

Lecture 8

Exam preparation

Exam tips & tricks

- Q: How are the exams graded?
- A: $\sum_{i=1}^{qs} \max(0, \text{maxpoints}_i - \text{deductions}_i)$
 - Deductions are made for (including but not limited to):
 - Wrong answers
 - Type errors
 - Significantly overcomplicated solutions
 - Deductions are **NOT** made for (unless explicitly specified):
 - Minor syntax errors
 - Lack of comments
 - Lack of error handling
 - Slow solutions

Exam tips & tricks

- Q: What do I do if I realize that I need to insert some more code in the middle of my solution?
- A: Draw a box with your code, with an arrow pointing to where you want to insert it.

```
int sum = 0;
for(int i = 1; i < max; i++) {
    sum += i;
}
System.out.println(sum);
```



```
Scanner scan = new Scanner(System.in);
int max = scan.nextInt();
```

Exam tips & tricks

- Q: Do I need to include x?
- `X = import` statements: no
- `X = comments`: no
- `X = error checking`: only if explicitly asked
- `X = { braces }`: yes, but we'll be lenient about it
- `X = indentation`: **YES!**
- `X = assumptions` (if question is unclear): **YES!**

Exam tips & tricks

- Read through the entire exam before you start working!
 - This will help you plan your time
- Write down any questions about the exam on a scrap paper!
 - This will help you remember to ask them when I drop by at 9 AM
 - My next visit isn't until 11 AM!

Exceptions

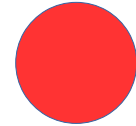
An **exception** is an event, which occurs during the execution of a program, that disrupts the normal flow of the program's instructions.
(Definition from <https://docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/essential/exceptions/definition.html>)

We can **catch** exceptions in order to handle them gracefully.

If an exception happens and is not caught, then the program crashes.

Catching Exceptions

```
try {  
    block 0  
} catch (ExceptionType1 varName1) {  
    block 1  
} catch (ExceptionType2 varName2) {  
    block 2  
} ... catch (ExceptionTypen varNamen) {  
    block n  
} finally {  
    block n+1  
}
```



- 1) Block 0 is executed.
- 2) If no exception occurs: block n+1 is executed.
- 3) If an exception of type `ExceptionType` occurs while executing block 1, then the exception is stored in the variable (“caught”), and block 2 is executed, then block n+1 is executed.
- 4) If an exception of another type occurs, block n+1 is executed, then the exception is thrown to the calling method.
(If this is in `main`: the program crashes.)

The part **finally** { block n+1 } is optional

Throwing Exceptions

```
throw new IllegalArgumentException();
```

The *type* of exception to throw

We create a *new* exception
to throw

Throwing an exception:
stop execution and jump
to closest `catch` block.

Exception control flow

- Prerequisite knowledge: Ariadne and Theseus



Exception control flow

- “Closest” catch block?

```
public static void A() {  
    try {  
        B();  
    } catch (IllegalStateException e) {  
        // do something useful here  
    }  
}
```

```
public static void B() {  
    C();  
}
```

```
public static void C() {  
    try {  
        D();  
    } catch (IllegalStateException e) {  
        // do something useful here  
    }  
}
```

```
public static void D() {  
    throw new IllegalStateException();  
}
```

Exception control flow

- “Closest” catch block?

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```

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    throw new IllegalStateException();  
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```

void main(String[] args)

* = contains a catch block

Exception control flow

- “Closest” catch block?

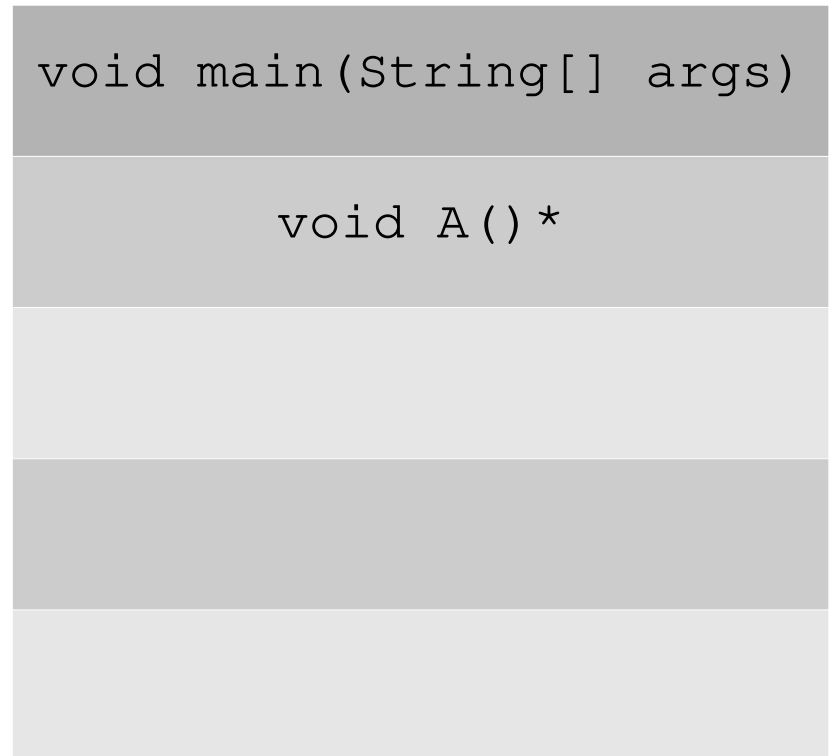
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public static void B() {  
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Exception control flow

