Outline

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Provisional CS220 semester schedule

See the course homepage for updates and full assignment details. This schedule will evolve as the semester unfolds; see the course homepage or the online course pack for updates. All deadlines are at 8:00am except where explicitly indicated on the course homepage/Autolab.

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<td>Monday, December 9 — Lab 10</td>
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<td>• Using files</td>
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<td>• Final examination 12:15-2:15 p.m for Sec. 1 (8:50am)</td>
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<td>• Java and your computer’s memory (§1.1)</td>
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<td>• Things which are not classes despite a strong and compelling resemblance (§2.2)</td>
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<td>• Covering CS120 prerequisite material</td>
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<td>• A quantum of labor (§1.3)</td>
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<td>• Labs meet in 16 Wing</td>
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<td>• How we do the things we do</td>
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<td>• Deadlines: Preparatory Homework (Set 1) — Online Quiz 1</td>
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<td>• Let’s recarpet the lab</td>
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<td>• Sometimes all you need is a little help from your parameters (§1.4)</td>
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<td>• More great uses of arrays (§3)</td>
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<td>• Self-referencing objects, linked lists (§4.1)</td>
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<td>• Turning it around</td>
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<td>• Simmer until reduced</td>
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0 Welcome to CS220

0.1 Orientation slides

The Software Design sequence

• Design algorithms
  – High-level problem-solving skills
• Implement algorithms as programs
  – Java - A modern programming language
  – Organize data and instructions
  – In both algorithms and programs, we must use low-level and precise logic
    * No ambiguity allowed
  – Debugging and testing
• Understand what programs will do
• Communicate technical information about your programs
• Learn how to operate as a technical professional

Software Design I

The six things a program can do

1. Get input
2. Give output
3. Do arithmetic
4. Update a stored value
5. Test a condition, and select an alternative
6. Repeat a group of actions

Ways Java helps you organize your work

• Defining sequences of operations as methods
• Group related data together in arrays and class fields
• Associate data with operations relevant to that data as object methods
Software Design II

• Starting to understand how Java manages your computer’s memory
  – Features of Java built on this understanding: exceptions and recursion
• Similarly, looking under the hood at Java arrays
  – How their place in memory explains the behavior we can observe
  – Multi-dimensional arrays, and how Java really implements them
• A deeper look at inheritance and object-oriented design
  – Abstract vs. concrete, and all of the ways Java allows us to use this distinction
  – When we can and cannot (and should and should not) use inheritance
• Combining classes into data structures
• Applying code to multiple situations via Java generics
• Interacting outside of Java’s world via the file system

Focus on the personal process of creating software

• What does "correct" mean for software?
• How can you tell if your work is correct?

It is not enough to write software — you must build quality in by

• Keeping steps simple
• Keeping your goals clear
  – Recording what your goals are
  – Measuring whether you meet them
  – And both from the beginning of your work

Our process

0. Outline the result

• Set up stubs of classes and methods with the correct signatures
• But empty bodies and dummy results
• "Step 0" means it is very basic, should not be very taxing, and should be an automatic "just do it"

1. Define success, and be ready to measure it

• Set up a main method (in an assigned class, or in a separate one)
• Fill it with uses of the required classes and methods
• You are writing experiments
  – Does your code have the right behavior?
  – Your main should announce desired behaviors, and actual results
  – Every behavior required in the specifications of work which I give you should be examined at least once
• Set up your program to tell you whether it works
2. Make a plan
   • Write down how will implement your stub methods
   • Major steps, goals along the way
   • Break down complicated methods by describing different steps as their own methods
   • Write the method steps down as comments in each method’s body
     – A checklist of what you must implement for each method

3. Implement and debug the methods
   • Only with testable correctness criteria and a detailed plan in place should you start actually writing the Java implementations of your method bodies

Do not skip steps!

0.2 About this class (Syllabus elements)

0.2.1 Key facts

Class name        Software Design II
Sections          CS220-01/02 — 4 credit units
Regular meeting times  M., Tu., W., Th.: Sec. 1, 8:50-9:45am; Sec. 2, 9:55-10:50am
Lecture room      Centennial 2205
Lab days and room Some Mondays and some Wednesdays will be lab sessions, held in 16 Wing.
   • See the course website for each week’s plan.
Course website    https://cs.uwlax.edu/~jmaraist/220-fall-19
   Contains the up-to-date calendar for the next few weeks of deadlines and the lecture/lab schedule, plus other essential references
Other pages to bookmark for this class:
   Autolab — for Java assignment submission  https://euryale.cs.uwlax.edu/courses/cs220-fa19-jmaraist
      • You must be on campus, or using the UWL VPN, to access this site,
        https://www.uwlax.edu/its/network-telecom/vpn-virtual-private-network . For assistance
        with the VPN, contact the Eagle Help Desk,
   Links to course documents (on Canvas)
     https://uwlac.instructure.com/courses/217854/pages/cs220-class-resources
      • Includes links to the full syllabus and course pack of lecture slides, exercises, etc.
   Available online quizzes (on Canvas)  https://uwlac.instructure.com/courses/217854/quizzes
Prerequisites      CS120
Corequisites       CS225 recommended
Catalog description This is a second course in the design of programs. Emphasis is placed on data abstraction and its application in design. Definitions of abstract data types are examined. The following structures are examined as methods for implementing data abstractions: recursion, sets, stacks, queues, strings, and various linked lists. Students will be expected to write several programs using these techniques in a modern programming language.

Instructor’s name Dr. John Maraist
   • Vocative "Dr. Maraist" or "Prof. Maraist", pronouns he/him/his
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Office hours and appointments  My office hours and appointment availability are listed on the course website. To make an appointment, ask by email at least one school day ahead of time.  
References  ZyBook Java text; Java: A Beginner’s Guide, Herbert Schildt, Oracle Press; see the course website for other resources

0.2.2  Key dates

Tuesday, September 3  First class  
Thursday, September 5  Midterm 0  
Tuesday, September 24  Tentative date of Midterm 1  
Monday, October 14  Tentative date of Midterm 2  
Tuesday, October 29  Tentative date of Midterm 3  
Tuesday, November 19  Tentative date of Midterm 4  
I will confirm the actual midterm test dates at least two weeks beforehand.

November 21-22  Thanksgiving break  
Saturday, December 14, 12:15-2:15pm  Final exam, Section 220-01  
Tuesday, December 17, 2:30-4:30pm  Final exam, Section 220-02

• The final exam dates and times are set by the university; the schedule is available at www.uwlax.edu/records/faculty-staff-resources/final-exam-schedule. Per Note 1 on that page, our class is considered a MWF class for purposes of final exam scheduling. Do not plan to leave for holiday travel until after the exam date for your section of this class.

0.2.3  The objectives and outlook of this class

This class offers the opportunity to master the fundamentals of software development. We will use the Java programming language, but the skills we will convey are applicable to most programming and scripting languages in use today. Over the course of the semester, we will deepen your understanding of topics related to software development, including problem solving techniques, fundamental programming constructs, and their application to algorithm design and to the Java programming language.

In CS120 we learned about the design of simple algorithms and their implementation as Java programs executed as a single, sequential thread. We began with core elements of imperative programming: variable assignment, use and update; expressions, boolean logic, selection and iteration, subroutine use, arrays; and the language issues of syntax, declarations, scope, and subroutine creation and invocation. We introduced notions of object-oriented programming: classes and objects, constructors and methods, and inheritance. In CS220 we will build further on these foundations, including:

• Designing, implementing and understanding programs using object-orientation (including inheritance, over-loading, overriding, and method polymorphism); recursion; generics; single- and multi-dimensional arrays; the separation of abstraction and implementation; exceptions; the local file system; and elementary data structures.

• Demonstrating understanding of Java’s use of your computer’s memory for method calls, variable and parameter storage, references, objects and arrays.

• Analyzing the asymptotic complexity of simple algorithms and presenting the result in big-$O$ notation. We will focus in particular on a number of searching and sorting algorithms for arrays, and on operations on linked lists.
• Through the semester we will learn to debug programs, that is, to fix a range of problems, including infinite loops and various exceptions.

• Modern programming systems make heavy use of standard pre-programmed libraries, so our work will use a number of external libraries, including for data structures and file I/O.

• Communication is as essential in computer science as in any other field. Although we will not have larger-scale writing exercises, I do require and will assess program comments, and examinations will include short-answer questions.

• Any local culture of programmers (such as a workplace or a community project) will adopt or be assigned stylistic conventions for programs and for comments. We will point out and follow a number of these guidelines, as well as general professional habits.

This class is focused tightly on mastering a specific set of skills, and on the knowledge associated with those skills. Mastering any new mental or physical skill requires practice and discipline. You should plan to spend an average of about ten to twelve hours a week (not counting our class meetings) preparing for class, working assignments, and otherwise studying or practicing class material. As with a sport or musical instrument, you will not develop programming skills without committing serious and regular effort to actually programming.

The focus on skills, and the elementary nature of the material we cover, means that this class is **highly cumulative**. Topics from later in the class rely very heavily on earlier topics. Everything in this class relies very heavily on the material of CS120. Even where assignments and exams focus on particular later topics, it is unavoidable that earlier topics will be essential components of later work.

The skills you will gain in this class will generally fall into one of these four categories:

1. **Designing an algorithm**
2. **Writing programs or parts of programs**
3. **Constructing and debugging correct executable programs**
4. **Analyzing programs and code to accurately predict how it will behave**

It is important to master all of these skills over the course of the semester, but we recognize that some people take longer to master some aspects of algorithmic thinking and programming. So when computing final grades, I will replace earlier grades from a particular skill category with the weighted average of later grades from the same category. The **Assessment** section of the syllabus details exactly how this calculation will work. (Miscellaneous and administrative assignments will have separate categories for grading purposes.)

### 0.2.4 Assessment

For assessment, we divide the assignments and examinations into the following phases: **preparatory homework** (which will include the quizzes), **supplementary homework**, **labs**, **projects**, **mid-term exams** and the **final exam** (in that order). Each marked item will be attributed to one category including: **programming** (which includes book work, labs, projects and most other independent work), **algorithm design**, **describing how code will execute**, **conveying understanding of concepts**. The latter three categories are for exams; the first category is for out-of-class homework and projects. The points of items for a particular category in each phase of the class will be adjusted to be no less than the weighted average of items of the same category in the next later phase of the class. So for example, your percentage score on a midterm exam asking you to predict the effect of some piece of code will not be less than the weighted average of your scores on the final exam questions asking you to predict the effect of code. This adjustment will be transitive from the final exam backwards.

#### Forms of assessment and their weight

Your grade for each class assignment and phase will be calculated as a weighted average. In turn your final grade will be the weighted average of the assessment of your work, adjusted as described above, and weighted as follows:

- **Preparatory homework and quizzes**: 5%
Supplementary homework: 10%
Preparatory homework is designed to let you come to class ready to engage with the day’s material. Sometimes it will review earlier concepts (from CS120, or from previous topics in this class); sometimes it will ask you to experiment with aspects of Java which we will consider in more detail that day. Supplementary homework follows up on class topics to reinforce what we discuss. The supplementary problems help you identify aspect of the new material which you may not yet understand, and prepare you for labs and projects.

Labs: 7%

Projects: 25%
Labs and projects ask you to apply the material you learn in class and practice in homework. Lab assignments tend to be shorter, and in some labs I will guide you through parts of the solution. In labs we will also focus on adhering to the discipline of programming which we adopt for this class. Labs will be graded qualitatively on your progress in class, and demonstrated in the submitted work product, towards mastering the exercised skills. Projects, especially later projects, require you to write longer and more substantial programs, often with less structure provided than in the labs.

Midterm tests: 25%
The midterm tests each cover a particular set of knowledge. They are not explicitly cumulative, in the sense that their questions will focus on the topics for that test, and not on past topics. However, the material of this course is highly cumulative in nature: so you may need to use the skills from past topics in order to answer questions correctly. For example, answering questions about arrays will require the ability to write loops, even though loops were a topic for CS120.
The topics tested on the midterms are as follows:

- Midterm 0: Topics from the prerequisite course CS120. Appendix C of the course pack contains a list of the department’s learning outcomes for CS120; all of these topics are in scope for this test except GUI programming.
- Midterm 1: The stack-and-heap model of program execution, recursion, asymptotic complexity, exceptions (Section 1 of the course pack).
- Midterm 2: Classes and objects (Section 2 of the course pack).
- Midterm 3: Arrays (Section 3 of the course pack).
- Midterm 4: Linked lists, stacks, queues (Section 4 of the course pack).

In calculating the share of each midterm towards your final grade, I will weigh the last four midterms evenly, and will weigh Midterm 0 at half the weight of each of the others.

Final examination: 25%
The final examination will be cumulative over the topics we cover.

Participation and professionalism: 3%
Partial credit for programs, whether on examinations or projects, may be awarded only for programs whose design is documented via comments in the manner expected under our program design discipline.

Final grades
I will convert a weighted average percentage $g$ to a letter grade no more strictly than as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$g$</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$95.0 \leq g$</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$90.0 \leq g &lt; 95.0$</td>
<td>AB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$84.0 \leq g &lt; 90.0$</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$78.0 \leq g &lt; 84.0$</td>
<td>BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$70.0 \leq g &lt; 78.0$</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60.0 \leq g &lt; 70.0$</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lower results do not earn a passing grade. In addition, to get a final grade above C, you must pass the final exam. The university uses annotated F grades for cases of failure with cessation of class activity and attendance; where such grades are appropriate I will draw them from both the assignment results and attendance records.
Feedback

Formative assessments are those whose purpose includes giving feedback to you, and shaping your learning. You will receive feedback on all formative assessments, and are expected to use that feedback to improve your future performance. Other work is considered summative, intended not for feedback or as learning tools but only as measurements of skill. You will not receive detailed feedback on summative assessments.

- Programming work due before Thanksgiving, as well as the first four midterm tests, are all considered formative. The last midterm will treated as formative if time allows.

  Feedback on lab work will often be delivered in person in the lab session; it is your responsibility to ask questions during labs when you are unable to complete the assignments. Feedback on programming assignments will come not only from me directly, but also from the Autolab submission system: you are responsible for reading the output of that system when you submit work to see where it finds incorrect or unimplemented aspects of your code.

- Later work is considered summative. The final project and the final examination are summative assessments, as well as programming work due after Thanksgiving (although I will return as much of it as early as possible). The last midterm may be deemed summative if time requires.

0.3 Acknowledgments

Much of this document is from material shared among the various professors who have taught this class in recent years, including Kenny Hunt, Elliot Forbes, Allison Sauppé, and in particular Joshua Hurley and Jason Sauppe. Some of the exercises are derived from other sources, and individually attributed.
1 The stack and the heap (although for the moment, mostly just the stack)

1.1 How Java organizes your computer’s memory

You know that your program uses the computer’s memory

- It uses memory for local variables
- It uses memory to pass parameters to methods
- It uses memory to return values from methods
- It uses memory to keep track of where we are in one method when we call another
- It uses memory to create arrays
- It uses memory to create objects of a class, and for the objects’ fields

Our programs use memory constantly
But how does Java manage it all? How does it organize memory to it all possible?

