

# **ELEC0021 - PROGRAMMING II OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING**

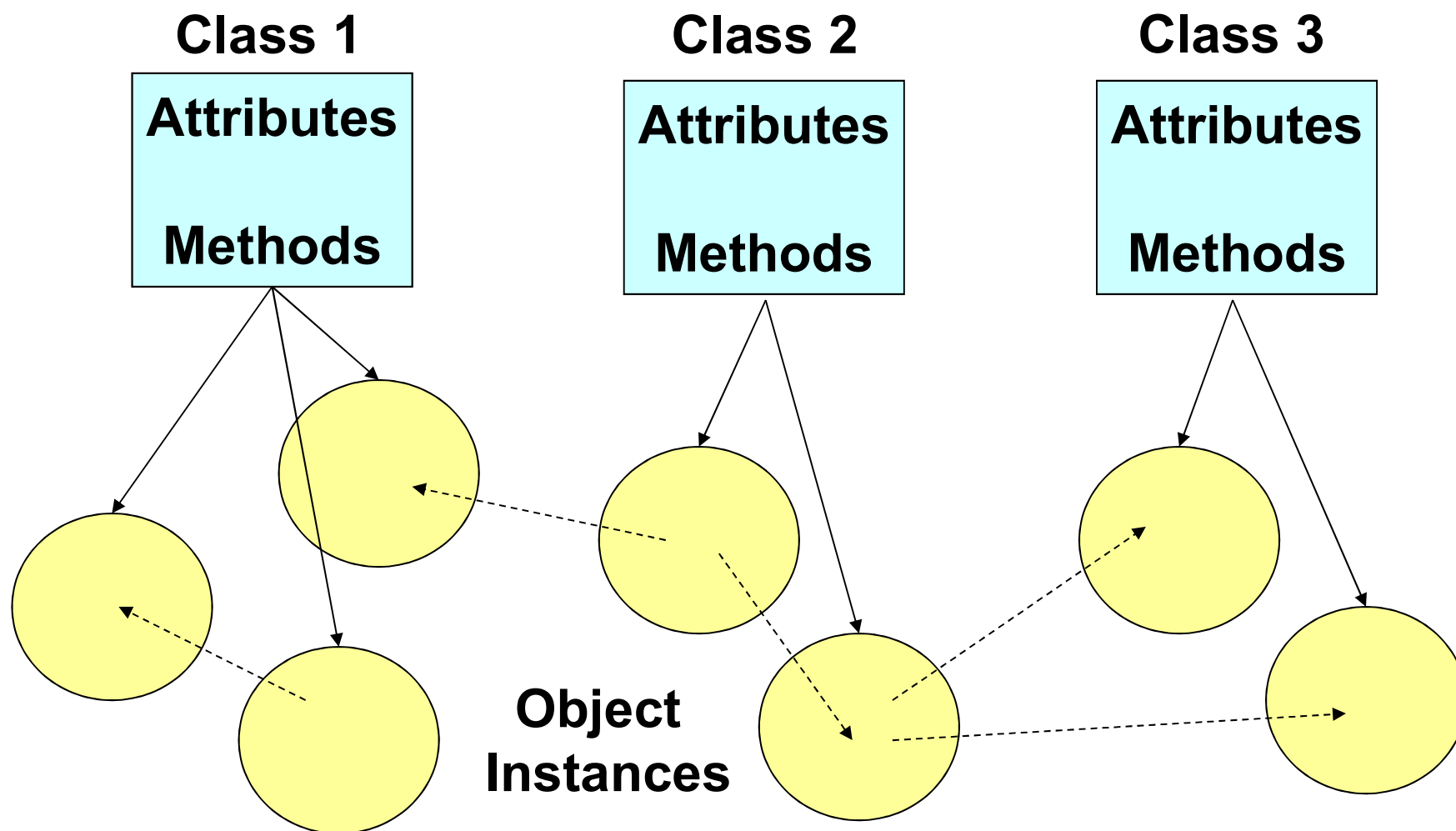
## ***Classes and Objects***

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# Classes

- **Classes** in Java and in any O-O language are collections of (public) methods and (private) data
- **Methods** define the operations that code of other classes can perform to an **object instance**
  - The simpler term **object** is short for **object instance**
- A class also defines **data** or **object instance variables** (or **attributes**) that all its methods have access to
  - Different copies of this data exist for every object instance
- A **constructor** is a special method with the same name as the class and typically initialises instance variables
  - It is not called directly but through the **new** operator every time some code creates a new object of a class

