

# Subclasses & Interfaces

Lecture 11 of TDA 540

Object-Oriented  
Programming

---

Jesper Cockx

Fall 2018

Chalmers University of Technology — Gothenburg University

# Last lecture: classes and objects

An **object** consists of a private **state** and a public **interface**.

A **class** describes a collection of objects with a **common structure**:

**Attributes** describe how objects' **state** is represented in memory.

**Methods** describe how objects can be **observed** and **modified**.

**Constructors** describe how to construct **new objects** of the class.

# Last lecture: attributes

*Syntax*

```
public class ClassName
{
    private typeName variableName;
    . . .
}
```

Instance variables should  
always be private.

```
public class Counter
{
    private int value;
    . . .
}
```

Each object of this class  
has a separate copy of  
this instance variable.

Type of the variable

Syntax 8.1

© John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved.

# Last lecture: methods

*Syntax*    *modifiers returnType methodName(parameterType parameterName, . . . )*  
    {  
        *method body*  
    }

```
public class CashRegister
{
    . . .
    public void addItem(double price)
    {
        itemCount++;
        totalPrice = totalPrice + price;
    }
    . . .
}
```

Instance variables of  
the implicit parameter

Explicit parameter

Syntax 8.2

© John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved.

# Last lecture: constructors

A constructor has no return type, not even void.

These constructors initialize the balance instance variable.

```
public class BankAccount
{
    private double balance;

    public BankAccount()
    {
        balance = 0;
    }

    public BankAccount(double initialBalance)
    {
        balance = initialBalance;
    }
    . . .
}
```

A constructor has the same name as the class.

This constructor is picked for the expression `new BankAccount(499.95)`.

Syntax 8.3

© John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved.

# Inheritance

---

# Inheritance

**Inheritance** = relation between a general class (the **superclass**) and a more specific one (the **subclass**)

**Example:** a car **is a** vehicle

⇒ Car is a subclass of Vehicle

In Java:

```
class Vehicle { ... }  
class Car extends Vehicle { ... }
```

All members (attributes and methods) of `Vehicle` are **automatically** also members of `Car`.

# Inheritance example

```
class Account {
    int balance;
    void deposit(int amount) {
        balance += amount;
    }
}

class CheckingAccount
    extends Account {
    void withdraw(int amount) {
        deposit(-amount);
    }
    void close() {
        balance = 0;
    }
}
```

Using `CheckingAccount`:

```
CheckingAccount a =
    new CheckingAccount();
a.deposit(1000);
a.withdraw(500);
a.close();
```



# Warning: do not redefine attributes

If a class has an attribute with the same name as one of the superclass' attributes, it gets **two copies** of the attribute:

```
class Account {  
    int balance;  
    int getBalance() {  
        return balance;  
    }  
}
```

```
class CheckingAccount  
    extends Account {  
    int balance;  
    void withdraw(int amount) {  
        balance -= amount;  
    }  
}
```

Calling `withdraw()` does **not** change the result of `getBalance()`!

# Overriding

**Overriding** = redefine a method from the superclass

```
class Account {  
    int balance;  
  
    void withdraw(int amount) {  
        balance -= amount;  
    }  
}
```

```
class NoOverdrawnAccount  
    extends Account {  
    // redefinition of withdraw  
    @Override  
    void withdraw(int amount) {  
        if (amount <= balance)  
            balance -= amount;  
    }  
}
```

# super: referencing the superclass

The keyword `super` denotes a reference to the current object as an instance of the superclass.

```
class Account {  
    int balance;  
    void withdraw(int amount) {  
        balance -= amount;  
    }  
}
```

```
class NoOverdrawnAccount  
    extends Account {  
    @Override  
    void withdraw(int amount) {  
        if (amount <= balance)  
            // call withdraw  
            // from Account  
            super.withdraw(amount);  
    }  
}
```

# Inheritance and constructors

You can call the constructor of the superclass using `super(...)`. This must be the **first statement** in the constructor of the subclass.

```
class Account {
    int balance;
    Account(int balance) {
        this.balance =
            balance;
    }
}
```

```
class LimitedAccount
    extends Account {
    int maxOverdraw;
    LimitedAccount(int balance,
        int max) {
        // calls Account(balance);
        super(balance);
        this.maxOverDraw = max;
    }
}
```

# `final` methods and classes

The keyword `final` can also be used to restrict inheritance:

- a `method` marked as `final` cannot be overridden.
- a `class` marked as `final` cannot be inherited from.

