

Java

This handout introduces the basics of Java, OOP style, classes, objects, messages, methods, constructors, and “this”, arrays, static, and collections. See also, the many Java links off the course page.

Java – All The Modern Buzzwords

Java brings together a bunch of excellent computer language ideas, and as a result it is fantastically popular. From the original Sun Java whitepaper: “Java is a simple, object-oriented, distributed, interpreted, robust, secure, architecture-neutral, portable, high performance, multi-threaded, and dynamic language.” By law, any introductory Java lecture must mention the original buzzwords.

Simple

Simpler than C++ – no operator overloading

Mimics C/C++ syntax, operators, etc. where possible

To the programmer, Java's garbage collector (GC) memory model is much simpler than C/C++. On the other hand, the libraries that accompany Java are not simple – they are enormous. But you can ignore them when you don't want to use them.

Object-Oriented

Java is fundamentally based on the OOP notions of classes and objects

Java uses a formal OOP type system that must be obeyed at compile-time and run-time. This is helpful for larger projects, where the structure helps keep the various parts consistent. Contrast to Perl, which has more of a quick-n-dirty feel.

Distributed / Network Oriented

Java is network friendly – both in its portable, threaded nature, and because common networking operations are built-in to the Java libraries. This will make our homeworks much simpler (than if we had decided to use C++).

Robust / Secure / Safe

Java is very robust – both vs. unintentional memory errors and vs. malicious code such as viruses. Java makes a tradeoff of robustness vs. performance.

1. The JVM uses a verifier on each class at runtime to verify that it has the correct structure
2. The JVM checks certain runtime operations, such as pointer and array access, to make sure they are touching only the memory they should. Memory is managed automatically by the garbage collector (GC). This prevents the common “buffer overflow” security problems suffered by C++ code. This also makes it easy to find many common bugs, since they are caught by the runtime checker.
3. The Security Manager can check which operations a particular piece of code is allowed to do at runtime

Architecture Neutral / Portable

Java is designed to “Write Once Run Anywhere”, and for the most part this works. Not even a recompile is required – a Java executable can work, without change, on any Java enabled platform.

High-performance

Java performance has gotten a lot better with aggressive just-in-time-compiler (JIT) techniques (the HotSpot project). Java performance is often similar to the speed of C, and is faster than C in some cases. However memory use and startup time are both significantly worse than C.

Multi-Threaded

Java has a notion of concurrency (running multiple programs or threads of execution at the same time) wired right in to the language itself. This works out more cleanly than languages where concurrency is bolted on after the fact.

Dynamic

Class and type information is kept around at runtime. This enables runtime loading and inspection of code in a very flexible way.

Java Compiler & Runtime

Java Compiler Structure

The source code for each class is in a **.java** file. Compile each class to produce a **.class** file. Sometimes, multiple **.class** files are packaged together in a **.zip** or **.jar** file. On unix, the java compiler is called “javac”. To compile all the **.java** files in a directory use “javac *.java”.

Bytecode

A compiled class stored in a **.class** files or **.jar** file

Represent a computation in a portable way – as PDF is to text and images

Java Virtual Machine (JVM)

Loads and runs the bytecode for a program + the library classes

The JVM runs the code with the various robustness/safety checks in place -robustness vs. performance tradeoff

On Unix, the JVM is called “java”. Suppose there is a class MyClass with a main() in it. Run that main with “java MyClass”.

JITs and Hotspot

Just In Time compiler – the JVM may compile the bytecode to native code at runtime (with the robustness checks still in). (This is one reason why Java programs have slow startup times.) The “hotspot” project tries to do a sophisticated job of which parts of the program to compile. In some cases, hotspot can do a better job of optimization than a C++ compiler, since hotspot is playing with the code at runtime and so has more information. Java performance is now similar to C performance – faster in some cases, slower in others. Memory use and startup time are worse than C.

Java Lang + Its Libraries

The core Java language is not that big

However, it is packaged with an enormous number of standard "library" or "off the shelf" classes that solve common problems for you

e.g. String, ArrayList, HashMap, StringTokenizer, HTTPConnection, Date, ...

Java programmers are more productive in part because they have access to a large set of standard, well documented library classes.

Java: Programmer Efficient

Faster Development

IMHO, building an application in Java takes about 30% less time than in C or C++

Faster time to market

Java is said to be "programmer efficient"

OOP

Java is thoroughly OOP

Robust memory system

Memory errors largely disappear because of the safe pointers and garbage collector. I suspect the lack of memory errors accounts for much of the increased programmer productivity.

Libraries

Code re-use at last – String, ArrayList, Date, ... available and documented in a standard way

Microsoft vs. Java

Microsoft hates Java, since a Java program is not tied to any particular operating system. If Java is popular, then programs written in Java might promote non-Microsoft operating systems. For basically the same reason, all the non-Microsoft vendors think Java is a great idea. Microsoft's C# is very similar to Java, but with some improvements, and some questionable features added in, and it is not portable in the way Java is. I think C# will be successful in the way that Visual Basic is: a nice tool to build Microsoft-only software. Microsoft has used its power to try to derail Java somewhat, but Java remains very popular on its merits.

Java Is For Real

Java has a lot of hype, but much of it is deserved. Java is very well matched for many modern problems

Using more memory and CPU time but less programmer time is an increasingly appealing tradeoff.

Robustness and portability can be very useful features

I suspect we will be using some version of the Java language for the next 10 or 20 years.

Procedural vs. OOP

Nouns and Verbs

Nouns – data

Verbs – operations

Procedural Structure

C/Pascal/etc. ...

Verb oriented

decomposition around the verbs – dividing the big operation into a series of smaller and smaller operations.

Nouns/Verb structure is not formal

The programmer can group the verbs and nouns together (ADTs), but it's just a convention and the compiler does not especially help out.

OOP Structure

Objects

Storage

Objects store state at runtime in the form of instance variables (aka ivars)

Behavior

Objects will also in some sense take an active role. Each object has a set of operations (aka methods) that it can perform, usually on itself.

