

## Java Overview

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## References

- Concise overviews
  - *Java in a Nutshell* (O'Reilly)
  - Budd, *Understanding Object-Oriented Programming with Java* (Addison-Wesley)
- Longer Tutorials
  - Arnold & Gosling, *The Java Programming Language* (2nd ed, A-W)
  - *Exploring Java* (O'Reilly)
  - *Core Java* (Prentice-Hall)
  - *The Java Tutorial* (A-W)\*
- For Language Lawyers
  - *The Java Language Specification* Gosling, et al (A-W)\*
- Many online sources; see course web for links

\* also available online at [www.java.sun.com](http://www.java.sun.com)

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## Some History

- 1993 Oak project at Sun
- 1995 Oak becomes Java; every major web player announces support
- 1996 Java 1.0 available
- 1997 (March) Java 1.1 - some language changes and much larger library, including new event handling GUI model (AWT)
- 1997 (September) Java 1.2 beta - including Swing GUI package
- 1998 (October) Java 1.2 final
- 2000 (April) Java 1.3 final

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## Design Goals

- Support secure, high-performance, robust applications running as-is on multiple platforms and over networks
- “Architecture-neutral”, portable, allow dynamic updates and adapt to new environments
- Look enough like C++ for programmer comfort
- Support object-oriented programming
- Support concurrency (multithreading)
- Simplicity

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## Hello World in Java

```
public class HelloWorld {
    public static void main (String [ ] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World");
    }
}
```

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## Classes

- Everything in Java is a member of some class
  - No external (global) functions or variables
- Classes may contain methods and data members
- Class members may be
  - non-static: one copy for each instance of the class
  - static: single copy associated with the class, not with any specific instances.

“Java has no functions. Object-oriented programming supersedes functional and procedural styles. Mixing the two styles just leads to confusion and dilutes the purity of an object-oriented language.”

Gosling & McIlton *Java White Paper*

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## Hello World Revisited

```
public class HelloWorld {
    public static void main (String [] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World");
    }
}
```

- Every class may have a main method
- Execution begins in main of a designated class
- Class Xyzzy should be in file Xyzzy.java

```
%javac HelloWorld.java
%java HelloWorld
Hello World
```

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## Command Line Arguments

```
public class PrintArgs {
    public static void main (String [] args) {
        for (int k=0; k < args.length; k++)
            System.out.print(args[k] + " ");
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

```
%javac PrintArgs.java
%java PrintArgs Testing one, two, three
Testing one, two, three
```

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## Primitive Data Types

- 2's complement signed integer
  - int (32 bits), byte (8), short (16), long (64)
  - constants are normally type int
- IEEE floating point
  - double (64 bits), float (32)
  - floating constants are normally type double
- Unicode characters: **char** (16 bits)
- Logical: **boolean**
  - constants are true, false
  - not interchangeable with int
- None of these are "implementation-defined" or "implementation-dependent"

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## Vars, Expressions & Assignment

- Almost same as C/C++
  - int k = 17; boolean maybe; double x=42.0
  - k = 2 \* k; maybe = k > 17;
- Declaration initializers are optional. If omitted,
  - Fields in class instances initialized to 0, false, null.
  - Local vars in methods not initialized by default; compiler complains if use before initialize is possible
- Assignment does coercion if no information lost
  - double y = (k+6)/2;
- Assignment that could lose information requires explicit cast
  - k = (int) x \* 1.3 / (x-2)

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## Basic statements

- if, while, for, and switch work as in C/C++
  - Use { } to create compound statements
  - Logical && and || are short-circuit
  - switch requires explicit break if fall-through to next case is not desired; if default case is not provided and no case label matches, execution silently proceeds with next statement.

```
if (x < y) { tmp=x; x=y; y=tmp;} else x=0;
while (k < n && a[k] != x)
    k++;
```

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## Class Definitions

- Basic use is to define template for instances

```
public class Blob {
    private int val;           // Blob state
    public int getVal()       // access methods
    { return val; }
    public void setVal(int val)
    { this.val = val; }
    // yield string representation of this Blob
    public String toString()
    { return "Blob: val = " + val; }
}
```
- toString() automatically used to cast object to String when used in context that requires String

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## Visibility

- Class members can be preceded by a qualifier to indicate accessibility
  - **public** - accessible anywhere the class can be accessed
  - **private** - only accessible inside the class
  - If nothing is specified, the field can be referenced anywhere in the same package (more later).
  - **protected** - same as package visibility, and also visible in classes that extend this class.

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## Instance Creation and References

- All variables that do not have a primitive type are references. Objects are only created by explicit allocation.

