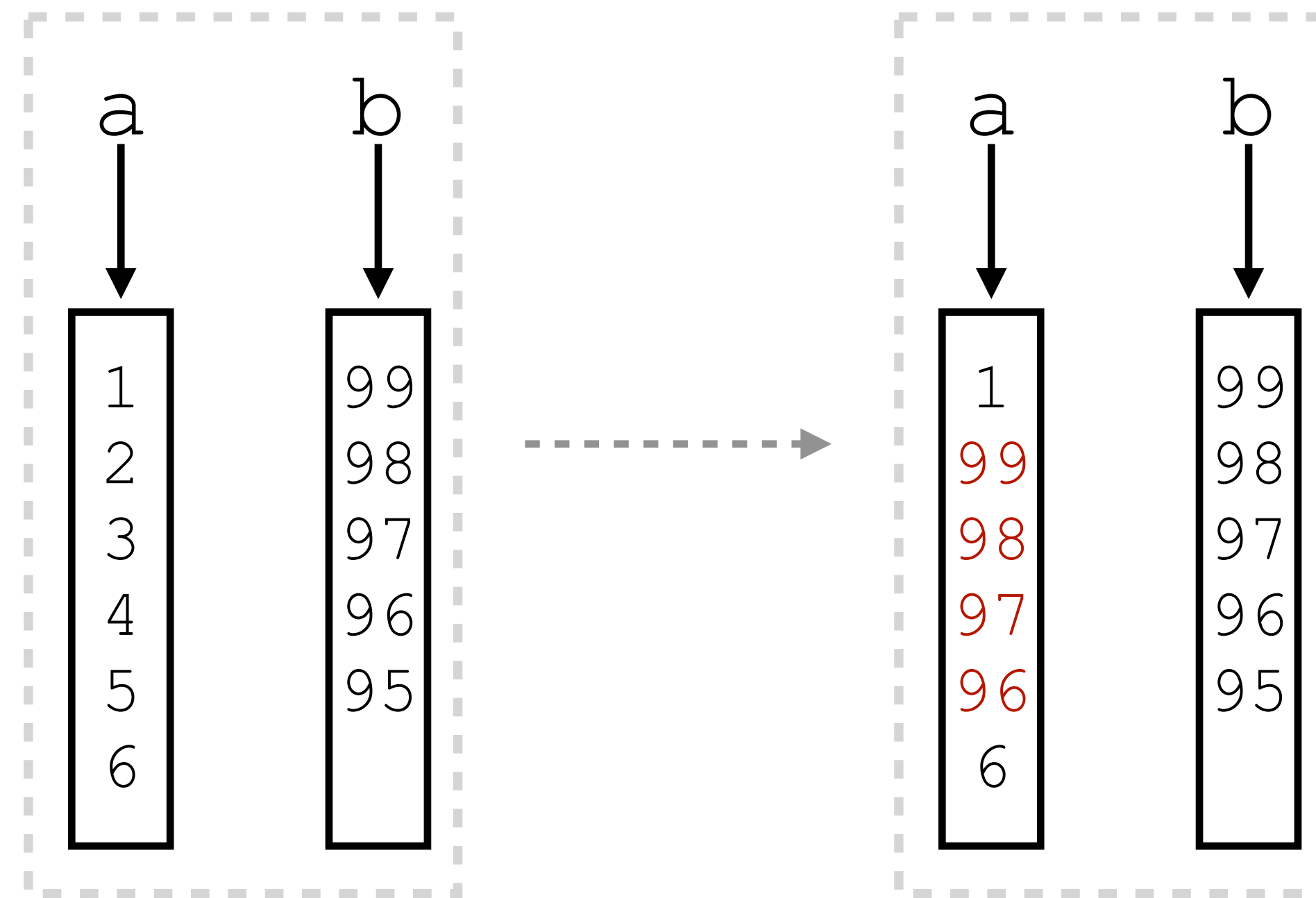
```
int a[] = {1,2,3,4,5,6};  
int b[] = {99,98,97,96,95};  
a = b;
```



# Copying arrays 4

Use `System.arraycopy` to copy **value-by-value**

```
System.arraycopy(src, srcPos, dest, destPos, length);
```



```
System.arraycopy(b, 0, a, 1, 4);
```

# Characters and Strings 1

The `char` type represents a single Unicode character. Unicode is an extension of ASCII, with 65536 (FFFF) characters.

```
char myChar = 'E';
```

```
char myChar = '\u03c0'; //hexadecimal 03c0 is 'π'
```

# Characters and Strings 2

The `String` type is a class, not a primitive type, so methods can be used to operate on `Strings`.

However, `String` is not a typical class because strings can be *initialised by assignment*:

```
String greeting = "Hello";
```

The `+` operator can be used to concatenate strings; Java handles conversion of non-string types to `String` where appropriate, e.g. if the variable `area` is an `int`, then it will be converted to `String` by

```
System.out.print("Your circle has an area of "+area+" metres squared.");
```