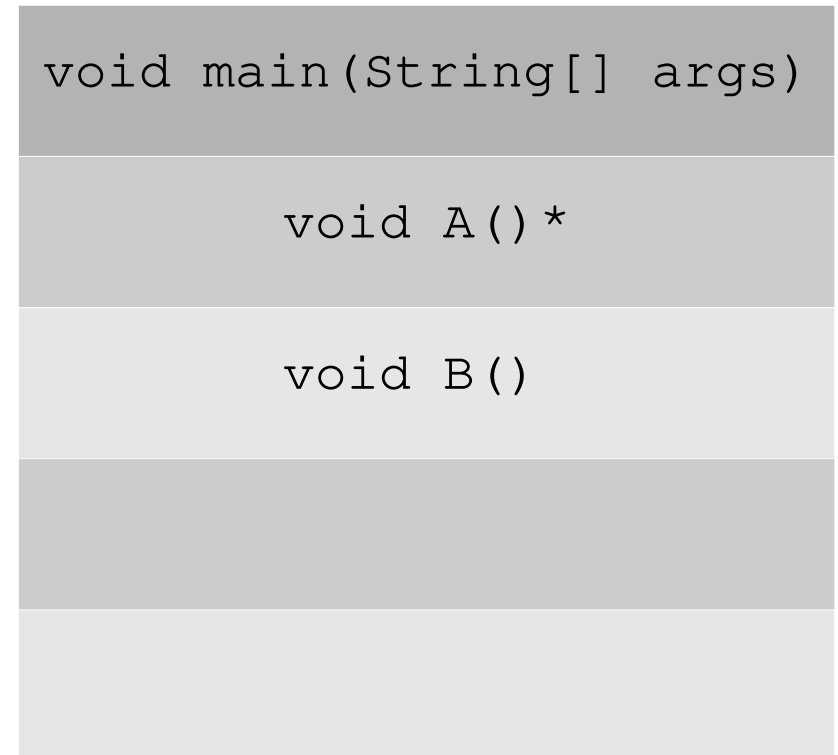
- “Closest” catch block?

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Exception control flow

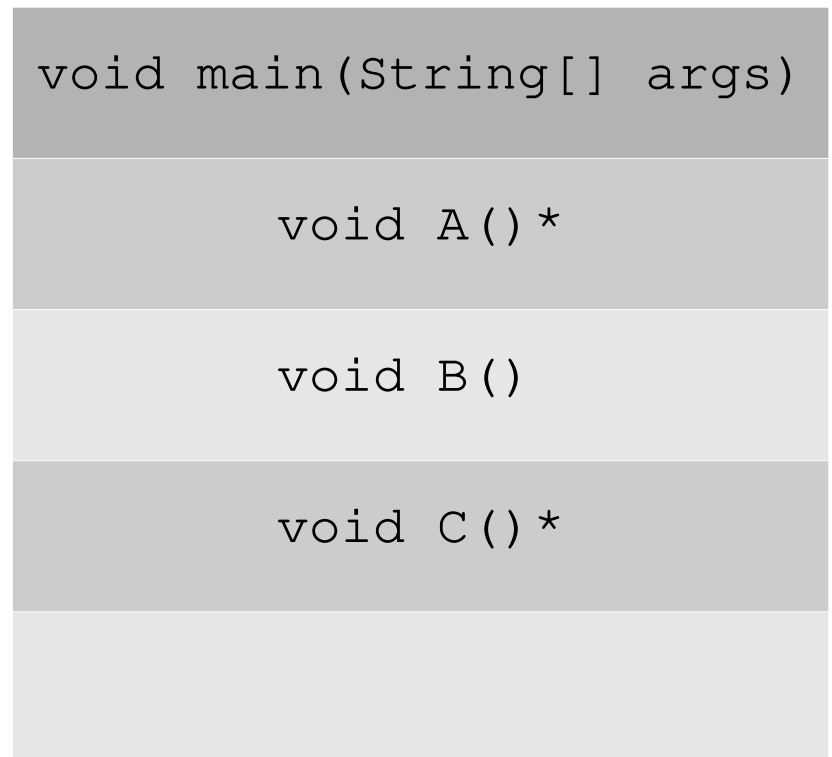
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    }  
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```

```
public static void D() {  
    throw new IllegalStateException();  
}
```

void main(String[] args)

void A() *

void B()

void C() *

void D()

