

Programming Languages and Techniques (CIS120)

Lecture 21

Transition to Java

Announcements

- HW05: GUI programming
 - Due: **Tomorrow** at 11:59:59pm
- HW06: Pennstagram
 - Available soon
 - Due: Tuesday, November 5th at 11:59:59pm
 - Java programming
- Java Bootcamp!!
 - Wednesday, 6-8 pm
 - Towne 100

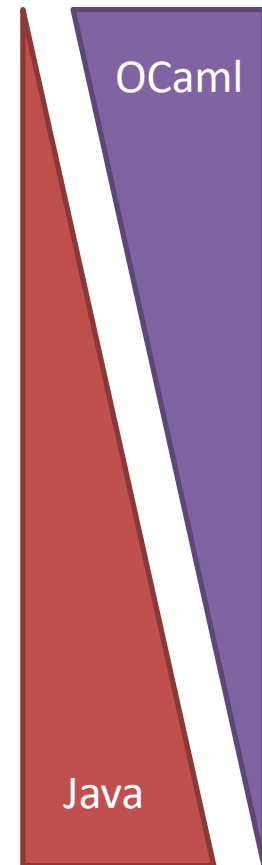
Goodbye OCaml...
...Hello Java!

Smoothing the transition

- Java Bootcamp!
 - Wednesday, 6-8 pm, Towne 100
- General advice for the next few lectures: Ask questions, but don't stress about the details until you need them.
- Java resources:
 - Our lecture notes
 - CIS 110 website and textbook
 - Online Java textbook (<http://math.hws.edu/javanotes/>) linked from “CIS 120 Resources” on course website
 - Penn Library: Electronic access to “Java in a Nutshell” (and all other O'Reilly books)
 - Piazza

CIS 120 Overview

- Declarative (Functional) programming
 - *persistent* data structures
 - *recursion* is main control structure
 - frequent use of functions as data
- Imperative programming
 - *mutable* data structures (that can be modified “in place”)
 - *iteration* is main control structure
- Object-oriented (and reactive) programming
 - mutable data structures / iteration
 - heavy use of functions (objects) as data
 - pervasive “abstraction by default”



Java and OCaml together

Stephanie Weirich, Penn Prof. (CIS 120 co-developer, major contributor to Haskell)

Guy Steele, one of the principal designers of Java



Xavier Leroy, one of the principal designers of OCaml



Moral: Java and OCaml are not so far apart...

Recap: The Functional Style

- Core ideas:
 - immutable (persistent / declarative) data structures
 - recursion (and iteration) over tree structured data
 - functions as data
 - generic types for flexibility (i.e. ‘a list)
 - abstract types to preserve invariants (i.e. BSTs)
 - *simple model of computation (substitution)*
- Good for:
 - elegant descriptions of complex algorithms and/or data
 - small-scale compositional design
 - “symbol processing” programs (compilers, theorem provers, etc.)
 - parallelism, concurrency, and distribution

Functional programming



- Immutable lists primitive, tail recursion
- Datatypes and pattern matching for tree structured data
- First-class functions, transform and fold
- Generic types
- Abstract types through module signatures



- No primitive data structures, no tail recursion
- Trees must be encoded by objects, mutable by default
- First-class functions less common*
- Generic types
- Abstract types through public/private modifiers

*completely unsupported until recently (Java 8)

OCaml vs. Java for FP




```
type 'a tree =
  | Empty
  | Node of ('a tree) * 'a * ('a tree)

let is_empty (t:'a tree) : bool =
  begin match t with
  | Empty -> true
  | _      -> false
  end

let t : int tree = Node(Empty,3,Empty)
let ans : bool = is_empty t
```

