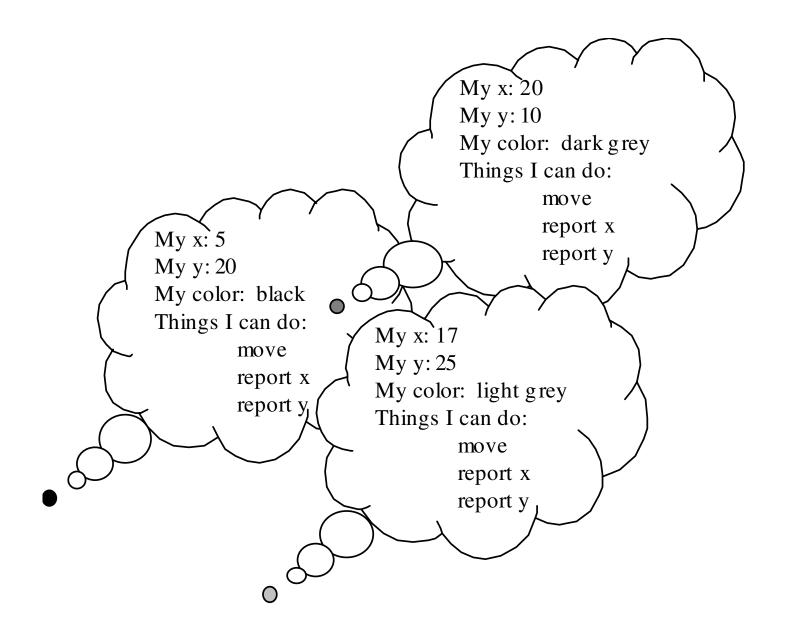
### A First Look At Java

### Outline

- 13.2 Thinking about objects
- 13.3 Simple expressions and statements
- 13.4 Class definitions
- 13.5 About references and pointers
- 13.6 Getting started with a Java language system

# Example

- Colored points on the screen
- What data goes into making one?
  - Coordinates
  - Color
- What should a point be able to do?
  - Move itself
  - Report its position



# Java Terminology

- Each point is an *object*
- Each includes three *fields*
- Each has three *methods*
- Each is an *instance* of the same *class*



# Object-Oriented Style

- Solve problems using objects: little bundles of data that know how to do things to themselves
- Not the computer knows how to move the point, but rather the point knows how to move itself
- Object-oriented languages make this way of thinking and programming easier

### Java Class Definitions: A Peek

```
public class Point {
  private int x, y;
                                          field definitions
  private Color myColor;
  public int currentX() {
    return x;
  public int currentY() {
    return y;
  public void move(int newX, int newY)
    x = newX;
    y = newY;
                                                    method definitions
```

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### Primitive Types We Will Use

- int:  $-2^{31}...2^{31}-1$ , written the usual way
- **char**: 0..2<sup>16</sup>-1, written 'a', '\n', etc., using the Unicode character set
- double: IEEE 64-bit standard, written in decimal (1.2) or scientific (1.2e-5, 1e3)
- boolean: true and false
- Oddities: void and null

# Primitive Types We Won't Use

- **byte**: -2<sup>7</sup>..2<sup>7</sup>-1
- **short**: -2<sup>15</sup>..2<sup>15</sup>-1
- long:  $-2^{63}...2^{63}-1$ , written with trailing L
- float: IEEE 32-bit standard, written with trailing F (1.2e-5, 1e3)