The stack and heap
At the highest level, there are two main divisions of your computer’s memory: the stack and the heap

- The space in between the stack and heap is unused, or free memory
- Both the stack and the heap can grow and shrink
  - But they are each kept to their own end
  - They grow towards the middle, shrink towards their end
- When the stack and heap collide, it means that your program has run out of memory
  - So the system terminates it
  - Would look to you like any other program crash

Method calls on the stack
Every time your program calls a method, a stack frame is added to the stack

```java
public void f() {
    int a = 4;
    g(10); // Line 3 // ...
}
public void g(int x) {
    int b = 5;
    // ...
}
```
Some things each stack frame can contain:

• Storage for the parameters passed to the method
• Storage for the method’s local variables
• Temporary workspace for more complicated expressions and statements
• A note of what we should resume doing when this method ends
• The location of the previous stack frame

For efficiency, different systems may actually use other parts of the machine for some of these things — but this idea of stack frames is always useful for understanding our programs

**Returning from a method discards its frame**

When a method exits, Java does not keep its frame

• So the stack grows when we call a method, shrinks when we exit a method
• Methods are exited in the opposite order that we call them
  – This behavior is called *last in, first out*
  – Means that the stack is always a *contiguous* block of in-use memory

```java
public void f() {
    int a = 4;
    g(10);
    h(11, 4.5);
    // ...
}
public void g(int x) {
    int b = 5;
    // ...
}
public void h(int y, double z) {
    // ...
}
```
Exercise 1.1.1. Draw pictures of the stack following a call to \( f(3) \) immediately before \( g \) is called, immediately before \( g \) exits, and immediately after \( g \) exits. What is printed, and when?

```java
public void f(int x) {
    int s=0;
    for(int i=1; i<=x; i=i+1) {
        s = s+i;
    }
    g(x,s);
    System.out.println(s);
}

public void g(int y, int z) {
    int s = 100-y;
    System.out.println(s);
    z = z+s;
    System.out.println(z);
}
```

□

Exercise 1.1.2. Draw the stack configuration at each call to the print statement of \( h2 \) following an initial call of \( h1(3) \). What is printed each time?

```java
public void h1(int m) {
```
for(int i=0; i<m; i=i+1) {
    h2(i);
}
}
public void h2(int m) {
    System.out.println(m);
}

Hidden declarations

The stack of frames can also help us understand the use of i in this Java:

public void f(int x) {
    int i = 10;
    if (x>0) {
        int i = x+3;
        System.out.println(i);
        System.out.println(x);
    }
    System.out.println(i);
}
public void g(int y) {
    f(y);
}

• When Java first begins a call to f(5) from g(5), we have a frame with storage for x and the first declaration of i
• When the if test succeeds, we enter a new scope for local names
  – The new scope has its own meaning for i, so the use of i in the enclosing scope becomes hidden
  – The new scope knows that for x, we should still look in the enclosing scope
  – But both of these frames know not to look in g’s frame for a binding for y
• After the affirmative if block, when the nested scope goes away, Java simply removes its frame from the stack
Exercise 1.1.3. Consider this method:

```java
public static int sumSquares(int a) {
    int result = 0;
    // Point [A]

    for(int i=0; i<a; i++) {
        result = result + (i*i);
        // Point [B]
    }
    // Point [C]
    return result;
}
```

Sketch the configuration of the stack and heap during the execution of a call to `sumSquares(2)`:

- When point A is reached
- Each time point B is reached
- When point C is reached

Exercise 1.1.4. Consider this method:

```java
public static int sumSquaresAndCubes(int a) {
    int result = 0;
    for(int i=0; i<a; i++) {
        result = result + (i*i);
    }
}
```
for(int j=0; j<a; j++) {
    result = result + (j*j*j);
    // Point [A]
}
return result;
}

Sketch the configuration of the stack and heap each time a call to `sumSquaresAndCubes(3)` reaches Point A.

**Exercise 1.1.5.** Consider these statements, where we assume that `x` and `y` are declared and set locally with type `int`:

```java
while (x>10) {
    int y = x*x;
    System.out.println(x + " " + y);
    x = x-y;
}
```

Run these statements in your Java environment if you are unsure what values they print. Sketch the configuration of the stack and heap each time the `println` statement is reached.

**Exercise 1.1.6.** Consider these statements, where we assume that `x` and `y` are declared and set locally with type `int`:

```java
while (x >10) {
    if (x % 2 == 0) {
        int y = x*x;
        System.out.println(x + " " + y);
        x = x-y;
    } else {
        x = x-1;
    }
}
```

Run these statements in your Java environment if you are unsure what values they print. Sketch the configuration of the stack and heap each time the `println` statement is reached.

**Exercise 1.1.7.** Consider these statements, where we assume that `x`, `y` and `z` are declared and set locally with type `int`:

```java
while (x>10) {
    while (y>5) {
        int z = x*x;
        System.out.println(x + " " + y + " " + z);
        y = y - z*z;
    }
    System.out.println(x + " " + z);
    x = x - z*z;
}
```

Run these statements in your Java environment if you are unsure what values they print. Sketch the configuration of the stack and heap each time a `println` statement is reached.

**Where do objects live?**

When a method exits, objects it creates may still be in use

```java
public void f1() {
```
Red c = new Red();
f2(m);
f3();
// ...
}

public void f2(Red m) {
    Green x = new Green();
m.setG(x);
}

public class Red {
    private Green g;
    public void setG(Green g) {
        this.g = g;
    }
}

What happens if we store the Green object on the stack?

Stack storage is not appropriate for object instances

Objects live in the heap
    We store objects on the other end of memory, away from the stack’s expansion and contraction
Heap management

- Consecutive objects may have variable and unpredictable lifespans
- So free spaces can open up inside the heap
- The heap must be more sophisticated than a simple stack, so that we can track and recapture these free fragments

Contents vs. locations

There is an important distinction between the contents of a heap-allocated object and its address

- The address is like a library book call number
- Local variables actually store the address
  - Initially null
- Java passes the address as a parameter

Exercise 1.1.8. Use println to see what is initially stored in uninitialized local variables with the following types: int, long, double, boolean, String, and Red (as defined on p. 16 above).

Exercise 1.1.9. For the definition of Red on p. 16 above, and this definition of Green,

```java
public class Green {
    private final int brightness;
    public Green(int brightness) {
        this.brightness = brightness;
    }
    public int getBrightness() { return brightness; }
}
```

sketch the state of the stack and heap after each statement in this sequence:

Red r1 = new Red();
Red r2 = new Red();
Green g1 = new Green(100);
r1.setG(g1);
Green g2 = new Green(7);
r1.setG(g2);
1.2 Recursion

What happens with this code?

What happens when we call start()?

```java
public static void start() {
    int x = selfCall(5);
    System.out.println("Fin: " + x);
}

public static int selfCall(int x) {
    System.out.println("Pre: " + x);
    return selfCall(x);
}
```

- Like printGreater, selfCall calls a method inside itself
- Unlike printGreater, selfCall calls itself

Recursion is when a thing is defined in terms of itself

- In programming, it occurs when a method calls itself

But there is a problem with this use of recursion

- What happens when main calls start()?

Components of recursion

For recursion to work properly, we need:

Recurrence condition Cases where the code will call itself to generate repetition

Base case(s) Some point that we are guaranteed to reach, where the recurrence will stop and the method will not call itself anymore

Just as for a loop!

- Loops need a continuation condition
- Which eventually becomes false, and makes us exit the loop

Exercise 1.2.1. Trace the following recursive method calls to determine the output of start:

```java
public static void start() {
    int x = selfCall(5);
    System.out.println("Fin: " + x);
}

public static int selfCall(int x) {
    System.out.println("X: " + x);
    if (x <= 0) {
        System.out.println("Base case!");
        return 0;
    } else {
        int r = x + selfCall(x - 1);
        System.out.println("R: " + r);
        return r;
    }
}
```
Exercise 1.2.2. Trace the following recursive method calls to determine the output of start:

```java
public static void start() {
    System.out.println("A = " + mystery(2,2));
    System.out.println("B = " + mystery(3,4));
    System.out.println("C = " + mystery(10,7));
}

public static int mystery(int a, int b) {
    if (b == 0) {
        return 0; // A
    } else if (b == 1) {
        return a; // B
    } else {
        return a + mystery(a, b-1); // C
    }
}
```

What happens with this version of selfCall (Exercise 1.2.1)?

```java
public static void start() {
    int x = selfCall(5);
    System.out.println("Fin: " + x);
}

public static int selfCall(int x) {
    System.out.println("X: " + x);
    if (x <= 0) {
        System.out.println("Base case!");
        return 0;
    } else {
        int r = x + selfCall(x - 1);
        System.out.println("R: " + r);
        return r;
    }
}
```

How do we use recursion?

The power of recursion evidently lies in the possibility of defining an infinite set of objects by a finite statement. In the same manner, an infinite number of computations can be described by a finite recursive program, even if this program contains no explicit repetitions.

— Niklaus Wirth, *Algorithms + Data Structures = Programs*

Many mathematical series are defined by recursive recurrence relations

- Factorial: 
  \[ n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \ldots \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \]
  
  - fact(0) = 1
- \( \text{fact}(n) = n \cdot \text{fact}(n-1) \)

- Fibonacci sequence: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...
  - \( \text{fib}(0) = 0 \)
  - \( \text{fib}(1) = 1 \)
  - \( \text{fib}(n) = \text{fib}(n-1) + \text{fib}(n-2) \)

**Exercise 1.2.3.** Using the formulas above, write a class `RecursiveFactorial` with a single recursive static method `factorial` which, given a non-negative integer \( n \), returns \( n! \), the factorial of \( n \). Give the argument the type `int`, but give the result the type `long`. Why are these the different types appropriate?

**Exercise 1.2.4.** Using the formulas above, write a class `RecursiveFibonacci` with a single recursive static method `fib` which, given a non-negative integer \( n \), returns the \( n \text{th} \) Fibonacci number. As with factorial, give the argument the type `int`, but give the result the type `long`. What do you notice about the time it takes for your method to run as the value of \( n \) increases? How does this change compare with `RecursiveFactory`?

**Exercise 1.2.5.** Write a class `RecursiveMersenne` with a single recursive static method `mersenne` which calculates the \( n \text{th} \) Mersenne number, defined using the recurrence

\[
\begin{align*}
  f(n) = \begin{cases} 
    1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\
    2 \cdot f(n-1) + 1 & \text{otherwise}
  \end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

Trace the state of the stack at each call to `mersenne(4)`.

**Exercise 1.2.6.** Write a class `PalindromeCheck` with an overloaded static method `isPalindrome`. You should overload `isPalindrome` with a one-argument version of the method, and a three-argument version of the method. The one-argument method should

- Take a single `String` argument, and
- Return `true` exactly when the argument string is a palindrome, that is, the same string forwards and backwards.

You should implement the one-argument method as a single call to a three-argument method which you implement using recursion. The three-argument version should:

- Take two integers and a string: the two integers mark the next two positions within the string to be checked to see if they are the same, and
- Also return `true` exactly when the argument string is a palindrome.

Exercises 1.2.7 and 1.2.8 are about two different ways of finding the greatest common divisor of two positive integers \( a \) and \( b \): the largest number which divides both \( a \) and \( b \) with zero remainder. All pairs of positive integers have 1 as a common divisor, since every number can be easily divided by 1, but challenge of finding the greatest common divisor is to avoid a brute-force solution involving repeated trial divisions. The first solution dates to antiquity from the `Elements`, attributed to Euclid of Alexandria. The second solution is by Edsgar Dijkstra from the 1960s, and favors subtraction over division in its calculations, since subtraction was sufficiently faster than division at that time to make Dijkstra's approach preferable.
Exercise 1.2.7. Write a class Gcd with a single recursive method gcd which calculates the greatest common divisor of its two int arguments using Euclid’s classical method: to find GCD(a,b) where \( a \geq b \):

1. If \( a=0 \), then GCD(a,b)=b
2. If \( b=0 \), then GCD(a,b)=a
3. Find \( q,r \) such that \( a=bq+r \)
4. Find GCD(b,r)
   • Since GCD(a,b)=GCD(b,r)

Trace the state of the stack at each call to gcd(192,78).

Exercise 1.2.8. Write a class Gcd with a single static recursive method gcd which calculates the greatest common divisor of its two int arguments using Dijkstra’s method: to find GCD(a,b)

1. If \( a=b \), then GCD(a,b)=a
2. If \( a>b \), then GCD(a,b)=GCD(a-b,b)
3. Else GCD(a,b)=GCD(a,b-a)

Your method’s result should also be an int. Trace the state of the stack at each call to gcd(192,78).

Exercise 1.2.9. Sierpinski’s carpet is one kind of fractal image — an image which recurs in smaller form inside of itself. For this exercise you should use the DrawingPad class discussed in Section D.5.

Drawing a Sierpinski fractal follows these steps:

1. Start with a square drawing region

2. Divide the square into 9 sub-squares
3. Color the center sub-square

4. Repeat the process for each of the remaining 8 sub-squares

and so, as far as desired.

Write a class PartialSierpinski which uses a recursive method to draw n levels of Sierpinski’s Carpet in a new graphics window. The main method of your class should:

• Query the user for the size of window to draw, and the number of iterations it should make.
• Create a square DrawingPad whose length and width are the size given by the user.
• Call your recursive method to draw Sierpinski’s carpet to the given depth.

Exercise 1.2.10. Write a class FullSierpinski which also uses a recursive method to draw n levels of Sierpinski’s Carpet. Instead of querying for the depth of recursion, FullSierpinski should cease making recursive calls when the width of a sub-square is below three pixels.

1.3 Discussing execution time

Measuring running time
How should we measure the running time of a program? And how precise do we need to be?

• Wall clock time, CPU time
• Instruction count: Java instructions or machine-level instructions
• Number of basic units of work executed
  – What’s relevant as a ”unit of work” might vary from algorithm to algorithm
  – Must require (at most) some constant, small time
  – Must be able to express the work of the algorithm in terms of these units
Units of work

For factorial
For example, with factorial the quantum of work includes:

1. Test to see if we have a base case
2. Maybe set up a method call and result storage
3. Maybe perform a multiplication

For Fibonacci
What is in one quantum of work for Fibonacci?

1. Test to see if we have a base case
2. Maybe set up method calls and results storage
3. Maybe perform an addition

Exercise 1.3.1. Given an input value \( n \), how many times will \( \text{RecursiveFactorial.factorial} \) repeat its quantum of work?

Exercise 1.3.2. Given an input value \( n \), how many times will \( \text{RecursiveFibonacci.fib} \) repeat its quantum of work?

Exercise 1.3.3. There are many folk songs similar to "The Twelve Days of Christmas," where each successive verse increases in length by a certain amount. Let us assume that someone’s crazy aunt insists that we all sing one of these songs where the first verse has \( F \) words, and that each verse increases in length by no more than \( W \) words. If the crazy aunt insists on \( n \) verses, what is the maximum number of words which we might be forced to sing?

Adapted from [2, p. 69]

Exercise 1.3.4. Consider a class \( \text{Point} \) representing points on the plane, which has a method \( \text{dist} \) for finding the distance between this point and another,

\[
\text{public int dist(Point that)}
\]

The following method finds the shortest distance between any two elements of an array of \( \text{Point} \) instances. What is the quantum of work for this method?

\[
\text{public static int shortestDist(Point[] points) { }
\]

\[
\text{int result = Integer.MAX_VALUE;}
\]

\[
\text{for(int i=0; i<points.length; i=i+1) { }
\]

\[
\text{for(int j=i+1; j<points.length; j=j+1) { }
\]

\[
\text{int dist = points[i].dist(points[j]);}
\]

\[
\text{if (dist < result) { }
\]

\[
\text{result = dist;}
\]

\[
\text{}}
\]

\[
\text{return result;}
\]

Given an array of \( n \) points, how many times does the method execute the quantum of work? Adapted from [2, p. 51]

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We do now have formulas

We do now have formulas for the quanta of work required for different algorithms, but these formulas are complicated. What if we are using these formulas to discuss the resource needs of much larger, more complicated programs using these methods?

- In this form, our assessment of runtimes are too complicated to be useful

Inessential details

- We generally do not need to worry about small cases
  - The special cases for small values are not part of any "big picture" of how the methods behave as the input gets large
- When we add terms of a formula together, polynomial terms of smaller degree become uninteresting at large values
  - Think about a formula \( f(x) = x^4 + x \)
  - At large values of \( x \), the \( x^4 \) part is overwhelmingly bigger than the \( x \) part
- We are also not very interested in constant coefficients
  - Although \( f(x) = 2x \) is certainly a faster-growing function than \( f(x) = x \)
  - We are measuring the speed of computer programs, and a system which is twice as fast as our current one is not unrealistic

Big-O notation

Intuitively, we could just drop the details in which we are not interested

But in science, engineering and math, informal intuition is not good enough — we need a clear and rigorous reasoning framework

- **Big O notation** is a mathematical notation used to describe the limiting behavior of a function as its input grows
- For a function \( f(n) \), we say that \( f(n) = O(g(n)) \) for some function \( g \) if and only if there exists a positive constant \( M \) and value \( n_0 \) such that
  \[
  |f(n)| \leq M|g(n)| \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0.
  \]
- This is written as \( f(n) = O(g(n)) \) or \( f(n) \in O(g(n)) \).