OCaml provides a succinct, clean notation for working with generic, immutable, tree-structured data. Java requires a lot more "boilerplate".



```
interface Tree<A> {
  public boolean isEmpty();
}

class Empty<A> implements Tree<A> {
  public boolean isEmpty() {
    return true;
  }
}

class Node<A> implements Tree<A> {
  private final A v;
  private final Tree<A> lt;
  private final Tree<A> rt;

  Node(Tree<A> lt, A v, Tree<A> rt) {
    this.lt = lt; this.rt = rt; this.v = v;
  }

  public boolean isEmpty() {
    return false;
  }
}

class Program {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Tree<Integer> t =
      new Node<Integer>(new Empty<Integer>(),
        3, new Empty<Integer>());
    boolean ans = t.isEmpty();
  }
}
```

Other Popular Functional Languages



F#: Most similar to OCaml,
Shares libraries with C#



Haskell (CIS 552)
Purity + laziness



Swift
iOS programming



Clojure
Dynamically typed
Runs on JVM



Racket: LISP descendant;
widely used in education



Scala
Java / OCaml hybrid

Recap: The imperative style

- Core ideas:
 - computation as change of state over time
 - distinction between primitive and reference values
 - aliasing
 - linked data-structures and iteration control structure
 - generic types for flexibility (i.e. 'a queue)
 - abstract types to preserve invariants (i.e. queue invariant)
 - *Abstract Stack Machine model of computation*
- Good for:
 - numerical simulations
 - implicit coordination between components (queues, GUI)
 - explicit interaction with hardware

Imperative programming



- No null. Partiality must be made explicit with **options**.
- Code is an **expression** that has a value. Sometimes computing that value has other effects.
- References are **immutable** by default, must be explicitly declared to be mutable



- Most types have a **null** element. Partial functions can return **null**.
- Code is a sequence of **statements** that have effects, sometimes using expressions to compute values.
- References are **mutable** by default, must be explicitly declared to be constant

Explicit vs. Implicit Partiality



OCaml identifiers

- Cannot be changed once created; only mutable fields can change

```
type 'a ref = { mutable contents: 'a }  
let x = { contents = counter () }  
;; x.contents <- counter ()
```

- Cannot be null, must use options

```
let y = { contents = Some (counter ()) }  
;; y.contents <- None
```

- Accessing the value requires pattern matching

```
;; match y.contents with  
| None -> failwith "NPE"  
| Some c -> c.inc ()
```



Java variables

- Can be assigned to after initialization

```
Counter x = new Counter ();  
x = new Counter ();
```

- Can always be null

```
Counter y = new Counter ();  
y = null;
```

- Check for null is implicit whenever a variable is used

```
y.inc();
```

- If null is used as if it were an object (i.e. for a method call) then a **NullPointerException** occurs

The Billion Dollar Mistake

"I call it my billion-dollar mistake. It was the invention of the null reference in 1965. ... This has led to innumerable errors, vulnerabilities, and system crashes, which have probably caused a billion dollars of pain and damage in the last forty years. "

Sir Tony Hoare, QCon, London 2009



Java Core Language

differences between OCaml and Java

Structure of a Program



- All code lives in (perhaps implicitly named) **modules**.
- Modules may contain multiple **type definitions**, **let-bound value declarations**, and top-level **expressions** that are executed in the order they are encountered.



- All code lives in explicitly named **classes**.
- Classes are themselves types.
- Classes contain **field declarations** and **method definitions**.
- There is a single "entry point" of the program where it starts running, which must be a method called `main`.

Expressions vs. Statements

- OCaml is an *expression language*

- Every program phrase is an expression (and returns a value)
- The special value () of type `unit` is used as the result of expressions that are evaluated only for their side effects
- Semicolon is an *operator* that combines two expressions (where the left-hand one returns type `unit`)



- Java is a *statement language*

- Two-sorts of program phrases: expressions (which compute values) and statements (which don't)
- Statements are *terminated* by semicolons
- Any expression can be used as a statement (but not vice-versa)



Types

- As in OCaml, every Java *expression* has a type
- The type describes the value that an expression computes

