

Module 5
OOP in Java

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Local and instance variables

Instance variables are declared inside a class but not within a method.

```
class Horse {
   private double height = 15.2;
   private String breed;
   // more code...
}
```

Local variables are declared within a method.

```
class AddThing {
  int a;
  int b = 12;

  public int add() {
    int total = a + b;
    return total;
  }
}
```

Local variables MUST be initialized before use!

```
class Foo {
   public void go() {
      int x;
      int z = x + 3;
   }
}

Won't compile!! You can
   declare x without a value,
   but as soon as you try
   to USE it, the compiler
   freaks out.
```

```
File Edit Window Help Yikes
% javac Foo.java
Foo.java:4: variable x might
not have been initialized
    int z = x + 3;
1 error ^
```

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Java Beans

```
public class Clock {
    private String time;
    public void setTime(String time) {
        time = this.time;
    public String getTime() {
         return time;
class ClockTestDrive {
    public static void main(String [] args) {
        Clock c = new Clock();
         c.setTime("1245");
         String tod = c.getTime();
         System.out.println("time: " + tod);
```





Access modifiers

Access modifiers:

- public
- protected
- default (friendly, package)
- private

Only one modifier can be used:

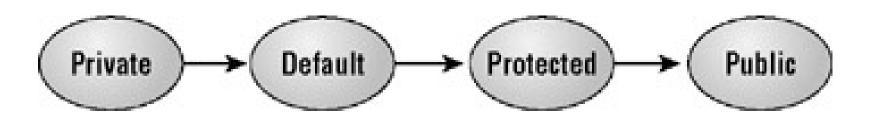
```
class Parser {...}
public class EightDimensionalComples { ... }
private int i;
protected double getChiSquared() {...}
private class Horse {...}
Button getBtn() {...}
```

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Access modifiers

 When overriding a method you can't make its scope less visible.

 Visibility scope of overridden method can be the same as visibility scope of an overriding method or even higher.

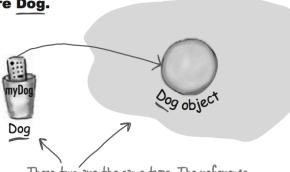


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Using polymorphism

The important point is that the reference type AND the object type are the same.

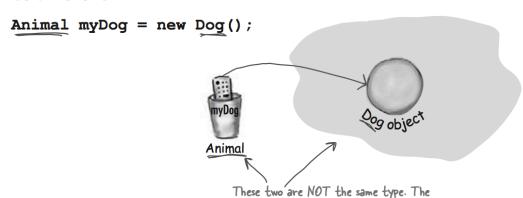
In this example, both are Dog.



These two are the same type. The reference variable type is declared as Dog, and the object is created as new Dog().

reference variable type is declared as Animal, but the object is created as new Dog().

But with polymorphism, the reference and the object can be different.

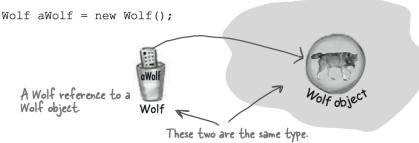


```
Animal[] animals = new Animal[5]
animals [0] = new Dog();
animals [1] = new Cat();
animals [2] = new Wolf();
animals [3] = new Hippo()
animals [4] = new Lion();
for (int i = 0; i < animals.length; i++)</pre>
    animals[i].eat();
    animals[i].roam();
```

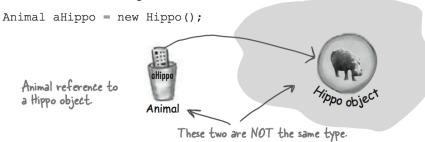
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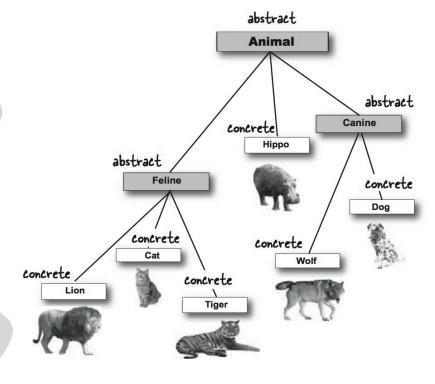
Abstract classes

We know we can say:

