

4.1.2 An API View

- The API of an instantiable class has **three** sections:
 - A **Constructor** Section
 - A **Field** Section
 - A **Method** Section
- **Constructors** allow us to instantiate the class and get an object; i.e. add identity and state
- A **constructor** section *looks like a method* but:
 - There is no return column (not even void)
 - Constructor name = Class name

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4.2.1 The Birth of an Object

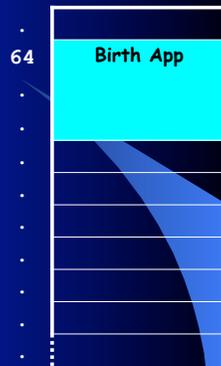
A four-step process:

1. **Locate the Class**
`import type.lib.Fraction;`
2. **Declare a Reference**
`Fraction f;`
3. **Instantiate the Class**
`new Fraction(3, 5)`
4. **Assign the Reference**
`f = new Fraction(3, 5);`

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Step #1 Locate the Class

```
import type.lib.*;
```



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Step #2
Declare a Reference

```
import type.lib.*;  
Fraction f;
```

64 Birth App ?? f
100 Fraction class

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Step #3
Instantiate the Class

```
import type.lib.*;  
Fraction f;  
new Fraction(3,5)
```

64 Birth App ?? f
100 Fraction class
600 Fraction object 3/5

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Step #4
Assign the Reference

```
import type.lib.*;  
Fraction f;  
f = new Fraction(3,5);
```

64 Birth App 600 f
100 Fraction class
600 Fraction object 3/5

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Step #4
Assign the Reference

```
import type.lib.*;
Fraction f;
f = new Fraction(3,5);
```

A reference is a pointer

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4.2.2 Objects at Work

- Accessing Field
reference.field
- Invoking Methods
reference.method(...)

Unlike static/utility classes, we access and invoke on the reference, not on the class.

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Examples

- Create 8/6 and invoke methods
- Note the role of separator and isQuoted
- Compute:

$$\frac{\frac{5}{3} \times \frac{7}{6}}{\frac{31}{45}} + \frac{3}{4}$$

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4.2.3 The Object Reference

Variables of primitive types hold values:

```
int x = 5;  
int y = x;  
x = 10;  
// at this stage y remains 5
```

Variables of non-primitive types (references) hold addresses of objects, not the objects themselves.

Aliases

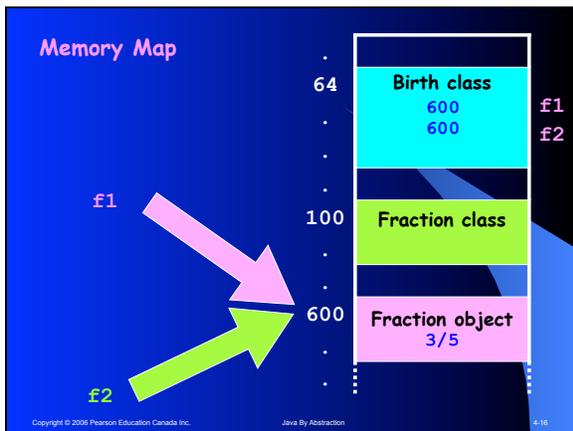
Many variables can point at the same object:

```
Fraction f1;  
f1 = new Fraction(3, 5);  
Fraction f2;  
f2 = f1;
```

If the object is changed through f1, the change will be seen by f2.

Example

```
Fraction f1;  
f1 = new Fraction(3, 5);  
Fraction f2;  
f2 = f1;  
f1.separator = "|";  
System.out.println(f2.toString());
```



Null References and Orphans

```

Fraction f1;
f1 = new Fraction(3, 5);
Fraction f2;
f2 = f1;
f1 = null;
System.out.println(f1.toString());
System.out.println(f2.toString());
f2 = null;
    
```

Note that null is a literal (just like true and false) whose type is compatible with any non-primitive type.

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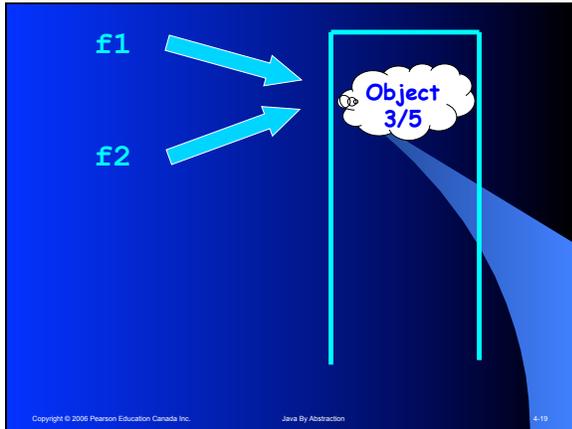
4.2.4 Object Equality