* = contains a catch block

Exception control flow

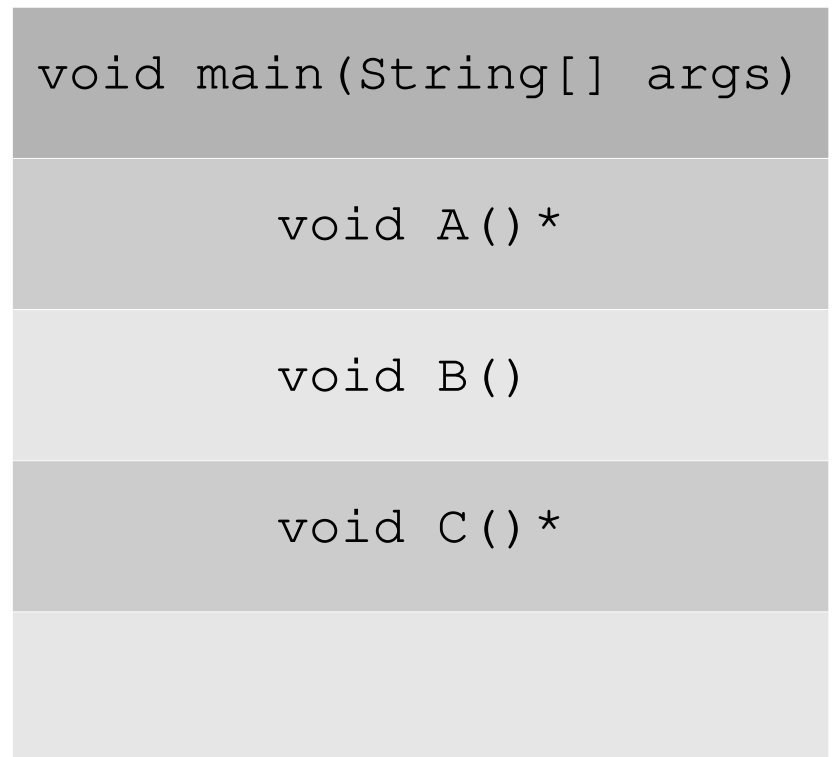
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public static void D() {  
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Exception control flow

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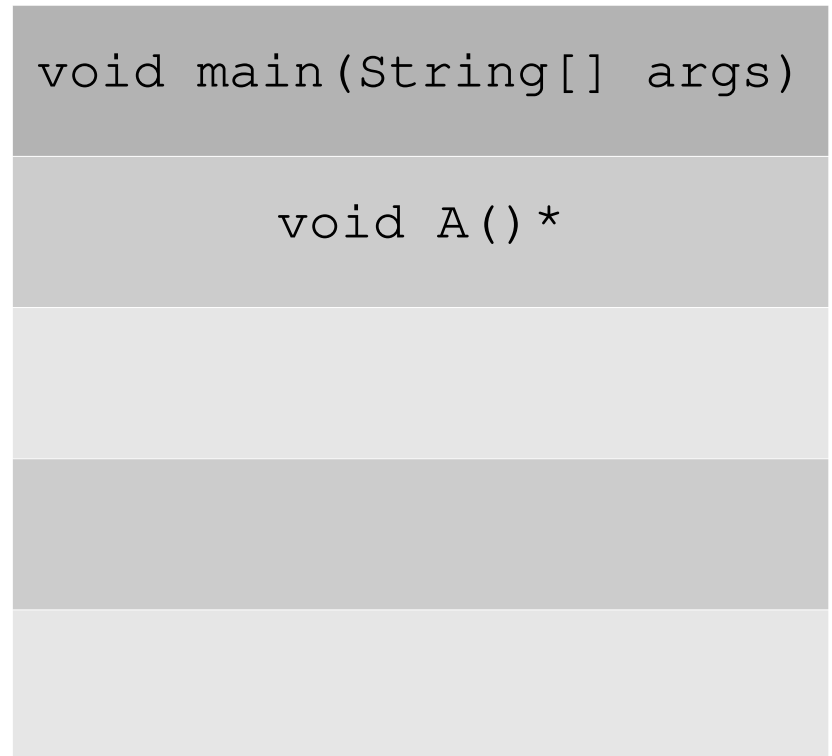
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* = contains a catch block

