

## Overloading

to get `System.out.print(x)` to print `x`, regardless of

Python, one function can take an argument of any type, but the type (if needed).

Methods specify a single type of argument.

Example: *overloading*—multiple method definitions with the same name and different numbers or types of arguments.

Example: `PrintStream` has type `java.io.PrintStream`, which defines

```
println() Prints new line.  
println(String s) Prints S.  
println(boolean b) Prints "true" or "false"  
println(char c) Prints single character  
println(int i) Prints I in decimal
```

Each is a different function. Compiler decides which to call based on arguments' types.

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## And Primitive Values?

Primitive values (ints, longs, bytes, shorts, floats, doubles, chars, etc.) are not really convertible to `Object`.

Problem for "list of anything."

Introduced a set of *wrapper types*, one for each primitive

Ref.	Prim.	Ref.	Prim.	Ref.	
<code>Byte</code>	<code>byte</code>	<code>Short</code>	<code>short</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>int</code>
<code>Character</code>	<code>char</code>	<code>Double</code>	<code>double</code>	<code>Boolean</code>	<code>boolean</code>

Created new wrapper objects for any value (*boxing*):

```
Integer three = new Integer(3);  
Integer threeObj = Three;
```

Example: *unboxing*:

```
Integer threeObj = Three;  
int i = threeObj.intValue();
```

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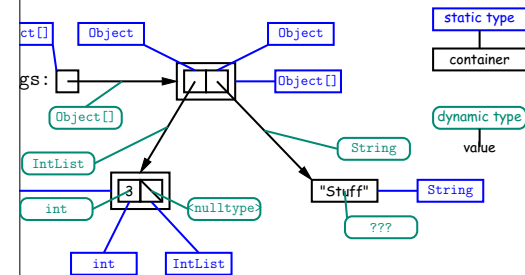
## Dynamic vs. Static Types

Java has a type—its *dynamic type*.

Example: `Integer` (variable, component, parameter), literal, function argument, or operator expression (e.g. `x+y`) has a type—its *static type*.

Every expression has a static type.

```
Object[] gs = new Object[2];  
Integer[] intList = new IntegerList(3, null);  
String stuff = "Stuff";
```



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## Lecture #8: Object-Oriented Mechanisms

Lecture: the bare mechanics of "object-oriented programming"

Topic is: Writing software that operates on many kinds of objects

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## Generic Data Structures

How to get a "list of anything" or "array of anything"?

Problem in Scheme or Python.

Example: Lists (such as `IntegerList`) and arrays have a single type of

Short answer: any *reference* value can be converted to `Object` and back, so can use `Object` as the "generic type":

```
Object[] things = new Object[2];  
IntegerList intList = new IntegerList(3, null);  
String stuff = "Stuff";  
IntegerList things[0].head == 3;  
String things[1].startsWith("St") is true  
intList.head Illegal  
stuff.startsWith("St") Illegal
```

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## Autoboxing

Example: `Integer`, `boxing` and `unboxing` is automatic (in many cases):

```
Integer i = 3;  
Integer three;  
Integer three + 3;
```

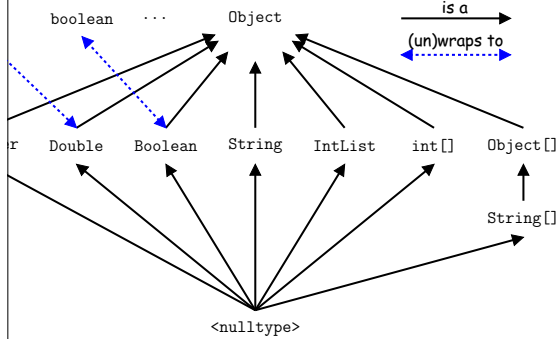
```
Integer[] someInts = { 1, 2, 3 };  
Integer someInts[0];  
System.out.println(x);
```

```
System.out.println(someInts[0]); // Prints Integer 1, but NOT
```

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## A Library Type Hierarchy (Partial)



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## Coercions

If type short, for example, are a subset of those of those that are representable as 16-bit integers, ints as 32-bit

say that short is a subtype of int, because they don't have the same.

say that values of type short can be *coerced* (converted) to a value of type int.

right fudge: compiler will silently coerce "smaller" into larger ones, float to double, and (as just seen) between primitive types and their wrapper types.

002;

it complain.

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## Overriding and Extension

far is clumsy.