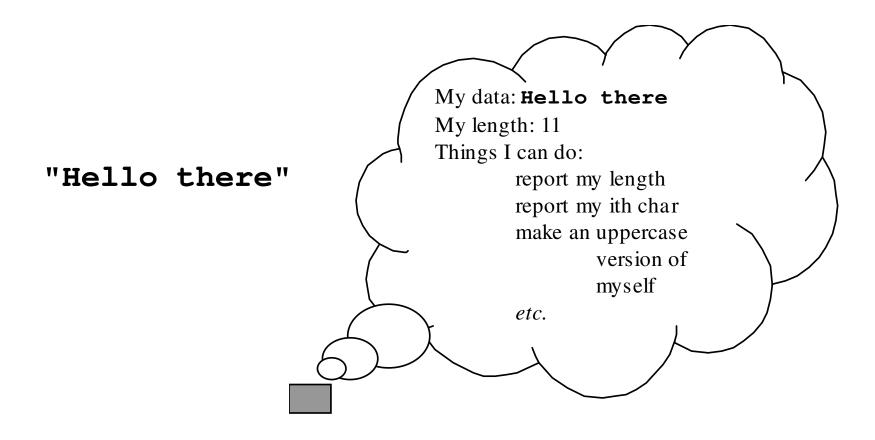
# Constructed Types

- Constructed types are all *reference* types: they are references to objects
  - Any class name, like Point
  - Any interface name (Chapter 15)
  - Any array type, like Point[] or int[](Chapter 14)

# Strings

- Predefined but not primitive: a class
  String
- A string of characters enclosed in doublequotes works like a string constant
- But it is actually an instance of the **String** class, and object containing the given string of characters

# A String Object



# Numeric Operators

#### ■ int: +, -, \*, /, %, unary -

Java Expression	Value
1+2*3	7
15/7	2
15%7	1
<b>-(5*5)</b>	-25

### **■ double: +, -, \*, /,** unary -

Java Expression	Value
13.0*2.0	26.0
15.0/7.0	2.142857142857143

### Concatenation

■ The + operator has special overloading and coercion behavior for the class **String** 

Java Expression	Value
"123"+"456"	"123456"
"The answer is " + 4	"The answer is 4"
"" + (1.0/3.0)	"0.3333333333333333
1+"2"	"12"
"1"+2+3	"123"
1+2+"3"	"33"

# Comparisons

- The usual comparison operators <, <=, >=, and >, on numeric types
- Equality == and inequality != on any type, including double (unlike ML)

Java Expression	Value
1<=2	true
1==2	false
true!=false	true

### **Boolean Operators**

- && and | |, short-circuiting, like ML's andalso and orelse
- !, like ML's not
- a?b:c, like ML's if a then b else c

Java Expression	Value
1<=2 && 2<=3	true
1<2    1>2	true
1<2 ? 3 : 4	3

### Operators With Side Effects

- An operator has a *side effect* if it changes something in the program environment, like the value of a variable or array element
- In ML, and in Java so far, we have seen only *pure* operators—no side effects
- Now: Java operators with side effects

# Assignment

- **a=b**: changes **a** to make it equal to **b**
- Assignment is an important part of what makes a language *imperative*

### Rvalues and Lvalues

- Why does **a=1** make sense, but not **1=a**?
- Expressions on the right must have a value:a, 1, a+1, f() (unless void), etc.
- Expressions on the left must have memory locations: a or d[2], but not 1 or a+1
- These two attributes of an expression are sometimes called the *rvalue* and the *lvalue*

### Rvalues and Lvalues

- In most languages, the context decides whether the language will use the rvalue or the lvalue of an expression
- A few exceptions:

```
- Bliss: x := .y
```

- ML: x := !y (both of type 'a ref)

### More Side Effects

### Compound assignments

Long Java Expression	Short Java Expression
a=a+b	a+=b
a=a-b	a-=b
a=a*b	a*=b

#### Increment and decrement

Long Java Expression	Short Java Expression
a=a+1	a++
a=a-1	a

### Values And Side Effects

- Side-effecting expressions have both a value and a side effect
- Value of **x=y** is the value of **y**; side-effect is to change **x** to have that value

Java Expression	Value	Side Effect
a+ (x=b) +c	the sum of <b>a</b> , <b>b</b> and <b>c</b>	changes the value of <b>x</b> , making it equal to <b>b</b>
(a=d) + (b=d) + (c=d)	three times the value of <b>d</b>	changes the values of <b>a</b> , <b>b</b> and <b>c</b> , making them all equal to <b>d</b>
a=b=c	the value of <b>c</b>	changes the values of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b> , making them equal to <b>c</b>