When \( f(n) \) is \( O(g(n)) \), it means that \( g \) gives an asymptotic upper bound for \( f \)

Applying big-O

When we discuss the running time of a program, we will describe the order of the running time via big-O notation

- A program which runs in a constant amount of time for any input has order \( O(1) \)
- If a program with linear runtime, that means that its running time is in \( O(n) \) for input of size \( n \)
  - Similarly quadratic runtime for \( O(n^2) \), cubic runtime for \( O(n^3) \), and so on
- Logarithmic programs have runtimes which are \( O(\log n) \)
  - In between constant and linear
  - The base does not matter
- Exponential programs have runtimes which are \( O(a^n) \) for some \( a > 1 \)
We can show that the quantum counter for our recursive implementation of \textit{fibonacci} has \(O(2^n)\)

- The base \textit{does} matter here — \(O(3^n)\) is much worse than \(O(2^n)\)

• When we use big-O notation this way, we say that we are describing the \textit{asymptotic complexity} of the program

We will see examples of programs with most of these orders over the course of the semester

\begin{enumerate}
\item Exercise 1.3.5. Using your result from Exercise 1.3.1, find the best big-\(O\) bound for the amount of work done by \textit{factorial} for input value \(n\)?
\item Exercise 1.3.6. Using your result from Exercise 1.3.4, find the best big-\(O\) bound for the steps taken by method \textit{shortestDist} for an array of size \(n\).
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{Problems vs. algorithms}

So far we have discussed the asymptotic complexity of \textit{one particular implementation} of a problem

We can also discuss the asymptotic complexity of a \textit{problem itself}

• When we discuss the complexity of a problem, we mean that \textit{any} implementation will have a complexity which is \textit{at least} that bad

• \textit{Fibonacci} is a great example here
  - We started discussing complexity to understand why our recursive implementation was so slow
  - That implementation is exponential — but the problem of finding Fibonacci numbers is not

\section*{1.4 Improving recursion}

\textbf{Fibonacci with a loop}

How can recursive Fibonacci match the performance of the loop-based version?

\begin{verbatim}
public static long fib(final int num) {
  long fib=0;
  long next=1;
  for(int n=0; n<num; n++) {
    final long newNext=fib+next;
    fib = next;
    next = newNext;
  }
  return thisFib;
}
\end{verbatim}

• The loop runs (about) \(n\) times, so we \textit{should} be able to find a way that recurs \(n\) times

• Note how we use \textit{next} and \textit{fib}
  - Both calculated on each pass through the loop
  - Both preserved from one pass through the loop to the next

• How can we provide both from one recursive call to the next?
  - By passing both as parameters!
Recursion with accumulating parameters

• Instead of calculating the result in a method body after the return of a recursive call,
• Calculate the result in the arguments of the call

static long fibHelper(int n, long fib, long next) {
    if (n<1) {
        return fib;
    } else {
        return fibHelper(n-1, next, fib+next);
    }
}

public static long fib(int n) {
    return fibHelper(n, 0, 1);
}

Exercise 1.4.1. An anagram is the rearrangement of the letters in a word or phrase. Sometimes anagrams can be funny, or at least coherent: for example, one anagram for admirer is married. Other anagrams make no particular sense: for example, one anagram for blender is deerinb.

Write a class Anagrammer with:

• A static method printAnagrams which takes a single String argument, returns no result, and prints (one per line) all of the anagrams of its first argument.
• A second static helper method called by printAnagrams, which is recursive, and which accepts additional helper parameters as needed.

Towers of Hanoi

Given a set of six disks of varying sizes, stacked on poles:

• Move the disks from the left pole to the right pole, while ensuring that only one disk is moved at a time and a large disk is never placed on top of a smaller one.

Solving the Towers of Hanoi puzzle

The start of a strategy:

• Move the smallest five disks from the left pole to the center pole
• Move the largest disk from the left pole to the right pole
• Move the smallest five disks from the center pole to the right pole
Identifying subproblems

Until we move the smallest five disks to the center pole, we do not need to move the bottom one at all (nor can we).

- We can pretend the largest disk doesn’t exist, giving us a new smaller version of the same problem!
- Now we just have to figure out how to move the smallest five disks from the left pole to the center pole…

Solving the subproblem

To solve the subproblem, the same reasoning applies:

- Move the smallest four disks from the left pole to the right pole
- Move the second largest disk from the left pole to the center pole
- Move the smallest four disks from the right pole to the center pole

A simple recursive solution

```java
public static void moveDisks(final int numDisks,
        final Pole source,
        final Pole dest,
        final Pole temp) {

    if (numDisks > 1) {
        moveDisks(numDisks-1, source, temp, dest);
    }
```

// Base case: move disk from source pole to dest pole
moveDisk(source, dest);

if (numDisks > 1) {
    moveDisks(numDisks-1, temp, dest, source);
}

Recursion and iteration
Every looping structure can be replaced with recursion and every recursive solution can be replaced with looping

• The basic while loop:

    while (condition) {
        loop body code;
        progress statement;
    }

• Recursive method:

    private void methodName() {
        if (condition) {
            loop body code;
            progress statement;
            methodName(); // recur (loop again)
        }
    }

Recursion or iteration?
Recursion and loops may be interchangeable, but sometimes a problem makes more sense with one or the other.

public static long
    factRec(final int n) {
        if (n <= 1) {
            return 1;
        } else {
            return n * factRec(n-1);
        }
    }

public static long
    factLoop(final int n) {
        long product = 1;
        for (int i=1; i<=n; ++i) {
            product *= i;
        }
        return product;
    }

Recursive implementations can incur an overhead at runtime

• Space for keeping track of method calls and local variables
• Time for executing each method
• Many compilers can optimize tail calls — when the argument of the return statement is just the recursive call — to be just as efficient as loops

```java
public static int
    fact(final int n) {
    return helper(n, 1);
}
public static int
    helper(final int n,
           final long prod) {
    if (n<2) {
        return prod;
    } else {
        return helper(n-1, n*prod);
    }
}
```

• For very small problems with an easy iterative solution, favor the loop

**Mutual recursion**

In some cases, recursion can be done indirectly and may not be immediately obvious.

• In mutual recursion, methods call each other

```java
public boolean isEven(int n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return true;
    } else {
        return isOdd(n-1);
    }
}
public boolean isOdd(int n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return false;
    } else {
        return isEven(n-1);
    }
}
```

• As usual, must make sure to move towards a base case!

• Understanding mutual recursion can be more subtle
  – But sometimes it’s the easiest solution

**Exercise 1.4.2.** Write a class ParityChecker with two static, mutually recursive methods isOdd and isEven (which it may assume to be non-negative), each taking one int argument, and not using the remainder operator % . Only one of these methods should distinguish base/recursive cases; the other should simply convert its present case to a call to the other with the same argument.
1.5 Exceptions

Errors in programming
There are two basic forms of programming error

Syntax errors
Due to a violation of the syntax of the programming language

- Incorrectly typed code, misspellings, wrong punctuation
- Results in a compile-time error: code cannot be run

Logic errors
Arise from syntactically correct code that can compile and run but does not work as expected

- JVM will notice some errors when the code executes
  - But not all errors will be caught!
- May result in a run-time error

Errors at runtime
When the JVM detects an error, it throws an exception

```
public class Driver {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int j = 0;
        int k = 25/j;
    }
}
```
gives:

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException
    at Driver.main(Driver.java:4)
```

- The exception is identified by type: ArithmeticException
- The message has a stack trace with the active code (method, class, line number)
  - Sometimes called a traceback

A longer stack trace

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException
    at Thing.doSomething(Thing.java:9)
    at Thing.<init>(Thing.java:5)
    at Driver.main(Driver.java:3)
```

What does this stack trace tell us?

- The error itself happened at line 9 of method doSomething() of class Thing
- Java started running doSomething because the constructor for class Thing(<init>) called it from line 5 of file Thing.java
- And in turn the Thing() constructor had been called from line 5 of the main() method of class Driver, file Driver.java

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So many ways to fail!
Java uses different types of exceptions to describe different error conditions

Example 1
String str = null;
str.toLowerCase();
 Throws NullPointerException

Example 2
double[] arr = new double[3];
arr[3] = 29.4;
 Throws ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException

Example 3
Scanner s = new Scanner(System.in);
int i = s.nextInt(); // and the input is non-numbers
 Throws InputMismatchException

Throw your own
You can throw exceptions explicitly with a throw statement
throw EXPRESSION;

• Exceptions are just a particular kind of Java object
  – They all have superclass java.lang.Exception

• For example:
public class SimpleFraction {
  private int numerator, denominator;

  public SimpleFraction(int n, int d) {
    if (d != 0) {
      numerator = n;
      denominator = d;
    } else {
      final IllegalArgumentException
      error = new IllegalArgumentException("Denominator is 0");
      throw error;
    }
  }

  – IllegalArgumentException is also part of package java.lang

Failure is not instantaneous
• When we run a program or look at a stack trace, we get the impression that a throw statement simply ends a program

• But this is not actually true

• In fact, the failure happens in small steps — one block of code at a time
  – Because — as we will see now! — some blocks can recover from an exception
When an exception is thrown, the current block of code terminates immediately.

If the current block does not have code to handle the exception, then the JVM moves to the enclosing block of code:

- And then the next one
- And so on
- When the top-level of a method terminates, we return to the calling point of that method.

Each enclosing block or method terminates, one at a time, until either:

1. The top level of the program is reached (usually the main method)
   - At which point the program terminates and displays a run-time error message to the user
2. Or a block of code that can catch and handle the exception is reached

Handling exceptions

The try/catch/finally statement can catch an exception.

Statement syntax

```java
try {
    tryInstructionBody;
} catch (ExcClass1 parameterName) {
    exceptionHandlerBody1;
} catch (ExcClass2 parameterName) {
    exceptionHandlerBody2;
} finally {
    finallyBody;
}
```

- Exactly one try block
- Zero or more catch blocks
- The finally block is optional

Meaning
• Execution begins by running the body of try

• If an exception occurs, then:
  – Execution of the try block immediately stops
  – Java considers the catch clauses in order, looking for one whose declaration matches the actual exception type
  – "Matches" means that the exception is of the same class, or is a subclass (directly or indirectly), of the class declared in the catch

• If a finally clause is included, then it will always execute after the try and any catch clause

• If there was no exception, or if a catch clause handled the exception, then execution can continue after the try statement
  – Otherwise, the exception continues through the names on the stack

Exercise 1.5.1. What is printed when this code runs?

```java
try {
    String str = null;
    System.out.print(str.trim());
} catch (ArithmeticException e) {
    System.out.println("Math Error");
} catch (NullPointerException e) {
    System.out.println("No String");
} finally {
    System.out.println("Finished");
}
System.out.println("More code here");
```

Exercise 1.5.2. What is printed when this code runs, and the user types in bob? When the user types in a valid number?

```java
final Scanner scanner;
final int x;
try {
    scanner = new Scanner(System.in);
    System.out.print("Enter an integer: ");
    x = scanner.nextInt();
    System.out.println("That was easy.");
} catch (InputMismatchException e) {
    x = 0;
} finally {
    System.out.println("Read " + x);
    scanner.close(); // Close scanner regardless
}
```

Exceptions and methods
The code that actually causes an exception does not always have to be directly inside a try block itself
* Exception-causing code may be within another method that is called by the current one

**Exceptions in normal code (no try)**

- **Exception?**
  - Yes: **Stop execution**
    - Are we in the outer-most code block?
      - Yes: **Fail**
        - throw exception from JVM, send error message with stack trace and other details
      - No: **Pass**
        - exception to next nesting code block, or to the method that called current one if no nesting remains
    - No: **Continue** program normally

**Exceptions in a try block**

- **Exception?**
  - Yes: **Stop**
    - try. Matching catch exists?
      - Yes: **Execute**
        - try
        - finally
      - No: **Pass**
        - exception up. Repeat at next level (try or not)
    - No: **Pass**
      - exception to next nesting code block, or to the method that called current one if no nesting remains
  - No: **Execute**
    - try
    - finally

**Re-throwing from a catch block**

- catch blocks do not have to completely resolve an exception
• Caught exceptions can be re-thrown by handlers
• finally clause will still execute after re-throwing

```java
try {
    String str = null;
    System.out.print(str.trim());
} catch (ArithmeticException e) {
    System.out.println("Math Error");
} catch (NullPointerException e) {
    System.out.println("No String");
    throw e;
} finally {
    System.out.println("Finished");
}
System.out.println("Never reached");
```

• `str` is declared but not initialized, so `trim` causes an exception
• Exception does not conform to `ArithmeticException`
  – So first catch block is skipped
• Exception does conform to `NullPointerException`
  – So message is printed
  – And then the exception is re-thrown
• Although we cancel execution of the handler(s) once the exception is re-thrown, still execute the finally block and print its message
• The last `println` never executes

**Types of exceptions**
When deciding what a `try/catch` block can and cannot catch, the JVM checks whether the actual exception conforms to the catch block’s named type

• There are many more kinds of exceptions than those shown below
Exercise 1.5.3. What does Java print as output when running method `topTry`?

```java
public void topTry() {
    try {
        System.out.println("try: Before methodA()");
        methodA();
        System.out.println("try: After methodA()");
    } catch (Exception e) {
        System.out.println("Handled by topTry!");
    }
    System.out.println("try: Finished");
}
```

```java
public void methodA() {
    try {
        System.out.println("A: Before methodB()");
        methodB();
        System.out.println("A: After methodB()");
    } catch (NullPointerException e) {
        System.out.println("Handled by methodA!");
    } finally {
        System.out.println("A: Finally");
    }
    System.out.println("A: Finished");
}
```

```java
public void methodB() {
    System.out.println("B: Throwing an exception");
    throw new ArithmeticException();
    System.out.println("B: Threw an exception");
}
```

Exercise 1.5.4. What does Java print as output when running method `tryMethods`? (This is not the same code as for Exercise 1.5.3; notice the different argument to the `throw` statement.)

```java
public void tryMethods() {
    try {
        System.out.println("try: Before methodA()");
        methodA();
        System.out.println("try: After methodA()");
    } catch (Exception e) {
        System.out.println("Handled by tryMethods!");
    }
    System.out.println("try: Finished");
}
```

```java
public void methodA() {
    try {
        System.out.println("A: Before methodB()");
        methodB();
        System.out.println("A: After methodB()");
    } catch (NullPointerException e) {
        System.out.println("Handled by methodA!");
    }
```

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```java
try {
    String str = null;
    String lower = str.toLowerCase();
} catch (Exception e) {
    System.out.println("Generic exception");
} catch (RuntimeException e) {
    System.out.println("Runtime exception");
} catch (NullPointerException e) {
    System.out.println("Null pointer");
}
```

**Exercise 1.5.5.** What gets printed by the following code? What does this tell us about the order of exceptions and super/subclass relationships among the `catch` clauses?

Type hierarchy of exceptions

- **Error**
  - OutOfMemoryError
  - StackOverflowError
- **Exception**
  - RuntimeException
    1. ArithmeticException
    2. ClassCastException
    3. IllegalArgumentException
    4. IndexOutOfBoundsException
    5. NullPointerException
    6. SecurityException
  - IOException
  - ...

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Checked and unchecked exceptions

Some exceptions are checked, others are unchecked

• Checked exceptions must be caught and handled within the program
  – Enforced by the compiler

• Unchecked exceptions do not need to be explicitly handled in code
  – But will still cause runtime failure if they are not handled

Dealing with checked exceptions

Any code that might produce a checked exception must either:

• Catch it
  – Potential offending instructions placed inside a try block
  – Via a catch handler that matches the exception type

• Propagate it
  – Declare that this method can produce unhandled exceptions
Via a throws declaration

```java
public void writeToFile() throws IOException {
    // Code here that may produce an IOException
    // No try block is necessary
}
```

The throws declaration forces caller of the `writeToFile` to either catch the exception, or also propagate it.

**Catch or propagate**

**Catch**

```java
public void methodA() {
    try {
        writeToFile();
    } catch (IOException e) {
        // Code to handle
        // the exception
    }
}
```

**Propagate**

```java
public void methodB() throws IOException {
    writeToFile();
}
```

**Easy and wrong ways out**

- A poor way to catch exceptions:

  ```java
  public class MyClass {
      public static void main(String[] args) {
          try {
              // Exception-throwing code here
          } catch (Exception e) {
              // Do nothing
          }
      }
  }
  ```

- A poor way to propagate exceptions:

  ```java
  public class MyClass {
      public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
          // Exception-throwing code here
      }
  }
  ```
**Printing the stack trace**
Sometimes we need to catch an exception but there is no graceful solution.

- *Print* the stack trace
- *Stop* the program

```java
try {
    ...
} catch (NullPointerException e) {
    System.out.println("Invoking null pointer handler... ");
} catch (IndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
    System.out.println("Invoking index handler... ");
} catch (OutOfMemoryError e) {
    System.out.println("Invoking memory handler... ");
} catch (Exception e) {
    // Unsure how to resolve...
    e.printStackTrace();
    System.exit(-1); // Stops the program
}
```

**Exercise 1.5.6.** What does the following code print?