Class

Every object belongs to a class that defines its storage and behavior. An object always remembers its class (in Java).

"Instance" is another word for object – an "instance" of a class.

Anthropomorphic – self-contained

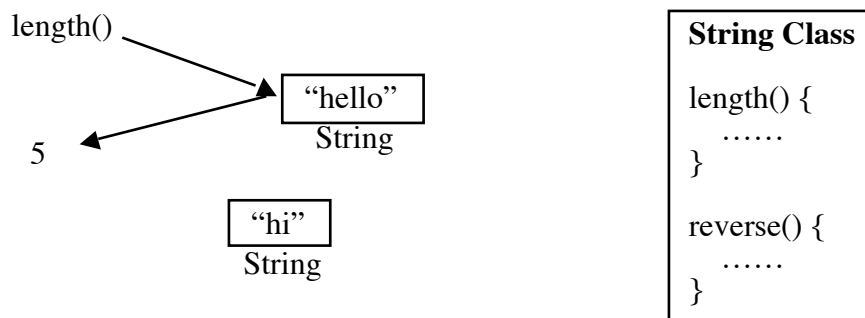
Procedural variables are passive – they just sit there. A procedure is called and it changes the variable.

Objects are anthropomorphic-- the object has both storage and behavior to operate on that state.

String example

Could have a couple String objects, each of which stores a sequence of characters. The objects belong to the String class. The String class defines the storage and operations for the String objects...

Sending the length() message to a String object...



Class

Exists once – there is one copy of the class in memory.

Defines the storage and behavior of its objects

Storage

Define the storage that objects of this class will have. "instance variables" – the variables that each object will use for its own storage. Instance variables are sometimes just called "ivars".

Behavior

Define the behaviors that objects of this class can execute (usually called “methods”).

String example

The String class defines the storage structure used by all String objects – probably an array of chars of some sort

The String class also defines the operations that String objects can perform on themselves: length(), reverse(), ...

Message / Receiver

Suppose we have Student objects, each of which has a current number of units. The message getUnits() requests the units from a student.

Java syntax:

```
a.getUnits()
send the "getUnits()" message to the receiver "a"
```

Receiver

The "receiver" is the object receiving the message. Typically, the operation uses the receiver's memory.

Method (code)

A “method” is executable code defined in a class.

The objects of a class use the methods defined in their class.

The String class defines the code for length() and reverse() methods. The methods are run by sending the "length()" or "reverse()" message to a String object.

Message → Method resolution

Suppose a message is sent to an object – x.reverse();

1. The receiver, x, is of some class – suppose x is of the String class
2. Look in that class of the receiver for a matching reverse() method (code)
3. Execute that code “against” the receiver – using its memory (instance variables)

In Java this is “dynamic” – the message/method resolution uses the true, runtime class of the receiver.

OOP Design – Anthropomorphic, Modular

1. Objects responsible for their own state – as much as possible, object's do not reach in to read or write the state of other objects.
2. Objects can send messages to each other – requests
3. The object/message paradigm makes the program more modular internally. Each class deals with its own implementation details, but can be largely independent of the details of the other classes. They just exchange messages.

OOP Design Rule #1 – Encapsulation

Objects “protect” their own state from direct access by other objects – "encapsulation". Other objects can send requests, but only the receiver actually changes its own state. This allows more reliable software – once a class is correct and debugged, putting it in a new context should not create new bugs.

Abstraction vs. Implementation

This is the old Abstract Data Type (ADT) style of separating the abstraction from the implementation, but structured as messages (abstraction) vs. methods (implementation)

OOP Design Process

Think about the objects that make up an application

Think about the behaviors or capabilities (code) those objects should have

Endow the objects with those abilities as methods – the code is in the class that contains the data it uses.

If a capability does not occur to you in the initial design, that's OK. Add it to the appropriate class when needed – it's most important that the code is defined in the appropriate class.

Co-operation

Objects send each other messages to co-operate

Tidy style

Experience shows that having each object operate on its own state is a pretty intuitive and modular way to organize things.

Student Java Example

As a first example of a java class, we'll look at a simple "Student" class. Each Student object stores an integer number of units and responds to messages like `getUnits()` and `getStress()`. The stress of a student is defined to be `units * 10`.

Implementation vs. Interface

In OOP, every class has two sides...

1. The implementation of the class – the data structures and code that implement its features.
2. The public interface that the class exposes for use by other classes. With a good OOP design, the interface is smaller and simpler than the implementation. The public interface is as simple and logical as possible – exposing only aspects that the clients care about. We'll use the word "client" to refer to code that uses the public interface of a class and "implementation" when talking about the guts of a class. This is not to be confused with "client" of "client/server", although an analogy can be made.

Student Client Side

First we'll look at some client code of the Student class.

Client code will typically allocate objects and send them messages.

With good OOP design, being a client should be easy.

Client code plan

- Allocate objects with "new" – calls constructor

- Objects are always accessed through pointers – shallow, pointer semantics

- Send messages – methods execute against the receiver

- Can access public, but not private/protected from client side

Object Pointers

The declaration "Student x;" declares a pointer "x" to a Student object, but does not allocate the object yet.

Java has a very simple and uniform memory system. Objects and arrays are allocated in the heap and accessed through pointers.

There is no "&" operator to make a pointer to something in the stack and there is no pointer arithmetic. The only pointers that exist in Java point to objects and arrays in the heap – simple.

- Objects and arrays are allocated with the "new" operator (below).

- Using = on an object pointer just copies the pointer, so there are multiple pointers to the one object (aka "shallow" or "sharing").

- Likewise, using == does a shallow comparison of the two pointers – true if the two pointers point to the same object. For some classes, the `equals()` method will do a "deep" comparison of two objects.

new Student() / Constructor

The "new" operator allocates a new object in the heap, runs a constructor to initialize it, and returns a pointer to it.

```
x = new Student(12);
```

Classes define "constructors" that initialize objects at the time new is called.