Example: `String` is `final`, so we cannot create new subclasses of `String`.

# Abstract classes and methods

An **abstract** method has a signature but **no implementation**.

Only **abstract** classes can have **abstract** methods.  
Abstract classes **cannot** be instantiated.

Non-abstract subclasses **must** override all abstract methods.

# Abstract class example

```
// Partial implementation  
abstract class Account {  
    int balance;  
    abstract void addInterest();  
}
```

```
class CheckingAccount  
extends Account {  
    @Override  
    void addInterest() {  
        return;  
    }  
}
```

```
class SavingAccount  
extends Account  
    static INTEREST = 0.001;  
    @Override  
    void addInterest() {  
        balance += balance*INTEREST;  
    }  
}
```

# Developing a class hierarchy

1. List the classes that are part of the hierarchy
2. Organize the classes according to the 'is a' relation
3. Determine responsibilities of each class, starting at the top of the hierarchy
4. Implement each class
  - 4.1 Declare the public interface
  - 4.2 Identify instance variables
  - 4.3 Implement constructors and methods
5. Test the whole hierarchy



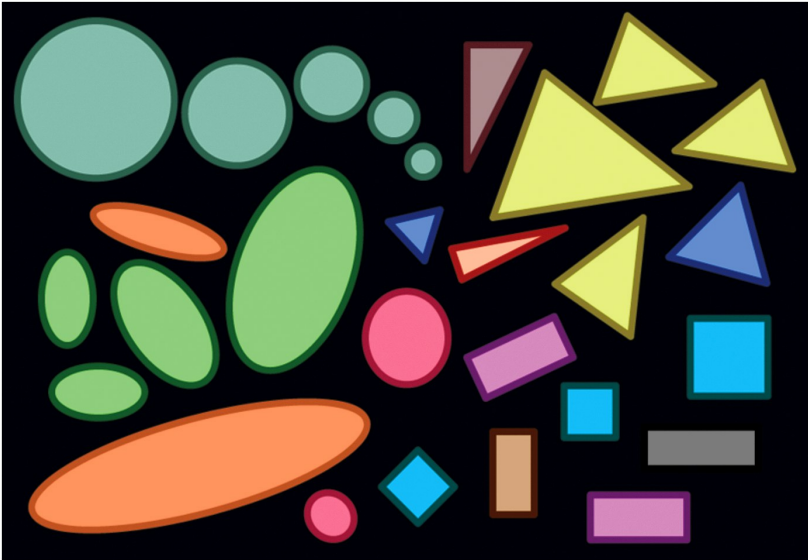
# When to create a new subclass?

Not every kind of object needs its own subclass:

- If objects vary in their **behaviour**  
⇒ different subclasses
- If objects only vary in some **values**  
⇒ one class is enough

# Live coding:

designing a class hierarchy of shapes



# Inheritance and types

Every class  $C$  corresponds to a type.

If  $C$  is a subclass of another class  $B$ , then  $C$  is a **subtype** of  $B$ : an object of type  $C$  can be used as an object of type  $B$ .

```
class Car {  
    void openDoor()  
    { /* ... */ }  
}
```

```
class Convertible  
extends Car {  
    void openTop()  
    { /* ... */ }  
}
```

A convertible **is a** car!

# Liskov's substitution principle

*A program that expects an object of a superclass should also work when given an object of a subclass instead.*

e.g. a program that works with a `Vehicle` should also work for a `Car`.

- Subclass can only add new attributes and methods, never remove them
- Return types of methods can only become more specific
- Argument types can only become more general

**15 min. break**

---

# Interfaces

---

# Interfaces

An **interface** is a list of abstract operations describing the *public interface* (API) of a class.

```
public interface IGlass {  
    double getCurrentVolume();  
    void addWater(double amount);  
    void removeWater(double amount);  
}
```

All methods are automatically **public** and **abstract**.