### Pre and Post

### Values from increment and decrement depend on placement

Java Expression	Value	Side Effect
a++	the old value of <b>a</b>	adds one to <b>a</b>
++a	the new value of <b>a</b>	adds one to <b>a</b>
a	the old value of <b>a</b>	subtracts one from <b>a</b>
a	the new value of <b>a</b>	subtracts one from <b>a</b>

### Instance Method Calls

Java Expression	Value
s.length()	the length of the String s
s.equals(r)	true if s and r are equal, false otherwise
r.equals(s)	same
r.toUpperCase()	A <b>String</b> object that is an uppercase version of the <b>String</b> r
r.charAt(3)	the <b>char</b> value in position 3 in the <b>String r</b> (that is, the fourth character)
r.toUpperCase().charAt(3)	the <b>char</b> value in position 3 in the uppercase version of the <b>String</b> r

### Class Method Calls

- Class methods define things the class itself knows how to do—not objects of the class
- The class just serves as a labeled namespace
- Like ordinary function calls in non-objectoriented languages

Java Expression	Value
String.valueOf(1==2)	"false"
String.valueOf(5*5)	"25"
String.valueOf(1.0/3.0)	"0.33333333333333"

# Method Call Syntax

#### ■ Three forms:

– Normal instance method call:

Normal class method call

 Either kind, from within another method of the same class

```
<method-call> ::= <method-name> (<parameter-list>)
```

# Object Creation Expressions

■ To create a new object that is an instance of a given class

■ Parameters are passed to a *constructor*— like a special instance method of the class

Java Expression	Value
new String()	a new <b>String</b> of length zero
new String(s)	a new <b>String</b> that contains a copy of <b>String</b> s
new String(chars)	a new <b>String</b> that contains the <b>char</b> values from the array

### No Object Destruction

- Objects are created with new
- Objects are never explicitly destroyed or deallocated
- Garbage collection (chapter 14)

# General Operator Info

- All left-associative, except for assignments
- 15 precedence levels
  - Some obvious: \* higher than +
  - Others less so: < higher than !=</p>
  - Use parentheses to make code readable
- Many coercions
  - null to any reference type
  - Any value to **String** for concatenation
  - One reference type to another sometimes (Chapter 15)

### Numeric Coercions

- Numeric coercions (for our types):
  - **char** to **int** before any operator is applied (except string concatenation)
  - int to double for binary ops mixing them

Java expression	value
'a'+'b'	195
1/3	0
1/3.0	0.33333333333333
1/2+0.0	0.0
1/(2+0.0)	0.5

# Boxing and Unboxing Coercions

- Preview: Java supports coercions between
  - most of the primitive types (including int,
     char, double, and boolean), and
  - corresponding predefined reference types
     (Integer, Character, Double, and Boolean)
- More about these coercions in Chapter 15

### Statements

- That's it for expressions
- Next, statements:
  - Expression statements
  - Compound statements
  - Declaration statements
  - The **if** statement
  - The **while** statement
  - The **return** statement
- Statements are executed for side effects: an important part of *imperative* languages

### **Expression Statements**

```
<expression-statement> ::= <expression> ;
```

- Any expression followed by a semicolon
- Value of the expression, if any, is discarded
- Java does not allow the expression to be something without side effects, like **x==y**

Java Statement	Equivalent Command in English
speed = 0;	Store a 0 in <b>speed</b> .
a++;	Increase the value of <b>a</b> by 1.
<pre>inTheRed = cost &gt; balance;</pre>	If cost is greater than balance, set inTheRed to true, otherwise to false.

# Compound Statements

```
<compound-statement> ::= { <statement-list> }
< statement-list> ::= <statement> <statement-list> | <empty>
```

- Do statements in order
- Also serves as a block for scoping

Java Statement	Equivalent Command in English
<pre>{     a = 0;     b = 1; }</pre>	Store a zero in <b>a</b> , then store a 1 in <b>b</b> .
<pre>{     a++;     b++;     c++; }</pre>	Increment <b>a</b> , then increment <b>b</b> , then increment <b>c</b> .
{ }	Do nothing.