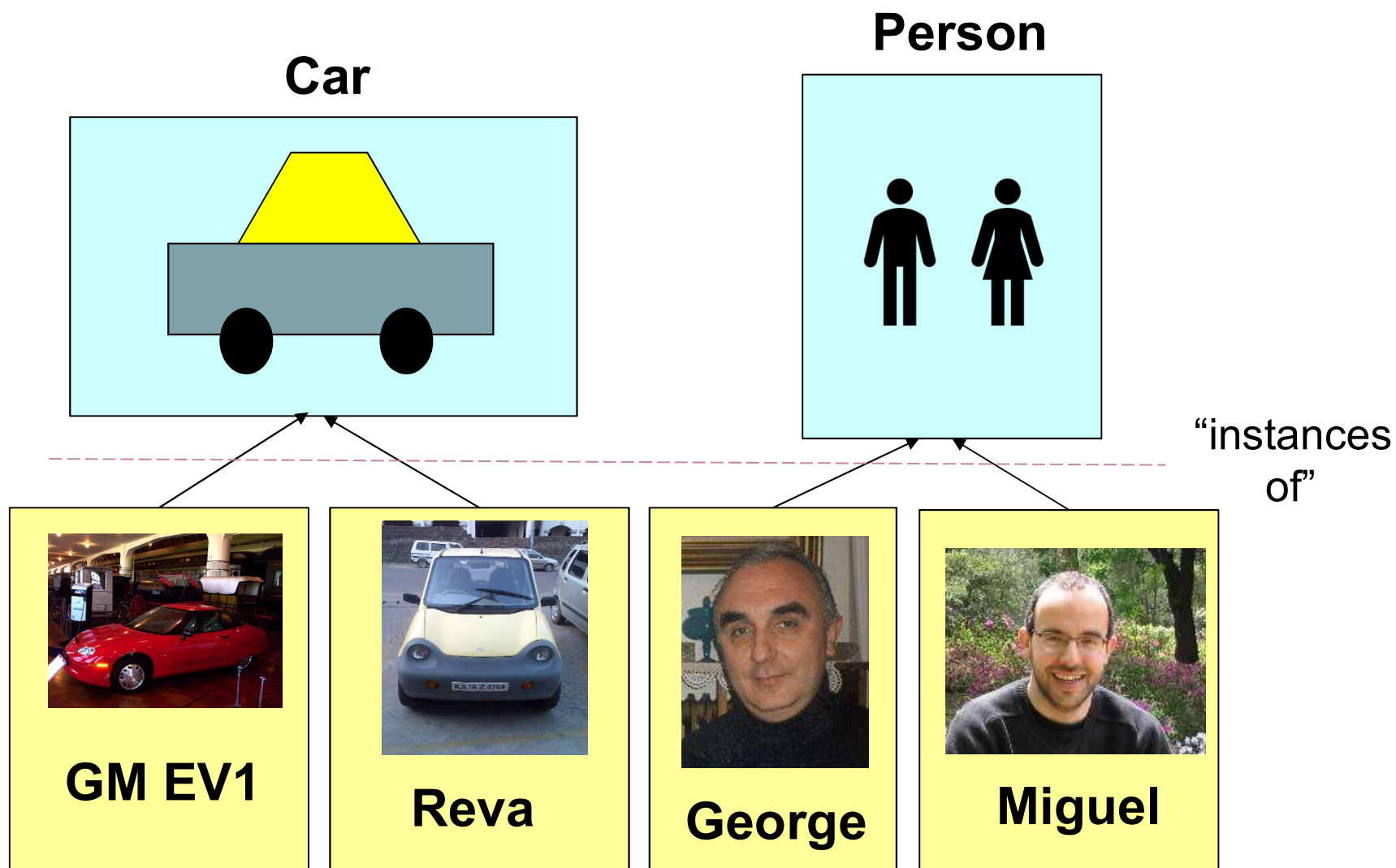
# Object-Oriented Program



## Static Methods

- **Static methods** are attached to a class and do not operate on any of the instance variables; also **static instance variables** exist once only for the class and not per object instance
- They can be called without an object instance created first
  - We simply prepend the method with the class name  
e.g. `double d = Math.sqrt(900); int i = Integer.parseInt("10");`
  - The same applies to static public instance variables  
e.g. `System.out.printf("Hello world!\n");` // out is such a variable
- Every Java program has by convention to be a class that includes the static "main" method
  - The filename should be the same as the "program class name" otherwise the compiler will complain  
e.g. `MeanAndVariance.java` for a mean & variance program,  
`DiceThrower.java` for a dice thrower program
- The static main method is where the program starts & ends
  - `public static void main (String[] args)`

# Defining Simple Classes



## Defining Simple Classes (cont'd)

// Note: incomplete classes, constructors not fully coded

```
class Car
{
    String make;
    String model;
    int    engSize;

    Car (String mk, String mdl, int engSz) {
        // initialisation code goes here
    }
    String toString () {
        return "Car " + make + " " + model +
            " has engine " + engSize;
    }
}
```

```
...
Car c1 = new Car("VW", "Golf GTI", 2000);
System.out.printf("%s\n", c1.toString());
...
```

```
class Person
{
    String name;
    String surname;
    int    age;

    Person (...) {
        // also here
    }
    String toString () {
        return "Person " + name + " " +
            surname + " is " + age +
            " years old";
    }
}
```

```
// we create a Car object
// and print out its content
```

# Constructors

```
// note "overloaded" constructors:  
// two constructors with different parameters  
public class Point  
{  
    private int x, y;    // private instance variables - public methods  
  
    public Point () {  
        x = 0; y = 0;  
    }  
  
    public Point (int xarg, int yarg) {  
        x = xarg; y = yarg;  
    }  
  
    public String toString () {  