Constructors are similar to methods, but they cannot be called at will. Instead, they are run automatically by the JVM when a new object is created.

The word "constructor" can be written as "ctor"

The constructor has the same name as the class. e.g. the constructor for the "Student" class is named "Student".

There can be multiple constructors. They are distinguished at compile time by having different arguments – this is called "overloading".

e.g. The Student class defines one ctor that takes an int argument, and one ctor that takes no arguments.

The ctor that take no arguments is called the "default" ctor. If it is defined, the system uses it by default when no other ctor is specified.

Message send

Send a message to an object.

```
a.getUnits();
b.getStress();
```

Finds the matching method in the class of the receiver, executes that method against the receiver and returns.

The Java compiler checks the names and types of all message sends at compile time, and only allows message sends that the receiver responds to.

Object Lifecycle

The client allocates objects and they are initialized by the class ctor code

The client then sends messages which run class method code on the objects.

The client essentially makes requests – all the code that actually operates on the objects is defined by the class, not the client.

As a result, if the class is written correctly, the client should not be able to introduce new bugs in the class and visa-versa.

This is the benefit of using public/private to keep the client and the implementation separate.

Student Client Side Code

```
// Make two students
Student a = new Student(12); // new 12 unit student
Student b = new Student(); // new 15 unit student (default ctor)

// They respond to getUnits() and getStress()
System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits() + " stress:" +
a.getStress());
System.out.println("b units:" + b.getUnits() + " stress:" +
b.getStress());

a.dropClass(3); // a drops a class

System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits() + " stress:" +
a.getStress());
```

```

// Now "b" points to the same object as "a" (pointer copy)
b = a;
b.setUnits(10);

// So the "a" units have been changed
System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits() + " stress:" +
a.getStress());

// NOTE: public vs. private
// A statement like "b.units = 10;" will not compile in a client
// of the Student class when units is declared protected or
// private

/* OUTPUT...
a units:12 stress:120
b units:15 stress:150
a units:9 stress:90
a units:10 stress:100
*/

```

Student Implementation Side

Now we'll look at the implementation of the Student class. The complete code listing for Student is given at the end of this section...

Class Definition

A class defines the instance variables and methods used by its objects.

Each variable and method may be declared as "public" if it may be used by clients, or "private" or "protected" if it is part of the implementation and not for use by clients.

The compiler and JVM enforce the public/private scheme.

Public Interface

The most common public/private scheme is...

All ivars are declared private

Methods to be used by clients are declared public – these make up the interface that the class exposes to clients.

Utility methods for the internal use of the class are declared private.

Java Class

The convention is that Java classes have upper case names like "Student" and the code is in a file named "Student.java".

By default, Java classes have the special class "Object" as a superclass. We'll look at what that means later when we study superclasses.

Inside the Student.java file, the class definition looks like...

```

public class Student extends Object {
    ... <definition of the Student ivars and methods> ....
}

```

The “extends Object” part can be omitted, since Java classes extend Object by default if no “extends” clause is specified.

There are not separate .h and .c files to keep in synch – the class is defined in one place.

This is a nice example of the "never have two copies of anything" rule. Keeping duplicate info in the .h and .c files in synch was a bore – better to just have one copy.

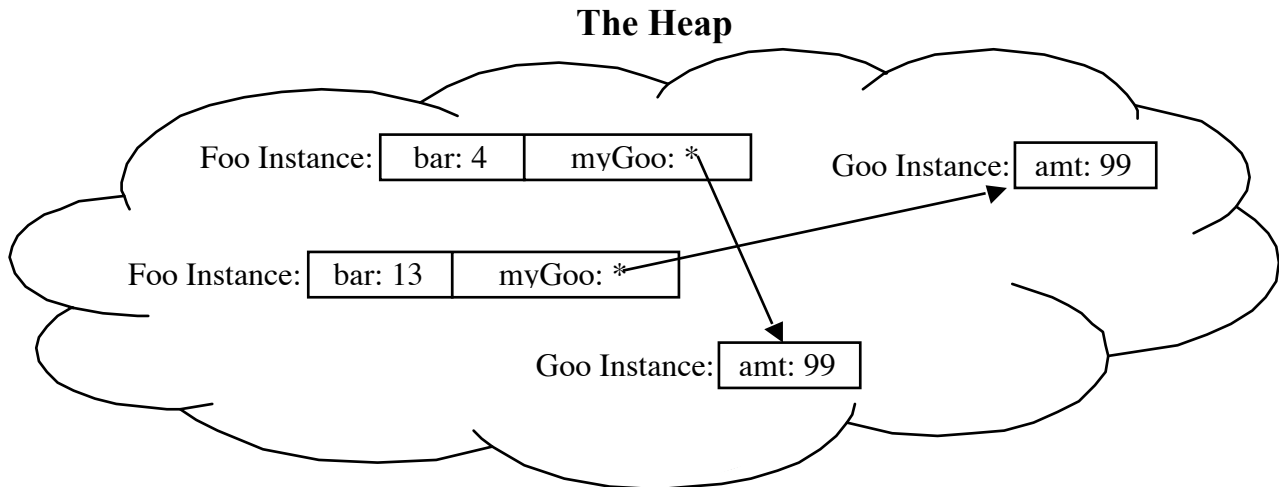
Instance Variables (ivars)

Instance variables are declared like ordinary variables – a type followed by a name.

protected int units;

An ivar defines a variable that each object of this class will have – allocates a slot inside each object. In this case, every Student object has an int ivar called “units” in it.

The object itself is allocated in the heap, and its ivars are stored inside it. The ivars may be primitive types, such as int, or they may be pointers to other objects or arrays.



public/private/protected

An ivar or other element declared private is not accessible to client code. The element is only accessible to the implementation inside the class.

Suppose on the client side we have a pointer "s" to a Student object. The statement "s.units = 13;" in client code will not compile if "units" is private or protected.

"protected" is similar to private, but allows access by subclasses or other classes in the same package (we will not worry about those cases)

"public" makes something accessible everywhere

There is also a "default" protection level that you get when no public, private, or protected is specified. In that case, the element is accessible to all other classes in the same package as the compiled class. This is an odd case, and I recommend against using it.