### **Declaration Statements**

#### ■ Block-scoped definition of a variable

boolean done = false;	Define a new variable named <b>done</b> of type <b>boolean</b> , and initialize it to <b>false</b> .
Point p;	Define a new variable named <b>p</b> of type <b>Point</b> . (Do not initialize it.)
<pre>int temp = a; a = b; b = temp; }</pre>	Swap the values of the integer variables <b>a</b> and <b>b</b> .

### The if Statement

#### Dangling else resolved in the usual way

Java Statement	Equivalent Command in English
if (i > 0) i;	Decrement i, but only if it is greater than zero.
if (a < b) b -= a; else a -= b;	Subtract the smaller of <b>a</b> or <b>b</b> from the larger.
<pre>if (reset) {    a = b = 0;    reset = false; }</pre>	If reset is true, zero out a and b and then set reset to false.

### The while Statement

```
<while-statement> ::= while (<expression>) <statement>
```

- Evaluate expression; if false do nothing
- Otherwise execute statement, then repeat
- Iteration is another hallmark of imperative languages
- (Note that this iteration would not make sense without side effects, since the value of the expression must change)
- Java also has do and for loops

Java Statement	Equivalent Command in English
while (a<100) a+=5;	As long as <b>a</b> is less than 100, keep adding 5 to <b>a</b> .
<pre>while (a!=b)   if (a &lt; b) b -= a;   else a -= b;</pre>	Subtract the smaller of <b>a</b> or <b>b</b> from the larger, over and over until they are equal. (This is Euclid's algorithm for finding the GCD of two positive integers.)
<pre>while (time&gt;0) {    simulate();    time; }</pre>	As long as <b>time</b> is greater than zero, call the <b>simulate</b> method of the current class and then decrement <b>time</b> .
while (true) work();	Call the <b>work</b> method of the current class over and over, forever.

#### The return Statement

- Methods that return a value must execute a return statement of the first form
- Methods that do not return a value (methods with return type **void**) may execute a return statement of the second form

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### Class Definitions

- We have enough expressions and statements
- Now we will use them to make a definition of a class
- Example: ConsCell, a class for building linked lists of integers like ML's int list type

```
/**
 * A ConsCell is an element in a linked list of
 * ints.
 */
public class ConsCell {
  private int head; // the first item in the list
  private ConsCell tail; // rest of the list, or null
  /**
   * Construct a new ConsCell given its head and tail.
   * @param h the int contents of this cell
   * @param t the next ConsCell in the list, or null
   */
  public ConsCell(int h, ConsCell t) {
    head = h;
    tail = t;
                     Note comment forms, public and private,
                     field definitions.
                     Note constructor definition: access specifier, class
                     name, parameter list, compound statement
```

```
/**
 * Accessor for the head of this ConsCell.
 * @return the int contents of this cell
 */
public int getHead() {
  return head;
/**
 * Accessor for the tail of this ConsCell.
 * @return the next ConsCell in the list, or null
 */
public ConsCell getTail() {
  return tail;
}
                Note method definitions: access specifier, return
                type, method name, parameter list, compound
```

statement

```
/**
  * Mutator for the tail of this ConsCell.
  * @param t the new tail for this cell
  */
public void setTail(ConsCell t) {
  tail = t;
}
```

Note: this *mutator* gives a way to ask a **ConsCell** to change its own tail link. (Not like anything we did with lists in ML!) This method is useful for some of the exercises at the end of the chapter.