        return "[" + x + ", " + y + "];"  
    }  
    // class incomplete: getX, getY, setX, setY methods required  
}
```

# Method Overloading

- A class can include methods with the same name but different parameters, this is called **method overloading**
  - The compiler distinguishes overloaded methods through their **signature**, which is a combination of the method's name and the number, type and order of parameters
  - Two methods with the same name and parameters but with a different return type are not allowed!
- Constructors can also be overloaded
- Function overloading is NOT possible in C because function signatures do not include the parameter types
  - Method overloading is possible in C++ – as in Java



## Method Overloading (cont'd)

```
public class MathCalc // class with only static methods -
{
    // similar to a (thematic) collection of C functions

    // square method with int argument
    public static long square (int intValue)
    {
        System.out.printf( "Called square with int argument: %d\n", intValue );
        return intValue * intValue;
    } // end method square with int argument

    // square method with double argument
    public static double square (double doubleValue)
    {
        System.out.printf( "Called square with double argument: %f\n", doubleValue );
        return doubleValue * doubleValue;
    } // end method square with double argument

} // end of Class
```

## An Example Simple Program

```
import java.util.*; // necessary for the Scanner class

public class MathCalc {
    // here go the two square methods of the previous slide ...

    public static void main (String[] args) {

        // create a Scanner object to scan the standard input
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // get first the integer and then the double argument
        int    intArg = input.nextInt();
        double dblArg = input.nextDouble();

        // print out each of the arguments and its square
        System.out.printf("square of %d is %d\n", intArg, MathCalc.square(intArg));
        System.out.printf("square of %f is %f\n", dblArg, MathCalc.square(dblArg));
    } // end main method

} // end class MathCalc
```