```
Blob bob;           // no blob allocated yet
bob = new Blob( ); // Blob allocated here
bob.setVal(42);
int k = bob.getVal( );
System.out.println("bob is " + bob);
```

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## References and Methods

- Dot notation is used to select methods and fields; implicit dereference (no  $\rightarrow$  as in C/C++).
- No pointer arithmetic; no  $\&$  operator to generate the address of arbitrary variable; can't create pointers from random bits.
  - "Java has no pointers"
- All method parameters are call-by-value (copy of primitive value or object reference)
- Methods can be overloaded (different methods with same name but different number or types of parameters).

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## Object Allocation

- A variable declared as class X has type "reference to X". No object is created by such a declaration.
- Declaration and object creation can be combined.

```
Blob bob = new Blob( );
```
- The constant **null** belongs to all reference types and refers to nothing.
- If reference **r** is **null**, then selecting a field from **r** (**r.fieldname**) throws a **NullPointerException**.
- Storage occupied by an object is dynamically reclaimed when the object is no longer accessible (automatic garbage collection).

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## Constructors

- Constructor(s) can be provided to initialize objects when they are created. Constructors can be overloaded and can call other constructors.

```
class Blob {
    int val;
    // constructors
    Blob (int initial) { val = initial; }
    Blob ( ) { this(17); }
}
```

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## Static Methods and Fields

- **static** class members are most commonly used for data and methods that are not naturally associated with a specific class instance.

```
class Math {           // standard Java Math class
    static double sqrt(double x) { ... }
    static double sin(double x) { ... }
}
```

- Static methods are referenced via the class name

```
dist = Math.sqrt(x*x + y*y);
```

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## Symbolic Constants

- A class member may be qualified as `final`.
  - For data, it means the variable must be initialized when declared and cannot be changed after that.
  - For methods, it means the method cannot be overridden in a derived class.
  - In either case, the compiler can take advantage of this to inline the constant value or method code.

```
class Math { // standard Java Math class
    static final double PI = 3.1415926535;
    static final double E = 2.71828182845;
}
...
area = Math.PI * r * r;
```

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## Arrays

- Arrays are dynamically allocated. Declaring an array variable only creates a reference variable; it does not actually allocate the array.

```
double[] a;
a = new double[6]
for (int k = 0; k < 6; k++)
    a[k] = 2*k;
```

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## Array Notes

- Arrays are 0-origin, as in C/C++
- Arrays are also objects, with one constant member
  - If `a` is an array, `a.length` is its length
- An `IndexOutOfBoundsException` is thrown if a subscript is  $< 0$  or  $\geq$  the array length.
- The brackets indicating an array type may also appear after the variable name, as in C/C++  
`int a[] = new int[100];`

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## 2-D Arrays

- A 2-D array is really a 1-D array of references to 1-D array rows. The allocation

```
double[][] matrix = new double[10][20];
```

is really shorthand for

```
double[][] matrix = new double[10][ ];
```

```
for (int k = 0; k < 10; k++)
```

```
    matrix[k] = new double[20];
```

- Array elements are accessed in the usual way

```
for (int r = 0; r < 10; r++)
```

```
    for (int c = 0; c < 20; c++)
```

```
        matrix[r][c] = 0.0;
```

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## Arrays of Objects

- If the array elements have an object type, the objects must be created individually.

```
Blob[] list;
list = new Blob[10];
for (int k = 0; k < 10; k++)
    list[k] = new Blob;
```

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## Strings

- A character string "abc" is an instance of class `String`, and is a read-only constant.
  - Strings are objects; they are not arrays of chars.
  - There is no '\0' byte at the end
  - If `s` is a string, `s.length()` is its length, and `s.charAt(k)` is the character in position `k`.
  - Class `String` contains many useful string processing functions.

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## Derived Classes

- A class definition may extend (be derived from) a single parent class (single inheritance).

```
class Point {
    int h, v;
}

class ColorPoint extends Point {
    Color c;
}
```

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## Derived Classes (cont.)

- All of the usual object-oriented notions are supported, including inheritance of fields and methods from superclasses and overriding.
- Inside a method, **this** refers to the current object; **super** refers to the current object viewed as an instance of the parent class.
- There is a single class **Object** at the root of the class hierarchy.
  - If a class declaration does not explicitly extend some class, it implicitly extends **Object**.
- A class may be declared **abstract** if it is an interface that must be extended to be used.
- A **final** class may not be extended further.

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## Wrapper Classes for Basic Types

- For each basic type (int, double, etc.) there is a corresponding class (**Integer**, **Double**, etc.) that is an object version of that type.
  - **Integer(17)** is an object representation of the int 17.
  - Particularly useful with container classes that can only hold objects (Vector, Hashtable, etc.)
  - Wrapper classes also contain many useful utility functions and constants.
    - if (k < (Integer.MAX\_VALUE/10)) ...
    - if (Character.isLowerCase(ch)) ...

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## Interfaces

- Interfaces allow specification of constants and methods independently of the class hierarchy.
- Interfaces may extend other interfaces, but since they are pure specification, no implementation is inherited.