```java
try {
    String str = null;
    System.out.print(str.trim());
} catch (NullPointerException e) {
    System.out.println("No String");
    throw e;
} catch (Exception e) {
    System.out.println("Generic exception");
} finally {
    System.out.println("Finished");
}
System.out.println("Reached?");
```

**Exercise 1.5.7.** What does the following code print?

```java
public void test() {
    try {
        try {
            System.out.print("If at first you ");
            trying();
        } catch (ArithmeticException e) {
            System.out.print("do ");
        } finally {
            System.out.println("succeed");
        }
    } catch (NullPointerException e) {
        System.out.print("try ");
        throw e;
    }
    System.out.println("try ");
    throw e;
}
```
Creating custom exceptions
We can create our own exceptions in Java!

• Descendants of Exception are **checked** exceptions
• Descendants of RuntimeException are **unchecked**

```java
public class MyException extends Exception {
    public MyException() {
        super();
    }
    public MyException(String msg) {
        super(msg);
    }
}
```

• Recommended practice:
  - Do not extend Error
  - Use existing exceptions where appropriate
  - Create checked exceptions in other circumstances

**Exercise 1.5.8.** Create a class NoSuchFactorial with an object method `getValue()` returning an int. Update your factorial methods of both class FactorialFinder (Exercise D.2.17) and class RecursiveFactorial (Exercise 1.2.3) to throw a NoSuchFactorial exception when there is no factorial of its argument. Your class should certainly extend RuntimeException, but are there subclasses of RuntimeException in the standard Java library which might be a more suitable superclass for NoSuchFactorial? □

**Exercise 1.5.9.** Repeat Exercise 1.5.8 for Fibonacci and Mersenne numbers. □
2 Classes and objects

2.1 Classes, objects and inheritance

Software objects
A software object is an entity in a program that possesses state, attributes, and behaviors (actions)

• May interact with other objects
• May be composed of other objects
• Can be treated as a black box

Object-oriented programming (OOP) uses the concept of objects to model entities.

• A program consists of interactions between some number of objects
• Good object-oriented design involves making wise choices about which classes we create, and what each one represents

Object instances & classes
For our programs:

• We want to be able to use many objects (which may be similar to each other, or very distinct)
• We do not want to rewrite lots of code

In Java, we can achieve this by:

• Providing blueprints for all objects of the same type (group or kind) in a class, which specify

  Attributes or data members The properties of an object
  Behaviors or actions What an object can do

• Creating separate instances or objects of that class to use in our programs

Diagrams and implementations
A UML class diagram describes a class and how it can be used properly

• Sketch of attributes and behaviors for objects of that type
• No details about how it works — that’s in the Java implementation
public class Car {
    private String makeModel;
    private int mileage;
    public Car(String s, int m) {
        makeModel = s;
        mileage = m;
    }
    public void setMakeModel(String s) {
        makeModel = s;
    }
    public void setMileage(int m) {
        mileage = m;
    }
    public String getMakeModel() {
        return makeModel;
    }
    public int getMileage() {
        return mileage;
    }
}

• Single responsibility principle — a method should have one single and straightforward purpose

Creating and using objects in a program

Creating an object

```
new ClassName(args)
```

```
final Car myCivic
    = new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
```

Using an object

```
object.method(params)
```

```
System.out.println(
    myCivic.getMakeModel());
myCivic.setMileage(
    1 + myCivic.getMileage());
```

• Static methods and fields are associated with the class as a whole
  - Do not need to create an object instance to use them
  - The main method of a class is the entry point for running that class as a program
  - These main methods should take a single String array argument, and declare a void return type

Exercise 2.1.1. Alongside the Car class, construct another class CarLot that tracks cars (such as for a used car dealership)
The CarLot is an aggregate class, made up of other objects. In UML diagrams, the diamond arrow shows such a "used by" relationship as between Car and CarLot.

Exercise 2.1.2. Extend Exercise 2.1.1 by adding a main method to class CarLot which creates one CarLot and two Car instances, populates the lot with the cars, and calls the printCars method of the lot.

Exercise 2.1.3. Write a class Person which implements the following UML:

| Person | - String name  
|        | - int ticketsReceived  
| Constructor | + Person(String)  
| Update | + void noteTicketReceived()  
| Queries | + String getName()  
|        | + int getTicketsReceived()  

where initially every person is assumed to have received zero tickets.

Exercise 2.1.4. Add a method equals to Person which

- Takes a single argument that of type Person, and
- Requires only that the name fields of two Person instances are equal to return true.

Where do objects live?

We have already seen an example where objects can last longer than the stack frame of the method which created them

```java
public static Car buildMyCar() {
    final Car x = new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
    return x;
}
```

and in some caller,

caller c = buildMyCar();

So to create an object, new allocates space in the heap

- The class name tells new how much space is needed, and how it will be used
  - Each String is also an object!
• The arguments are passed to the constructor to set up the new space
• The instance returned from new is assigned to x
• When buildMyCar exits, its result is assigned to c

**Static information is global**
Fields tagged `static` occur exactly *once* in memory
• Created at the beginning of program execution
• Remain until the end of program execution

```java
public class C {
    private static int x=40;
    private int y=50;
    // ...
}
```

And statements:
```java
C d1 = new C();
C d2 = new C();
```

Adding more complexity
Suppose the car dealership also sells commercial vehicles (trucks/vans) which have varying carrying capacities (e.g., 1/5/10 tons).

One solution: Create a separate class
• Large amount of duplication
• Harder to write general-purpose code
  – New features in one class must be adapted to the other
  – Will need duplicate code to use Car and Truck instances
  – Harder to build a CarAndTruckLot where either type of vehicle can park in a slot

Finding a better solution
Certain types of objects have things in common
  • Cars/trucks/motorcycles
  • Savings/checking/investment accounts
We should adjust our model to exploit these commonalities.
  • Via inheritance in object-oriented software design

Inheritance
Inheritance is when one class (the subclass or child class) is based on another class, the super class or parent class, which the child class extends or modifies in some way.
  • Superclass (or parent) contains similarities
  • Subclass (or child) extends the parent
    – Inherits methods and variables from the parent
    – Can add more methods and variables or modify existing ones
Allows us to make our code simpler and more useful!

Exercise 2.1.5. Consider your class Person of Exercise 2.1.3, and the description of class Student in Exercise D.4.1. Rewrite this class Student so that it is a subclass of Person. □
Inheritance in UML and Java

Inheritance can be represented in UML with arrows from children to parents

- Each child is a more specific kind of parent object
- Called an is-a relationship

```java
public class Vehicle {
    // data and methods
}

public class Car extends Vehicle {
    // more data and methods
}

public class Truck extends Vehicle {
    // more data and methods
}
```

Everything is an Object

Objects can be part of an inheritance hierarchy, with multiple levels of ancestors and descendants.

- In Java, everything is descended from the Object class

```
public class Vehicle {
    String makeModel;
    int mileage;

    public Vehicle(String model, int mileage) {
        this.makeModel = model;
        this.mileage = mileage;
    }

    public void setMakeModel(String model) {
        this.makeModel = model;
    }

    public String getMakeModel() {
        return this.makeModel;
    }

    public void setMileage(int mileage) {
        this.mileage = mileage;
    }

    public int getMileage() {
        return this.mileage;
    }
}
```

```
public class Car extends Vehicle {
    // more data and methods

    public Car(String model, int mileage) {
        super(model, mileage);
    }
}
```

```
public class Truck extends Vehicle {
    int capacity;

    public Truck(String model, int mileage, int capacity) {
        super(model, mileage);
        this.capacity = capacity;
    }

    public void setCapacity(int capacity) {
        this.capacity = capacity;
    }

    public int getCapacity() {
        return this.capacity;
    }
}
```

Exercise 2.1.6. Write classes Vehicle, Car and Truck which implement the following UML:

You will need to use the superclass constructor super as the first step of the constructors for Car and Truck. □
Exercise 2.1.7. Revise your Vehicle class from Exercise 2.1.6 to use the protected mode, indicated by the # tag in this revised UML design.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class: Vehicle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># String makeModel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># int mileage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Constructor
+ Vehicle(String, int)

Update
+ void setMakeModel(String)
+ void setMileage(int)

Queries
+ String getMakeModel()
+ int getMileage()

Type conformance
Every object conforms to the types of all its ancestors.

- In Java, everything conforms to the Object type

```
Object
  → Vehicle
    • Car
    • Truck
```

- That is, in any place where a Vehicle instance is required, we could also provide either a Car or a Truck instance.
  - Where an Object is required, we could provide an instance of Vehicle, or Car, or Truck — or any other class

Conforming to a variable’s declared type
One of the times when conformance comes up is when assigning to variables

- Whenever we declare a variable, we declare its type
  - But we can assign values of other types into that storage location
    - So long as the type of the value conforms to the type of the variable
  - In these cases, the variable’s declared type does not actually change

```
Vehicle myVehicle;
myVehicle = new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
myVehicle = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 2); // Nope!
```
But here’s the tradeoff
Conformance gives us flexibility in what we assign, but there is a cost

- When we declare a variable to have a certain type, we can use that variable only in ways which are sure to be valid for that type

- So this is fine:

  ```java
  Vehicle myVehicle = new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
  System.out.println(myVehicle.getMakeModel());
  ```

- But this is not:

  ```java
  Vehicle z = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 2);
  System.out.println(z.getCapacity());
  ```
  
  - Even though class `Truck` does define the `getCapacity` method!
  - We judge the valid methods for `z` based on `z`’s declared type

No matter where conformance occurs, respect the declared bound
This gap between the declared and actual types comes up in many places

With array entries
Allowed

```java
Vehicle[] vehicles = new Vehicle[10];
// ...
vehicles[i] =
    new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
System.out.println
    (vehicles[i].getMakeModel());
```

Forbidden

```java
Vehicle[] vehicles = new Vehicle[10];
// ...
vehicles[i] =
    new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 2);
System.out.println
    (vehicles[i].getCapacity());
```

With method parameters
Allowed

- Method definition

  ```java
  public static void m(Vehicle v) {
      System.out.println
          (v.getMakeModel());
  }
  ```

- Call

  ```java
  m(new Car("Honda Civic", 214118));
  ```
Forbidden

- Method definition

```java
public static void m(Vehicle v) {
    System.out.println(v.getCapacity());
}
```

- Call

```java
m(new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 2));
```

Checking and casting

So we cannot just assume that some Vehicle is a Truck

But we can

- First explicitly check whether, in fact, it is one
- Then explicitly refer to the instance as a Truck

```java
final Vehicle vehicle = lot[i];
if (vehicle instanceof Truck) {
    final Truck truck = (Truck)vehicle;
    // ...use truck as a Truck here...
}
```

- The instanceof predicate tells us whether the type of an instance conforms to a class
- When we write (Truck)vehicle, we are downcasting

Casting does not duplicate the object instance

- It creates another reference to the same instance

Exercise 2.1.8. Write a static method announceVehicleType which

- Takes a Vehicle instance as an argument, and returns no value
- Prints exactly one of these three messages as appropriate:
  1. It’s a car!
  2. It’s a truck carrying ___ pounds, filling in the blank with the truck’s capacity
  3. I don’t know what that is!

□
Dispatching methods
Consider these classes

```java
public class Parent {
    public void f() {
        System.out.println("A");
    }
}

public class Child extends Parent {
    @Override
    public void f() {
        System.out.println("B");
    }
}
```

What do these lines print?

```java
final Parent x = new Child();
x.f();
```

Another question of declared type vs. actual type!

- Does Java follow to the declared type of the variable `x`?
- Or does Java follow the actual type of the object instance in the heap?

The rule in Java:

- It is the actual type of an object which determines how it behaves

Some vocabulary:

- We say that `f` is polymorphic
- The act of deciding what method corresponds to a reference to `f` is called dispatch
- The use of the actual type of the object to determine dispatch is called dynamic dispatch
  - Or virtual method invocation, if you come from the C++ world

Accessing overridden methods

When a class `B` overrides some method `f`, it can still invoke the version of `f` from its parent `A`

- In `B`'s methods, writing `super.f(...)` invokes the version of `f` defined for `A` instead of `B`
- Useful for extending a method or modifying its results

```java
public class Hatchback extends Car {
    // Sensible constructor not shown

    @Override public String toString() {
        return super.toString() + " with hatchback";
    }
}
```
• But be wary of overuse
  – Can lead to brittle and confusing code
  – Use of super across different methods can be a sign of poor design
  – Good usage is when a method calls its own overridden version — "do that old work, plus this here work too"

In these exercises work out for yourself, on paper, what the answers are before running the given code as Java to verify your work.

**Exercise 2.1.9.** Consider these classes:

```java
public class Obverse {
    protected int m;
    public Obverse(int mIn) {
        m = mIn;
    }
    public int getValue() {
        return m;
    }
}

public class Reverse extends Obverse {
    private int b;
    public Reverse(int a, int bIn) {
        super(a);
        b = bIn;
    }
    public int getB() {
        return b;
    }
    @Override public int getValue() {
        return m + b;
    }
}
```

After running the next six lines, what values will be assigned to \(x\), \(y\) and \(z\)?