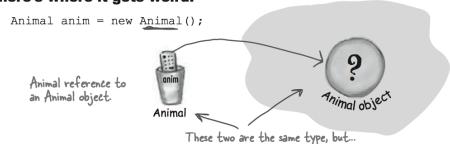


And we know we can say:





But here's where it gets weird:



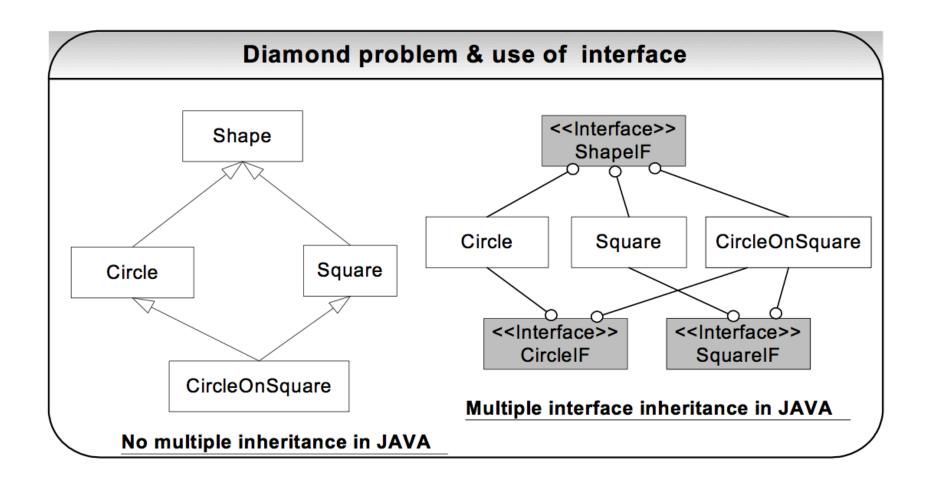
what the heck does an Animal object look like?

abstract class Canine extends Animal {
 public void roam() { }
}

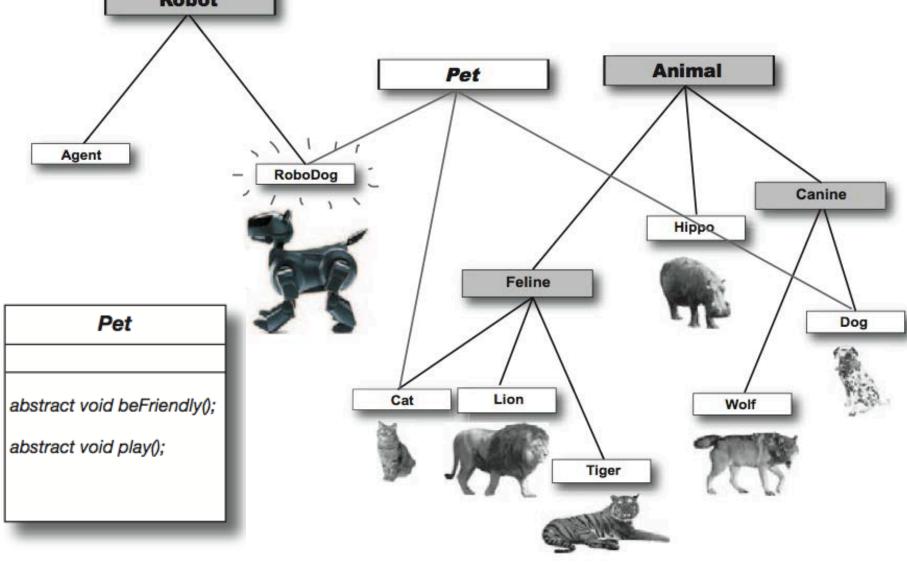
public abstract void eat();

No method body! End it with a semicolon.

Multiple inheritance



Classes from different inheritance trees can implement the same interface.



Using interfaces

```
public interface Pet {
    public abstract void beFriendly();
    public abstract void play();
public class Dog extends Canine implements Pet {
    public void beFriendly() {...}
    public void play() {...}
    public void roam() {...}
    public void eat() {...}
 Better still, a class can implement multiple interfaces:
    public class Dog extends Animal
         implements Pet, Saveable, Paintable { ... }
```

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Interfaces

- Interface forms a contract between the client code and a class that implements this interface.
- An interface may be considered as an abstract class whose methods are all abstract.

