

# Principles of Software Construction: Objects, Design, and Concurrency

## Object-Oriented Programming in Java

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# Administrivia

- First homework due this Thursday, 11:59 PM

# Key concepts from Tuesday

- Bipartite type system – primitives & object refs
  - Single implementation inheritance
  - Multiple interface inheritance
- Easiest output – `println`, `printf`
- Easiest input – Command line args, Scanner
- Collections framework is powerful & easy to use

# Collections usage example 3

*Unfinished business from last lecture*

Print index of first occurrence of each word

```
class Index {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Map<String, Integer> index = new TreeMap<>();  
  
        // Iterate backwards so first occurrence wins  
        for (int i = args.length - 1; i >= 0; i--) {  
            index.put(args[i], i);  
        }  
        System.out.println(index);  
    }  
}
```

```
$ java Index if it is to be it is up to me to do it  
{be=4, do=11, if=0, is=2, it=1, me=9, to=3, up=7}
```

# Outline

- I. Object-oriented programming basics
- II. Information hiding
- III. Exceptions

# Objects

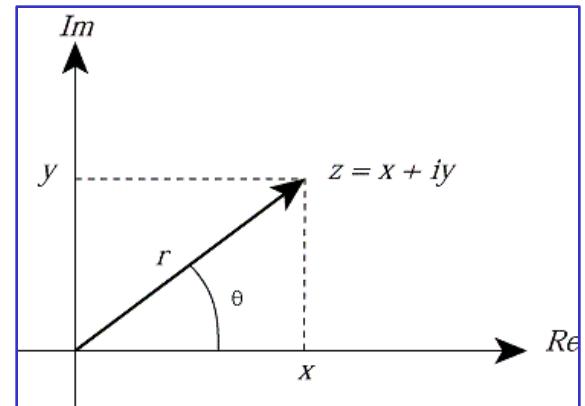
- An **object** is a bundle of state and behavior
- State – the data contained in the object
  - In Java, these are the **fields** of the object
- Behavior – the actions supported by the object
  - In Java, these are called **methods**
  - Method is just OO-speak for function
  - invoke a method = call a function

# Classes

- Every object has a class
  - A class defines methods and fields
  - Methods and fields collectively known as **members**
- Class defines both type and implementation
  - type ≈ where the object can be used
  - implementation ≈ how the object does things
- Loosely speaking, the methods of a class are its **Application Programming Interface (API)**
  - Defines how users interact with instances

# Class example – complex numbers

```
class Complex {  
    private double re; // Real Part  
    private double im; // Imaginary Part  
  
    public Complex(double re, double im) {  
        this.re = re;  
        this.im = im;  
    }  
  
    public double realPart() { return re; }  
    public double imaginaryPart() { return im; }  
    public double r() { return Math.sqrt(re * re + im * im); }  
    public double theta() { return Math.atan(im / re); }  
  
    public Complex add(Complex c) {  
        return new Complex(re + c.re, im + c.im);  
    }  
    public Complex subtract(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex multiply(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex divide(Complex c) { ... }  
}
```



# Class usage example

```
public class ComplexUser {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Complex c = new Complex(-1, 0);  
        Complex d = new Complex(0, 1);  
  
        Complex e = c.plus(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
        e = c.times(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
    }  
}
```

When you run this program, it prints

-1.0 + 1.0i  
-0.0 + -1.0i

# Interfaces and implementations

- Multiple implementations of API can coexist
  - Multiple classes can implement the same API
  - They can differ in performance and behavior
- In Java, an API is specified by *interface* or *class*
  - Interface provides only an API
  - Class provides an API and an implementation
  - A Class can implement multiple interfaces

# An interface to go with our class

```
public interface Complex {  
    // No constructors, fields, or implementations!  
  
    double realPart();  
    double imaginaryPart();  
    double r();  
    double theta();  
  
    Complex plus(Complex c);  
    Complex minus(Complex c);  
    Complex times(Complex c);  
    Complex dividedBy(Complex c);  
}
```