# Block Statements and Scope of Variables

- Most programming languages use **block statements**, also known as “code blocks”, delimited by { and }
  - A *class* is a block, a *method* is a block, a *for loop* is a block
  - Primitive types and object references declared in a code block are added onto the program “stack” (see later) and are removed (emptied) when the block ends, i.e. disappear from scope
- The **scope** of a variable is the program part that can access that variable. Scope rules are as follows.
  - The scope of a **local variable** in a method is from the declaration point until the end of that block, i.e. the closing “}”
  - The scope of a **for statement initialisation variable** is the *for* body
  - The scope of a **method parameter** is the entire method
  - The scope of an **instance variable** is the entire class
- For variables of the above types *with the same name* (which is bad practice!) the “innermost” prevails

## Scope of Variables Example

```
class Point {  
    int x, y;  
  
    public Point (int x, int y) { // not good practice, same names x, y!!  
        // here the x, y parameters "overwrite" instance variables x, y  
        this.x = x; this.y = y;    // we need to use "this", see later  
    }  
  
    public void scopeTest (int x) { // deliberately bad parameter name  
        int x = 10;                // deliberately bad local variable name  
        // the following x will be 10, overwriting parm x and inst variable x  
        System.out.println ("x is " + x);  
  
        for (int x = 0; x < 2; x++) // deliberately bad for loop parm name  
            // the following x will be 0 and 1 in two iterations,  
            // overwriting local variable x=10, parm x and instance variable x  
            System.out.println ("x is " + x);  
    }  
}
```

# Primitive and Reference Types

- All method parameters and also instance variables must have a type
  - There exist **primitive types** and **reference types**
- Java supports the following 8 primitive types:  
**boolean, char, byte, short, int, long, float, double**
  - Primitive types have well defined standard size (between 1-8 bytes) and can be stored in a fixed amount of memory
  - All primitive types declared are stored in the program “stack”
- Objects of any type (and Arrays, which also are objects) can have any size in memory and are accessed by references – hence reference types
  - The space for any object created by **new** is in the program “heap”

