INHERITANCE



- Today we will look into more detail about classes in Java.
- In particular we will look at subclasses and inheritance.
- We'll also talk about interfaces.



• Again, and likely for the last time, lots of this material is drawn from *Java in a Nutshell*, David Flanagan, O'Reilly ...

```
Recap
  • Recall the class Circle from last lecture.
    public class Circle{
        private Point location;
       private double radius
    }
  • And recall that it had a sub-class PCircle.
    public class PCircle extends Circle{
    }
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```

• PCircle is a sub-class of Circle

• Circle is a superclass of PCircle.

• Clearly we can define references to both Circle and PCircle.

```
PCircle pc;
Circle c;
```

• What is less obvious is that this:

```
c = pc;
```

is legal without casting.

- Since every PCircle is a Circle, no conversion is necessary.
- This is one of the neat things that class/subclass relationships allow us to do.

Class Hierarchy

- Superclass and subclass relationships form a *class hierarchy*.
- Every class you define has a superclass.
- If you don't specify a superclass with the extends keyword, then java.lang.Object is the superclass.
- java.lang.Object is the only Java class without a superclass.
- Every object inherits from java.lang.Object.





- Java makes sure that the constructor for a class is called whenever an object of that class is created.
- Java also makes sure that the constructor is called whenever an object of a subclass is called.
- If the first line of a constructor does not invoke a constructor with:
 - -this();or
 - -super()

Java will insert the call super (), the constructor with no arguments.

- When we create a PCircle, it will call the constructor above.
- This explicitly calls the constructor for Circle using super().
- That call implicitly calls super() itself, this time to run the constructor for Object.
- The constructor for Object runs, then the body of the constructor for Circle.
- Finally the constructor for PCircle runs.
- Constructor calls are thus *chained*.

- Q: What happens if a class does not have a constructor defined?
- A: Java creates one which is just a call to super(), the no argument version of the constructor for the superclass.

Finalizer chaining

- Finalizers do *not* chain.
- If a class finalizer wants to invoke the finalizer of its superclass, it must do so with:

```
super.finalize();
```

Hiding fields

- Circle hs a field radius.
- Imagine that we add a field radius to PCircle as well. (This is contrived, but this kind of naming issue does arise).
- How can we refer to the two fields radius from within PCircle so that we get the one we want?
- radius refers to the one in PCircle.
- this.radius refers to the one in PCircle
- super.radius refers to the one in Circle
- So, super, once again, can be used to refer to the superclass.

• You can also refer to Circle like this:

```
((Circle) this).radius
```

• Here we cast the this reference to be of type Circle.

• You can think of this as making this refer to the Circle part of the class.

- This technique allows us to refer to more than just the superclass.
- Imagine we have classes A, B and C, all with a field x.
- A is the superclass of B, and B is the superclass of C

• Within C:

- $\mathbf x$ refers to the field in $\mathbf C$
- this.x refers to the field in $\ensuremath{\mathtt{C}}$
- ${\tt super.x}$ refers to the field in ${\tt B}$
- ((B) this).x refers to the field in B
- ((A) this).x refers to the field in A
- Note that super.super.x is not legal.

Overriding constructors

- *Hiding* is when a subclass has a field with the same name as a superclass field.
- *Overriding* is when a subclass has a method with the same name as superclass method.
- Unlike hiding, this happens a *lot*
- Typically this is because we want to refine the way the method works to take advantage of the additional fields in the subclass.

A more complex example

• The rest of this lecture uses the Fox/Rabbit example which you can download from the course website.

- The whole example is in a file EcoSystem.zip

- We want a model with several kinds of thing (rabbits and foxes) which have some common features:
 - location in space
 - ability to move
 - color
- So, rather than duplicate code, we create a class hierarchy.