Constructor (ctor)

A constructor has the same name as the class. It runs when new objects of the class are created to set up their ivars.

```
public Student(int initUnits) {
    units = initUnits;
}
```

A constructor does not have a return type (unlike a method).

New objects are set to all 0's first, then the ctor (if any) is run to further initialize the object.

Classes can have multiple ctors, distinguished by different arguments (overloading)

If a class has constructors, the compiler will insist that one of them is invoked when new is called.

If a class has no ctors, new objects will just have the default "all 0's" state. As a matter of style, a class that is at all complex should have a ctor.

Bug control

Ctors make it easier for the client to do the right thing since objects are automatically put into an initialized state when they are created.

Every ivar goes in Ctor

Every time you add an instance variable to a class, go add the line to the ctor that inits that variable.

Or you can give an initial value to the ivar right where it is declared, like this... "private int units = 0;" – there is not agreement about which ivar init style is better.

Default Ctor

A constructor with no arguments is known as the “default ctor”.

```
public Student() {
    units = 15;
}
```

If a class has a default ctor, and a client creates an instance of that class, but without specifying a ctor, the default ctor is automatically invoked.

e.g. new Student() – invokes the default ctor, if there is one.

Method

A method corresponds to a message that the object responds to

```
public int getStress() {
    return(units * 10);
}
```

When a message is sent to an object, the corresponding method runs against that that object (the receiver). Methods may have a return type, int in the above example, or may return void.

Message-Method Lookup sequence

Message sent to a receiver

Receiver knows its class and looks for a matching method

The matching method executes against the receiver

Receiver Relative Coding Style (Method, Ctor)

Method code runs "on" or "against" the receiving object

Ivar read/write operations in the method code use the ivars of the receiver

Method code is written in a “receiver relative” style where the state of the receiver is implicitly present. This makes data access very convenient in method code compared to writing in C.

e.g. the “units” ivar in the Student methods is automatically that of the receiver

Likewise, sending a message to the same receiver from inside a method requires no extra syntax.

e.g.. inside the Student dropClass() method, the code sends the setUnits() message to change the number of units with the simple syntax: setUnits(units - drop);

“this” – receiver

“this” in a method

“this” is a pointer to the receiver

Don’t need to write “this.units”, write: “units”

Don’t need to write “this.setUnits(5)”, write “setUnits(5);”

Some programmers like sprinkling “this” around to remind themselves of the OOP structure involved, but it can get distracting. The nice thing about OOP is the effortlessness of the receiver-relative style.

A common use of “this” is when one object is trying to register itself with another object.

e.g. myFriend.callMeBackLater(this);

ivar vs. local var

Usually, you simply refer to each ivar by its name – e.g. "units". Sometimes you have a local var with the same name as the ivar, in which case the expression "this.units" refers to the ivar (see the Student.setUnits() method). Having a local var with the same name as an ivar is a stylistically questionable, but it can be handy sometimes. Some people prefer to give ivars a distinctive name, such as always starting with an “m” or “my” – e.g. mUnits or myUnits.

Student.java Code Example

```
// Student.java
/* Demonstrates the most basic features of a class.
   A student is defined by their current number of units.
   There are standard get/set accessors for units.

   The student responds to getStress() to report
   their current stress level which is a function
   of their units.

   NOTE A well documented class should include an introductory
   comment like this. Don't get into all the details -- just
   introduce the landscape.
*/
```

```

public class Student extends Object {
    // NOTE this is an "instance variable" named "units"
    // Every Student object will have its own units variable.
    // "protected" and "private" mean that clients do not
    // get access
    protected int units;

    /* NOTE
     * "public static final" declares a public readable
     * constant that is associated with the class --
     * it's full name is Student.MAX_UNITS.
     * It's a convention to put constants like
     * that in upper case.
     */
    public static final int MAX_UNITS = 20;
    public static final int DEFAULT_UNITS = 15;

    // Constructor for a new student
    public Student(int initUnits) {
        units = initUnits;
        // NOTE this is example of "Receiver Relative" coding -
        // "units" refers to the ivar of the receiver.
        // OOP code is written relative to an implicitly present
        // receiver.
    }

    // Constructor that that uses a default value of 15 units
    // instead of taking an argument.
    public Student() {
        units = DEFAULT_UNITS;
    }

    // Standard accessors for units
    public int getUnits() {
        return(units);
    }

    public void setUnits(int units) {
        if ((units < 0) || (units > MAX_UNITS)) {
            return;
            // Could use a number of strategies here: throw an
            // exception, print to stderr, return false
        }
        this.units = units;
        // NOTE: "this" trick to allow param and ivar to
        // use same name
    }

    /* Stress is units *10.
     * NOTE another example of "Receiver Relative" coding
     */
    public int getStress() {
        return(units*10);
    }
}

```

```

/* Tries to drop the given number of units. Does not drop if
would go below 9 units. Returns true if the drop succeeds. */
public boolean dropClass(int drop) {
    if (units-drop >= 9) {
        setUnits(units - drop); // NOTE send self a message
        return(true);
    }
    return(false);
}

/* Here's a static test function with some simple
client-of-Student code. NOTE Invoking "java Student"
from the command line runs this. It's handy to put
test/demo/sample client code in the main() of a class. */

public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Make two students
    Student a = new Student(12); // new 12 unit student
    Student b = new Student(); // new 15 unit student

    // They respond to getUnits() and getStress()
    System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits() +
        " stress:" + a.getStress());
    System.out.println("b units:" + b.getUnits() +
        " stress:" + b.getStress());

    a.dropClass(3); // a drops a class

    System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits() +
        " stress:" + a.getStress());

    // Now "b" points to the same object as "a"
    b = a;
    b.setUnits(10);

    // So the "a" units have been changed
    System.out.println("a units:" + a.getUnits()
        + " stress:" + a.getStress());

    // NOTE: public vs. private
    // A statement like "b.units = 10;" will not
    // compile in a client of the Student class when
    // units is declared protected or private

    /*
    OUTPUT...
        a units:12 stress:120
        b units:15 stress:150
        a units:9 stress:90
        a units:10 stress:100
    */
}
}

```

Java Features

Inheritance – ignore for now

OOP languages have an important feature called “inheritance” where a class can be declared as a “subclass” of another class, known as the superclass.