Exception control flow

- “Closest” catch block?

```
public static void A() {
```

Closest catch block = the catch block we arrive at first when “following the thread out of the labyrinth”.

```
public static void B() {  
    C();  
}
```

```
public static void C() {  
    try {  
        D();  
    } catch (IllegalStateException e) {  
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}
```

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public static void D() {  
    throw new IllegalStateException();  
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```
void main(String[] args)
```

```
void A() *
```

```
void B()
```

```
void C() *
```

```
void D()
```

* = contains a catch block

Throwing Exceptions

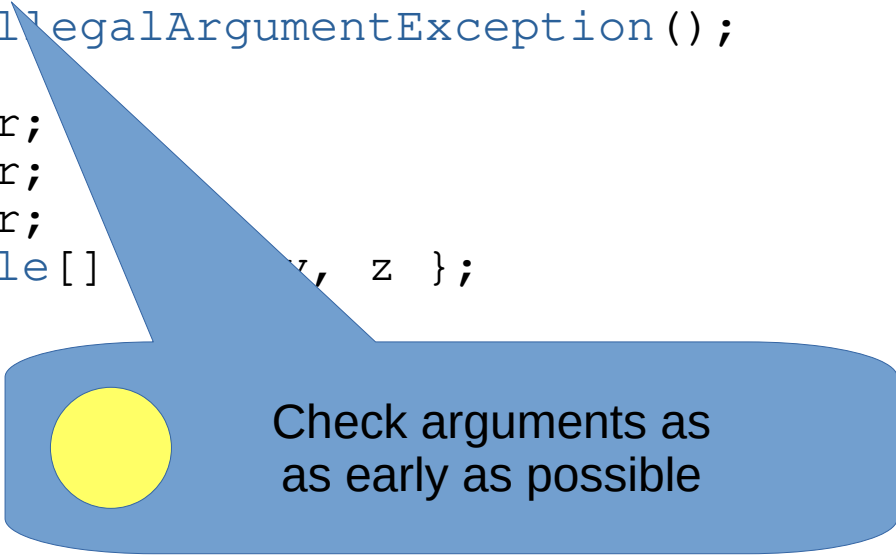
- Common use case: checking method arguments

```
public static double[] divide(double[] a, double divisor) {  
    double x, y, z;  
    if (Math.abs(divisor) < 0.0001) {  
        throw new IllegalArgumentException();  
    }  
    x = a[0]/divisor;  
    y = a[1]/divisor;  
    z = a[2]/divisor;  
    return new double[] { x, y, z };  
}
```

Throwing Exceptions

- Common use case: checking method arguments

```
public static double[] divide(double[] a, double divisor) {  
    double x, y, z;  
    if (Math.abs(divisor) < 0.0001) {  
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    }  
    x = a[0]/divisor;  
    y = a[1]/divisor;  
    z = a[2]/divisor;  
    return new double[] { x, y, z };  
}
```



Check arguments as
as early as possible

References

- Java has both *primitive types* and *reference types*.
- *Primitive types* represent *single values*:
 - `int`, `char`, `double`, etc.
- *Reference types* represent *collections of values*:
 - `String` (a collection of letters)
 - `int[]` (a collection of ints)
 - `Pony` (a collection of two strings)
 - `HangMan` (a collection of a `HangWord` and an `int`)

References

- Values of primitive types are stored directly in their variables.
 - `int x = 42;` ← Here `x` literally contains the value 42
- Values of reference types are called *objects*, and are stored in *another part of memory*.
- Variables of reference types only contain a *pointer* to the memory where the actual values are stored.
 - `Pony p = new Pony("Aristotle");`
 - Here `p` only contains a pointer – or *reference* – to the memory address where the actual Aristotle pony is stored!
- Why? Because objects can be *very large*, which makes copying them around in memory *very inefficient*.
- A *reference* to an object only takes 8 bytes of memory, so it is very efficient to pass around.

References

- Multiple reference variables can refer to the same object.