Object variable x contains a String, why can't I write, x.hashCode("this")?

hashCode() is only defined on Strings, not on all Objects, so the method is not sure it makes sense, unless you cast.

hashCode() operation were defined on all Objects, then you wouldn't need casting.

hashCode() is defined on all Objects. You can always say x.hashCode() if x has a reference type.

hashCode() function is not very useful; on an IntList, it returns a string like "IntList@2f6684"

As a subtype of Object, you may override the default definition.

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## Type Hierarchies

A class with (static) type T may contain a certain value only if the value is a T—that is, if the (dynamic) type of the value is a subtype of T. Likewise, a function with return type T may return only values that are subtypes of T.

Classes are subtypes of themselves (& that's all for primitive types)

Classes form a *type hierarchy*: some are subtypes of others, and some are subtypes of all reference types.

Object is a subtype of Object.

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## The Basic Static Type Rule

is designed so that any expression of (static) type T always evaluates to a value that "is a" T.

Variables are "known to the compiler," because you declare them,

```

// Static type of field
int s) { // Static type of call to f, and of parameter
// Static type of local variable

```

are pre-declared by the language (like 3).

states that in an *assignment*, L = E, or function call, f(E),

```
SomeType L { ... },
```

E must be subtype of L's static type.

apply to E[i] (static type of E must be an array) and array operations.

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## Consequences of Compiler's "Sanity Checks"

is a conservative rule. The last line of the following, which you might think is perfectly sensible, is illegal:

```

new int[2];
A; // All references are Objects
// Static type of A is array...
// But not of x: ERROR

```

Remember that not every Object is an array.

How do we know that x contains array value?

Programmer must tell the compiler, like this:

```
) x)[i+1] = 1;
```

Remember that the type of cast (T) E is T.

Remember that x isn't an array value, or is null?

Remember that we have runtime errors—exceptions.

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## Extending a Class

class B is a direct subtype of class A (or A is a direct supertype of B), write

```
class B extends A { ... }
```

class ... extends java.lang.Object.

class B inherits all fields and methods of its superclass (and also of any of its subtypes).

class B may override an instance method (not a static method), with a new definition with same signature (name, return type, parameter types).

class B and all its overrides form a *dynamic method set*.

When `f(...)` is an instance method, then the call `x.f(...)` uses the dynamic method set of `x`. If `f` is a static method, then the call `x.f(...)` uses the static type of `x`.

## What About Fields and Static Methods?

```
class Child extends Parent {
    String x = "no";
    static String y = "way";
    static void f() {
        System.out.printf("I wanna!\n");
    }
}

new Child();
tom.f();
tom.f(1);
```

```
new Child(); | tom.x ==> no | pTom.x ==> 0
tom; | tom.y ==> way | pTom.y ==> 1
| tom.f() ==> I wanna! | pTom.f() ==> Ahem!
| tom.f(1) ==> 2 | pTom.f(1) ==> 2
```

Child hides inherited fields of same name; static methods of the same signature. Hiding static methods causes confusion; so understand it, but don't do it!

## Overriding toString

If `s` is a `String`, `s.toString()` is the identity function.

When you define a class, you may supply your own definition. For example, `IntList`, could add

```
IntList toString() {
    StringBuffer b = new StringBuffer();
    b.append("[");
    IntList L = this; L != null; L = L.tail();
    b.append(" " + L.head());
    b.append("]");
    return b.toString();
}
```

If `x` is an `IntList(3, new IntList(4, null))`, then `x.toString()` returns `"[ 4 3 ]"`.

The `+` operator on `Strings` calls `.toString` when asked to concatenate an `Object`, and so does the `%s` formatter for `printf`.

When you write a `toString` method, you can supply an output function for any type you

## Illustration

```
class Worker {
    void work() {
        collectPay();
    }
}
```

```
class TA extends Worker {
    void work() {
        while (true) {
            doLab(); discuss(); officeHour();
        }
    }
}

Prof(); | paul.work() ==> collectPay();
TA(); | daniel.work() ==> doLab(); discuss(); ...
Paul; | wPaul.work() ==> collectPay();
daniel; | wdaniel.work() ==> doLab(); discuss(); ...
```

When you write `work` methods (only), select method based on dynamic state, but we'll see it has profound consequences.

## What's the Point?

The `toString` method described here allows us to define a kind of *generic*

method that can define a set of operations (methods) that are common to different classes.

We can then provide different implementations of these methods, each specialized in some way.

Subclasses will have at least the methods listed by the superclass.

When you write methods that operate on the superclass, they will work for all subclasses with no extra work.