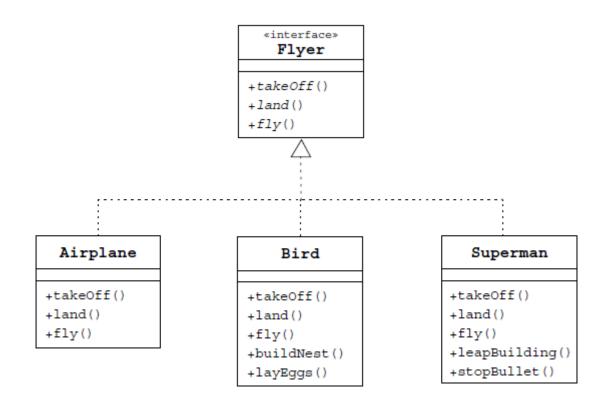
- Java interface is declared with the interface keyword.
- A class that implements an interface contains the implements clause in the class declaration.

Interfaces

```
public interface Flyer {
                                                   «interface»
                                                    Flyer
   public void takeOff();
   public void land();
                                                  +takeOff()
   public void fly();
                                                  +land()
                                                  +fly()
public class Airplane implements Flyer {
   public void takeOff() {
      // accelerate until lift-off
                                                   Airplane
      // raise landing gear
                                                  +takeOff()
                                                  +land()
   public void land() {
                                                  +flv()
   public void fly() {
```

Interfaces

• As long as an interface is a specification of certain behavior, the class can implement several interfaces:



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Interfaces

```
public interface Flyer {
   public void fly();
public interface Swimer {
   public void swim();
public class Penguin implements Swimer {
   public void swim() {
      // A penguin is able to swim, but not able to fly
public class Duck implements Flyer, Swimer {
   public void fly() {
   public void swim() {
```

Interfaces

- As long as an interface is a contract rather than an implementation:
 - It cannot be instantiated
 - There are no constructors
 - There is no instance data

Interfaces

• The public static final modifier is optional.

```
interface Flyer {
    public final static int NB_WINGS = 2;
    void fly();
}
// This equals:
interface Flyer {
    int NB_WINGS = 2;
    void fly();
}
```

Interfaces

• An interface that is not nested cannot be private.

- An interface cannot be protected.
- A public interface can be implemented by any class.
- A default interface can be implemented by any class from the package that defines the interface itself.

Interfaces

 It is assumed that all interface methods are declared as public abstract.

```
interface Flyer {
    public final static int NB_WINGS = 2;
    public astract void fly();
}
// This equals to:
interface Flyer {
    int NB_WINGS = 2;
    void fly();
}
```

Interfaces

 When overriding the method you cannot reduce its visibility.

```
public class Penguin implements Swimer {
    void swim() {
        // Compiler Error! Cannot reduce the
    visibility of the inherited method from Swimer
    }
}
```

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Interfaces

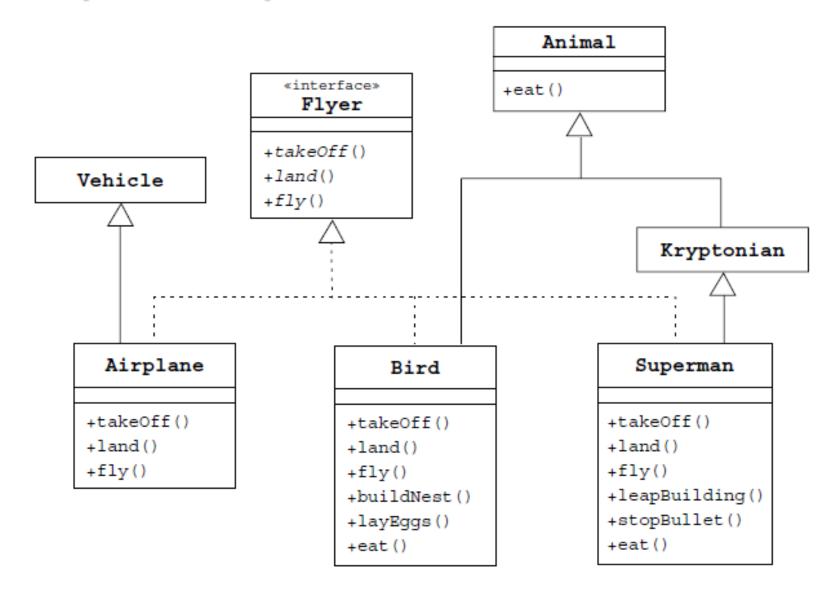
A behavior can extend another behavior.

```
public interface Set extends Collection, Comparator
{
    ...
}
```

Note! the class that implements an extended interface must implement methods of both interfaces.