```
Pony ponyA = new Pony("Aristotle");  
Pony ponyB = ponyA;
```

- Changes made to `ponyA` will be reflected in `ponyB` – because they refer to *the same object*!

References

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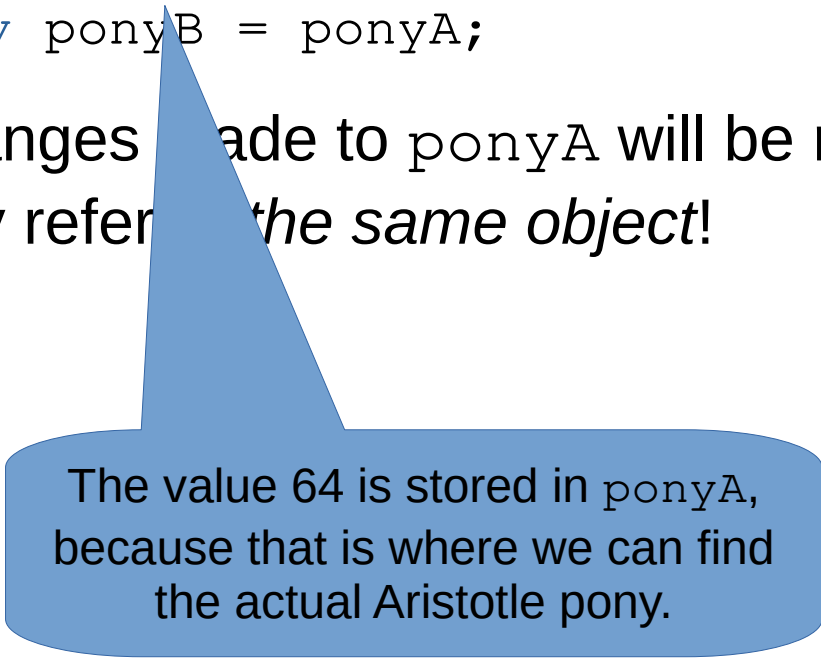
A new pony is created, and stored at
(for instance) memory location 64

References

- Multiple reference variables can refer to the same object.

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Pony ponyA = new Pony("Aristotle");  
Pony ponyB = ponyA;
```

- Changes made to `ponyA` will be reflected in `ponyB` – because they refer to *the same object*!



The value 64 is stored in `ponyA`, because that is where we can find the actual Aristotle pony.

References

- Multiple reference variables can refer to the same object.

```
Pony ponyA = new Pony("Aristotle");  
Pony ponyB = ponyA;
```

- Changes made to ponyA will be reflected in ponyB – because they refer to *the same object*!

The value 64 is copied from ponyA to ponyB.
Now both refer to the same pony!

References

- Equality operator only compares *the references*!
- Two identical objects are **not** equal if they are stored at different memory locations, according to the `==` operator.

```
Pony ponyA = new Pony("Aristotle");  
Pony ponyB = new Pony("Aristotle");  
System.out.println(ponyA == ponyB); // prints "false"
```

- To compare objects, we must use the `equals` method!

```
String a = "hello";  
String b = String.format("hello");  
System.out.println(a == b); // prints "false"  
System.out.println(a.equals(b)); // prints "true"
```

- General idea: compare objects element for element.
- See lecture 6 for details.

References

- Sometimes we want to make an identical copy of an object.
 - Usually because we want to be sure other parts of the program can't make unexpected changes to it.
 - But also because we want to make changes in our copy without affecting other parts of the program.

- For our own classes: create a *copy constructor*!

```
public Pony(Pony original) {  
    this.name = original.name;  
    this.skill = original.skill;  
}
```

- For arrays: copy element by element, or use `clone` method!

```
int[] arr1 = {1, 2, 3};  
int[] arr2 = arr1.clone();  
arr1[0] = 100; // does not affect arr2
```



References

- If your object or array contains other objects, you need to make a *deep copy*!

```
public static Pony[] copyPonies(Pony[] ponies) {  
    Pony[] clones = new Pony[ponies.length];  
    for(int i = 0; i < ponies.length; i++) {  
        clones[i] = new Pony(ponies[i]);  
    }  
    return clones;  
}
```

- You need to make a deep copy of everything that's not:
 - a primitive type; or
 - an *immutable* class.

References

- An *immutable class*:
 - has only `final` fields; and
 - has only fields of primitive types OR other immutable classes.
- Intuition: an object of an immutable class can't be changed after it's created.
- `String` is immutable: all its operations return a new string, none modify the existing object.
- Writing immutable (or partially immutable) classes when possible is good coding style!

Constructors

- A constructor is a special method which initializes an object.
- Returns a reference to the newly created object.
- To call the two argument constructor of the `Pony` class and store the resulting pony in a variable:

```
Pony myPony = new Pony("Socrates", "philosophy");
```