An interface defines but does not implement API

# Modifying class to use interface

```
class OrdinaryComplex implements Complex {  
    double re; // Real Part  
    double im; // Imaginary Part  
  
    public OrdinaryComplex(double re, double im) {  
        this.re = re;  
        this.im = im;  
    }  
  
    public double realPart() { return re; }  
    public double imaginaryPart() { return im; }  
    public double r() { return Math.sqrt(re * re + im * im); }  
    public double theta() { return Math.atan(im / re); }  
  
    public Complex add(Complex c) {  
        return new OrdinaryComplex(re + c.realPart(), im + c.imaginaryPart());  
    }  
    public Complex subtract(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex multiply(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex divide(Complex c) { ... }  
}
```

# Modifying client to use interface

```
public class ComplexUser {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Complex c = new OrdinaryComplex(-1, 0);  
        Complex d = new OrdinaryComplex(0, 1);  
  
        Complex e = c.plus(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
        e = c.times(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
    }  
}
```

When you run this program, it **still** prints

-1.0 + 1.0i  
-0.0 + -1.0i

# Interface permits multiple implementations

```
class PolarComplex implements Complex {  
    double r;  
    double theta;  
  
    public PolarComplex(double r, double theta) {  
        this.r = r;  
        this.theta = theta;  
    }  
  
    public double realPart() { return r * Math.cos(theta); }  
    public double imaginaryPart() { return r * Math.sin(theta); }  
    public double r() { return r; }  
    public double theta() { return theta; }  
  
    public Complex plus(Complex c) { ... } // Completely different impls  
    public Complex minus(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex times(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex dividedBy(Complex c) { ... }  
}
```

# Interface decouples client from implementation

```
public class ComplexUser {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Complex c = new PolarComplex(Math.PI, 1); // -1  
        Complex d = new PolarComplex(Math.PI/2, 1); // i  
  
        Complex e = c.plus(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
        e = c.times(d);  
        System.out.println(e.realPart() + " + "  
                           + e.imaginaryPart() + "i");  
    }  
}
```

When you run this program, it **STILL** prints

-1.0 + 1.0i  
-0.0 + -1.0i

# Why multiple implementations?

- Different performance
  - Choose implementation that works best for your use
- Different behavior
  - Choose implementation that does what you want
  - Behavior *must* comply with interface spec (“contract”)
- Often performance and behavior *both* vary
  - Provides a functionality – performance tradeoff
  - Example: HashSet, TreeSet

# Java interfaces and classes

- Organize program objects types
  - Each type offers a specific set of operations
  - Objects are otherwise opaque
- Interfaces vs. classes
  - Interface: specifies expectations
  - Class: delivers on expectations (the implementation)

# Classes as types

- Classes *do* define types
  - Public class methods usable like interface methods
  - Public fields directly accessible from other classes
- But prefer the use of interfaces
  - Use interface types for variables and parameters unless you know one implementation will suffice
    - Supports change of implementation
    - Prevents dependence on implementation details

```
Set<Criminal> senate = new HashSet<>();           // Do this...
HashSet<Criminal> senate = new HashSet<>();        // Not this
```

# Check your understanding

```
interface Animal {  
    void vocalize();  
}  
class Dog implements Animal {  
    public void vocalize() { System.out.println("Woof!"); }  
}  
class Cow implements Animal {  
    public void vocalize() { moo(); }  
    public void moo() {System.out.println("Moo!"); }  
}
```

## What Happens?

1. Animal a = new Animal();  
 a.vocalize();
2. Dog d = new Dog();  
 d.vocalize();
3. Animal b = new Cow();  
 b.vocalize();
4. b.moo();

# Historical note: simulation and the origins of OO programming

- Simula 67 was the first object-oriented language
- Developed by Kristin Nygaard and Ole-Johan Dahl at the Norwegian Computing Center
- Developed to support *discrete-event simulation*
  - Application: operations research, e.g. traffic analysis
  - Extensibility was a key quality attribute for them
  - Code reuse was another



Dahl and Nygaard at the time of Simula's development

# Outline

- I. Object-oriented programming basics
- II. Information hiding
- III. Exceptions

# Information hiding

- Single most important factor that distinguishes a well-designed module from a bad one is the degree to which it hides internal data and other implementation details from other modules
- Well-designed code hides *all* implementation details
  - Cleanly separates API from implementation
  - Modules communicate *only* through APIs
  - They are oblivious to each others' inner workings
- Known as *information hiding* or *encapsulation*
- Fundamental tenet of software design [Parnas, '72]