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Complex example



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Complex example

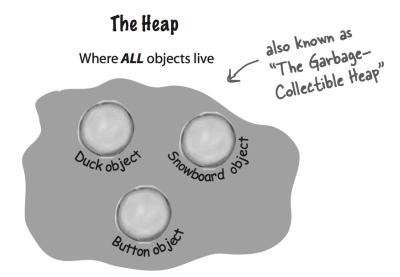
```
public class Bird extends Animal implements Flyer {
   public void takeOff() { /* take-off implementation */ }
   public void land() { /* landing implementation */ }
   public void fly() { /* fly implementation */ }
   public void buildNest() { /* nest building behavior */
   public void layEggs() { /* egg laying behavior */ }
   public void eat() { /* override eating behavior */ }
}
```

The stack and the heap

The Stack

Where method invocations and local variables live





Instance Variables

Instance variables are declared inside a *class* **but** *not* **inside a method**. They represent the "fields" that each individual object has (which can be filled with different values for each instance of the class). Instance variables live inside the object they belong to.

```
public class Duck {

int size;

Every Duck has a "size"

instance variable.
```

Local Variables

Local variables are declared inside a *method,* **including method parameters.** They're temporary, and live only as long as the method is on the stack (in other words, as long as the method has not reached the closing curly brace).

Constructors

- It should be ensured that child constructor will be called after parent constructor.
- The **super(arg1, ...)** keyword is used to call superclass constructor.

• The needed constructor is selected by the list of the arguments.

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Constructors

• The super(arg1, ...) keyword is used to call superclass constructor.

```
class SuperClass {
    public SuperClass(int foo) {
        // do something with foo
     }
}
class SubClass extends SuperClass
{
    public SubClass(int foo, int bar)
     {
        super(foo);
        // do something with bar
     }
}
```

Constructors

The **this** reference can be used to call overloaded constructor.

```
public Employee(String name, double salary, Date birth)
{
   public Employee(String name, double salary) {
      this(name, salary, null);
}
public Employee(String name, Date birth) {
      this(name, 0, birth);
}
```

Method overloading

```
public void aMethod(String s) {
public void aMethod() {
}
public void aMethod(int i, String s) {
}
public void aMethod(String s, int i) {
}
```

 Only the type of an argument is considered, not a parameter name. Therefore, the following method is not considered overloaded:

```
public void aMethod(int j, String name) { }
```

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Method overriding

- Overriding method must:
 - Have the same name and arguments list as parent class method
 - The return type should be the same or its subclass.

- Requirements to overridden method:
 - final cannot be overridden
 - Access modifier shall not be narrower
 - Overridden method should throw checked exceptions of the same type or subclass

Method overriding example

```
class TheSuperclass {
   Number getValue() throws Exception{
      return new Long(1);
class TheSubclass extends TheSuperclass {
   Long getValue() throws IOException {
      return new Long(2);
class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      Superclass s;
      s = new Superclass();
      s.getValue(); // 1
      s = new Subclass();
      s.getValue(); // 2
```

Object killer #1

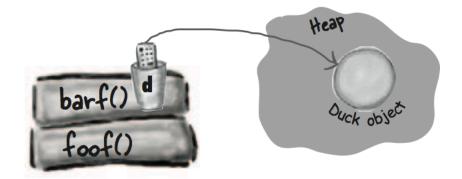
Reference goes out of scope, permanently.

foof() is pushed onto the Stack, no variables are declared.



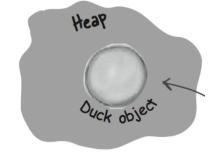
public class StackRef {
 public void foof() {
 barf();
 }
 public void barf() {
 Duck d = new Duck();
 }

barf() is pushed onto the Stack, where it declares a reference variable, and creates a new object assigned to that reference. The object is created on the Heap, and the reference is alive and in scope.



barf() completes and pops off the Stack. Its frame disintegrates, so 'd' is now dead and gone. Execution returns to foof(), but foof() can't use 'd'.