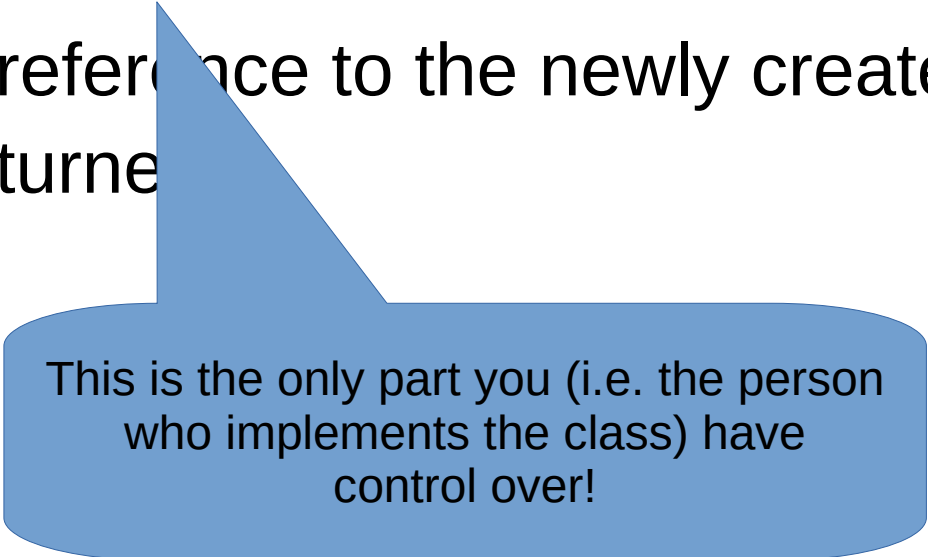
- The purpose of the constructor is to ensure that the newly created object is ready to use.

Constructors

- The creation of an object:
 - The programmer calls `new SomeClass (...)`
 - Java allocates memory for the object's fields
 - Java calls the specified constructor for `SomeClass`
 - The code in the constructor is executed
 - A reference to the newly created object (`this`) is returned

Constructors

- The creation of an object:
 - The programmer calls **new** `SomeClass (...)`
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This is the only part you (i.e. the person who implements the class) have control over!

Constructors

- Constructors are not magic!
- The following will have **no effect**:

```
public Pony(String name) {  
    new Pony(name, "no particular skill");  
}
```

- You are creating a *new* pony and discarding it right away!
- Just as if you did the same in any other method.
- Instead, you need to either *chain* to another constructor, fill in the object's fields yourself, or both.

What's this?



- `this` is a reference to the object we're currently executing a method or constructor on.
- We can access fields and other methods on *the same object* using `this.someMethod(arg1, arg2, ...)` and `this.someField` respectively.
- However, `this` can be omitted!
 - `this.someMethod(arg1, arg2, ...)` and `someMethod(arg1, arg2)` are equivalent!
 - So are `this.someField = 0` and `someField = 0`

What's this?



- There are two cases where `this` is mandatory:
 - Disambiguating between local variables and fields:

```
public class Pony {  
    private String name;  
    ...  
    public Pony(String name) {  
        this.name = name;  
    }  
}
```

- When we want to pass a reference to our object

```
public class Pony {  
    private String name;  
    ...  
    public void addToArray(Pony[] ponies, int i) {  
        ponies[i] = this;  
    }  
}
```

What's this?



- `this` can also refer to *another constructor of the same class*, when used in a constructor.

```
public class Pony {  
    private String name;  
    private String skill;  
  
    public Pony(String name, String skill) {  
        this.name = name;  
        this.skill = skill;  
    }  
  
    public Pony(String name) {  
        this(name, "eating");  
    }  
}
```

- This is called “constructor chaining” - very handy to keep DRY!

To static or not to static

- `static` methods and variables belong to *the class itself*, not objects of the class.
 - There is only a single copy of each `static` method or variable in your whole application.
 - They are accessed using *the class itself*: `ClassName.method()`
- Non-`static` methods and variables (fields) belong to *objects of the class*.
 - They can only be accessed using an object of the class: `object.method()`
 - There is one copy of each non-`static` method and field of a class for each object of that class.
- Non-static methods have access to:
 - `this`
 - Other non-`static` methods and fields
- `static` methods do not.

public VS private

- When a method or field is `public`, it can be accessed from other classes.
 - The methods we make `public` define how we expect the user of our class to interact with it.
- When `private`, it can only be accessed from the class in which it is defined.
 - Always make fields `private`
 - Make helper methods `private`

Boolean expressions

- Logical expressions consist of one or more *truth values* connected by conjunction (`&&`), disjunction (`||`) or negation (`!`).
- Logical expressions are themselves truth values.
- Truth values have the type `boolean`.
- Examples of truth values:
 - Boolean constants: `true`, `false`
 - Comparisons: `x == y`, `z != null`, `a > b`
 - Logical expressions:
 - `(c >= 'a' && c <= 'z') || (c >= 'A' && c <= 'Z')`
 - `!x`

Boolean expressions

- `if`, `while`, etc. accept **ANY** boolean expression
 - `if (x == 5)`
 - `while (y)`
(where `y` has type `boolean`)
 - `if (someMethod(x, y, z))`
(where `someMethod` has return type `boolean`)
 - `if (x == 5 && !y)`
- It does **NOT** have to be a comparison!
- Don't do `if (x == true)`, do `if (x)` instead.
- Don't do `if (x == false)`, do `if (!x)` instead.

