CS61B Lecture #9: Abstract Classes and All That

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Concrete Subclasses

• Can define kinds of Drawables that are non-abstract. To do so, must supply implementations for all methods:

```
public class Rectangle extends Drawable {
  public Rectangle (double w, double h) { this.w = w; this.h = h; }
  public void scale (double size) { w *= size; h *= size; }
  public void draw () { draw a w x h rectangle }
  private double w,h;
}

Any Circle or Rectangle is a Drawable.

public class Circle extends Drawable {
```

```
public class Circle extends Drawable {
  public Circle (double rad) { this.rad = rad; }
  public void scale (double size) { rad *= size; }
  public void draw () { draw a circle with radius rad }
  double rad;
}
```

• So, writing

Drawable[] things = { new Rectangle (3, 4), new Circle (2) };
drawAll (things);

draws a 3×4 rectangle and a circle with radius 2.

Abstract Methods and Classes

- Instance method can be abstract: No body given; must be supplied in subtypes.
- One good use is in specifying a pure interface to a family of types:

```
/** A drawable object. */
public abstract class Drawable {    // "abstract" = "can't say new Drawable"
    /** Expand THIS by a factor of SIZE */
   public abstract void scale (double size);
    /** Draw THIS on the standard output. */
   public abstract void draw ();
}
```

Now a Drawable is something that has at least the operations scale and draw on it. Can't create a Drawable because it's abstract—in particular, it has two methods without any implementation.

• BUT, we can write methods that operate on Drawables:

```
void drawAll (Drawable[] thingsToDraw) {
  for (int i = 0; i < thingsToDraw.length; i += 1)
    thingsToDraw[i].draw ();
}</pre>
```

But draw has no implementation! How can this work?

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ses Interfaces

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- In generic use, an interface is a "point where interaction occurs between two systems, processes, subjects, etc." (Concise Oxford Dictionary).
- In programming, often use the term to mean a description of this generic interaction, specifically, a description of the functions or variables by which two things interact.
- Java uses the term to refer to a slight variant of an abstract class that contains only abstract methods (and static constants).
- Idea is to treat Java interfaces as the public specifications of data types, and classes as their implementations:

```
public interface Drawable {
  void scale (double size); // Automatically public abstract.
  void draw ();
}

public class Rectangle implements Drawable { ... }
```

• Interfaces are automatically abstract: can't say new Drawable(); can say new Rectangle(...).

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Multiple Inheritance

- Can extend one class, but implement any number of interfaces.
- Contrived Example:

• The first argument of copy can be a Source or a Variable. The second can be a Sink or a Variable.

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Map in Java

• It's the use of this function that's clumsy. First, define class for absolute value function; then create an instance:

```
class Abs implements IntUnaryFunction {
  public int apply (int x) { return Math.abs (x); }
}
______
map (new Abs (), some list);
```

Or, we can write a lambda expression (sort of):

```
map (new IntUnaryFunction () {
          public int apply (int x) { return x*x; }
        }, some list);
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```

Review: Higher-Order Functions

• In Scheme, you had higher-order functions like this (adapted from SICP)

```
(define (map proc items)
; function list
  (if (null? items)
        nil
        (cons (proc (car items)) (map proc (cdr items))))
and could write
(map abs (list -10 2 -11 17))
        ===> (10 2 11 17)
(map (lambda (x) (* x x)) (list 1 2 3 4))
        ===> (1 4 9 16)
```

• Java does not have these directly, but can use abstract classes or interfaces and subtyping to get the same effect (with more writing)

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A Puzzle