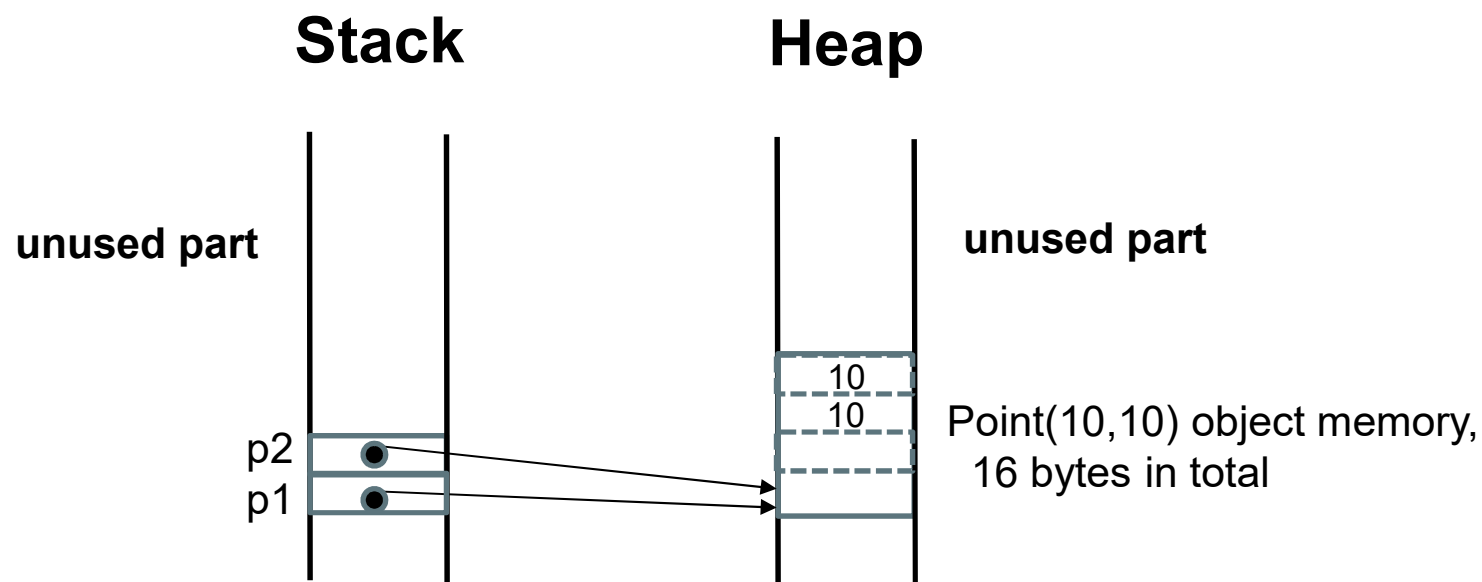
## Program Stack and Heap

- When a program is executed, it is given an initial amount of memory by the operating system
  - This can be increased later if the program needs more memory
- A part of this memory is the program “stack”: method parameters and also primitive types & references declared in methods go onto the stack; its top-most part is emptied when they go out of scope i.e. at the end of every code block { }
  - The first thing to go onto the stack is the *args* parameter of *main*
  - A stack is a *last-in-first-out* structure, just like a “stack of dishes”
- Another part of this memory is the program “heap”, where object instances created using the **new** operator are placed
  - This is *dynamic* memory as opposed to the *static* memory on the stack, similar to memory allocated using *malloc* in C

# Reference Types

- When declaring an object reference, it goes onto the program “stack”, exactly as the primitive types  
Point p1 = null; // p1 is a reference to a Point object (not created yet)
- New object instances go in the program “heap”  
p1 = new Point (10, 10); // we create new Point object in the heap  
// pointed to by reference p1 in the stack  
Point p2 = p1; // new reference p2 pointing to the same object above  
// the actual references p1 & p2 are in the program stack  
// and will vanish at the end of the code block

## Reference Types (cont'd)



- References **p1** and **p2** are memory addresses pointing to the same location in the heap, i.e. to object **Point(10,10)**
- This is a 32-bit machine architecture, with 4-byte “words”; every object has 8 bytes of meta-data, so a **Point** is 16 bytes long in memory given it has 2 *int* instance variables of 4 bytes each



## Wrappers for Primitive Types

- Java provides “wrapper classes” that provide object encapsulations for all the primitive types so that they can be stored in collection classes such as list etc.
  - These wrapper classes start with an upper case letter in relation to the primitive types
  - **Boolean, Character, Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, Double** (note that it is Integer/Character, NOT Int/Char)
  - A key method of Integer is “static int parseInt(String s)” which converts a numerical string to an int e.g. “10” to 10
- For example, a *generic* linked list can store objects, so it can store instances of Integer, String or whatever
  - But cannot store “int” because this is primitive type, not an object, unless we make a *specific* list that stores only int

# Wrapper Type Examples & Stack/Heap

```
Integer j0 = null; // a reference on the stack to an Integer object, not yet created
{
    int i1 = 10; // int variable i1 on the stack, initialised to 10

    Integer j1 = new Integer(i1); // new Integer object on the heap, contains value 10

    j0 = j1; // assign Integer object reference j1 to j0 declared above, outside the block

    int i2 = 20; // int variable i2 on the stack, initialised to 20

    int i3 = j1.intValue()+i2; // int variable i3, gets 10 from j1 + 20 from i2 = 30

    Integer j2 = new Integer(40); // new Integer object on the heap, contains value 40
}

// i1, j1, i2, i3 and j2 disappear from scope at end of block, i.e. stack is emptied
// we still have access to object j1 via reference j0 but not to object j2,
// this is still somewhere in the heap but we did not copy its reference
```

```
System.out.printf("j0 is %d\n", j0.intValue()); // this will print "j0 is 10"
```