**No** attributes<sup>1</sup> or constructors.

---

<sup>1</sup>Except for **static final** attributes

# Interfaces and classes

A class can **implement** one or more interfaces:

- it must **override** all methods of the interfaces (no need for `@Override`)
- it can also introduce **other members** (private or public) without restrictions

```
class Glass implements IGlass {  
    private double volume;  
    int getCurrentVolume() {  
        return volume;  
    }  
    // ... other implementations ...  
}
```



# Interfaces and inheritance

An interface also can inherit from **one or more** interfaces (but not from classes), by providing additional public methods (or constants).

```
interface IAccount {  
    void deposit(long amount);  
    // ...  
}
```

```
interface ISavingAccount  
    extends IAccount {  
    static final double INTEREST = 0.001;  
    void addInterest();  
}
```

# Interfaces and types

Every **interface**  $I$  also corresponds to a **type**.

Types of interfaces and classes are related by **inheritance**:

- If a class  $C$  implements an interface  $I$ , then  $C$  is a **subtype** of  $I$ .
- If an interface  $J$  extends another interface  $I$ , then  $J$  is a **subtype** of  $I$ .

# A spectrum of abstraction

Classes and interfaces are two opposite endpoints on a spectrum of **abstraction**:

(CONCRETE) CLASS

INTERFACE

complete implementation

no implementation

must have constructor

cannot have constructors

can be instantiated

cannot be instantiated

all visibilities

only **public** visibility

completely concrete

completely abstract

# A spectrum of abstraction

Classes and interfaces are two opposite endpoints on a spectrum of **abstraction**:

(CONCRETE) CLASS	ABSTRACT CLASS	INTERFACE
complete implementation	partial implementation	no implementation
must have constructor	may have constructor	cannot have constructors
can be instantiated	cannot be instantiated	cannot be instantiated
all visibilities	all visibilities	only <b>public</b> visibility
completely concrete	<b>partially abstract</b>	completely abstract

# The collections framework

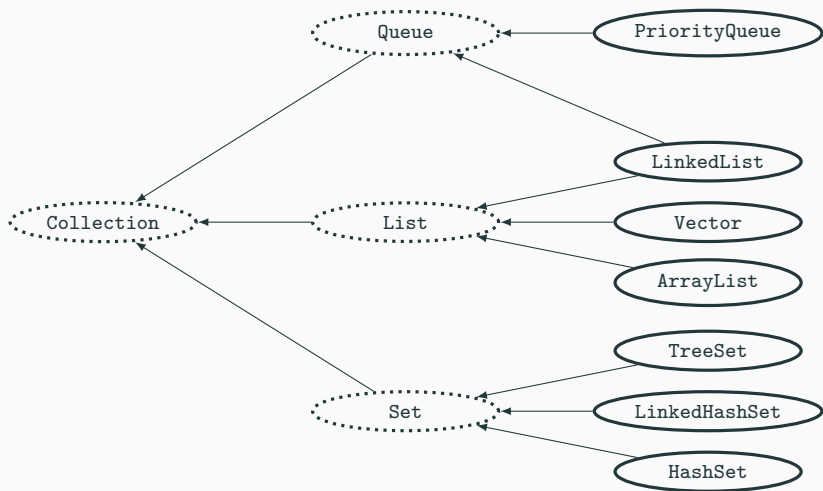
---

# The Collections framework

Java's **Collections framework** is a part of the standard library containing commonly used data structures such as `ArrayList`.

- Interfaces are **separated** from their concrete implementations.
- Multiple different implementations of each interface: user can choose best one based on the situation.
- All interfaces are **generic**: they can store objects of arbitrary classes (e.g. `ArrayList<String>`, `ArrayList<Integer>`, `ArrayList<Object>`, ...).

# Overview of the Collections framework



# Using the Collections framework

Official documentation:

<https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/technotes/guides/collections/>

1. Select the **interface** that provides the operations your application needs
2. Select one **implementation class** of the interface that offers efficient implementation of those operations

In most cases, you do not have to worry too much about the implementation details.



# The `List` interface

A list is an *ordered* collection of elements

```
interface List<E> {  
    void add(int index, E element);  
  
    E get(int index);  
  
    E remove(int index);  
  
    int size();  
  
    // ... several more methods are available ...  
}
```

# Implementations of the `List` interface

Two implementations of the `List` interface:

- `ArrayList` uses an array to store data
  - `get` is very fast, `add` and `remove` are slower
- `LinkedList` stores data in a sequence of nodes referencing each other
  - `add` and `remove` are fast, `get` is slower

Both perform **automatic resizing**: they grow as we add more elements.