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Object killers #2 and #3

Assign the reference to another object

```
public class ReRef {
    Duck d = new Duck();

public void go() {
    d = new Duck();
    }
}
```

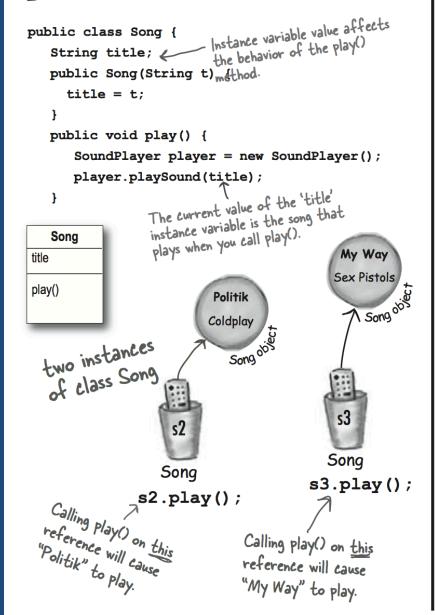


Explicitly set the reference to null

```
public class ReRef {
    Duck d = new Duck();
    public void go() {
        d = null;
    }
}
```

Static methods

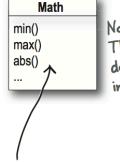
regular (non-static) method



static method

Static methods can't use non-static (instance) variables!

public static int min(int a, int b) {
 //returns the lesser of a and b
}



No instance variables.
The method behavior doesn't change with instance variable state.



Math.min(42,36);

Use the Class name, rather than a reference variable name.

Call a non-static method using a reference variable name



Song t2 = new Song();
t2.play();

Math.min(88,86);



Static imports

Some old-fashioned code:

```
import java.lang.Math;
class NoStatic {
  public static void main(String [] args) {
    System.out.println("sqrt " + Math.sqrt(2.0));
    System.out.println("tan " + Math.tan(60));
                                             The syntax to use when declaring static imports.
Same code, with static imports:
import static java.lang.System.out;
import static java.lang.Math.*;
class WithStatic {
  public static void main(String [] args) {
    out.println("sqrt " + sqrt(2.0));
    out.println("tan " + tan(60));
          Static imports in action.
```

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Constants

static final variables are constants

public static final double PI = 3.141592653589793;

Initialize a final static variable:

1 At the time you declare it:

public class Foo {

public static final int FOO_X = 25;
}

notice the naming convention -- static
name should be all uppercase, with an
underscore separating the words

OR

2 In a static initializer:

public class Bar {

```
public static final double BAR_SIGN;

static {

BAR_SIGN = (double) Math.random();

}

this code runs as soon as the class is loaded, before any static method variable can be used.
```

Final modifier

non-static final variables

```
final int size = 3; — now you can't change size
class Foof {
    final int whuffie;
    Foof() {
       whuffie = 42; now you can't change whuffie
    void doStuff(final int x) {
       // you can't change x
                                 final method
    void doMore() {
                                   class Poof {
       final int z = 7;
                                        final void calcWhuffie() {
       // you can't change z
                                           // important things
                                           // that must never be overridden
```

final class

```
final class MyMostPerfectClass {
   // cannot be extended
```

Singleton pattern

```
class Shop {
 // configuration
 private static Shop instance = new Shop();
 private Shop() {}
 public void buyProduct(Product p);
 public static getInstance() {
     return instance;
Shop shop = Shop.getInstance();
// allows to always get the same instance
```

Factory method pattern

```
Shop
                      OfflineShop
OnlineShop
     Shop shop = Shop.createShop();
     shop.buyProduct();
```

```
class Shop {
 // configuration
 static String type= "online";
 private Shop() {}
 public void buyProduct(Product p) {}
 public static createShop() {
     if (type.equals("online")) {
      return new OnlineShop();
    } else {
      return new OfflineShop();
```

Every class is Object

1 equals(Object o)

```
Dog a = new Dog();
Cat c = new Cat();

if (a.equals(c)) {
    System.out.println("true");
} else {
    System.out.println("false");
}
```



Tells you if two objects are considered 'equal' (we'll talk about what 'equal' really means in appendix B).

② getClass()

```
Cat c = new Cat();
System.out.println(c.getClass());
```



Gives you back the class that object was instantiated from.