## C Pointers

- In C we can declare pointers to any struct type, and also to primitive data types such as int and char
- We can also perform pointer arithmetic and “walk” through the underlying computer’s memory
- The following is an example of C pointer usage:

```
int i = 2;
int j = 10;
int* pi = &i; // this points to the stack memory position of int i
pi++;         // it now moves to the next int location on the stack,
              // so it now points to the stack memory position of j
```
- This type of low-level memory manipulation through pointers is NOT possible in Java

# Java Object References

- The notion of an equivalent pointer in Java is an object reference
- It points to the piece of memory where the object is stored in the program heap. But:
  - We can not do pointer arithmetic in Java and walk through a piece of memory starting from a reference, as we can do with any pointer in C
  - References are strongly-typed, for example we cannot cast a reference to Integer to a reference to String while in C we can cast an int\* to a char\* or to anything else we like
  - A reference is effectively a strongly-typed immutable pointer
- C pointers are more powerful than Java references but also more dangerous as it is pretty easy to use them incorrectly!

# Strings

- Strings in Java are supported by the String class and, as such, are of reference type
  - This is in contrast to C where a string is simply a pointer to a series of char terminated by '\0', i.e. char\*
  - Also in contrast to C++ which supports both C-style strings and a standard library String class, but the latter is not a “first class type” as in Java
- Manipulating strings is a very important feature of many programs
  - The existence of the String class makes it quite easy
- It is worth looking at the methods the String class as they can be useful for many things

# The Java Class Library

- The Java programming language contains a basic set of programming functionality
- The **Java Class Library** is distributed with the compiler and contains more than 3200 classes
- You can see the list at:  
<http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.5.0/docs/api/index.html>
- A good programmer is the one who manages to program less and **use** more!
  - Use existing library classes when you can

## Some Packages in the Java Class Library

- **java.util** – various utility classes
- **java.io** – input/output (i/o): streams and files
- **java.net** – classes for networking applications
- **java.awt** – for creating graphics and images
- **javax.swing** – for user interfaces
- **java.bean** – for developing components (i.e. beans)

# Commenting your Code

- It is very important to comment your code! For your colleagues, for the person who will mark your exam paper or assignment and for yourself in the future
- It is good practice to put the comments first and then the code itself
- Java supports both single line (C++ style - `// ...`) and multiple line (C style - `/* ... */`) comments
  - You should mostly use the single line style `// ...`
  - The multiple line style `/* ... */` should be only used to comment out whole blocks of code when debugging



## Code Layout: Indentation

- The code within a **code block** delimited by { and } should be indented to the right by a fixed amount of white space (typically 4 spaces)
- For example in a file with the code of a class:
  - Instance variable and methods should all be 4 spaces right
  - The code within every method should be another 4 spaces to the right, starting at “column” 9
  - The code within a for loop in that method, i.e. another block, should be another 4 spaces right, starting at “column” 13 etc.
- See also [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indent\\_style](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indent_style)
- **Badly indented code will be penalised!**

## Example of Correct Indentation

```
// class starts at column 1
public class List
{
    // instance variables and methods start at column 5
    // instance variables ...

    public void insertAtFront (Object newData)
    {
        // if else statement at first level within method starts at column 9
        // the if and else internal blocks start at column 13
        if (firstNode == null) // empty list
            firstNode = lastNode = new ListNode(newData, null);
        else
        {
            ListNode newFirstNode = new ListNode(newData, firstNode);
            firstNode = newFirstNode;
        } // end else
    } // end insertAtFront method

    // more methods starting at column 5 ...

} // end class
```