Boolean expressions

- There is nothing “magical” about the condition used for `if`, `while`, etc.
- Don't:

```
if(some boolean expression) {  
    return true;  
} else {  
    return false;  
}
```
- Do:

```
return some boolean expression;
```

String.format

- `String` `String.format(String fmt, type1 arg1, type2 arg2, ...)`
- `fmt` is a plain string which may or may not contain *format specifiers*.
- The most basic format specifiers:
 - `%s` – a string
 - `%d` – an integer
 - `%f` – a decimal number
- Format specifiers can be prefixed with a number
 - `%10s` – a string, left-padded with spaces to at least 10 chars
 - `%5d` – an integer, left-padded with spaces to at least 5 chars
- `%f` can also be prefixed with a dot and the number of digits of precision to use
 - `%.0f` – a decimal number rounded to the closest whole number
 - `%.2f` – a decimal number rounded to two digits of precision
 - `%10.2f` – a decimal number rounded to two digits of precision, *and* left-padded with spaces to at least 10 chars

import VS. import static

- `import` brings a class into scope
 - We still need to explicitly name the class to use it
 - `import java.util.Scanner;` lets us create and use `Scanner` objects:

```
Scanner scan = new Scanner(System.in);  
System.out.println(scan.nextInt());
```

- `import javax.swing.JOptionPane;` lets us call static methods on `JOptionPane` by *explicitly* referencing the class:

```
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Hej!");
```

- `import static` brings *all static members of a class* into scope
 - We *don't* need to name the class to use them:

```
import static javax.swing.JOptionPane.*;  
...  
showMessageDialog(null, "Hej!");
```

Single quotes vs. double quotes

- *Exactly one* letter within *single quotes* denotes a single character, and has type `char`
 - `char c = 'a';`
- Zero or more letters within *double quotes* denotes a string, and has type `String`
 - `String s = "Hello!";`
- Both may contain escaped characters
 - `String s = "Hello\nWorld";`
 - `char c = '\n';`

Scanner

- Lets us read structured data from a text source.
- So far, we've used *standard input*:

```
Scanner s = new Scanner(System.in);  
int a = s.nextInt();  
int b = s.nextInt();  
String answer = String.format("%d + %d = %d", a, b, a+b);
```

- But we can also use it to read from a string:

```
String myString = "10 15 hello";  
Scanner s = new Scanner(myString);  
System.out.println(s.nextInt());  
System.out.println(s.nextDouble());  
System.out.println(s.next());
```

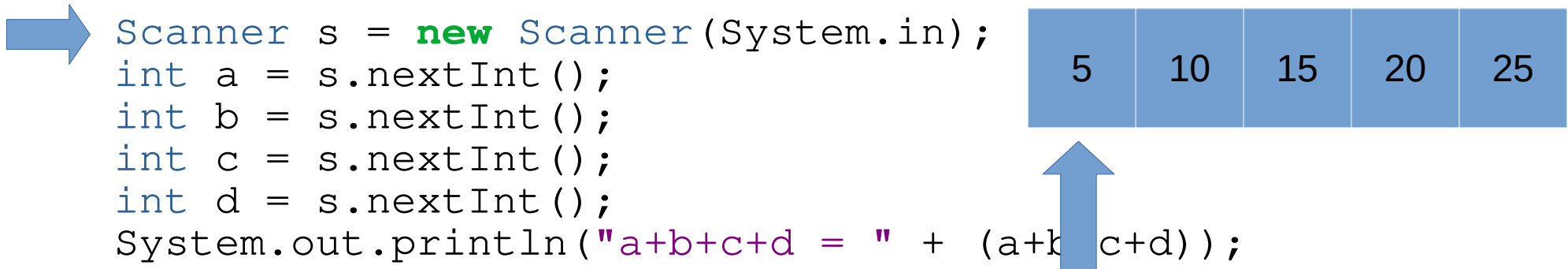
Will print:
10
15.0
hello

Scanner

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- Scanner *consumes* its input with each call to `nextInt`, `nextDouble`, etc.



```
Scanner s = new Scanner(System.in);  
int a = s.nextInt();  
int b = s.nextInt();  
int c = s.nextInt();  
int d = s.nextInt();  
System.out.println("a+b+c+d = " + (a+b+c+d));
```