```java
Obverse a = new Obverse(1);
Reverse b = new Reverse(2,3);
Obverse c = b;
```

```java
int x = a.getValue();
int y = b.getValue();
int z = c.getValue();
```

**Exercise 2.1.10.** Consider these classes:

```java
public class Curly {
    private final int c;
    public Curly(int cIn) {
        c = cIn;
    }
```
public int getCurliness() {
    return c;
}
}
public class Larry extends Curly {
    private final int l;
    public Larry(int c, int l) {
        super(c);
        l = lIn;
    }
    public int getLarrility() {
        return l;
    }
    @Override public int getCurliness() {
        return super.getCurliness() + getLarrility()/3;
    }
}
public class Moe extends Larry {
    private int m;
    public Larry(int c, int l, int mIn) {
        super(c, l);
        m = mIn;
    }
    @Override public int getLarrility() {
        return 6*m + super.getLarrility();
    }
}

What values will each of the following sequences of statements print?

1. Curly who = new Larry(3, 60);
   System.out.println(who.getCurliness());
2. Larry who = new Larry(3, 60);
   System.out.println(who.getCurliness());
3. Curly who = new Moe(3, 60, 900);
   System.out.println(who.getCurliness());
4. Larry who = new Moe(3, 60, 900);
   System.out.println(who.getCurliness());

Identity equality

In Java, we have two forms of equality for reference types: identity equality and content equality.

Two objects have the same identity if and only if they are both the same object, at the same address in memory.

Object obj1 = new Object();
Object obj2 = obj1;
if (obj1 == obj2) {
    System.out.println
Content equality

Two objects have the same content if and only if they have the same state (as defined by the programmer’s implementation of equals).

Person p1 = new Person("Joe Smith");
Person p2 = new Person("Joe Smith");
if (p1 == p2) {
    System.out.println("Same object");
}
if (p1.equals(p2)) {
    System.out.println("Same content");
}

Program output:

Same content

Defining content equality

By default content equality is defined as identity equality:

public class Object {
    //...
    public boolean equals(Object other) {
        return (this == other);
    }
}

To modify this behavior, we override the equals method

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• But remember, equals is defined

```java
public boolean equals(Object other)
```

We can compare any two objects for equality

• Usually, we first check the type of the other object
  
  – If the types differ, we normally just return false right away
    ```java
    if (!(other instanceof Vehicle)) {
      return false;
    }
    ```
  
  – If the types match, we can cast the argument
    ```java
    final Vehicle v = (Vehicle)other;
    ```

Defining content equality — putting it all together

Once we cast the argument, we can access its fields, and reason about the objects’ equality

```java
public abstract class Vehicle {
    public boolean equals(final Object other) {
        if (!(other instanceof Vehicle)) {
            return false;
        }
        final Vehicle v = (Vehicle)other;
        return getMakeModel().equals(v.getMakeModel())
            && (getMileage() == v.getMileage());
    }
}
```

Expectations for an equals method

The equals method should implement an equivalence relation on non-null object references:

• It should be reflexive:
  ```java
  // Should always print true
  System.out.println(obj.equals(obj));
  ```

• It should be symmetric:
  ```java
  // Should always print true
  if (objA.equals(objB)) {
      System.out.println(objB.equals(objA));
  } else {
      System.out.println(!objB.equals(objA));
  }
  ```

• It should be transitive
  ```java
  // Should always print true, or nothing
  if (objA.equals(objB) && objB.equals(objC)) {
      System.out.println(objA.equals(objC));
  }
  ```

• There is no way for the compiler to enforce these expectations!
– But if we fail to meet these conditions, our programs can misbehave in mysterious (and very hard to debug!) ways
– More details on the Javadoc page for Object

See also Review Exercises D.4.31, D.4.33 and D.4.36.

**Exercise 2.1.11.** A rational number is one which can be represented as a fraction of two integers. Define a class `Rational` for representing a rational number by storing the two integers of its fraction. Give it one construction of two `int` arguments, taking the numerator (the top number of the fraction) first. Write an `equals` method for your class which returns `true` when two instances represent the same rational number. For example, the instances

```
new Rational(1,2)
new Rational(3,6)
```

should be considered equal, but

```
new Rational(1,2)
new Rational(3,7)
```

should not.

---

**Implementing the equals method**

The implementation of `equals` provided in `Vehicle` compares `Vehicle` instances by make/model and mileage, and is an equivalence relation

- All subclasses (`Car`, `Truck`, `Van`) inherit this implementation.
- Given that, what is the output of the code below?

```java
final Truck t1 = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 5),
t2 = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 5);
System.out.println(t1.equals(t2));
t2.setCapacity(7);
System.out.println(t1.equals(t2));
```

- Both statements print `true`!

- Capacity of `Truck` instances is ignored
  - We never told Java that it should be considered
  - But easy to fix

**The equals method for Truck instances**

`Truck` instances should be compared by make/model, mileage and capacity

```java
public class Truck extends Vehicle {
    //... 

    // Overrides equals method from Vehicle
    public boolean equals(Object other) {
        if (!(other instanceof Truck)) {
            return false;
        }
        Truck t = (Truck)other;
        return (getMakeModel().equals(t.getMakeModel()))
```
getCapacity() == t.getCapacity() &&
getMileage() == t.getMileage();
}
}

**Avoiding duplication**

Some of the comparisons are already encoded in the Vehicle.equals method

- We can avoid repeating those comparisons using super

```
public class Truck extends Vehicle {
    //...

    public boolean equals(Object other) {
        final Truck t = (Truck) other;
        return (this.capacity == t.capacity)
            && super.equals(other);
    }
}
```

**Checking the implementation**

With the equals method for Truck instances, this code behaves as expected:

```
final Truck
    t1 = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 5),
    t2 = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 5);
System.out.println(t1.equals(t2)); // true
System.out.println(t2.equals(t1)); // false
```

But what about this case?

```
final Truck t = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 5);
final Car c = new Car("Ford F-150", 0);
System.out.println(t.equals(c)); // [A]
System.out.println(c.equals(t)); // [B]
```

- Line [A] prints true, as we would hope
- But line [B] prints false!
- We have broken the symmetric property of equals
  - (Which means transitivity is also broken)

**Implementing equals across subclasses**

In general, it is very difficult to retain the symmetric and transitive properties for equals across subclasses.

- A solution: Have each subclass provide its own equals method

```
public class Car extends Vehicle {
    //...

    public boolean equals(Object other) {
```

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if (!(other instanceof Car)) {
    return false;
}
Car c = (Car) other; // Cast Obj. ref to Car ref
return (getMakeModel().equals(c.getMakeModel()) && 
       getMileage() == c.getMileage());
}

• We run into the same issues if we have subclasses of Car, Truck, or Van.

2.1.1 Additional exercises for this section

Exercise 2.1.12. Recall the formula for compound interest from Exercise D.1.15:

\[ A = P \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt}, \]

where:

• \( A \) is the total value at the end of the investment period,
• \( P \) is the original invested value,
• \( r \) is the interest rate as a decimal (so, 0.05 for 5%),
• \( n \) is the number of times per year that interest is compounded, and
• \( t \) is the (whole) number of years of investment.

In this exercise you will break up this formula into two stages, writing a class InterestCalc with both static and object methods.

Class InterestCalc should have:

• A constructor which takes a double representing the interest rate, and an int representing the number of compounding periods per year.
• An object method getFinalValue which takes two arguments,
  1. A double value representing the original invested value, and
  2. An int value representing the number of years invested, and
returns the final value of such an investment under the interest rate and compounding period associated with this object.
• A static method getInterestCalculator which takes the same two arguments as the constructor, and returns a new InterestCalc specialized to that rate and compounding period.

2.2 Abstract classes and methods

Writing method bodies
So far, when we have written classes

• We have always provided the method bodies, the list of statements in curly braces
• Of course!
• Methods of objects might be called, and Java needs to know what steps to take

Contrast with object fields
The rules are different for object fields:
• We can declare them in one place in the class
• But set them only later, in the constructor or in a method

Is there any way to separate the declaration of a method signature from the definition of its body?
• And is there any sense to this?

Interfaces and abstract classes
In Java there are two ways to delay defining method bodies: interfaces and abstract classes
• We cannot instantiate either one of them with new
  – When an object is placed in the heap, its methods must all be defined
• To instantiate, we write other classes
  – Which implement the interface
  – Or extend the abstract class

Java can instantiate these other classes
  – So long as they are fully defined, and not themselves abstract

Interfaces
Interfaces specify methods without (normally) defining their bodies
• We provide only the signature
  – The names of the method
  – The number of parameters each method has
  – The type of each parameter
• Interfaces may not declare object fields, nor constructors
• May implement other interfaces
• May not extend classes

A class can implement one or more interfaces
• The class is then required to define a body for each interface method

Interfaces were designed to allow different implementations of the same method by different implementing classes
A vehicle interface

Every object conforms to both its ancestor classes and ancestor interfaces.

```java
public interface VInterf {
    public String getMakeModel();
    public String getMileage();
}

public class Vehicle implements VInterf {
    protected String makeModel;
    protected int mileage;

    // ...
}
```

Exercise 2.2.1. The following interface describes the signature of predicates over integers, that is, yes-or-no questions about integers.

```java
public interface IntegerPredicate {
    public boolean check(int n);
}
```

Write these classes which implement `IntegerPredicate`:

1. **Class** `IntegerEvenPredicate`, whose `check` method returns `true` exactly when its argument is an even integer (where even means that the result when dividing by two has remainder 0).
2. **Class** `IntegerSquarePredicate`, whose `check` method returns `true` exactly when its argument is a perfect square.
3. **Class** `IntegerPowerOfTwoPredicate`, whose `check` method returns `true` exactly when its argument is an exact power of two \(1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \text{ and so on)}.

□

Exercise 2.2.2. To apply Exercise 2.2.1, write a class `IntPredUser` with a static and void method `process` which

- Takes an argument of type `IntegerPredicate`
- Prints the result of passing 5 to the argument’s `check` method.

For example, the main method of `IntPredUser` might have the statements

```java
public interface VInterf {
    public String getMakeModel();
    public String getMileage();
}

public class Vehicle implements VInterf {
    protected String makeModel;
    protected int mileage;

    // ...
}
```
Exercise 2.2.3. The following interface describes the signature of single-argument functions over integers.

```java
public interface IntegerFunction {
    public int apply(int n);
}
```

Write these classes which implement `IntegerFunction`:

1. Class `IntegerIncrementFunction`, whose `apply` method returns a value one greater than its argument.
2. Class `IntegerSquareFunction`, whose `apply` method returns the square of its argument.
3. Class `IntegerDirakFunction`, where:
   - The constructor of the class takes an argument `base`
   - The `apply` method on an instance returns 1 if the argument is the same as that instance’s `base`, and 0 otherwise.

Exercise 2.2.4. To apply Exercise 2.2.3, write a class `IntFnUser` with a static and `void` method `process` which

- Takes an argument of type `IntegerFunction`
- Prints the result of passing 20 to the argument’s `apply` method.

For example, the `main` method of `IntFnUser` might have the statements

```java
process(new IntegerIncrementFunction());
process(new IntegerSquareFunction());
process(new IntegerDirakFunction(10));
process(new IntegerDirakFunction(20));
```

which would print 21, 400, 0 and 1.

Exercise 2.2.5. The following interface describes the signature of two-argument functions over integers.

```java
public interface IntegerBinaryFunction {
    public int apply(int m, int n);
}
```

Write these classes which implement `IntegerBinaryFunction`:

1. Class `IntegerAddition`, whose `apply` method returns the sum of its arguments.
2. Class `IntegerMultiplication`, whose `apply` method returns the product of its arguments.
3. Class `IntegerTenTwist`, whose `apply` method returns the sum of the second argument, and 10 times the first argument.
Exercise 2.2.6. To apply Exercise 2.2.5, write a class `IntBinFnUser` with a static and void method `process` which

- Takes an argument of type `IntegerBinaryFunction`
- Prints the result of passing 5 and 10 to the argument's `apply` method.

For example, the `main` method of `IntBinFnUser` might have the statements

```java
process(new IntegerAddition());
process(new IntegerMultiplication());
process(new IntegerTenTwist());
```

which would print 15, 50 and 60.

Abstract classes

- Methods in an abstract class may be defined in full (as in normal classes)
- Methods may also be declared with a signature only (as in interfaces)
  - Tagged with the `abstract` keyword
- Abstract classes can have fields and/or constructors
- Abstract classes can extend other classes
  - Whether abstract or concrete
- Abstract classes can implement interfaces
  - Can give will definitions with bodies for none, some or all interface methods

Example: the car lot

Recall again our setup for `Vehicle`, `Car` and `Truck`

```
Vehicle
- String makeModel
- int mileage

Car
+ Constructor
  + Car(String, int)

Truck
- int capacity

+ Constructor
  + Truck(String, int, int)

+ Update
  + void setMakeModel(String)
  + void setMileage(int)

+ Queries
  + String getMakeModel()
  + int getMileage()
  + int getCapacity()
```

- It would be odd to instantiate `Vehicle`
- We can make it abstract
Making Vehicle abstract

public abstract class Vehicle {
    protected String makeModel;
    protected int mileage;

    public Vehicle(String s, int m) {
        this.makeModel = s;
        this.mileage = m;
    }
    public void setMakeModel(String s) {
        makeModel = s;
    }
    public void setMileage(int m) {
        mileage = m;
    }
    public String getMakeModel() {
        return makeModel;
    }
    public int getMileage() {
        return mileage;
    }
}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abstract Vehicle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># String makeModel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># int mileage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Constructor
+ Vehicle(String, int)

Update
+ void setMakeModel(String)
+ void setMileage(int)

Queries
+ String getMakeModel()
+ int getMileage()

Adding an abstract method

public abstract class Vehicle {
    protected String makeModel;
    protected int mileage;

    public Vehicle(String s, int m) {
        this.makeModel = s;
        this.mileage = m;
    }

    public void setMakeModel(String s) {
        makeModel = s;
    }

    public void setMileage(int m) {
        mileage = m;
    }

    public String getMakeModel() {
        return makeModel;
    }
}

64
public int getMileage() {
    return mileage;
}

public abstract String getInfo();

abstract Vehicle
# String makeModel
# int mileage

Constructor
+ Vehicle(String, int)
Update
+ void setMakeModel(String)
+ void setMileage(int)
Queries
+ String getMakeModel()
+ int getMileage()
+ abstract String getInfo()

The revised car lot

abstract Vehicle
- String makeModel
- int mileage

Constructor
+ Vehicle(String, int)
Update
+ void setMakeModel(String)
+ void setMileage(int)
Queries
+ String getMakeModel()
+ int getMileage()
+ abstract String getInfo()

Car
Constructor
+ Car(String, int)
Queries
+ String getInfo()

Truck
- int capacity
Constructor
+ Truck(String, int, int)
Update
+ void setCapacity(int)
Queries
+ int getCapacity()
+ String getInfo()

Extending abstract classes

public class Car extends Vehicle {
    public Car(String s, int m) {
        super(s, m);
    }
    public String getInfo() {
        final StringBuilder info = new StringBuilder();
        info.append("This Car is a ");
        info.append(makeModel);
        info.append(" , with ");
        info.append(mileage);
        info.append(" miles.");
        return info.toString();
    }
}

public class Truck extends Vehicle {
    private int capacity;
    public Truck(String s, int m, int c) {
        super(s, m);
        capacity = c;
    }
    // ...
    public String getInfo() {
        final StringBuilder info = new StringBuilder();
        info.append("This Truck is a ");
        info.append(makeModel);
        info.append(" , with ");
        info.append(mileage);
        info.append(" miles, and a ");
        info.append(capacity);
        return info.toString();
    }
}
• Each child class extends the same abstract parent class

• Each child class provides its own implementation of the parent’s abstract methods

Using abstract classes

```java
public void fillLot() {
    final Vehicle[] vehicles = new Vehicle[10];
    for (int i=0; i<vehicles.length; ++i) {
        if (i % 2 == 0) {
            vehicles[i] = new Car("Honda Civic", 0);
        } else {
            vehicles[i] = new Truck("Ford F-150", 0, 10);
        }
    }
    displayLot(vehicles);
}
```

```java
private void displayLot(Vehicle[] vehicles) {
    for (int i = 0; i < vehicles.length; ++i) {
        System.out.println
            (i + ": " + vehicles[i].getInfo());
    }
}
```

• The base type of the array is the abstract type
  – Stores references to objects that conform to Vehicle

• Array is filled with references to objects whose actual type is concrete
  – Of course: only concrete types can be instantiated!

• Calling getInfo() works for all objects
  – Based on the actual object type, Java dispatches the version appropriate for each
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interfaces</th>
<th>Abstract classes</th>
<th>Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can instantiate with new</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can declare abstract methods</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can fully declare methods</td>
<td></td>
<td>With default</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can declare fields and constructors</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can use with extends</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>One only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can use with implements</td>
<td></td>
<td>Zero or more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exercise 2.2.7.** Consider these two classes:

```java
public class Person {
    private String name;
    //...
    public String getInfo() {
        return "Name: " + name;
    }
}

public class Animal {
    private String type;
    //...
    public String getInfo() {
        return "Type: " + type;
    }
}
```

Write an abstract class `Informative` which captures the signature of the `getInfo` methods, and rewrite the `Person` and `Animal` classes to extend this abstract class.

**Exercise 2.2.8.** Write a static method `showAllInfo` which

- Takes a single argument, an array of `Informative` instances,
- Returns no result,
- Prints the result of a call to `getInfo` to each element of the array, each on its own line

**Exercise 2.2.9.** Revise Exercise 2.2.7 so that `Informative` is an interface rather than an abstract class

**Exercise 2.2.10.** Consider the method `showAllInfo` from Exercise 2.2.8 using the definition of `Informative` from Exercise 2.2.9 instead. What, if anything, needs to change in `showAllInfo`?
Exercise 2.2.11. Consider the interface Speaker.