# Benefits of information hiding

- **Decouples** the classes that comprise a system
  - Allows them to be developed, tested, optimized, used, understood, and modified in isolation
- **Speeds up system development**
  - Classes can be developed in parallel
- **Eases burden of maintenance**
  - Classes can be understood more quickly and debugged with little fear of harming other modules
- **Enables effective performance tuning**
  - “Hot” classes can be optimized in isolation
- **Increases software reuse**
  - Loosely-coupled classes often prove useful in other contexts

# Information hiding with interfaces

- Declare variables using interface type
- Client can use only interface methods
- Fields not accessible from client code
- But this only takes us so far
  - Client can access non-interface members directly
  - In essence, it's **voluntary** information hiding

# Mandatory Information hiding

## *visibility modifiers* for members

- **private** – Accessible *only* from declaring class
- package-private – Accessible from any class in the package where it is declared
  - Technically known as default access
  - You get this if no access modifier is specified
- **protected** – Accessible from subclasses of declaring class (and within package)
- **public** – Accessible from anywhere

# Hiding interior state in OrdinaryComplex

```
class OrdinaryComplex implements Complex {  
    private double re; // Real Part  
    private double im; // Imaginary Part  
  
    public OrdinaryComplex(double re, double im) {  
        this.re = re;  
        this.im = im;  
    }  
  
    public double realPart() { return re; }  
    public double imaginaryPart() { return im; }  
    public double r() { return Math.sqrt(re * re + im * im); }  
    public double theta() { return Math.atan(im / re); }  
  
    public Complex add(Complex c) {  
        return new OrdinaryComplex(re + c.realPart(), im + c.imaginaryPart());  
    }  
    public Complex subtract(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex multiply(Complex c) { ... }  
    public Complex divide(Complex c) { ... }  
}
```

# Discussion

- You know the benefits of private fields
- What are the benefits of private methods?

# Best practices for information hiding

- Carefully design your API
- Provide *only* functionality required by clients
  - All other members should be private
- You can always make a private member public later without breaking clients
  - But not vice-versa!

# Outline

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# What does this code do?

```
FileInputStream fIn = new FileInputStream(fileName);
if (fIn == null) {
    switch (errno) {
        case _ENOFILE:
            System.err.println("File not found: " + ...);
            return -1;
        default:
            System.err.println("Something else bad happened: " + ...);
            return -1;
    }
}
DataInput dataInput = new DataInputStream(fIn);
if (dataInput == null) {
    System.err.println("Unknown internal error.");
    return -1; // errno > 0 set by new DataInputStream
}
int i = dataInput.readInt();
if (errno > 0) {
    System.err.println("Error reading binary data from file");
    return -1;
} // The Slide lacks space to close the file. Oh well.
return i;
```

# What does this code do?

```
FileInputStream fIn = new FileInputStream(fileName);
if (fIn == null) {
    switch (errno) {
        case _ENOFILE:
            System.err.println("File not found: " + ...);
            return -1;
        default:
            System.err.println("Something else bad happened: " + ...);
            return -1;
    }
}
DataInputStream dataInput = new DataInputStream(fIn);
if (dataInput == null)
    System.err.println("Unknown internal error.");
    return -1; // errno > 0 set by new DataInputStream
}
int i = dataInput.readInt();
if (errno > 0) {
    System.err.println("Error reading binary data from file");
    return -1;
} // The Slide lacks space to close the file. Oh well.
return i;
```

**FAIL**

# Compare to:

```
FileInputStream fileInput = null;  
try {  
    fileInput = new FileInputStream(fileName);  
    DataInput dataInput = new DataInputStream(fileInput);  
    return dataInput.readInt();  
} catch (FileNotFoundException e) {  
    System.out.println("Could not open file " + fileName);  
} catch (IOException e) {  
    System.out.println("Couldn't read file: " + e);  
} finally {  
    if (fileInput != null) fileInput.close();  
}
```

# Exceptions

- Notify the caller of an exceptional condition by automatic transfer of control
- Semantics:
  - Propagates up stack until `main` method is reached (terminates program), or exception is caught
- Sources:
  - Program – e.g., `IllegalArgumentException`
  - JVM – e.g., `StackOverflowError`

