

Polymorphism

- Literally: the ability to assume *many forms*
- OOP idea: a superclass reference can refer to many types of subclass objects
 - Each object may behave differently – if subclasses override methods
- Imagine a Shape class with a draw() method
 - Then subclasses Circle, Triangle, ... all override draw()
- Depends on dynamic method binding
 - i.e., actual method is chosen at execution-time
 - A.k.a. late-binding – unlike static or final methods

Overriding object methods

- All Java classes inherit methods from Object
 - But Object implementation is crude, so override
- toString() – “classname@hashCode” in Object
 - e.g., to override in BankAccount:

```
public String toString()
{ return "BankAccount[balance="+balance+"]"; }
```
- equals(Object other) – same object in Object
 - Usually want to change to same contents
 - And means should also override hashCode()
- clone() – Object makes a shallow copy
 - i.e., just copies references of instance variables

Further abstraction

- Abstract classes
 - have one or more abstract methods,
 - e.g.,

```
abstract class Shape { ...
    abstract void draw();
    ... }
```
 - Subclasses of Shape *must* implement draw()
 - Cannot instantiate – not concrete classes, so no such object
 - But often have constructor for subclass constructors to invoke
 - i.e., all Shape objects are objects of one of Shape's subclasses
 - Can refer to objects as Shape – then know they can draw()
 - e.g., Shape Demo from old CS 5JA class
- Subclasses inherit implementation *and* interface

Interfaces (completely abstract)

- A Java interface has no implementation at all
 - interface: defines the messages a class responds to if the class implements the interface
 - e.g., “... implements Comparable” means the class responds to compareTo(Object other);
- e.g., don't extend Shape, implement Drawable:

```
interface Drawable
{ void draw(Graphics g); }
```
- A class may implement multiple interfaces
 - Not really “is a” – more aptly “can refer to as a” – e.g.:
 - class Box implements Drawable, Comparable
 - Now can use Drawable or Comparable reference with a Box

```
Box b = ...; Drawable d = b; d.draw(g);
```

More on interfaces

- All methods are public abstract – omit explicit modifiers by convention
- Constants okay too
 - All public static final – omitted by convention
 - Must be initialized when declared, of course
- Can extend, just like classes
 - But okay to extend more than one:

```
public interface SerializableRunnable
    extends java.io.Serializable, Runnable
```
- Tend to be much more flexible than classes
 - So they are the basis of many “design patterns” (CS 50 topic)

Abstraction/inheritance notes

- Encapsulate common traits by superclasses
 - Use polymorphism to affect uniqueness
- “Program to the interface” (not the implementation)
 - i.e., practice information hiding – *what* a class does is important, *not how* it does it
 - Best just to share the Javadocs with other programmers!
 - So it's no big deal if implementation changes
- Sometimes “is a” not best – too much coupling
 - Try “has a” instead (composition, not inheritance)
 - Or pure interface approach – [Measurable.java](#) (p. 389) [Decoupling with an interface](#) (Chapter 9, Figure 1)

Nested classes and interfaces

- Okay to define a class (or interface) inside another class (or interface)
 - Good for grouping logically related types
- Static nested class – work just like non-nested
 - Can extend, or be extended like any other class
 - e.g., private class Entry in `java.util.LinkedList.java`
- Inner class – non-static nested type
 - Objects are *associated with an instance* of outer type
 - the “enclosing object”
 - Both classes can share data – even `private`

More nested classes/interfaces

- Local inner classes – inside methods (or other blocks)
 - Not members of the class – local to the block
 - May access any fields – but just final local variables
 - See implementation of `Measurer.java` (p. 398-402)
 - [Even more decoupling](#) (Chapter 9, Figure 2)
- Can even have anonymous inner classes
 - Extend a class or implement existing interface
 - Easily applicable to `RectangleMeasurer` example

Exception handling

- *Necessary* for reading/writing most streams
 - Also for using threads, networks, ...
- And best way to treat *exceptional* situations
- Basic idea – if a method detects an exceptional situation, the method either handles it or throws it to a competent handler
 - Throwing sends it to the caller (next on stack). Then caller can throw it again, or handle it, and so on.
 - Handling an exception means catching it, and doing something about it

What is an **Exception**?

- Ans: instance of `Exception` (or one of its subclasses)
 - Specific feature: an object you can `throw`
 - Purpose: to signal an exceptional situation
 - Effect: terminates and writes message – *unless* you catch it on the way up the call chain
- Some exceptions are checked by the compiler
 - These *must* be handled or the method must declare it throws the exception in the header
 - Includes `IOException` and subclasses
 - Note: the most typical exceptions are unchecked

Easy to define a new exception

- First note: lots of good exceptions ready to use ([API](#))
- Or can easily define new by extending existing one

```
public class MyException extends RuntimeException
{ // Note: a RuntimeException is unchecked – so is often a good choice
    public MyException(String message)
    { super(message); }
}
```
- Now okay to throw new `MyException("...");`
or `catch(MyException e) { ... }`

try

- Denotes blocks of code that might throw exceptions
- Usually followed by one or more catch clauses
 - These identify the exceptions they will catch
 - Are checked in order – just one will execute
 - Exception hierarchy is important – always check subclasses first, or superclass will catch it first
- Also **finally** – optional clause always executes

```
try { ... // something that might throw exception }
catch(exception-type et) { ... }
catch(different-exception-type det) { ... }
finally { ... // executes no matter what }
```