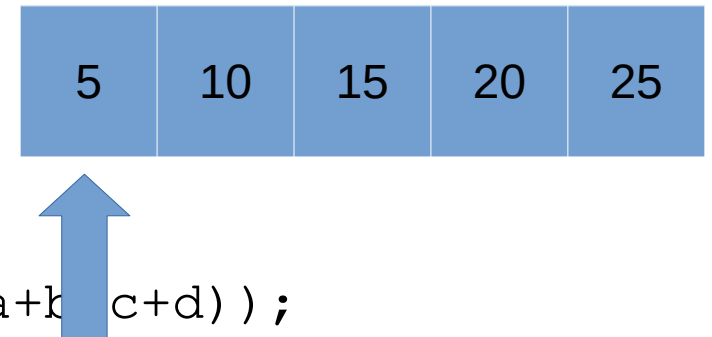
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System.out.println("a+b+c+d = " + (a+b+c+d));
```



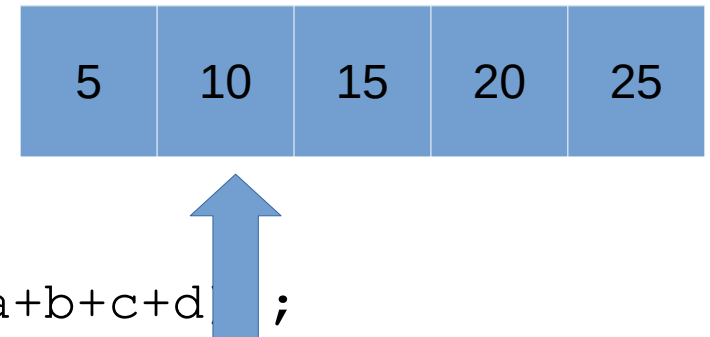
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int c = s.nextInt();  
int d = s.nextInt();  
System.out.println("a+b+c+d = " + (a+b+c+d);
```



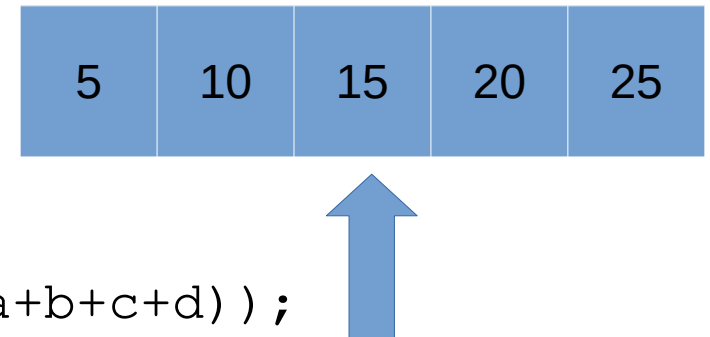
Scanner

- Lets us read structured data from *standard input*.

```
Scanner s = new Scanner(System.in);  
int a = s.nextInt();  
int b = s.nextInt();  
String answer = String.format("%d + %d = %d", a, b, a+b);
```

- Scanner *consumes* its input with each call to `nextInt`, `nextDouble`, etc.

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```



Scanner

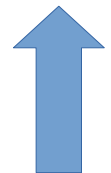
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```

5	10	15	20	25
---	----	----	----	----



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5	10	15	20	25
---	----	----	----	----



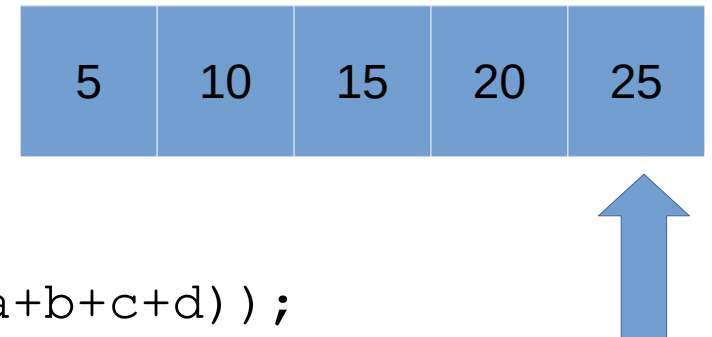
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int a = s.nextInt();  
int b = s.nextInt();  
int c = s.nextInt();  
int d = s.nextInt();  
System.out.println("a+b+c+d = " + (a+b+c+d));
```



a+b+c+d = 50

Scanner

- Lets us “look before we jump”

```
Scanner s = new Scanner(System.in);  
if(!s.hasNextDouble()) {  
    System.out.println("You have to enter a number!");  
} else {  
    double value = s.nextDouble();  
    String result = String.format("%f^2 = %f", value, value*value);  
    System.out.println(result);  
}
```

- Will throw a NoSuchElementException if we try to read something that's not there

```
Exception java.util.NoSuchElementException  
    at Scanner.throwFor (Scanner.java:937)  
    at Scanner.next (Scanner.java:1594)  
    at Scanner.nextDouble (Scanner.java:2564)
```

Good luck, and Merry Christmas!