```
class A {
                                                   | class B extends A {
  void f ()
                  { System.out.println ("A.f"); } | void f ()
  void g () { f (); /* or this.f() */ }
                                                         System.out.println ("B.f");
                                                   1 }
//static void g (A y) { y.f(); }
}
                                                   | }
          class C {
            static void main (String[] args) {
             B aB = new B ();
              h (aB);
            static void h (A x) { x.g() }
          //static void h (A x) { A.g(x); } x.g(x) also legal here
                                                       Choices:
 1. What is printed?
 2. What if we made g static?
                                                       a. A.f
```

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3. What if we made f static?

4. What if f were not defined in A?

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c. Some kind of error

b. B. f

Answer to Puzzle

- 1. Executing java C prints ____, because
 - 1. C. main calls h and passes it aB, whose dynamic type is B.
 - 2. h calls x.g(). Since g is inherited by B, we execute the code for g in class A.
 - 3. g calls this.f (). Now this contains the value of h's argument, whose dynamic type is B. Therefore, we execute the definition of f that is in B.
 - 4. In calls to ${\tt f}$, in other words, static type is ignored in figuring out what method to call.
- 2. If g were static, we see $_$; selection of f still depends on dynamic type of this.
- 3. If f were static, would print ___ because then selection of f would depend on static type of this, which is A.
- 4. If f were not defined in A, we'd get _____

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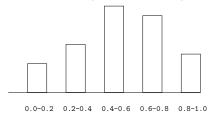
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Specification Seen by Clients

- The *clients* of a module (class, program, etc.) are the programs or methods that *use* that module's exported definitions.
- In Java, intention is that exported definitions are designated public.
- Clients are intended to rely on specifications, not code.
- Syntactic specification: method and constructor headers—syntax needed to use.
- Semantic specification: what they do. No formal notation, so use comments.
 - Semantic specification is a contract.
 - Conditions client must satisfy (preconditions, marked "Pre:" in examples below).
 - Promised results (postconditions).
 - Design these to be all the client needs!
 - Exceptions communicate errors, specifically failure to meet preconditions.

Example: Designing a Class

Problem: Want a class that represents histograms, like this one:



Analysis: What do we need from it? At least:

- Specify buckets and limits.
- · Accumulate counts of values.
- Retrieve counts of values.
- Retrieve numbers of buckets and other initial parameters.

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Histogram Specification and Use

```
Sample output:
/** A histogram of floating-point values */
public interface Histogram {
  /** The number of buckets in THIS. */
                                                        >= 0.00 |
  int size ();
                                                        >= 10.25 |
                                                        >= 20.50 | 120
  /** Lower bound of bucket #K. Pre: 0<=K<size(). */
                                                        >= 30.75 |
  double low (int k);
  /** # of values in bucket #K. Pre: 0<=K<size(). */
  int count (int k);
  /** Add VAL to the histogram. */
  void add (double val);
void fillHistogram (Histogram H, void printHistogram (Histogram H) {
                                      for (int i = 0; i < H.size (); i += 1)
                    Scanner in)
                                         System.out.printf
    while (in.hasNextDouble ())
                                             (">=\%5.2f | \%4d\%n",
       H.add (in.nextDouble ());
                                              H.low (i), H.count (i));
}
```

An Implementation

```
public class FixedHistogram implements Histogram {
  private double low, high; /* From constructor*/
  private int[] count; /* Value counts */
  /** A new histogram with SIZE buckets recording values >= LOW and < HIGH. */
  public FixedHistogram (int size, double low, double high)
   if (low >= high || size <= 0) throw new IllegalArgumentException ();
   this.low = low; this.high = high;
   this.count = new int[size];
  public int size () { return count.length; }
  public double low (int k) { return low + k * (high-low)/count.length; }
  public int count (int k) { return count[k]; }
  public void add (double val) {
     int k = (int) ((val-low)/(high-low) * count.length);
     if (k \ge 0 \&\& k < count.length) count[k] += 1;
 }
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```

Implementing the Tiny Change

- Pointless to pre-allocate the count array.
- Don't know bounds, so must save arguments to add.
- \bullet Then recompute count array "lazily" when count (\cdots) called.
- Invalidate count array whenever histogram changes.

```
class FlexHistogram implements Histogram {
  private List<Double> values = ...; // Java library type (later)
  int size;
  private int[] count;

  public FlexHistogram (int size) { this.size = size; this.count = null; }

  public void add (double x) { count = null; values.add (x); }

  public int count (int k) {
    if (count == null) { compute count from values here. }
    return count[k];
  }
}
```

Let's Make a Tiny Change

Don't require a priori bounds:

```
class FlexHistogram implements Histogram {
   /** A new histogram with SIZE buckets. */
   public FlexHistogram (int size) {
     ?
   }
   // What needs to change?
}
```

- How would you do this? Profoundly changes implementation.
- But clients (like printHistogram and fillHistogram) still work with no changes.
- Illustrates the power of separation of concerns.

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Advantages of Procedural Interface over Visible Fields

By using public method for count instead of making the array count visible, the "tiny change" is transparent to clients:

- If client had to write myHist.count[k], would mean
 - "The number of items currently in the k^{th} bucket of histogram myHist (and by the way, there is an array called count in myHist that always holds the up-to-date count)."
- Parenthetical comment useless to the client.
- But if count array had been visible, after "tiny change," every use of count in client program would have to change.
- So using a method for the public count decreases what client has to know, and (therefore) has to change.

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