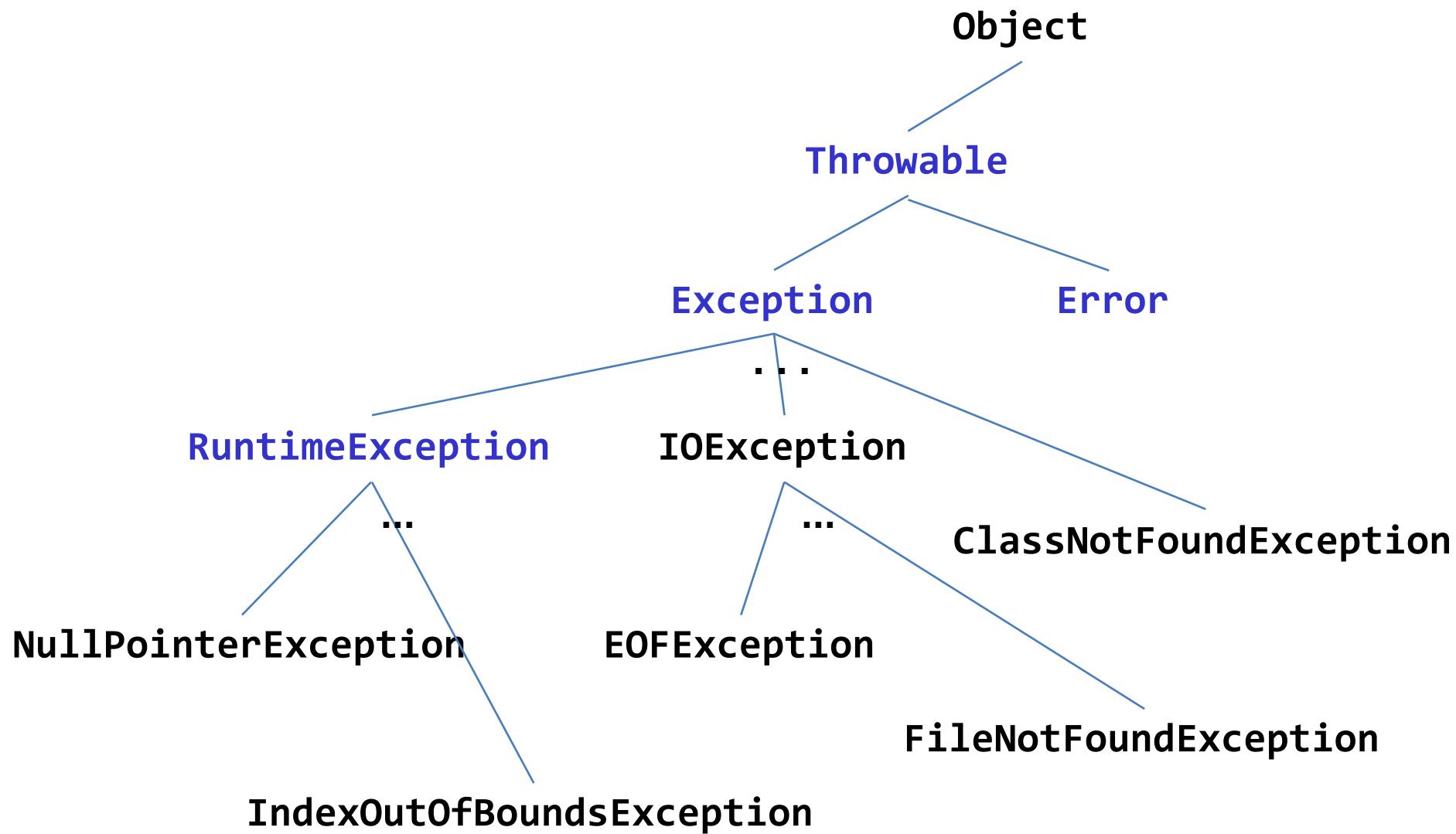
# Control-flow of exceptions

```
public static void test() {  
    try {  
        System.out.println("Top");  
        int[] a = new int[10];  
        a[42] = 42;  
        System.out.println("Bottom");  
    } catch (NegativeArraySizeException e) {  
        System.out.println("Caught negative array size");  
    }  
}  
  
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    try {  
        test();  
    } catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException e) {  
        System.out.println("Caught index out of bounds");  
    }  
}
```

# Checked vs. unchecked exceptions

- Checked exception
  - Must be caught or propagated, or program won't compile
- Unchecked exception
  - No action is required for program to compile
  - But uncaught exception will cause program to fail!