In that case, the subclass inherits the features of the superclass. This is a tidy way to give the subclass features from its superclass – a form of code sharing.

This is an important feature in some cases, but we can do without it for now. By default in Java, classes have the superclass “Object” – this means that all classes inherit the methods defined in the Object class.

Java Primitives

Java has “primitive” types, much like C. Unlike C, the sizes of the primitives are fixed and do not vary from one platform to another, and there are no unsigned variants.

- boolean -- true or false
- byte -- 1 byte
- char -- 2 bytes (unicode)
- int -- 4 bytes
- long -- 8 bytes
- float -- 4 bytes
- double -- 8 bytes

Primitives can be used for local variables, parameters, and ivars.

Local variables are allocated on the runtime stack when the code runs, just as in C. At runtime, primitives are simple and work fast.

Primitives may be allocated inside objects or arrays, however, it is not possible to get a pointer to a primitive itself (there is no & operator). Pointers only work for objects and arrays in the heap – this makes pointers much simpler in Java than in C or C++.

Java is divided into two worlds: primitives work in simple ways and there are no pointers, while objects and arrays only work through pointers. The two worlds are separate, and the boundary between the two can be a little awkward.

There are “wrapper” classes Integer, Boolean, Float, Double.... that can hold a single primitive value. These classes are "immutable", they cannot be changed once constructed. They can finesse, to some extent, the situation where you have a primitive value, but need a pointer to it. Use intValue() to get the int value out of an Integer object.

Use the static method Integer.parseInt(String) → int to parse a String to an int

Use the static method Integer.toString(int) → String to make a String out of an int

Arrays

Java has a nice array functionality built in to the language.

An array is declared according to the type of element – an `int[]` array holds ints, and a `Student[]` array holds Student objects.

Arrays are always allocated in the heap with the “new” operator and accessed through pointers (like objects)

An array may be allocated to be any size, although it may not change size after it is allocated (i.e. there is no equivalent to the C `realloc()` call).

Array Declaration

`int[] a;` -- a can point to an array of ints (the array itself is not yet allocated)

`int a[];` -- alternate syntax for C refugees – do not use!

`Student[] b;` -- b can point to an array of Student objects. The array will hold pointers to Student objects.

`a = new int[100];`

Allocate the array in the heap with the given size

Like allocating a new object

The array elements are all zeroed out when allocated.

The requested array length does not need to be a constant – it could be an expression like `new int[2*i + 100];`

Array element access

Elements are accessed `0..len-1`, just like C and C++

Java detects array-out-of-bounds access at runtime

`a[0] = 1;` -- first element

`a[99] = 2;` -- last element

`a[-1] = 3;` -- runtime array bounds exception

`a.length` – returns the length of the array (read-only)

Arrays know their length -- cool!

NOT `a.length()`

Arrays have compile-time types

`a[0] = "a string";` // NO -- int and String don't match

At compile time, arrays know their element type and detect type mismatches such as above. The other Java collections, such as `ArrayList`, do not have this compile time type system error catching, although it is rumored that compile time types are being added for Java 1.5 (out soon).

`Student[] b = new Student[100];`

Allocates an array of 100 Student pointers (initially all null)

Does not allocate any Student objects -- that's a separate pass

Int Array Code

Here is some typical looking int array code – allocate an array and fill it with square numbers: 1, 4, 9, ... (also, notice that the “int i” can be declared right in the for loop – cute.)

```
int[] squares;
squares = new int[100]; // allocate the array in the heap
for (int i=0; i<squares.length; i++) { // iterate over the array
    squares[i] = (i+1) * (i+1);
}
```

Student Array Code

Here's some typical looking code that allocates an array of 100 Student objects

```
Student[] students;
students = new Student[100]; // 1. allocate the array

// 2. allocate 100 students, and store their pointers in the array
for (int i=0; i<students.length; i++) {
    students[i] = new Student();
}
```

Array Literal

There's a syntax to specify an array and its contents as part of an array variable declaration. This is called an "array constant" or an "array literal".

```
String[] words = { "hello", "foo", "bar" };
int[] squares = { 1, 4, 9, 16 };

// in this case, we call new to create objects in the array
Student[] students = { new Student(12), new Student(15) };
```

Anonymous array

Alternately, you can create outside of a variable declaration like this...

```
... new String[] { "foo", "bar", "baz" } ...
```

Array Utilities

Java has a few utility functions to help with arrays...

There is a method in the System class, System.arraycopy(), that will copy a section of elements from one array to another. This is likely faster than writing the equivalent for-loop yourself.

```
System.arraycopy(source array, source index, dest array, dest index, length);
```

Arrays Class

The Arrays class contains many convenience methods that work on arrays -filling, searching, sorting, etc.

Multidimensional Arrays

An array with more dimensions is allocated like this...

```
int[][] big = new int[100][100]; // allocate a 100x100 array
big[0][1] = 10;                // refer to (0,1) element
```

Unlike C, a 2-d java array is not allocated as a single block of memory. Instead, it is implemented as a 1-d array of pointers to 1-d arrays.

String

Java has a great built-in String class. See the String class docs to see the many operations it supports.

Strings (and char) use 2-byte unicode characters – work with Kanji, Russian, etc.

String objects use the “immutable” design style

Never change once created

i.e. there is no append() or reverse() method that changes a string object

To represent a different string state, create a new string with the different state

The immutable style, has an appealing simplicity to it – easy for clients to understand.

The immutable style happens to avoid many complexities when dealing with (a) multiple pointers sharing one object, and (b) multiple threads sharing one object.

On the other hand, the immutable style can cause the program to work through a lot of memory over time which can be expensive.