```
public abstract class Animal{
       private Point location;
       protected AnimalColor myColor;
       public setLocationX(int x) {
           location.setX(x);
       move(){
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```

- Since Animal has a private field location, it provides an API for it.
- This API uses the API for Point (Point is the same class we defined before).
- Here we only show the function to set the x coordinate, but there would be a function to set the y coordinate and functions to get the values of both x and y.
- We might also have a default implementation of the move function.

```
public class Rabbit extends Animal{
}
public class Fox extends Animal{
}
```

- Both of these subclasses provide their own implementation of move(), overriding the version in Animal.
- Note that in Java you cannot call the move() method in Animal from Rabbit.

```
• If we use:
```

```
((Animal) this).move();
```

```
we will just get the version for Rabbit.
```

• This is a *feature*.

- It is an example of *polymorphism*, the idea that you can use the same code to get different effects depening on what kind of object you pass it.
- For example, you can write code that takes a set of Animals as input, and calls move on each of them.
- The Foxes will move like Foxes (using the Fox move).
- The Rabbits will move like Rabbits
- You'll get to do this in the lab and the homework.

Access control

- Access control is to do with the way that fields and methods are called.
- We have seen that public fields and methods are accessible from outside the object/class.
- While private fields and methods are only accessible from inside the the object/class.
- Java is very strict with the notion of private.
- The field location in Animal is only accessible from within Animal.
 - It is not accessible from Rabbit or Fox without using the API.

- If we want a field or method to be directly accessible from a subclass but we don't want it to be public, we can make it protected.
- The field MyColor in Animal is an example.
 - Though I think this would be better as a private field, it serves as an example of protected.

final

```
Java places no limits on the length of the class-subclass chain.
Given a class, we can always create a subclass of it.
EXCEPT, when that class was defined using the modifier final.
Thus:

public final class lastOne extends previousOne {
would prevent anyone from creating a subclass of lastOne.

Many of the Java System classes are final.
```

- You can also define methods with final.
- This prevents them being overridden.
- It also helps to make them run more efficiently since Java doesn't have to check at runtime whether there is another version of the method that needs to be called.
- We have also already seen what using final does for a field. (Basically turns the field into a constant).

Abstract classes As we have discussed it so far, Animal is there to have subclasses made from it. making an instance of Animal doesn't make a lot of sense. We can formalise this by making it *abstract*: public abstract class Animal {

```
}
```

• Once it is abstract, it is not possible to make instances of it.

- There is also the concept of an abstract method.
- In our EcoSystem, all the species (sub-classes of Animal will define their own way of moving.
 - Nobody will call the version of move in Animal
- We could just define a version in Animal with a blank body, but it is neater to make it abstract:

```
public abstract void move();
```

• Note that an abstract method has no body, just a semicolon.

- Note also that an abstract method can only be defined for a class that is abstract.
- An abstract method is thus like a pure virtual method in C++ in that it forces a class that contains it to be abstract.

Interfaces • An interface is defined rather like a class: public interface Predator{ void eat(); • Though it only contains methods (no fields) and all the methods are abstract.

• One important thing about interfaces is that you can create references of that type:

```
Predator p = new Predator();
```

- You can also allow classes to be of the interface type.
 - This gives some of the advantages of multiple-inheritance.

• We associate classes with interfaces by having a class *implement* the interface:

```
public class Rabbit extends Animal
    implements Predator{
```

}

• With this declaration, Rabbit has to provide a definition for all the functions in the Predator interface.

– If it doesn't, the class must be asbtract

• But it now allows us to refer to a Rabbit using a Predator reference:

```
Rabbit r = new Rabbit();
p = r;
```

• Another way to include polymorphism.

• A class can implement many interfaces.

- Note that there are cases where it is unclear whether something should be an abstract class or an interface.
 - If an abstract class has no data fields and no non-abstract functions, it will look a lot like an interface.
- If this is the case, a common solution is to define *both*.
- First write the interface.
- Then write an abstract class that provides default implementations of some of the methods in the interface.

Summary

- This lecture looked in more detail at subclasses and inheritance. We looked at:
 - hiding,
 - overriding, and
 - polymorphism.
- It also covered some other topics:
 - abstract classes, and
 - interfaces
- This ends the part of the course that it *about* Java specifically.
- Next week we will move on to talk about more general topics and illustrate them using Java.