# The exception hierarchy in Java



# Design choice: checked and unchecked exceptions and return values

- Unchecked exception
  - Programming error, other unrecoverable failure
- Checked exception
  - An error that every caller should be aware of and handle
- Special return value (e.g., null from Map.get)
  - Common but atypical result
- Do NOT use return codes
- NEVER return null to indicate a zero-length result
  - Use a zero-length list or array instead

# Creating and throwing your own exceptions

```
public class SpanishInquisitionException extends RuntimeException {  
    public SpanishInquisitionException() {  
    }  
}  
  
public class HolyGrail {  
    public void seek() {  
        ...  
        if (heresyByWord() || heresyByDeed())  
            throw new SpanishInquisitionException();  
        ...  
    }  
}
```

# Benefits of exceptions

- You can't forget to handle common failure modes
  - Compare: using a flag or special return value
- Provide high-level summary of error, and stack trace
  - Compare: core dump in C
- Improve code structure
  - Separate normal code path from exceptional
  - Ease task of recovering from failure
- Ease task of writing robust, maintainable code

# Guidelines for using exceptions (1)

- Avoid unnecessary checked exceptions (EJ Item 59)
- Favor standard exceptions (EJ Item 60)
  - `IllegalArgumentException` – invalid parameter value
  - `IllegalStateException` – invalid object state
  - `NullPointerException` – null param where prohibited
  - `IndexOutOfBoundsException` – invalid index param
- Throw exceptions appropriate to abstraction  
(EJ Item 61)

# Guidelines for using exceptions (2)

- Document all exceptions thrown by each method
  - Checked and unchecked (EJ Item 62)
  - But don't *declare* unchecked exceptions!
- Include failure-capture info in detail message (Item 63)
  - `throw new IlegalArgumentException("Modulus must be prime: " + modulus);`
- Don't ignore exceptions (EJ Item 65)  
**// Empty catch block IGNORES exception – Bad smell in code!**

```
try {  
    ...  
} catch (SomeException e) { }
```

# Remember this slide?

*You can do much better!*

```
FileInputStream fileInput = null;  
try {  
    FileInputStream fileInput = new FileInputStream(fileName);  
    DataInput dataInput = new DataInputStream(fileInput);  
    return dataInput.readInt();  
} catch (FileNotFoundException e) {  
    System.out.println("Could not open file " + fileName);  
} catch (IOException e) {  
    System.out.println("Couldn't read file: " + e);  
} finally {  
    if (fileInput != null) fileInput.close();  
}
```

# Manual resource termination is ugly and error prone

- Even good programmers usually get it wrong
  - Sun’s guide to Persistent Connections got it wrong in code that claimed to be exemplary
  - Solution on page 88 of Bloch and Gafter’s *Java Puzzlers* is badly broken; no one noticed for years
- 70% of the uses of the `close` method in the JDK itself were wrong in 2008(!)
- Even “correct” idioms for manual resource management are deficient

# The solution: try-with-resources

*Automatically closes resources*

```
try (DataInput dataInput =
      new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream(fileName))) {
    return dataInput.readInt();
} catch (FileNotFoundException e) {
    System.out.println("Could not open file " + fileName);
} catch (IOException e) {
    System.out.println("Couldn't read file: " + e);
}
```

# File copy without ARM

```
static void copy(String src, String dest) throws IOException {
    InputStream in = new FileInputStream(src);
    try {
        OutputStream out = new FileOutputStream(dest);
        try {
            byte[] buf = new byte[8 * 1024];
            int n;
            while ((n = in.read(buf)) >= 0)
                out.write(buf, 0, n);
        } finally {
            out.close();
        }
    } finally {
        in.close();
    }
}
```

# File copy with ARM

```
static void copy(String src, String dest) throws IOException {  
    try (InputStream in = new FileInputStream(src);  
         OutputStream out = new FileOutputStream(dest)) {  
        byte[] buf = new byte[8 * 1024];  
        int n;  
        while ((n = in.read(buf)) >= 0)  
            out.write(buf, 0, n);  
    }  
}
```

# Summary

- Interfaces-based designs handle change well
- Information hiding is crucial to good design
- Exceptions are way better than error codes
- The need for checked exceptions is rare
- Try-with-resources (ARM block) is a win