Expression form	Example	Type
Variable reference	<code>x</code>	Declared type of variable
Object creation	<code>new Counter ()</code>	Class of the object
Method call	<code>c.inc()</code>	Return type of method
Equality test	<code>x == y</code>	boolean
Assignment	<code>x = 5</code>	<i>don't use as an expression!!</i>

Type System Organization

	OCaml	Java
<i>primitive types</i> (values stored “directly” in the stack)	int, float, char, bool, ...	int, float, double, char, boolean, ...
structured types (a.k.a. <i>reference types</i> — values stored in the heap)	tuples, datatypes, records, functions, arrays <i>(objects encoded as records of functions)</i>	objects, arrays <i>(records, tuples, datatypes, strings, first-class functions are special cases of classes)</i>
<i>generics</i>	‘a list	List<A>
<i>abstract types</i>	module types (signatures)	interfaces public/private modifiers

Arithmetic & Logical Operators

OCaml	Java	
<code>=, ==</code>	<code>==</code>	equality test
<code><>, !=</code>	<code>!=</code>	inequality
<code>>, >=, <, <=</code>	<code>>, >=, <, <=</code>	comparisons
<code>+</code>	<code>+</code>	addition (and string concatenation)
<code>-</code>	<code>-</code>	subtraction (and unary minus)
<code>*</code>	<code>*</code>	multiplication
<code>/</code>	<code>/</code>	division
<code>mod</code>	<code>%</code>	remainder (modulus)
<code>not</code>	<code>!</code>	logical “not”
<code>&&</code>	<code>&&</code>	logical “and” (short-circuiting)
<code> </code>	<code> </code>	logical “or” (short-circuiting)

Java: Operator Overloading

- The *meaning* of an operator in Java is determined by the *types* of the values it operates on:
 - Integer division
 $4/3 \Rightarrow 1$
 - Floating point division
 $4.0/3.0 \Rightarrow 1.3333333333333333$
 - Automatic conversion from int to float
 $4/3.0 \Rightarrow 1.3333333333333333$
- Overloading is a general mechanism in Java
 - we'll see more of it later

Equality

- like OCaml, Java has two ways of testing reference types for equality:

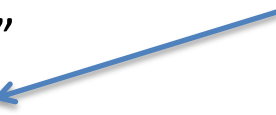
- “pointer equality”

- `o1 == o2`

- “deep equality”

- `o1.equals(o2)`

every object provides an “equals” method that should “do the right thing” depending on the class of the object



- Normally, you should use `==` to compare primitive types and “`.equals`” to compare objects

Strings

- `String` is a *built in* Java class
- Strings are sequences of (unicode) characters
`" "` `"Java"` `"3 Stooges"` `"富士山"`
- `+` means String concatenation (overloaded)
`"3" + " " + "Stooges" ⇒ "3 Stooges"`
- Text in a String is immutable (like OCaml)
 - but variables that store strings are not
 - `String x = "OCaml";`
 - `String y = x;`
 - Can't do anything to `x` so that `y` changes
- The `.equals` method returns true when two strings contain the same sequence of characters

What is the value of *ans* at the end of this program?

```
String x = "CIS 120";  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = x.equals(z);
```

true

false

NullPointerException

What is the value of ans at the end of this program?

```
String x = "CIS 120";  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = x.equals(z);
```

1. true
2. false
3. NullPointerException

Answer: true

This is the preferred method of comparing strings!

What is the value of *ans* at the end of this program?

```
String x1 = "CIS ";  
String x2 = "120";  
String x = x1 + x2;  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = (x == z);
```

true

false

NullPointerException

What is the value of ans at the end of this program?

```
String x1 = "CIS ";  
String x2 = "120";  
String x = x1 + x2;  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = (x == z);
```

1. true
2. false
3. NullPointerException

Answer: false

Even though x and z both contain the characters "CIS 120", they are stored in two different locations in the heap.