```
interface AbsType {
    static final int one = 1;
    static final int two = 2;
    void f(int a, int b);
    double g( );
}
```

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## Interfaces (cont)

- A class may implement as many interfaces as desired.
  - Full implementation of all methods in the interface must be provided by the class or inherited from a parent class. Nothing is inherited from the interface.
  - Gives most of the useful effects of multiple inheritance
    - Allows otherwise unrelated classes to implement common behavior
  - Widely used in the Java user interface to handle events (**MouseListener**, **ActionListener**, many others)

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## Object Compare and Copy

- Default assignment and comparison only copies or compares references (shallow operations)

```
Blob b = new Blob( );
Blob c = new Blob( );
if (b==c) System.out.println("Something wrong");
c = b;
b.setVal(100);
System.out.println( c.getval( ) );
```

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## Deep Compare and Copy

- All classes inherit `equals` and `clone` from `Object`
  - Default versions do a shallow compare/copy
  - Override if a deep compare/copy is desired
  - To override `clone`, a class must also implement the `Cloneable` interface.
- Intended meaning of `a.equals(b)` is that `a` and `b` are “equal” in whatever sense is appropriate for the class of `a` and `b`.
- `b.clone` should create a new “copy” of `b` and return a reference to it.

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## Exceptions

- Java has an extensive exception handling mechanism. Basic idea

```
try {
    thisMightExplode(x,y,z);
} catch (Exception e) {
    <deal with the problem>
}
```
- If an exception happens, a `throw new anExceptionClass(parameters);` statement will cause the call chain to unwind until a catch clause that matches the thrown object is found.

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## Exceptions (cont)

- Multiple catch clauses can be used to selectively handle exceptions

```
try {
    tryToReadData(x,y,z);
} catch (IOException e) {
    <deal with I/O problem>
} catch (Exception e) {
    <deal with other exceptions>
}
```
- If a method does something that might generate an exception, it must either handle it, or declare that it might throw that exception (`throws` clause).

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## Packages

- Packages provide a way to partition the global class namespace.
- A class is placed in a package by including at the beginning of class source file

```
package widget;
```
- A class in another package can use items from a package by explicitly qualifying the item name

```
widget.Blob b = new widget.Blob( );
```

or by importing names from the package

```
import widget.*;
...
Blob b = new Blob( );
```

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## Packages (cont)

- Package names are grouped into hierarchies by using package names with embedded dots
  - `java.util`, `java.awt`, `java.awt.image`
- Parts of a package hierarchy can be selectively imported.
- `import` is not transitive (unlike C/C++ `#include`)
- If a class definition does not include a `package` statement, that class is part of a default anonymous package.
  - Useful for small projects

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## Streams

- Stream = flow of data (bytes or characters)
- Can be associated with files, communication links, keyboard/screen/printer
- Many stream classes; most are designed to be used as wrappers that accept data and transform or filter it before passing it along
- Java 1.0: Byte streams with a few wrappers to handle ASCII text
- Java 1.1: Added text stream classes to handle Unicode text properly

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## Stream Classes (1)

- **InputStream/OutputStream** - abstract classes defining basic raw byte stream operations
  - **Reader/Writer** - abstract classes defining basic text stream operations
- All Java stream classes are built on top of these
- **InputStreamReader/OutputStreamWriter** - basic conversion between bytes and characters (in both directions)

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## Stream Classes (2)

- **BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream**  
**BufferedReader/BufferedWriter** - versions of streams that add buffering and additional input/output methods
- **PrintWriter** - Text stream with methods for printing **Strings** and primitive types as text output.

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## Stream Classes (3)

- **DataInputStream/DataOutputStream** - Filter streams that can read/write simple types including **String** and primitive numeric types as binary byte streams.
- **FileInputStream/FileOutputStream**  
**FileReader/FileWriter** - byte and text streams that read and write from/to the local file system.

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## Ex: Read a byte from Keyboard

- **System.in** is an **InputStream**. At the lowest level, we can read bytes. As in C, the basic **read()** operation returns an **int**, with -1 indicating end of stream.

```
try {
    int nibble = System.in.read();
} catch (IOException e) { ... }
```

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## Ex: Read Line from Keyboard

- To read lines of characters, convert **System.in** to a character stream, and wrap it in a **BufferedReader** to get **readLine()**.

```
try {
    InputStreamReader chars =
        new InputStreamReader(System.in);
    BufferedReader in =
        new BufferedReader(chars);
    String firstLine = in.readLine();
    ...
} catch (IOException e) { ... }
```

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## File I/O

- The file stream classes have constructors that take a filename as an argument and open the file.

```
Try {
    FileReader theFile =
        new FileReader("input.dat");
    BufferedReader input =
        new BufferedReader(theFile);
    String line = input.readLine();
    System.out.println(line);
} catch (IOException e) { ... }
```

- Gotcha: File names depend on the underlying file system -- hard to be completely "platform independent".

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## Design Goals

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