String constants

Double quotes (") build String objects

“Hello World!\n” – builds a String object with the given chars and returns a pointer to it

The expression new String("hello") is a little silly, can just say "hello". Use single quotes for a char 'a', 'B', '\n'

System.out.print("print out a string"); // or use println() to include the newline

String + String

+ concatenates strings together – creates a new String based on the other two

```
String a = "foo";
```

```
String b = a + "bar"; // b is now "foobar"
```

Backslash

Use backslash (\) to include funny characters in a string...

\n -- newline

\t -- tab

\\" -- double quote

\\ -- a backslash

toString()

Many objects support a toString() method that creates some sort of String version of the object – handy for debugging. print(), println(), and + will use the toString() of any object passed in. The toString() method is defined up in the Object class, so that's why all classes respond to it. (More on this when we talk about inheritance.)

String Methods

Here are some of the representative methods implemented in the String class
Look in the String class docs for the many messages it responds to...

int length() – number of chars

char charAt(int index) – char at given 0-based index

int indexOf(char c) – first occurrence of char, or -1

int indexOf(String s)

boolean equals(Object) – test if two strings have the same characters

boolean equalsIgnoreCase(Object) – as above, but ignoring case

String toLowerCase() – return a new String, lowercase. If you want to do many case-insensitive comparisons, it may be better to make a lower-case version just once, and then use it for the comparisons.

String substring(int begin, int end) – return a new String made of the begin..end-1 substring from the original

String trim() – returns a string where whitespace characters from the front and back have been deleted.

Typical String Code

```
String a = "hello"; // allocate 2 String objects
String b = "there";
String c = a;      // point to same String as a - fine

int len = a.length(); // 5
String d = a + " " + b; // "hello there"

int find = d.indexOf("there"); // find: 6

String sub = d.substring(6, 11); // extract: "there"
sub == b; // false (shallow pointer comparison)
sub.equals(b); // true (a "deep" comparison)
```

StringBuffer

StringBuffer is similar to String, but can change the chars over time. More efficient to change one StringBuffer over time, than to create 20 slightly different String objects over time.

```
StringBuffer buff = new StringBuffer();
for (int i=0; i<100; i++) {
    buff.append(<some String>); // efficient append
}
String result = buff.toString(); // make a String when done
```

System.out

System.out is a static object in the System class that represents standard output. It responds to the messages...

println(String) – print the given string on a line (using the end-line character of the local operating system)

print(String) – as above, but without an end-line

Example

```
System.out.println("hello"); // prints to standard out
```

== vs equals()

== compares primitives or pointers

boolean equals(Object other)

There is a default definition in the Object superclass that just does an == compare of (this == other), so it's just like using == directly.

However, classes such as String, override equals() to provide a “deep” byte-by-byte compare version. See the docs for a particular class to see if it overrides equals(). Most classes do not.

String Example

```
String a = new String("hello"); // can write this as "hello"
String a2 = "hello";
a == a2 // false
a.equals(a2) // true
```

Foo Example

```
Foo a = new Foo("a");
Foo a2 = new Foo("a");
a == a2 // false
a.equals(a2) // ??? – depends on Foo overriding equals()
```

Garbage Collector (GC)

```
String a = new String("a");
String b = new String("b");
a = a + b; // a now points to "ab"
```

Where did the original a go?

It's still sitting in the heap, but it is “unreferenced” or “garbage” since there are no pointers to it. The GC thread comes through at some time and reclaims garbage memory.

GC slows Java code down a little, but eliminates all those &/malloc()/free() bugs. The GC algorithm is very sophisticated, and its efficiency depends very much on the memory use pattern of the program.

Stack vs. Heap

Remember, stack memory (where locals are allocated for a method call), is much faster than heap memory for allocation and deallocation.

Destructor

In C++, the "destructor" is an explicit notification that the object is about to be destroyed.

In Java, the "finalizer" is like a destructor – it runs when an object is about to be GC'd. However, when or even if the finalizer runs is very random because of the odd scheduling of the GC. Because the timing of the finalizer is imprecise, depending on them can make the whole program behavior a little unpredictable. Therefore, I recommend not using finalizers if at all possible.

Declare Vars As You Go Style

In Java, it's possible to declare new local variables on any line. This is a handy way to name and store values as you go through a computation...

```
public int method(Foo foo) {
    int a = foo.getA();
    int b = foo.getB();
    int sum = a + b;
    int diff = Math.abs(a - b);
    if (diff > sum) {
        int prod = a * b;
        for (int i = 0; i < a; i++) {
            ...
        }
    }
}
```

Static

Variables or methods in a class may be declared “static”.

Regular ivars and methods are associated with objects of the class.

Static variables and methods are not associated with an object of the class. Instead, they are associated with the class itself.

Static variable

A static variable is like a global variable, except it exists inside of a class.

There is a single copy of the static variable inside the class. In contrast, regular ivars such as “units” exist many times – once for each object of the class.

Static variables are rare compared to ordinary ivars.

The full name of a static variable includes the name of its class – so a static variable named “count” in the Student class would be referred to as "Student.count".

Output Example

“System.out” is a static variable in the System class that represents standard output.

Monster Example

Suppose you are implementing the game Doom 9. You have a Monster class that represents the monsters that run around in the game. Each monster object needs access to a Sound object that holds the sound "roar.mp3". so the monster can play that sound at the right moment. With a regular ivar, each monster would have their own copy of the variable. Instead, the Monster class contains a static Sound variable, and all the monster objects share that one variable.

Static methods

A static method is like a function that is defined inside a class.

A static method does not execute against a receiver. Instead, it is like a plain C function – it takes arguments, but there is no receiver.

The full name of a static method includes the name of its class, so a static foo() method in the Student class is called Student.foo(). This allows you to distinguish between foo() methods defined in different classes.

The Math class contains the common math functions, such as sin(), cos(), etc.. These are defined as static methods in the Math class. Their full names are Math.sin(), Math.cos(), ...