3 hashCode()

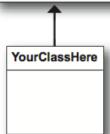
```
Cat c = new Cat();
System.out.println(c.hashCode());
```



Prints out a hashcode for the object (for now, think of it as a unique ID).

Object

boolean equals() Class getClass() int hashCode() String toString()



(4) toString()

Cat c = new Cat();
System.out.println(c.toString());



Prints out a String message with the name of the class and some other number we rarely care about.

Wrapper classes

Wrapper classes

Boolean

Character

Byte

Short

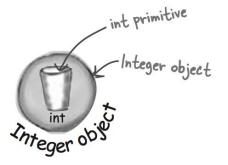
Integer

Long

Float

Double

. Watch out! The names aren't mapped exactly to the primitive types. The class names are fully spelled out.



wrapping a value

```
int i = 288;
```

Int I = 200;
Integer iWrap = new Integer(i);

unwrapping a value

int unWrapped = iWrap.intValue();

All the wrappers work like this. Boolean has a booleanValue(), Character has a charValue(), etc.

Give the primitive to the wrapper constructor. That's it.

Autoboxing/unboxing

```
Integer i = 3;

public void doNumsNewWay() {
    List<Integer> listOfNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    listOfNumbers.add(3);
    int num = listOfNumbers.get(0);
}
```

Primitive wrappers

- Java provides wrapper classes for each primitive data types.
- Wrappers are found in java.lang.

```
Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, Double, Character
```

 In new Java versions you may use wrappers absolutely transparently.

```
Integer count = 1;
Boolean isReady = false;
```

Primitive wrappers

 Java automatically converts an object to a primitive type if it is required.

• The Boolean object will contain true, if the constructor parameter will be equal to "true" string in any case.

```
Boolean isReady = new Boolean("TRue"); //true
Boolean isReady = new Boolean("Yes"); //false
```

Primitive wrappers

 Each class has a set of constants with maximum and minimal values.

Each class has static methods for converting type from string.

```
Double.parseDouble(String s)
```

Numeric types are inherited from the Number class.

Primitive wrappers

• The Double class has the method of checking whether the number is infinite.

```
Double.isInfinity(double d)
```

• The Integer class has useful methods for work with binary representation of integers.

```
Integer.reverse(int i)
Integer.bitCount(int i)
Integer.numberOfLeadingZeros(int i)
```

Primitive wrappers

• To work with bigger numbers, classes from the java.math package can be used:

BigInteger and BigDecimal

Numbers are stored as strings.

```
BigInteger number = new BigInteger("33");
BigInteger big = number.pow(10000);
```

Exercise

Lab guide:

- Exercise 9
- Exercise 10

Enumerations

Very often we have to introduce enumerated types:

```
public class PlayingCard {
   public static final int SUIT SPADES = 0;
   public static final int SUIT HEARTS = 1;
   public static final int SUIT CLUBS = 2;
   public static final int SUIT DIAMONDS = 3;
   private int suit;
   public PlayingCard(int suit) {
      this.suit = suit;
   public String getSuitName() {
      String name = "";
      switch (suit) {
      case SUIT_SPADES:
         name = "Spades";
         break;
      case SUIT_HEARTS:
         name = "Hearts";
        break;
```

- Java 1.5 introduced new enumeration mechanism (enum).
- Enumeration is subclass of the java.lang.Enum class. Enumeration solves this problem and can be applied to the switch operator.
- Enumeration is a usual class with some limitations.

Difference between enumerations and classes

Declared with the help of enum.

- Enumeration instance cannot be explicitly created.
- Enumeration cannot be extended.
- Enumeration can be the switch argument.
- Has embedded name() method that prints enumeration values.

```
public enum LightState {
   RED, YELLOW, GREEN;
public static void main(String[] args) {
   switch (nextTrafficLight.getState()) {
   case LightState. RED:
      stop();
      break;
   case LightState.YELLOW:
      floorIt();
      break;
```

```
enum Suit {
   DIAMOND(true), HEART(true), CLUB(false),
SPADE(false);
   private boolean red;
   Suit(boolean b) {
      red = b;
   public boolean isRed() {
      return red;
   public String toString() {
      String s = name();
      s += red ? ":red" : ":black";
      return s;
```

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Exercise

Lab guide:

- Exercise 11
- Exercise 12