

## 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: `out` 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
    
```

Example: `println` 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.
Byte	short	Short	int	Integer
Character	char	Character	boolean	Boolean
Double	double	Double		

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

```

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

Example: **unboxing**:

```

threeObj.intValue();
    
```

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## Dynamic vs. Static Types

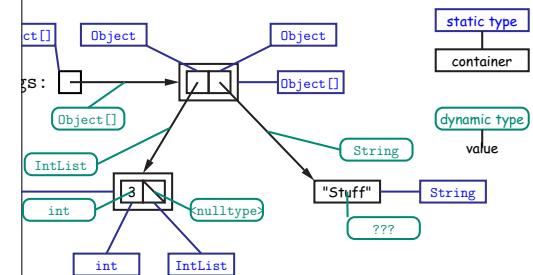
Example: `Object` has a type—its **dynamic type**.

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

Example: Every **expression** has a static type.

```

Object[] objects = new Object[2];
Integer[] ints = 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

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## Generic Data Structures

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

Problem in Scheme or Python.

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

Correct answer: any **reference** value can **cast** as (converted to and back, so we can use `Object` as the "generic type":

```

Object[] objects = new Object[2];
Integer[] ints = new IntegerList(3, null);
String stuff = "Stuff";
IntList thingsList = (IntList) things[0]; // A cast to IntList
IntegerList head = (IntegerList) thingsList.head;
String startsWith = (String) things[1].startsWith("St"); // is true
IntegerList head = (IntegerList) thingsList.head; // Illegal
String startsWith = (String) thingsList.head.startsWith("St"); // Illegal
    
```

Example: **reference casts** don't change the value of a pointer, but rather tell the compiler how to treat it.

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## Autoboxing

Example: Casting are automatic (in many cases):

```

Integer one = 3;
Integer three = Three;
Integer sum = three + 3;
    
```

```

Integer[] someInts = { 1, 2, 3 };
IntegerList someIntsList = new IntegerList(someInts);
IntegerList.out.println(x);
    
```

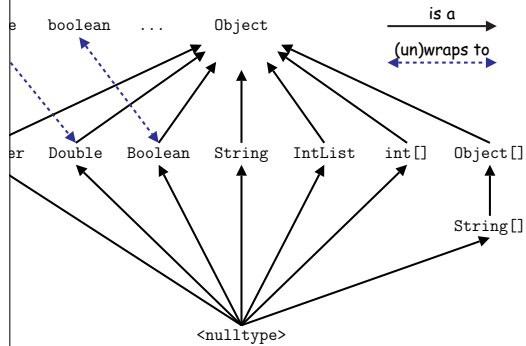
```

IntegerList.out.println(someIntsList[0]);
// prints Integer 1, but NOT unboxed.
    
```

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## A Library Type Hierarchy (Partial)



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## Primitive Types and Coercions

Primitives live outside the hierarchy of reference types.

Integer values of type short, for example, are a subset of integer values of type int, but we *don't* say that short is a subtype of int, because primitive types behave differently.

Values of type short can be *coerced* (converted) to a value of type int using the same cast syntax as for reference types:

```

short r = (short) 3002;
short s = 10000L;
int x = (int) y;
int y = 1000000000000000L;
int q = (int) q;
out.println(r); // Prints -727379968 (?????)

```

The value of r shows, coercions of primitive types, unlike those of reference types, are computations that can change values.

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## Consequences of Compiler's "Sanity Checks"

*conservative* rules. The last line of the following, which might seem perfectly sensible, is illegal:

```

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

```

The compiler ensures that not every Object is an array.

*know* that x contains array value?

The compiler still must tell the compiler, like this:

```

... x[i+1] = 1;

```

The static type of cast (T) E is T.

The compiler *isn't* an array value, or is null?

The compiler will have runtime errors—exceptions.

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## Type Hierarchies

A value of (static) type T may contain a certain value only if that 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.

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

Reference types form a *type hierarchy*: some are subtypes of other reference types.

int is a subtype of all reference types.

Reference types are subtypes of Object.

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## The Basic Static Type Rule

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

Primitives 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

```

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

The compiler insists that in an assignment, L = E, or function call, f(E), the static type of L must be a subtype of E's static type.

```

SomeType L { ... },

```

The static type of E must be a subtype of L's static type for reference types.

There are other static-type requirements for other operations: E must be an array type in E[i]; actual parameters must have subtypes compatible with the static parameters.

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## Automatic Coercions, Promotions

Automatic coercions, such as converting from short to int, are considered by the compiler and are therefore intrusive.

The compiler will silently coerce "smaller" integer types to larger integer types to double, and integer types to float or double.

These are called *promotions*.

The compiler can obviously tell what the value of an int will be. The compiler will convert integer literals to shorter integer types if it can.

```

127;
int y = -1024;
double z = 0x0398; // Θ

```

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## Overriding toString

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

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

```
// Compiler checks that Object really has a toString.
@Override
String toString() {
    StringBuffer b = new StringBuffer();
    b.append("[");
    IntList L = this; L != null; L = L.tail()
    b.append(" " + L.head);
    b.append("]");
    return b.toString();
}
```

For `IntList(3, new IntList(4, null))`, then `x.toString()`

For various operations requiring `Strings` call `.toString()` on an `IntList x`, you can write:

```
" " + x System.out.println(x) System.out.printf("%s", x);
```

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## 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(); ...
```

Instance methods (only), select method based on dynamic state, but we'll see it has profound consequences.

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## What's the Point?

Polymorphism described here allows us to define a kind of *generic*

behavior that can define a set of operations (methods) that are shared among many different classes.

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

Each subclass 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.

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## Overriding and Extension

Object-oriented programming is far from clumsy.

If an object variable `x` contains a `String`, why can't I write, `x.toString()`?

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

If `toString()` were defined on all `Objects`, then you wouldn't need casting.

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

The `toString()` function is not very useful; on an `IntList`, you'd get a string like `"IntList@2f6684"`

When you define a subtype of `Object`, you may *override* the default definition.

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## Extending a Class

Class `B` is a direct subtype of class `A` (or `A` is a *direct* superclass of `B`), write

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

Class `B` extends `java.lang.Object`.

Class `B` inherits all fields and methods of its direct superclass `A` (in addition to any of its subtypes).

Class `B` may *override* an instance method (not a static method), providing a new definition with same *signature* (name, return type, and parameter types).

### Rule of Instance Method Calls:

If `f` is an instance method, then the call `x.f(...)` calls the overriding of `f` applies to the *dynamic type* of `x`, not the static type of `x`.

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## 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");
    }
}

Child c = new Child();
c.x; // no
c.y; // way
c.f(); // I wanna!
c.f(1); // 2
```

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

Overriding `hide` inherited fields of same name; static methods of same signature.

Overriding causes confusion; so understand it, but don't do it!

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