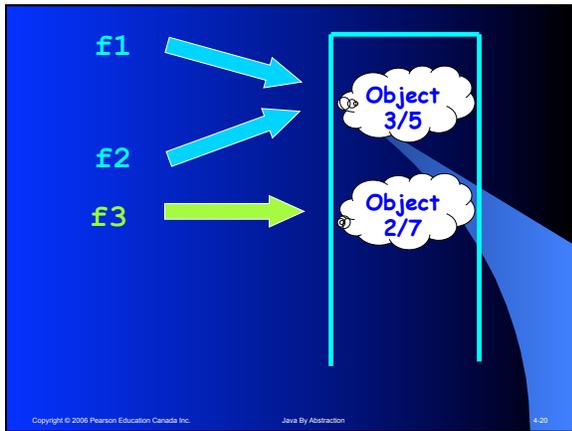
The == operator determines whether two object references are pointing at the same memory block:

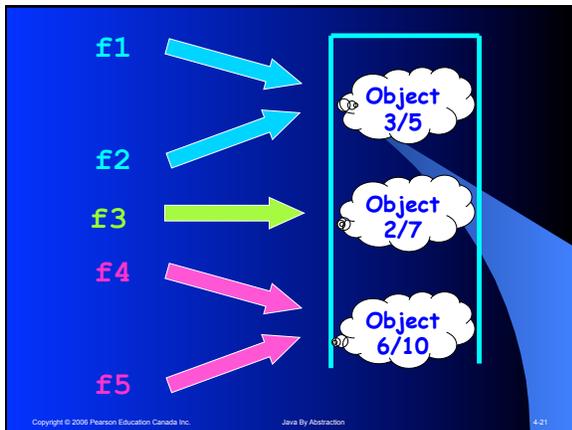
```

Fraction f1 = new Fraction(3, 5);
Fraction f2 = f1;
Fraction f3 = new Fraction(2, 7);
Fraction f4 = new Fraction(6, 10);
Fraction f5 = f4;
System.out.println(f1 == f2);
System.out.println(f4 == f5);
System.out.println(f4 == f1);
    
```

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== versus equals

```
Fraction f1 = new Fraction(3, 5);  
Fraction f2 = f1;  
Fraction f3 = new Fraction(2, 7);  
Fraction f4 = new Fraction(6, 10);  
Fraction f5 = f4;  
System.out.println(f1 == f2);  
System.out.println(f4 == f5);  
System.out.println(f4 == f1);  
  
System.out.println(f4.equals(f1));
```

The equals method determines whether two objects are equal in the eyes of their class.

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Java provides a default equals method for classes that do not have one of their own. This "default" equals method behaves the same as ==:

```
FractionNS x = new FractionNS(4, 5);  
FractionNS y = new FractionNS(4, 5);  
  
boolean equalRef = (x == y);  
boolean equalObj = x.equals(y);
```

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4.2.5 Obligatory Methods

Certain methods are available in all classes, either directly (provided by the class itself) or indirectly (provided by Java). Two such methods are:

toString

- Default behaviour: same as ==
- Auto-invoked by output methods

equals

- Default behaviour: class name and the object's memory address in hex.

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4.2.6 The Death of an Object

Destroy the object-reference connection by:

- Exiting the **scope** of the reference
- Setting the reference to **null**
- Pointing the reference **elsewhere**

```
Fraction x = new Fraction(3, 5);  
Fraction y = x;  
Fraction z = x;  
{  
    Fraction t = x;  
}  
y = null;  
z = new Fraction(4, 7);
```

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We can destroy the object itself (indirectly) by **orphaning** it:

```
Fraction x = new Fraction(3, 5);  
Fraction y = x;  
Fraction y = new Fraction(4, 7);  
x = null;
```

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4.3.1 Accessors and Mutators

Key points to remember:

- A class has attributes and methods
- The object's state is held in the attributes
- Implementers make all non-final attributes **private** and provide accessors and mutators to enable clients to access the state.
- Accessors provide read-only access
- Mutators allow clients to mutate the state

See the `type.lib.Item` class

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4.3.2 Objects with static features

Some features (attributes and/or methods) in a class can be **static**. Such features:

- stay in the class
- Are shared by all instances
- Should be invoked on the class, **not** on the object reference (even though the compiler tolerates the latter).

See `isQuoted` in `type.lib.Fraction`.

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```
Fraction f = new Fraction(3, 2);
System.out.println(f.toProperString());
f.isQuoted = false;
System.out.println(f.toProperString());
```

The output:

```
"1 1/2"
1 1/2
```

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```
Fraction f = new Fraction(3, 2);
f.isQuoted = true;

Fraction g = new Fraction(5, 2);
g.isQuoted = false;

System.out.println(f.toProperString());
System.out.println(g.toProperString());
```

The output:

```
1 1/2
2 1/2
```

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4.3.3 Objects with final features

Some features (attributes and/or methods) in a class can be **final**. Such features cannot be changed by a client of the class. Specifically:

- Final fields are constants (the client cannot modify their values)
- Final methods cannot be overridden (more on this in Chapter 9)

Question: Why are final fields typically static?

(The answer is in Section 4.3.3 of the textbook)

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