```
public interface Speaker {
    public void speak();
}
```

Revise the classes `Person` and `Animal` of Exercise 2.2.9 so that both class implement both `Informative` and `Speaker`. The result of running this code:

```
f finally Speaker[] speakers = {
    new Person("Joan"),
    new Person("Betty"),
    new Animal("monster")
};
for(Speaker sp : speakers) {
    sp.speak();
}
```

should be:

```
Hi! My name is Joan.
Hi! My name is Betty.
Woof! Woof!!
```

(We will simply pretend that all animals bark.)

So far you have learned new language features to solve new problems. But we are quickly approaching the point where we will have seen all of the major features of languages like Java. So our focus for solving harder problems will come to include

- More sophisticated algorithms
- Understanding and using libraries
- Describing ideas which encompass several language structures and how they interact

Software design patterns address the last of these keys, and the next exercises consider two examples of design patterns. They give us a vocabulary for general, reusable solutions to commonly occurring problems within a given context in software design.

Template Method is a pattern for classes with related behavior. We apply Template Method when we define an outline (skeleton) of an algorithm in a template class, and provide implementation details in subclasses.

For example, the top-level structure of a game could be defined as:

```
public abstract class Game {
    public void play() {
        initialize();
        while (!gameIsOver()) {
            takeATurn();
        }
    }
}
```

// The template methods
protected abstract void initialize();
protected abstract boolean gameIsOver();
protected abstract void takeATurn();
```

Then particular game classes will provide the details for each step by defining versions of `initialize`, `gameIsOver` and `takeATurn` without overriding `play`. 
Exercise 2.2.12. The factorial method of Exercise D.2.17 and this sumThrough method have similar structure:

```java
public long sumThrough(int n) {
    long result = 0;
    for(int i=1; i<=n; i=i+1) {
        result = result + i;
    }
    return result;
}
```

(Assume for this exercise that the factorial method is not static). Write a class AbstractIntervalConsumingCalculation which can serve as a Template Method pattern for these two methods, using these abstract methods:

```java
public abstract class AbstractIntervalConsumingCalculation {
    public long performCalculation(int n) {
        // You fill this in
    }

    public abstract int getIntervalStart(int n);
    public abstract int getIntervalEnd(int n);
    public abstract long getInitialResult();
    public abstract long getUpdatedResult(long oldResult, int newIntervalMember);
}
```

Then write concrete classes DerivedFactorial and DerivedSumThrough which extend AbstractIntervalConsumingCalculation, where the performCalculation method on instances of each returns the same results as the original factorial and sumThrough methods. Your DerivedFactorial and DerivedSumThrough classes must not override the performCalculation method! They should only override the abstract methods with full definitions of those methods.

`Factory Method` is a creationale pattern where instead of using constructors directly within code, we define an interface for object creation. This interface has factory methods which returns a new instance. For example, this interface VehicleFactory expresses the general action of creating a Vehicle without committing to a particular form (concrete subclass) of Vehicle:

```java
public interface VehicleFactory {
    public Vehicle build(int mileage);
}
```

Then we can define different factory object for instantiable subclasses of Vehicle:

```java
public class VolvoFactory extends VehicleFactory {
    public Vehicle build(final int mileage) {
        return new Car("Volvo", mileage);
    }
}
```

```java
public class FordTruckFactory extends VehicleFactory {
    public Vehicle build(final int mileage) {
        return new Truck("Ford F-650", mileage, 3);
    }
}
```

Note that factory methods may take arguments, in just the same way as constructors.
Exercise 2.2.13. Consider your class Person of Exercise 2.1.3. Write a class PersonFactory which implements the following interface to establish a Factory Method pattern:

```java
public interface PersonFactoryMethod {
    public Person getPerson(String firstName, String lastName);
}
```

Exercise 2.2.14. Write a class StoogesForever with a single static method with signature

```java
public static Person[] makeStoogesArray(PersonFactoryMethod factory)
```

Your makeStoogesArray method should create an array of size three, and populate with three Person-conforming objects derived from its factory argument, the three objects corresponding to Moe Howard, Larry Fine, and Shemp Howard. Test your class and method by providing it an instance of your PersonFactory from Exercise 2.2.13.

Exercise 2.2.15. Students are people too! (Allegedly) Use your class Student from Exercise 2.1.5 to write a second class StudentFactory which also implements the PersonFactoryMethod interface, but where the result of getPerson has a runtime type of Student instead of Person. Your makeStoogesArray method of Exercise 2.2.14 should be just as happy with an instance of StudentFactory as it is with an instance of PersonFactory.

The next two exercises use the java.util.Random class, which is part of the standard Java libraries and is documented on the API Javadoc pages, to generate random numbers.

Exercise 2.2.16. Write a class RandomStringFactory whose build() method produces a string whose length is between 0 and 255, containing randomly selected printable ASCII characters.

Exercise 2.2.17. Write a class RandomNewVehicleFactory whose build() method produces, at random, either a Car, Truck or Hatchback instance, with

- The make and model chosen from a small number of plausible strings, and
- Zero mileage.

Checking the actual class

Abstract classes can give us another technique for defining equal across subclasses

- The class of an object is available at runtime
- Sometimes, this can help us avoid problems when comparing across subclass

Object also defines the method getClass

- Returns the actual, runtime type of the object
- Expressed as an object of type java.lang.Class

- So in Vehicle we can check the actual classes of this and other:

---

1 Introductory information about design patterns is available at en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Software_design_pattern. Gamma et al.’s book [1] was a breakthrough publication which introduced design patterns to a much wider audience, and it remains a valuable reference.
public abstract class Vehicle {
    //...

    public boolean equals(Object other) {
        if (getClass() != other.getClass()) {
            return false;
        }
        final Vehicle v = (Vehicle)other;
        return getMakeModel().equals(v.getMakeModel())
                && (getMileage() == v.getMileage());
    }
}

2.3 More class forms

Classes and files
In older versions of Java, each class lived in its own file

• This is still substantially the case
• So programs tend to have many files
• Too many files

So Java evolved to have ways to specify classes without creating new files

• Inner classes
  – Static
  – Object
• Anonymous inner classes
• Lambda expressions

And by the way, you can cram two classes into one file

Two in one!
In a file Grape.java:

```java
public class Grape {
    private final JellyJar jar = new JellyJar();
    public void press() { jar.open(); }
}

class JellyJar {
    public void open() {
        System.out.println("Into the jar");
    }
}
```

Perfectly valid Java!

• But take a look at
  – What’s public
  – What’s private
  – What’s...weirdly neither??
• The JellyJar class has no public or private declaration!
  – It is package-private
  – Not the same as private — there is no keyword for package-private
  – Package-private classes can appear in the same file as another class without issue

Static inner classes
An inner class is a class defined inside the scope of another class

• Like the fields and methods of the enclosing class, inner classes can be referenced anywhere within the enclosing class

• If we declare the inner class to be static, then it cannot reference the outer class’s fields and methods

So the jar goes inside the grape

public class Grape {
  private final JellyJar
    jar = new JellyJar();
  public void press() {
    jar.open();
  }

  public static class JellyJar {
    public void open() {
      System.out.println
        ("Into the jar");
    }
  }
}

Public, static inner classes

• If the inner class is declared public, then it can be accessed from outside the enclosing class as well

Public class Enclosing {
  // ...fields and methods...

  public static class Inside {
    public Inside(int a) { // ...
  }
}

So we could instantiate an object new Enclosing.Inside(10)
  – There is a single (static!) definition of Inside

Inner classes with an enclosing object
When an inner class is non-static, it can refer to the fields of the object which encloses it

Public class Enclosing {
  private int i;
  private Inside hidden;
  public Enclosing (int i) {
this.i = i;
this.hidden = new Inside();
}

public void unhide() {
    hidden.peek();
}

public class Inside {
    public void peek() {
        System.out.println(i);
    }
}

• Note that i is used within Inside, but is not defined within the class

• The Enclosing constructor creates an Inside instance specific to its own value of i

• If Enclosing has this main routine

public static void main(String[] args) {
    Enclosing e1 = new Enclosing(1);
    Enclosing e2 = new Enclosing(2);
    e1.unhide();
    e2.unhide();
}

it would print 1 and 2.

Understanding the inner classes
One way to understand inner classes is to imagine a separate class with an additional argument for the parent

With an inner class

public class Enclosing {
    private int i;
    private Inside hidden;
    public Enclosing (int i) {
        this.i = i;
        this.hidden = new Inside();
    }

    public void unhide() {
        hidden.peek();
    }

    public class Inside {
        public void peek() {
            System.out.println(i);
        }
    }
}

But inner classes are more powerful than just this "trick"

• This code works even though i is declared private!
With separate classes

```java
public class Enclosing {
    public int i;
    private Inside hidden;
    public Enclosing (int i) {
        this.i = i;
        this.hidden = new Inside(this);
    }
    public void unhide() {
        hidden.peek();
    }
}

public class Inside {
    private Enclosing parent;
    Inside(Enclosing parent) {
        this.parent = parent;
    }
    public void peek() {
        System.out.println(parent.i);
    }
}
```

- In this code that `i` cannot be declared `private`!
- This direct field access is not a preferred Java style

**Exercise 2.3.1.** Consider this interface

```java
public interface SteeringWheel {
    public Vehicle controlsVehicle();
    public boolean hasRadioControls();
    public boolean hasClimateControls();
}
```

First, extend the `Vehicle` class with a method

```java
public SteeringWheel getSteeringWheelInfo();
```

Then extend each subclass of `Vehicle` to include an inner class definition which is instantiated by the `Vehicle` subclass’s constructor in order to return a result from `getSteeringWheelInfo`.

**Anonymity**

With inner classes, we always give the class a name

- Of course!
- It’s part of a `class` declaration
- It’s how we use the class

But names are not always convenient, especially if we must name *everything*

- This assignment is easy to understand:
\[ \text{int } y = (x + 4) \times (z - 4) \times (x + z); \]

• If we must name every intermediate result, it obfuscates the point of the code:

```java
int xp4 = x + 4;
int zm4 = z - 4;
int xpz = x + z;
int prod1 = xp4 \times zm4;
int y = prod1 \times xpz;
```

• It can become a burden to think of so many consistent, distinct, mnemonic names

Java lets us write *anonymous* inner classes

• For situations where we will instantiate the class in one place only
• We will not even refer to the class elsewhere, so it does not actually need a name

**How to write an anonymous class**

• An anonymous class must have exactly one base type
  – Could be just `Object`
  – Could be an interface, an abstract class, or a concrete class
• Since we are immediately instantiating the anonymous class, if its base is a class there may also be constructor arguments
• Since the base could be abstract, an anonymous class has a body of method definitions
  – Can override other methods as usual

```java
Vehicle v = new Car("Bentley Mulsanne", 10) {
  @Override public String toString() {
    return "A discrete and bespoke sedan";
  }
};
```

**Exercise 2.3.2.** In the sample `main` method of Exercise 2.2.2, replace the three given object instantiations with anonymous inner class instantiations based on `IntegerPredicate`. □

**Exercise 2.3.3.** In the sample `main` method of Exercise 2.2.4, replace the three given object instantiations with anonymous inner class instantiations based on `IntegerFunction`. □

**Exercise 2.3.4.** In the sample `main` method of Exercise 2.2.6, replace the three given object instantiations with anonymous inner class instantiations based on `IntegerBinaryFunction`. □
3 Arrays

3.1 Arrays under the hood

What happens when we create an array?

```java
final ElementType[] array = new ElementType[arraySize];
```

An array can last longer than the method which creates it

```java
public static ElementType[] makeArray(int arraySize) {
    final ElementType[] a = new ElementType[arraySize];
    return a;
}
```

So arrays are allocated in the heap

```
... a
makeArray
ElementType[]
```

What about the contents?

The location of the array's contents depends on whether the array holds elements of primitive type or of reference type

Values of primitive types (like `int`, `boolean` or `double`) are stored in the array itself

```
... a
makeArray
int[]
```

Values of reference type (like `String`, or our classes) have their own space, and the array contains a reference to that space

```
... a
makeArray
MyCls[]
```

Arrays are always initialized

Java's security model requires that all array slots be given initial values

For primitive types, this is zero or `false`

```java
public static int[] makeArray(int arraySize) {
    final int[] a = new int[arraySize];
    return a;
}
```
For reference types, this is the null pointer, literally pointing to nothing

```java
public static MyClass makeArray(int arraySize) {
    final MyClass[] a = new MyClass[arraySize];
    return a;
}
```

**Arrays as parameters**

Since an array is a heap object, the local value associated with it is the reference to that heap location

- This means that when we pass an array as a parameter, we pass the reference
- Not the contents!

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[] a = { 1, 2, 3 };    
    squareArray(myArr);
}

public static void squareArray(int[] arr) {
    // ...
}
```

When an array is passed to a method, only its reference is passed (just like objects)

- Any modifications that the method does to the array contents persist after the method ends

**Array arguments and mutation**

Since the reference is shared, any changes made to the array will be shared, and will persist

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[] a = { 1, 2, 3 };    
    squareArray(myArr);
}

public static void squareArray(int[] arr) {
    // ...
}
```
Exercise 3.1.1. Trace the stack and heap through the execution of this program:

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[] myArr = {1, 2, 3};
    modifyArray(myArr);
    System.out.println(myArr[2]);
}

public static void modifyArray(int[] arr) {
    arr[0] = 7;
    arr = new int[3];
    arr[2] = 9;
}
```

Exercise 3.1.2. Java’s arrays, once allocated, cannot be resized. So the memory set aside in an assignment like

```java
myArray = new int[10];
```

will always contain ten slots, no more, no less.

Of course we can create a new array of a different size, and store a reference to it in the same local variable. But this does not change the size of the old array, nor transfer the contents of the old array to the new one.

We can build a resizable array for ourselves by designing a class which holds the array as a field. Create a class `ResizableDoubleArray` with:

- A private field `array` of type `double[]`
- A constructor which takes an int value giving the initial size of the array, and which sets up the `array` field appropriately.
  - A negative value should cause a `NegativeArraySizeException` (which is part of the standard Java libraries) to be thrown from your constructor.
- A method `size` which takes no arguments, and returns the current size of the internal array.
- A method `get` which takes an integer, and returns the `double` value stored in the array at that location.
- A method `set` which takes
  1. An int index into the array and
  2. A double value,
and stores the double at the given location in the array. Method set should not return a value.

• In both get and set, an index value which does not correspond to an array slot should cause an IndexOutOfBoundsException to be thrown from the method.

• The key method of your ResizableDoubleArray class is the addSlots method, which takes an int argument and returns no result. The effect of addSlots should be to store a reference to a larger array in the field by allocating a new array, and copying over the old contents. New slots which do not correspond to a valid index in the old array should have the default Java value for double array slots.
  – Although 0 is a valid argument to addSlots which should simply have no impact, a negative value should cause an IllegalArgumentException to be thrown from the method.

3.2 Search and its cost

Searching for information
Many applications involve finding pieces of information
• Finding a book in a library or name in an address book
• Finding movie show times & nearby locations
• Finding a path through a maze
• Finding the shortest drive from La Crosse to Las Vegas
• Finding a flight from La Crosse to London costing less than $1,200

Simple searching
Some of these types of searches are challenging, some are easier.
• Depends on the constraints of the search and the structure of the search space

An often critical factor in search is how our data is organized:
• Which data structures are we using?
• How can we access individual pieces of data?

A data structure is a particular way of organizing data in a computer (program) so that it can be used efficiently.

Example: How can be find a single piece of data in an array?
Linear search
Consider how to explain the search process step-by-step in English:

1. Start at the beginning of the array
2. Check if the cell contains what you are looking for
   - 3a. If it does, then report success and stop
   - 3b. Otherwise, move on to the next cell and repeat, assuming you aren’t at the end of the array
3. If you get to the end of the array and haven’t found the item, report failure

Implementing linear search
Take the English description and isolate the basic parts

1. Start at the beginning of the array
2. Check if the cell contains what you are looking for
3. If it does, then report success and stop
   - Otherwise, move on to the next cell and repeat, assuming you aren’t at the end of the array
4. If you get to the end of the array and haven’t found the item, report failure

Repetition: need a loop
Conditional: need if/else
Output: need a return statement

Linear search in Java
After identifying the basic parts, translate into code:

```java
private static int linearSearch(int[] arr, int target) {
    for (int i = 0; i < arr.length; ++i) {
        if (arr[i] == target) {
            return i;
        }
    }
    return -1; // Failure
}
```
return -1;
}

Why return -1?

• If the search succeeds, the method returns the position of the target item within the array
• If the search fails, the method returns a signal value of -1 to indicate to the caller that the target has not been found.
  – -1 is definitely not an index of the array!

Exploiting the structure of the data

Can we do better than linear search?

• If the input array is a random list of numbers, then probably not
  – The target number could be anywhere!
  – Example: Finding a particular word in a book
    It was a bright cold day in April, and the clocks were striking thirteen. Winston Smith, his chin nuzzled . . .

• If the input array is organized in some way, then maybe!
  – Example: Finding a particular word in a dictionary
    dystopia: 1. an imaginary place where people lead dehumanized and fearful lives
    https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/dystopia

Binary search

We can take advantage of sorted data to improve the search process.

1. Start at the middle of the array
2. If the cell contains what you are looking for, report success and stop; otherwise either:
3a. If cell value is too big, then look in the bottom half of the array
3b. If cell value is too small, then look in the top half of the array
4. Repeat as needed

Binary search in Java

How might we implement binary search in Java?