The System.arraycopy() method is another example of a static method. The static method does not have a receiver that it executes against. Instead, we call it like a regular function, and pass it the arguments to work on.

A “static int getCount()” method in the Student class is invoked as Student.getCount(); In contrast, a regular method would be invoked with a message send to a receiver like s.getStress(); where s points to a Student object.

The method “public static void main(String[] args)” is special. To run a java program, you specify the name of a class. The system then starts the program by running the static main() function in that class, and the String[] array represents the command-line arguments.

Call a static method like this: Student.foo(), NOT s.foo(); where s points to a Student.

s.foo() actually compiles, but it discards s as a receiver and translates to the same thing as Student.foo() using the compile-time type of the receiver variable. The s.foo() syntax is misleading, since it makes it look like a regular message send.

static method/var example

Suppose we modify the Student example so it has a static variable and a static method.

- Add a “static int count;” variable that counts the number of Student objects constructed – increment it in the Student constructor. Both *static* and *regular* methods can see the static count variable. There is one copy of the count variable in the Student class, shared by *all* the Student objects.
- Add a static method getCount() that returns the current value of count.

```

public class Student {
    private int units;

    // Define a static int counter
    private static int count = 0;

    public Student(int init_units) {
        units = init_units;

        // Increment the counter
        count++;
    }

    public static int getCount() {
        // Clients invoke this method as Student.getCount();
        // Does not execute against a receiver, so
        // there is no "units" to refer to here
        return(count);
    }

    // rest of the Student class
    ...
}

```

Typical static method error

Suppose in the static `getCount()` method, we tried to refer to a "units" variable...

```

public static int getCount() {
    units = units + 1; // error
}

```

This gives an error message – it cannot compile the "units" expression because there is no receiver with ivars in it. The “static” and the “units” are contradictory – something is wrong with the design of this method.

Static vars, such as `count`, are available in both static and regular methods. However, ivars like “units” only work in regular methods that have a receiver.

Collections

Built-in classes for common storage problems (like the C++ Standard Template Library (STL))
 We'll look at basic features of the Collection classes now, and see more detail later on

Collection type (sequence/set) – `ArrayList` is the most useful

Map type (hash table/dictionary) – `HashMap` is the most useful

They only store pointers

See the Sun docs: <http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/collections/>

The collection classes use inheritance and interfaces, but we are ignoring that for now. We will just look at the basic uses of a collection classes.

Collection Design

As much as possible, all the various classes implement the same interface so they use the same method names (e.g. `add()`, `iterator()`, ...), so you can substitute one type of collection for another. This also makes it easier to learn, since the method names are all consistent.

Only store pointers to elements

Can store pointers to objects such as Strings, but cannot store a primitive like an int. If you need to store an int, use the wrapper class (Integer, Float, ...).

In the source code, collections store all pointers as type Object (like `void*` in C), so you cast the pointer back to what it really is, such as String, when extracting the pointer from the collection.

At runtime, java checks all casts, so a bad cast will be caught at that time.

Collection Messages

There are a few basic methods, and everything else is built on them. `constructor()` – collection with no elements

Actually, a Java interface cannot specify a ctor or static method, but all the collection classes implement the default ctor at a minimum.

`int size()` – number of elements in the collection

This could have been called `getSize()` or `getLength()`, but they kept the name `size()` to remain compatible with the old Vector class.

`boolean add(Object ptr)`

Add a new pointer/element to the collection. Adds to the “end” for collections that have an ordering. Returns true if the collection is modified (it might not be when adding to a Set type collection).

`iterator()`

Return a new Iterator object set up to iterate through the collection and possibly remove elements.

The iterator responds to...

-`hasNext()` – returns true if more elements,

-`next()` – returns the next element

-`remove()` – removes the element returned by the previous call to `next()`

It is not valid to modify the collection directly while the iterator is iterating

e.g. calling `collection.add()`, `collection.remove()`. It is valid to modify the collection through the iterator – `iterator.remove()`.

Java Miscellaneous

Book

Our optional/recommended book, Core Web Programming, includes lots of basic material on Java, exceptions, socket programming, and HTTP programming in particular.

Also, the online docs for Java APIs are at <http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.4.2/docs/api/index.html>

Also, see Nick Parlante's Java Doc Fast page
<http://www.stanford.edu/class/cs108/JavaDocFast.html>

Streams

InputStream – read from

OutputStream – write to

Reader/Writer variants – use for text, so you can read/write strings and chars and it will take care of unicode conversion

"Layered" design – wrap a stream around another to layer up effects.

```
BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader(new FileReader( ... ));
```

Text Reading

Below is the standard incantation to read a text file.

We construct a FileReader object, that takes either a File object or a String filename.

We wrap that reader in a BufferedReader, which responds to a readLine() message which returns a String, or null if there is no more data.

readLine() recognizes the many different end-line conventions, and strips all the end-line chars before returning the string.

It's polite to close() the reader when done. This may help free up resources in the VM. However, code that forgets to close() will generally still work.

Text Reading Code

```
public void readLines(String fname) {
    try {
        // Build a reader on the fname, (also works with File object)
        BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(fname));

        String line;
        while ((line = in.readLine()) != null) {
            // do something with 'line'
            System.out.println(line);
        }
    }
}
```

```

        in.close();        // polite (could use 'finally' clause)
    }
    catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}

```

Text Writing

Writing is pretty similar.

We construct a `BufferedWriter` on a `FileWriter`

The writer responds to `print()` and `println()` messages to write strings and chars.

Text Writing Code

```

public void writeLines(String fname) {
    try {
        // Build a writer on the fname (also works on File objects)
        BufferedWriter out = new BufferedWriter(new FileWriter(fname));

        // Send out.print(), out.println() to write chars
        for (int i=0; i<data.size(); i++) {
            out.println( ... ith data string ... );
        }

        out.close();        // polite
    }
    catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}

```

Binary File Reading / Writing

Reading a binary file looks similar, but we use an `InputStream` or `BufferedInputStream` instead of a `Reader`.