# Using ConsCell

- Like consing up a list in ML
- But a Java list should be object-oriented: where ML applies :: to a list, our Java list should be able to cons onto itself
- And where ML applies **length** to a list, Java lists should compute their own length
- So we can't use **null** for the empty list

```
/**
 * An IntList is a list of ints.
 */
public class IntList {
  private ConsCell start; // list head, or null
  /**
   * Construct a new IntList given its first ConsCell.
   * @param s the first ConsCell in the list, or null
   */
   public IntList(ConsCell s) {
    start = s;
               An IntList contains a reference to a list of
               ConsCell objects, which will be null if the list
               is empty
```

```
/**
 * Cons the given element h onto us and return the
 * resulting IntList.
 * @param h the head int for the new list
 * @return the IntList with head h, and us as tail
 */
public IntList cons (int h) {
   return new IntList(new ConsCell(h, start));
}
```

An **IntList** knows how to cons things onto itself. It does not change, but it returns a new **IntList** with the new element at the front.

```
/**
 * Get our length.
 * @return our int length
 */
public int length() {
  int len = 0;
  ConsCell cell = start;
  while (cell != null) { // while not at end of list
    len++;
    cell = cell.getTail();
  return len;
```

An **IntList** knows how to compute its length

# Using IntList

```
ML:
val a = nil;
val b = 2::a;
val c = 1::b;
val x = (length a) + (length b) + (length c);
Java:
IntList a = new IntList(null);
IntList b = a.cons(2);
IntList c = b.cons(1);
int x = a.length() + b.length() + c.length();
```

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### What Is A Reference?

■ A reference is a value that uniquely identifies a particular object

```
public IntList(ConsCell s) {
   start = s;
}
```

- What gets passed to the IntList constructor is not an object—it is a reference to an object
- What gets stored in **start** is not a copy of an object—it is a reference to an object, and no copy of the object is made

### **Pointers**

- If you have been using a language like C or C++, there is an easy way to think about references: a reference is a pointer
- That is, a reference is the address of the object in memory
- Java language systems can implement references this way

### But I Thought...

- It is sometimes said that Java is like C++ without pointers
- True from a certain point of view
- C and C++ expose the address nature of pointers (e.g. in pointer arithmetic)
- Java programs can't tell how references are implemented: they are just values that uniquely identify a particular object

# C++ Comparison

- A C++ variable can hold an object or a pointer to an object. There are two selectors:
  - a->x selects method or field x when a is a pointer to an object
  - a.x selects x when a is an object
- A Java variable cannot hold an object, only a reference to an object. Only one selector:
  - a.x selects x when a is a reference to an object

# Comparison

C++	Equivalent Java
<pre>IntList* p; p = new IntList(0); p-&gt;length(); p = q;</pre>	<pre>IntList p; p = new IntList(null); p.length(); p = q;</pre>
<pre>IntList p(0); p.length(); p = q;</pre>	No equivalent.

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### Text Output

- A predefined object: System.out
- Two methods: print (x) to print x, and println(x) to print x and start a new line
- Overloaded for all parameter types

```
System.out.println("Hello there");
System.out.print(1.2);
```

# Printing An IntList

```
* Print ourself to System.out.
 */
public void print() {
  System.out.print("[");
  ConsCell a = start;
  while (a != null) {
    System.out.print(a.getHead());
    a = a.getTail();
    if (a != null) System.out.print(",");
  System.out.println("]");
}
         Added to the IntList class definition, this
         method gives an IntList the ability to print
         itself out
```

#### The main Method

A class can have a main method like this:
public static void main(String[] args) {
...
}

- This will be used as the starting point when the class is run as an application
- Keyword **static** makes this a class method; use sparingly!

### A Driver Class

```
public class Driver {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      IntList a = new IntList(null);
      IntList b = a.cons(2);
      IntList c = b.cons(1);
      int x = a.length() + b.length() + c.length();
      a.print();
      b.print();
      c.print();
      System.out.println(x);
   }
}
```

### Compiling The Program

- Three classes to compile, in three files:
  - ConsCell.java, IntList.java, and Driver.java
- (File name = class name plus . java—watch capitalization!)
- Compile with the command javac
  - They can be done one at a time
  - Or, javac Driver. java gets them all

### Running The Program

- Compiler produces .class files
- Use the Java launcher (java command) to run the main method in a .class file

```
C:\demo>java Driver
[]
[2]
[1,2]
3
```