```java
private static int binarySearch(int[] arr, int target) {
    int begin = 0;
    int end = arr.length - 1;
    while (begin <= end) {
        int mid = (begin + end) / 2; // Find the midpoint
        if (arr[mid] == target) { // Found it!
            return mid;
        } else if (arr[mid] < target) {
            begin = mid + 1;
        } else {
            end = mid - 1;
        }
    }
    return -1;
}
```
return mid;
} else if (arr[mid] < target) { // mid value too small
    begin = mid + 1;
} else {/* arr[mid] > target */ // mid value too large
    end = mid - 1;
}

return -1; // Failed search

Binary search: a recursive implementation

private static int binarySearch(int[] arr, int target) {
    return binSearchHelper(arr, target, 0, arr.length - 1);
}

private static int binSearchHelper(int[] arr, int target,
                                   int begin, int end) {
    if (begin > end) { // Base case #1
        return -1; // Failed search
    }
    int mid = (begin + end) / 2; // Find the midpoint
    if (arr[mid] == target) { // Found it! (base case #2)
        return mid;
    } else if (arr[mid] < target) { // mid value too small
        return binSearchHelper(arr, target, mid + 1, end);
    } else {/* arr[mid] > target */ // mid value too large
        return binSearchHelper(arr, target, begin, mid - 1);
    }
}

Comparing linear and binary search

Binary search is more complicated than linear search — is this complexity worth it? How would we assess this?

• For both search algorithms, the worst case we could have for running time is when the item being searched for is not in the array.

• For linear search, the running time is O(n).
  – Looking at an element requires a constant amount of work
  – Need to look at each element in the array

• For binary search, the running time is O(\log n).
  – Finding the midpoint and inspecting the element requires a constant amount of work
  – Need to halve the array about \log_2 n times

Is the difference meaningful?

Consider searching through an array of \(2^{48}\) integers

• Each integer is 4 bytes, so total space is \(2^{50}\) bytes, or one petabyte

• Around 2009, Google was processing 24 petabytes per day
Suppose it takes a nanosecond ($10^{-9}$ seconds) to process each entry.

- **Linear search:**
  \[
  2^{48} \text{ entries} \times 10^{-9} \text{ seconds/entry} \approx 2.81 \times 10^5 \text{ seconds} \approx 3.25 \text{ days}
  \]

- **Binary search:**
  \[
  \log_2(2^{48}) \text{ entries} \times 1\text{ ns/entry} = 48 \text{ ns} = 48 \text{ billionths of a second}
  \]

The difference between $O(n)$ and $O(\log n)$ can be dramatic!

### 3.3 Sorting

#### Sorting an array

To use *binary search*, the array *must* to be sorted.

```
2 1 3 6 0
```

There are many ways to do this.

But first, how can we tell if an array is sorted?

#### Identifying an unsorted array

```java
public static boolean isSorted(int[] array) {
    // TODO: Implement this!
}
```

**Bubble sort: overview**

- Apply the scan-and-swap strategy to the array below:

```
2 1 3 6 0
```

- Compare the first pair of elements:

```
2 1 3 6 0
```

- Because the second element is smaller than the first, swap them:

```
1 2 3 6 0
```
Bubble sort: overview

- Repeat this process for subsequent pairs of elements:

```
1 2 3 6 0
```

```
1 2 3 6 0
```

```
1 2 3 6 0
```

```
1 2 3 0 6
```

- One scan through the array is not sufficient!
- We have moved the largest element to the rightmost slot
  - But after one pass, that’s all we can be sure of

Bubble sort: logical structure

1. Start at the beginning of the array
2. Check if first two elements are ordered correctly; if not, swap them
3. Repeat the process for subsequent pairs of elements
4. If no swaps were made, stop: the array is sorted
   - Otherwise, return to step 1 and repeat

Bubble sort: Java implementation

```java
public static void bubbleSort(int[] array) {
    boolean swapped;
    int numPasses = 0;
    do {
        swapped = false;
        for (int i=0; i<array.length-1-numPasses; ++i) {
            if (array[i] > array[i+1]) {
                int temp = array[i];
                array[i] = array[i+1];
                array[i+1] = temp;
                swapped = true;
            }
        }
        ++numPasses;
    } while (swapped);
}
```

After each scan, the largest remaining element gets moved to the correct position, allowing us to stop the inner loop earlier each time.
**Bubble sort: complexity**

The work done by `bubbleSort` is determined by how many times each loop executes

- Each pass through places the largest remaining item into its correct position, so at most $n - 1$ passes are required
- On the $i^{th}$ pass, we have to look at $n - i$ pairs of elements
- Looking at a pair of elements and swapping them if needed requires a constant amount of work

$$\text{Total Work} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n - i) = (n - 1) + (n - 2) + \ldots + (n - (n - 1))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i = O(n^2)$$

**Bubble sort: the best and worst cases**

In the **best case**, the array is already sorted

```
1 2 3 4 5
```

- `bubbleSort` requires one pass through the array to verify that no swaps are necessary: $O(n)$

In the **worst case**, the array is sorted in the reverse order

```
5 4 3 2 1
```

- First pass moves the largest element to the end but leaves the remaining elements in the same relative ordering — $O(n^2)$ work in total

```
4 3 2 1 5
```

**Selection sort: overview**

Instead of scanning and swapping when we find an incorrect ordering, we could scan to find the smallest element, then move it to the beginning.

- Scan to find the smallest entry:

```
2 6 3 1 0
```

- Swap it into place:

```
0 6 3 1 2
```

- Repeat scan to find the next smallest entry and swap it into place:

```
0 6 3 1 2
```

```
0 1 3 6 2
```

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Selection sort: logical structure

1. Start with the entire array marked "unsorted"
2. Scan through the unsorted portion to find the smallest element
3. Swap the smallest element with the element at the start of the unsorted portion; shrink the unsorted portion by one position
4. Repeat the process until there is no more unsorted portion

Selection sort: Java implementation

```java
public static void selectionSort(int[] array) {
    for (int i = 0; i < array.length; ++i) {
        int indexOfMin = i;
        for (int j = i + 1; j < array.length; ++j) {
            if (array[j] < array[indexOfMin]) {
                indexOfMin = j;
            }
        }
        if (i != indexOfMin) {
            int temp = array[i];
            array[i] = array[indexOfMin];
            array[indexOfMin] = temp;
        }
    }
}
```

Selection sort: complexity

The work done by `selectionSort` is determined by how many times each of the loops executes.

- We have $n$ iterations of the outer loop
- On the $i^{th}$ iteration, the inner loop executes $n-i$ times
- Comparing two elements requires a constant amount of work
- Swapping a pair of elements requires a constant amount of work

Worst-case running time is then $O(n^2)$

- Run time is the same regardless of whether or not the input is already sorted
- Same worst-case performance as Bubble Sort, but fewer swaps

Can we do better?

Merge sort: overview

Let’s try to apply the same idea we used for binary search to get better performance:

- A divide and conquer algorithm works by repeatedly breaking down a problem into smaller and smaller subproblems, until those subproblems become easy enough to be solved directly. The solutions to the subproblems then get pieced back together to provide a solution to the original problem.
• A sorting problem can be decomposed into smaller sorting problems
• Sorting a single element is an easy problem (base case)
• Subproblems can be recombined by *merging* their solutions together

**Merge sort: overview**

```
5 8 6 2 9 4 3 0
```

```
5 8 6 2 9 4 3 0
```

```
5 8 2 6 4 9 0 3
```

```
2 5 6 8 0 3 4 9
```

```
0 2 3 4 5 6 8 9
```

**Merge sort: merging two lists**

• To merge two lists, start at the beginning of each one:

```
2 5 6 8
```

```
0 3 4 9
```

• Take the smaller element and place it in the new list:

```
2 5 6 8
```

```
0 3 4 9
```

```
0
```

**Merge sort: merging two lists**

• Advance the position counters:

```
2 5 6 8
```

```
0 3 4 9
```

• Take the smaller element and place it in the new list:
Merge sort: merging two lists

- Repeat this process:

- Until we get to the end:

Merge sort: Java implementation

The most intuitive way to implement merge sort is with recursion!

```java
public static int[] mergeSort(int[] array) {
    if (array.length > 1) { // Check stopping condition
        int mid = array.length / 2 - 1;

        // Split array contents into two smaller arrays
        int[] left = copyRange(array, 0, mid);
        int[] right = copyRange(array, mid+1, array.length-1);

        // Recursively sort the smaller arrays
        mergeSort(left);
        mergeSort(right);

        // Merge the sorted halves back together
        return merge(left, right);
    }
}
```

Merge sort: complexity
Given an array with \( n \) elements:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
5 & 8 & 6 & 2 & 9 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\
5 & 8 & 2 & 6 & 4 & 9 & 0 & 3 \\
2 & 5 & 6 & 8 & 0 & 3 & 4 & 9 \\
0 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 8 & 9 \\
\end{array}
\]

- \( n \) things to merge
- \( \log_2 n \) levels
- \( n \) things to merge

\( O(n \log n) \) total work

But merge does not need just time…

**Merge sort: space complexity**

- \( O(n \log n) \) total work
- But it also allocates \( O(n \log n) \) total space
- The other algorithms sorted in place
- We can simplify pretty easily to \( O(n) \) space — one spare buffer, and merge back-and-forth with the original space
- *But can we do better?*

**Quicksort**

- Also called partition-exchange sort
- Invented by Tony Hoare in 1959
- Refined over the years
- Quicksort is the default sorting algorithm in Java’s standard libraries
- But it was revised as recently as 2009 in Java 7

**Quicksort: basic idea**

1. Choose one element of the sequence, the **pivot**
2. Rearrange elements of the list so that:
   - Everything less than the pivot is to the left of the pivot
   - Everything greater than the pivot is to the right of the pivot
   - (Does not really matter what we do with equal values)
3. Recur on the values to the left and right of the pivot

- Sorts the array in place
- Choose?
  - The performance of quicksort depends crucially on the choice of the pivot
  - We’ll come back to this point later
Quicksort structure

public static void quicksort(int[] array, int lo, int hi) {
    if (lo<hi) {
        final int p = partition(array,lo,hi);
        quicksort(array, lo, p-1);
        quicksort(array, p+1, hi);
    }
}

Delegate to partition

- Choosing the pivot
- Rearranging the array elements about the pivot
- Returning the index of the pivot

Quicksort partitioning

- For the pivot, choose element hi
- Loop maintains indices i and j:
  - The pivot is bigger than entries from lo to i (inclusive)
    1. Initially we have found no such entries
    2. i starts off as lo-1
  - Entries from i+1 to j-1 are bigger than the pivot
    1. Initially we have found no such entries
    2. j starts off as lo
  - Entries from j to hi-1 are to be arranged
    1. The loop places entry j
- After the loop, we swap the pivot to between these regions
  - Check to see if needed

public static int
    partition(int[] array,
              int lo, int hi) {
    final int pivot = array[hi];
    int i = lo-1;
    for(int j=lo; j<hi; j++) {
        if (array[j]<pivot) {
            i += 1;
            final int tmp=array[j];
            array[j] = array[i];
            array[i] = tmp;
        }
    }
    final int pivotPoint = i+1;
    if (pivot < array[pivotPoint]) {
        array[hi] = array[pivotPoint];
        array[pivotPoint] = pivot;
    }
    return pivotPoint;
}
3.3.1 Quicksort

How does Quicksort perform?
The for loop of partition visits every element of the (sub)list
• As with merge sort, the important question is how many times we do that

Some days, we are lucky
• If the pivot is near the middle of the range of values, we divide what we’re sorting about in half
• Then the analysis is as for merge sort: \( O(n \log n) \)

Some days, we are unlucky
• If the pivot is the highest or lowest value, we decrease the size of the unsorted area by one
• Then the analysis is as for selection sort: \( O(n^2) \)

Will we be lucky?

Quicksort: the average case
The worst case of QuickSort is that we are unlucky
• But in practice, this case is quite rare

QuickSort can be shown to have an average performance which really is \( O(n \log n) \)
• We can also push QuickSort towards \( O(n \log n) \) performance by working harder on choosing the pivot
• Idea: take a constant amount of time to choose the pivot
• Or sometimes: take a non-constant time to choose the pivot for a greater average performance increase
• The current Java implementation
  – Uses an \( O(n^2) \) for small arrays (below about 20)
  – Otherwise use a version of QuickSort with two pivots
  – Consistently runs faster in the average case than traditional QuickSorts — and Sun tested heavily before switching their implementation!

3.4 Two-dimensional arrays

Multi-Dimensional Arrays
In Java, arrays can be extended to more than one dimension.
• A one-dimensional array:
  ```java
  int[] arr1d = new int[6];
  arr1d[3] = 7;
  ```
• A two-dimensional array:
  ```java
  int[][] arr2d = new int[3][5];
  arr2d[1][2] = 4;
  ```
• Accessing dimensions:
Using multi-dimensional arrays

Multi-dimensional arrays are useful for storing data that has *multiple indices*

- That is, "keys" to look it up

For example, storing movie reviews across users

```
final int numPeople = 3;
final int numMovies = 5;
final int[][] ratings =
    new int[numPeople][numMovies];

// ...
ratings[0][3] = 5;
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>reviewer (1st index)</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multi-dimensional arrays

... and on to higher dimensions

- A one-dimensional array
  ```
  int[] arr1d = new int[6];
  arr1d[3] = 7;
  ```

- A two-dimensional array
  ```
  int[][] arr2d = new int[3][5];
  arr2d[1][2] = 4;
  ```

- A three-dimensional array
int[][][] arr3d = new int[2][2][4];
ar3d[0][1][2] = 6;

First index is like the page number of a notebook
• And so on

Using multi-dimensional arrays
Another example: hourly temperatures for a weather station over 3 years
int years = 3;
int days = 365;
int hours = 24;
double[][][] temps =
new double[years][days][hours];

Storing temperature of −1.2 for Year 2 of 3, January 01, at 12 noon:
temps[1][0][12] = -1.2;

Using multi-dimensional arrays
Just as a single for loop is useful for manipulating a one-dimensional array, nested for loops are useful for manipulating an n-dimensional array
• One loop per dimension

int[][] arr2d = new int[20][15];

for(int row=0; row<20; ++row) {
    for(int col=0; col<15; ++col) {
        final int n = arr2d[row][col];
        System.out.print(n + " ");
    }
    System.out.println();
}
• row loops over the first dimension
• col loops over the second dimension
• This code does work, but what is wrong with it?
Avoid "magic numbers" in code

Hard-coding values leads to fragile code — difficult to maintain, hard to debug.