`ArrayList` is a good default choice.

# The Set interface

A **set** is an *unordered* collection with *no duplicates*

```
interface Set<E> {  
    void add(E element);  
  
    boolean contains(Object o);  
  
    boolean remove(Object o);  
  
    int size();  
  
    // ... several more methods are available ...  
}
```

# Implementations of the `Set` interface

Two implementations of the `Set` interface:

- `HashSet` stores elements in buckets according to their `hashCode`
  - all operations are very fast, takes more memory
- `TreeSet` stores elements in a tree structure
  - all operations are quite fast, takes less memory

`HashSet` is a good default choice.

# The `Map` interface

A `map` is a data structure associating *keys* to *values*

```
interface Map<K,V> {  
    void put(K key, V value);  
  
    V get(Object key);  
  
    V remove(Object key);  
  
    boolean containsKey(Object o);  
  
    int size();  
    // ... several more methods are available ...  
}
```

# Implementations of the `Map` interface

Two implementations of the `Map` interface:

- `HashMap` stores elements in buckets according to the `hashCode` of the key
  - all operations are very fast, takes more memory
- `TreeMap` stores elements in a tree structure
  - all operations are quite fast, takes less memory

`HashMap` is a good default choice.

# The `Queue` interface

A `queue` is an *ordered* collection (like `List`) meant to store a sequence of objects that await processing

```
interface Queue<E> {  
    boolean offer(E e); // add element to the queue  
  
    E remove(); // get first element and remove it  
  
    E element(); // get first element (do not remove)  
  
    // ... several more methods are available ...  
}
```

# Implementations of the `Queue` interface

Two implementations of the `Queue` interface:

- `LinkedList` keeps elements in the order they were added
  - `element` returns element that was added first (**FIFO**: first-in, first-out)
- `PriorityQueue` assigns a priority to each element
  - `element` returns element with highest priority



# Generic classes and interfaces

A **generic** class or interface has one or more **parameters** written as `<E>`.

```
interface Set<E>
```

We can **instantiate** the parameter to any type<sup>2</sup>:

```
Set<String> names = new HashSet<String>();
```

Once the parameter is instantiated, it is **fixed**:

```
HashSet<Integer> intSet;
```

```
intSet = new HashSet<String>(); // type error
```

---

<sup>2</sup>except primitive types, use wrapper types instead

# Subtyping and generic classes

**Warning:** subtyping does *not* extend through generic types.

- Car is a subtype of Vehicle
- Set<Car> is **not** a subtype of Set<Vehicle>

```
Set<Car> cars = new HashSet<Car>();  
Vehicle myBike = new Bike();  
cars.add(myBike); // type error
```

A Vehicle is not necessarily a Car!

# Polymorphism

**Polymorphism**: we can switch between different concrete implementations of an interface **without changing anything else** in the program!

```
interface List<E> {
    E get(int index);
    void add(int index, E e);
    int size();
}

List<String> l;
l = // choose any List implementation
l.add(0, "hej");
l.add(1, " då");
if (l.size() >= 2)
    String s = l.get(0) + l.get(1);
    System.out.println(s);
```

# Polymorphism: formal definition

*If  $S$  is a **subtype** of  $T$ , an expression of type  $S$  can be used wherever an expression of type  $T$  is expected.*

The class/interface  $S$  is a **specialization** of class/interface  $T$  (a Convertible **is a** Car!), so all types are still consistent.

# Polymorphism

Advantages of using polymorphism:

**Decoupling** You can think about (and use!) an interface without worrying about the implementation.

**Cohesion** If you know how to use one implementation of `List`, you know how to use all of them.

**Component-based design** You can switch out one part of the code for another without changing the overall behaviour.

# Polymorphism on client-side: example

```
class CreditCard {
    IBankAccount account;
    List<Transaction> transactions;

    void setPayments(IBankAccount ba) {
        account = ba;
    }

    void pay(int nt) {
        Transaction tr = transactions.get(nt);
        if (tr != null) {
            account.withdraw(tr.amount());
            transactions.remove(nt);
        }
    }
}
```

# Live coding!

Let us design and implement a stack data structure.

# What's next?

Next lecture: **Graphical interfaces & event-driven programming.**

## To do:

- Read the book:
  - Today: chapter 9
  - Next lecture: chapter 10
- Hand in lab #5
- Start on lab #6