What is the value of *ans* at the end of this program?

```
String x = "CIS 120";  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = (x == z);
```

true

false

NullPointerException

What is the value of ans at the end of this program?

```
String x = "CIS 120";  
String z = "CIS 120";  
boolean ans = (x == z);
```

1. true
2. false
3. NullPointerException

Answer: true(!)

Why? Since strings are immutable, two identical strings that are known when the program is compiled can be aliased by the compiler (to save space).

Moral

Always use `s1.equals(s2)` to compare strings!

Compare strings with respect to their content, not where they happen to be allocated in memory...

Object Oriented Programming

Recap: The OO Style

- Core ideas:
 - objects (state encapsulated with operations)
 - dynamic dispatch (“receiver” of method call determines behavior)
 - classes (“templates” for object creation)
 - subtyping (grouping object types by common functionality)
 - inheritance (creating new classes from existing ones)
- Good for:
 - GUIs!
 - complex software systems that include many different implementations of the same “interface” (set of operations) with different behaviors
 - Simulations
 - designs with an explicit correspondence between “objects” in the computer and things in the real world

"Objects" in OCaml

```
(* The type of counter objects *)
type counter = {
  inc  : unit -> int;
  dec  : unit -> int;
}

(* Create a counter "object" *)
let new_counter () : counter =
  let r = {contents = 0} in
  {
    inc = (fun () ->
      r.contents <- r.contents + 1;
      r.contents);
    dec = (fun () ->
      r.contents <- r.contents - 1;
      r.contents)
  }
```

Why is this an object?

- *Encapsulated local state* only visible to the methods of the object
- Object is *defined by what it can do*—local state does not appear in the interface
- There is a way to *construct* new object values that behave similarly

OO terminology

- *Object*: a structured collection of encapsulated *fields* (aka *instance variables*) and *methods*
- *Class*: a template for creating objects
- The class of an object specifies...
 - the types and initial values of its local state (fields)
 - the set of operations that can be performed on the object (methods)
 - one or more *constructors*: code that is executed when the object is created (optional)
- Every (Java) object is an *instance* of some class

OO programming

OCaml (part we've seen)

- Explicitly create objects using a record of higher order functions and hidden state
- Flexibility through **composition**: objects can only implement one interface

```
type button =  
  widget *  
  label_controller *  
  notifier_controller
```

Java (and C, C++, C#)

- Primitive notion of object creation (classes, with fields, methods and constructors)
- Flexibility through **extension**: **Subtyping** allows related objects to share a common interface

```
class Button extends Widget {  
  /* Button is a subtype  
  of Widget */  
}
```

Objects in Java

```
public class Counter {
```

class name

```
private int r;
```

instance variable

```
public Counter () {  
    r = 0;  
}
```

constructor

```
public int inc () {  
    r = r + 1;  
    return r;  
}
```

methods

```
public int dec () {  
    r = r - 1;  
    return r;  
}
```

class declaration



object creation and use



```
public class Main {
```

```
public static void  
main (String[] args) {
```

constructor invocation

```
Counter c = new Counter();
```

```
System.out.println( c.inc() );
```

method call

```
}
```

Encapsulating local state

```
public class Counter {
```

```
    private int r;
```

```
    public Counter () {  
        r = 0;  
    }
```

```
    public int inc () {  
        r = r + 1;  
        return r;  
    }
```

```
    public int dec () {  
        r = r - 1;  
        return r;  
    }  
}
```

r is *private*

constructor and
methods can
refer to r

```
public class Main {
```

```
    public static void  
    main (String[] args) {
```

```
        Counter c = new Counter();
```

```
        System.out.println( c.inc() );
```

```
    }  
}
```

other parts of the
program can only access
public members

method call

Encapsulating local state

- Visibility modifiers make the state local by controlling access
- Basically:
 - **public** : accessible from anywhere in the program
 - **private** : only accessible inside the class
- Design pattern — first cut:
 - Make *all* fields private
 - Make constructors and non-helper methods public

(Java offers a couple of other protection levels — “protected” and “package protected”. The details are not important at this point.)