Send the `read(byte[] buff)` message that reads a number of bytes out of the stream and into an `byte[]` array.

Returns the number of bytes actually read, or -1 on EOF.

Binary File Example

```

/*
 * Utility method that reads all of the bytes out of the given
 * file and writes them out the given output stream.
 */
private void sendFile(OutputStream out, File file) {
    try {
        FileInputStream in = new FileInputStream(file);
        byte[] buff = new byte[1000];
        int count;
        while((count = in.read(buff)) != -1) {
            out.write(buff, 0, count);
        }
    }
}

```

```

        in.close();
    }
    catch (IOException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}

```

Exceptions

An exception is an error condition that arises at runtime – it can stop the normal sequence of instructions and jump to an error handling section.

The error handling code may be in the same method, or the current method may exit immediately to jump to error handling code in an earlier method that called the current method.

Many stream operations can throw exceptions

In Java, the compiler will insist that most types of exception are caught by the code.

throws clause

If code might throw an exception, it can be wrapped in a try/catch (below) to handle the exception locally.

Or, a method may add a "throws" clause to its prototype to indicate that it may generate an exception back to its caller.

e.g. `public void foo() throws IOException { ...}`

In that case, the caller must deal with the exception.

try / catch

A try/catch block attempts to execute a block of statements. If an exception occurs in some method called from within the try block, then the catch() clause handles the exception.

Having intercepted the exception, the catch clause can handle it in any number of ways. The simplest strategy is to call `e.printStackTrace()` to produce some debugging output.

There can be multiple catch clauses, in which case they are searched from top to bottom, and the first that matches the exception gets it.

try / catch example

Here, the `fileRead()` method uses a try/catch to catch the `IOException` internally and print an error message. Note that the `IOException` is caught inside `fileRead()`, so `IOException` is not declared in a "throws" in the method prototype.

```

public void fileRead(String fname) {           // NOTE no throws

    try {
        // this is the standard way to read a text file...
        FileReader reader = new FileReader(new File(fname));
        BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader(reader);
    }
}

```

```

String line;
while ((line = in.readLine()) != null) {
    ...
    // readLine() etc. can fail in various ways with
    // an IOException
}

}

// Control jumps to the catch clause on an exception
catch (IOException e) {
    e.printStackTrace(); // on possible thing to do
    // or could ignore the exception
}
}

```

ClientSocket

Open a client socket

Use input/output streams

Note the manual use of flush() to send the output (vs auto-flush in Perl)

We use a StringBuffer, since it does append() more efficiently, than a series of string = string + string operations.

```

Socket sock = new Socket("hostname", 80);
PrintWriter out = new PrintWriter(sock.getOutputStream());
BufferedReader in =
    new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(sock.getInputStream()));

out.print("GET / HTTP/1.0\r\n");
out.print("\r\n");
out.flush(); // ok, really send the output

// Read back everything into a single string
String line;

// auto-expands if ever exceeds 2000 bytes
StringBuffer buff = new StringBuffer(2000);

while ((line = in.readLine()) != null) {
    buff.append(line);
    buff.append("\n");
}

String response = buff.toString();

```

ServerSocket

Same concepts as in Perl, just different syntax

```

ServerSocket serv = new ServerSocket(port);

```

```

while (true) {
    Socket sock = serv.accept(); // blocks like in Perl
    BufferedReader in =
        new BufferedReader(
new InputStreamReader(sock.getInputStream()));

    PrintWriter out = new PrintWriter(sock.getOutputStream());

    // ... deal with sock
    sock.close();
}

```

URL

Built-in class

We'll use it for relative/absolute URL conversion

Can throw an exception on protocols it doesn't know

ArrayList

See the main Java document above.

Java Regular Expressions

Regular expressions have been added to Java with the 1.4 version.

They are basically the same as Perl regular expressions, although the syntax for using them is more heavy than in Perl.

Pattern

The Pattern class stores a regular expression pattern. (See the Pattern class docs)

The regular expression chars work as in Perl: `. \w \s * +` and so on.

The regular expression is defined in a Java String, which has its own use of the backslash (`\`).

For that reason, each backslash needs a backslash in front of it so it goes through.

To express for example, `\w`, in the Java string we have to write `"\\w"`.

Pattern of two `\w` words separated by whitespace

```
Pattern p1 = Pattern.compile("\\w+\\s+\\w+");
```

Pattern of "hello" followed by space followed by a word. Not case sensitive variant.

```
Pattern p2 = Pattern.compile("hello\\s+\\w+",
    Pattern.CASE_INSENSITIVE);
```

The `Pattern.MULTILINE` option allows the matching to span across lines

Matcher

A Matcher runs a pattern on some text to find all the matching sections of text. (See the Matcher class docs)

```
Matcher mat = pat.matcher(text);
```

Responds to `find()` to find successive matches

Responds to `group()` to return the matched text

Responds to group(i) to return the ith (..) sub-part of the matched text (like \$1, \$2 ... in Perl)

Example \w Extraction

Suppose we have "hello SOMEWORD" and we want to extract the word.

```
Pattern pat = Pattern.compile("hello\\s+(\\w+)");
```

Could use \S instead of \w -- \S is any non-whitespace char

```
Pattern pat = Pattern.compile("hello\\s+(\\S+)"); // \S alternative
Matcher mat = pat.matcher(text);
if (mat.find()) {
    return(mat.group(1)); // extract the word
}
else return("");
```

Example .*? Extraction

(See the Perl section handout for the discussion of .*?)

Suppose we want to extract everything within {...}'s

We use parens () to mark the text we want to extract

We \ the { and } because they have their own meaning in regular expressions

```
Pattern pat = new Pattern.compile("\\{(.*)\\}");
Matcher mat = pat.matcher(text);
while (m.find()) {
    System.out.println(mat.group(1));
}
```

The same regular expression written in Perl would be “\{(.*)\}”. We need a double \ in Java, because \ is normally used as an escape character. To have the \ be represented in a Java String, we need to escape it with a \. =)