Fragile:

```java
int[][] arr2d = new int[20][15];
for (int row=0; row<20; ++row) {
    for (int col=0; col<15; ++col) {
        int n = arr2d[row][col];
        System.out.print(n + " ");
    }
    System.out.println();
}
```

Solid:

```java
int[][] arr2d = new int[20][15];
for (int row = 0; row < arr2d.length; ++row) {
    for (int col = 0; col < arr2d[row].length; ++col) {
        int n = arr2d[row][col];
        System.out.print(n + " ");
    }
    System.out.println();
}
```

Use `length` to find both

- The number of rows, and
- The number of columns in each row

Arrays of arrays

A two-dimensional array is actually an array of arrays!

```java
// Allocate space for 10 references to int[][]
final int[][][] arr2d = new int[10][];

// Allocate space for each "row"
for (int i=0; i<arr2d.length; ++i) {
    arr2d[i] = new int[5];
}
```

- `arr2d` is a variable that contains a reference to an array
  - `arr2d.length` gives size of this array
  - `arr2d[i]` gives element at position `i`
- `arr2d[i]` stores a reference to another array
  - `arr2d[i].length` gives size of this other array
  - `arr2d[i][j]` gives element at position `j` in this other array
Ragged arrays

What happens if we make this change to the array builder?

```java
// Allocate space for 10 references to int[]
final int[][] arr2d = new int[10][];
for(int i=0; i<arr2d.length; ++i) {
    // Allocate space for each "row"
    arr2d[i] = new int[i+1];
}
```

Creates a ragged array (as opposed to a rectangular array)

Exercise 3.4.1. Draw the memory allocated for this array:

```java
// Allocate all space for array at once
int[][] matrix = new int[5][4]; // 5 rows and 4 columns
// Shortcut initialization: 2d array with 2 rows and
// 3 columns
int[][] matrix = { { 3, 5, 6}, {2, 4, 7} };
```

Exercise 3.4.2. Draw the memory allocated for this array:

```java
// Allocate memory for each row separately
int[][] matrix = new int[3][]; // 3 rows
matrix[0] = new int[5]; // 5 columns in row 0
matrix[1] = new int[3]; // 3 columns in row 1
matrix[2] = new int[7]; // 7 columns in row 2
// Shortcut init.: 2 rows with 2 and 4 cols, respectively
int[][] matrix = { { 2, 4}, {7, 3, 5, 6} };`
Exercise 3.4.4. Write a static method `matrixContains` that takes a 2-dimensional array of integers and an integer and returns `true` if the matrix contains that value, `false` otherwise.
B Course policies (Syllabus elements)

B.1 Textbooks and references

There is no required textbook for this class. However, students often benefit from having a reference at hand, and from having a source of extra study problems. Some texts which you should consider:

- There is a version of the online *Programming in Java* text from zyBooks for this class section. You can subscribe to this book, which will give you electronic access through the end of the semester, and the ability to make a print copy as well if you like. You may be eligible for a discount this semester if you subscribed to this book in a previous semester.

To subscribe to this textbook:

1. Sign up at zyBooks.com
2. Enter zyBook code UWLAXCS220MaraistFall2019
3. Click Subscribe


- O’Reilly books are often good quality references, although they tend not to have exercises.

B.2 Email and web page

The course website on the cs.uwlax.edu domain will be the primary means of communicating reference information across the whole class; electronic mail will be our primary means of personal communication and certain announcements.

Course web site. The main web page for this class is listed at the beginning of this document. All class announcements will be posted to that page, and you are responsible for checking it regularly. That page also includes an RSS feed for updates. There are several services which will provide email updates from RSS feeds which you can find by a web search; if you choose to use one, pay attention to how often they check the feed and send email.

Email. I will expect you to check your email regularly, and to read and understand messages relevant to this class. In particular, my feedback on your work will be delivered by email. By default I will use your school email address which I receive as part of the information about you that the university gives me, but I am happy to also use a different email address if you email it to me from your school email address. It is your responsibility to make sure that I have an email address which you can and will access regularly, and which you check at least once per business day. Note that we will not use electronic mail for submitting assignments; see the Submission and assessment of assignments section below. My university email account is the only forum which I regularly check; you should not attempt to communicate with me for class business via other email addresses, in-Canvas messaging, or other forms of social media.

For assistance with email or other matters relating to university computer and network services, contact ITS by phone at 608/785-8774, in person on the first floor of Wing Technology Center, or by email to helpdesk@uwlax.edu.

In general, during the semester I will respond to emails with questions about the material, requests for appointments, and other time-sensitive matters within one business day. For administrative matters, requests for regrades, or other matters which can wait a short while, I will usually respond within a week.

When you use email, make sure that you:

**Include your full name.** There’s a small army of you, and one of me. Make sure it is easy for me to know who you are.

**Mention this class by name or number.** All of your instructors are almost certainly teaching more than one section.

**Write professionally.** Observe the forms of casual business writing, write in complete sentences, and use your spell-checker. Keep in mind that email to an instructor about a class is a different medium, and requires a different voice, than texts to a friend.

I have posted links to a number of guides to effective emailing on a web page of resources, accessible from my University home page given above.
B.3 Attendance

I expect you to attend class. Our class meetings will be the only source for some class material, and will be the only venue for in-lab assignment components and tests. There are no “makeups” for in-class participation opportunities. If you miss class, it is your responsibility to get notes from a classmate. We will not use class time, nor prioritize office hours and appointment times, to review things missed due to nonattendance. When I keep attendance records for a class, this record will reflect attendance for all, or essentially all, of the class period.

Final examination times are scheduled by the university; make sure to plan any end-of-semester travel around them. Should an exam need to be rescheduled according to the university’s limit on the number of exams a student may take on the same day, you must give me notice as soon as you become aware of this situation. I will normally reschedule your exam to the first exam slot before our normal class slot in which you are not taking and I am not giving another exam.

Admission of latecomers to an examination may be refused after any student completes the exam and leaves the exam room.

I do not expect there to be review sessions for this class outside of regular lecture/lab times.

B.4 Submission and assessment of assignments

Each assignment is to be submitted via the electronic submission system detailed in that assignment. I expect that we will primarily use Autolab in this course, but you must always check each assignment for the correct procedure. We will not be using email for assignment submission; assignments emailed to me will not be considered validly or on-time submitted unless either the particular assignment specifically calls for email submission, or I have specifically instructed you to email me an assignment. You are responsible for ensuring that you upload the correct file to Autolab, and in the case of multifile submissions packed as a ZIP archive, for ensuring that the correct contents are all included in the submission: in particular, make sure that Autolab’s output reports that it found correctly-packed work; or if we use Canvas or some other submission mechanism, that you re-download your work to make sure that the server actually has the file(s) you expect. Submissions for programming assignments should consist of fully-functional code which behave as specified in the assignment.

The deadlines for the different types of assignment are as follows (except where a particular assignment specifies otherwise):

- Projects and homework specified on the course site or in slides/notes and turned in online are due by 8:00am of the deadline day.
- In-lab work is to be completed in the lab class for which it is assigned, and is due promptly by the end of the lab for which it is assigned.

My assessment of your coursework will be returned in compliance with FERPA regulations, either directly to you or via email. As described under Email above, I will email you either at your official university email (which only you are authorized to access), or to an alternate email address which you designate. In this way only you will have access to your grades unless you take specific action otherwise.

After you have completed the course, copies or records of your graded material that I retain will be accessible up to 7 weeks into the next academic term (either Spring after Fall or J-term; or Fall after Spring or Summer).

I plan to provide feedback on formative assessments submitted on-time within 21 days of the final deadline for that assessment, and to notify you when circumstances require delay.

B.5 Assignments submitted late

No credit will be awarded for homework or lab work submitted late. Late credit may be allowed for the final submission of projects:

- Late submissions will be accepted from the deadline up to the time when I download your work from the server for further grading.
- When I download work from the server for grading, that submission point will be closed, and absolutely no further late work will be accepted.
• Do not email late (or otherwise) work to me unless I specifically instruct you to do so. If the Autolab submission point remains open, you may submit late work; if the Autolab submission point has closed, then you may no longer submit late work.

• I will always grade work as soon as I possibly can. Therefore, you should never assume that work will be accepted late at all.

• I will impose a reduction of 10% of the awarded percentage score on the grade of work submitted within 24 hours after the time at which it was due. I will impose a reduction of 40% of the awarded percentage score on the grade of work submitted over 24 hours past the deadline time.

See the Accommodations for individual circumstances section below for extenuating circumstances that impact your ability to meet deadlines or participate in class activities.

B.6 Equity of course execution

This course will be delivered and assessed fairly, in the specific sense that all students in this section will have equivalent opportunities to demonstrate their mastery of the subject, and will be assessed according to the same criteria. The only assessed work and the only criteria for assessing that work, and thus for the grades derived from it, will be as set forth in this syllabus and in the specifications of assignments.

Mindfully attempting to be assessed by more lenient criteria than one’s colleagues, or by criteria other than the work for and conduct in this class as described in this syllabus, is unprofessional and will be considered a form of academic misconduct.

B.7 Errors and regrading

If you find an error in the evaluation of your work, you have the right to ask for it to be regraded.

• All requests for regrading must be by email.

• All requests for regrading must detail specifically where the suspected error was made, and what the error is.

• All requests for regrading should be made no sooner than 24 hours, but within one week, of the evaluation of the work being returned to you. If the assessment of some piece of work is returned in stages, the deadline for requesting a regrade will be within a calendar week of when the report containing the suspected error is returned to you.

• To ensure that a uniform standard is applied across the class, all regrading will use the same criteria and rubric applied to everyone else.

• In general, an entire assignment or exam may be regraded in response to a regrading request, even if your request addressed only a proper subset of the original. So make sure that errors to your detriment outweigh errors in your favor.

You will always be notified of errors I find in the evaluation of your work after it is returned to you, as well as any resulting change to your grade, even if you did not request a regrade.

B.8 Collaboration

I encourage you to work together to understand course material. Learning together is a great way to learn and share ideas, and is a useful professional skill. However, in order to actually learn something, it is important that you complete the real work of programming on your own. It is acceptable to:

• Discuss the general approach to an assessed problem with each other.

• Discuss and solve other, unassessed problems together.

• Work together to install software we’ll use, or get it to work properly on individual computers.
• Help each other figure out syntax errors when code isn’t compiling.
• Help each other isolate and debug problem spots when code isn’t running correctly.

However:

• It is not OK to write code together, or to copy code from anyone inside or outside of the class.
• It is not OK to simply copy code, whether from online, a book or printed article, other people, or any other source. You can use online references to get additional explanations of how Java works, or to learn programming techniques. But the only way to actually gain the skill of programming is to write code yourself.

Any improper behavior with respect to these guidelines will be dealt with as academic misconduct according to University policy.

B.9 Academic integrity and acceptable use policies

Academic misconduct is a violation of the UWL Student Honor Code and is unacceptable. I expect you to submit your own original work and participate in the course with integrity and high standards of academic honesty. When appropriate, cite original sources. Plagiarism or cheating in any form may result in a diminished grade or failure of the assignment or of the entire course, and may include harsher sanctions. As necessary I will use resources provided by the university or other services to verify the originality of submitted work. Refer to the Student Handbook for a detailed definition of academic misconduct.

In general,

• You can share ideas, but you may never share code.
• You must independently write all of the code you submit and never copy code from anyone inside or outside of the course to complete an assignment.
• You are expected to be able to fully explain every line of Java code that you write, and may be asked to do so for any given assignment.

In interpreting these general guidelines, "you" should be taken to mean the unit designated to complete one assignment. Except where explicitly stated otherwise in an assignment, all assignments are individual assignments, and it is individuals who may not collaborate on code. Where an assignment is explicitly deemed to be a group assignment, the individuals within a group may freely share material with each other, but never with individuals in other groups.

The article 'Avoiding Plagiarism' on the Murphy Library website offers helpful information on avoiding plagiarism. You may also visit the Office of Student Life if you have questions about plagiarism or cheating incidents. Failure to understand what constitutes plagiarism or cheating is not a valid excuse for engaging in academic misconduct. Acadia University offers a light-hearted ten-minute interactive tutorial on avoiding plagiarism at library.acadiau.ca/sites/default/files/library/tutorials/plagiarism

UWL and UWS policy also mandates responsible use of shared computing resources. In particular, your authorization for the use of administrative server resources such as course management systems (like Canvas), program submission and autoevaluation systems (like AutoLab), the course web site, or other assigned systems is strictly limited to the purpose described in course assignments and other material. Any disruption, exploration and/or exfiltration of system components is strictly prohibited, and may also constitute academic misconduct. Login credentials to university and other systems used for coursework may not be shared, and any such sharing may be taken as firm and sufficient evidence of assignment non-originality. More information about the UWS policy on Acceptable Use of Information Technology Resources is available at www.wisconsin.edu/regents/policies/acceptable-use-of-information-technology-resources

B.10 Professional conduct

Interacting with peers and with me in a constructive, respectful and professional manner, being a constructive and supportive presence in class, handling difficulties with grace and resilience, operating as an autonomous and responsible adult, fulfilling commitments, and approaching work with enthusiasm are all valuable professional (and life) skills,
and are firm expectations of this class. Part of your final grade in this class will be determined by the quality and consistency of your professional conduct, whether online, in class, or in office hours.

One aspect of being a constructive and supportive presence in class is simply not being disruptive to the class. Attendance carries the obligation of being a constructive presence, or at least, a non-disruptive presence. In particular:

- Cell phones and other electronics must be silenced for the duration of class. Consider using an app like Shush! or Silent Time (for Android), or AutoSilent (for iPhone) to manage silencing your devices automatically.

- If you need to arrive to class late or leave early, be mindful of creating a minimum of disruption: sit near the exit and on the end of the aisle, pack lightly, and avoid using materials in class which are noisy on packing/unpacking.

- Research has shown that screen use in class is distracting not only to the student using a device, but also to that student’s neighbors. So if you plan to use a screened device in class, I’ll expect you to sit in the back row so that your screen distracts the fewest people. Likewise, if you plan not to use a screened device, you should sit away from the rearmost rows.

In cases of egregious, repeated or persistent disruptive conduct, of mindful discourtesy or of any intimidation of anyone in class, or of isolating or shaming conduct based on gender, race or other identity issues, I may require you to leave class immediately, possibly on an ongoing basis.

Findings of academic misconduct and/or unacceptable use of course resources may also result in loss of graded credit for professional conduct. In particular academic misconduct on a project, major assignment or any examination, as well as multiple instances academic misconduct and/or unacceptable use of course resources, will result in the loss of most if not all credit for professional conduct.

In laboratory sessions,

- Be gentle with lab computers.

- Speak in quiet tones in the lab to avoid disturbing others.

- It is permissible to assist neighboring colleagues with debugging when they are stuck on a particular problem. However:
  
  - You may not copy any aspect of your lab work from a colleague, nor provide your work to them for duplication.

  - You may not interrupt colleagues, who have their own work to do, to repeatedly ask for help; raise your hand and I will answer your question as soon as I can. Moreover you should remain at your own computer unless you are leaving the lab; moving about the lab for conversations is disruptive to others.

- Use of headphones in lab is unprofessional and strongly discouraged. I will frequently announce important material, and cannot repeat it individually simply because you excluded yourself from listening with the group.

- Do not touch computer screens; use the mouse when indicating particular items to me or to a colleague.

- Food is not allowed in the lab. Drinks in closed containers are permitted but may not be placed on the same desk as a computer or keyboard — keep them on the floor, where a spill will not destroy equipment.

- We recommend that you use hand sanitizer when leaving the lab; keyboards and mice are notorious vectors for communicable disease.

B.11 Concerns or complaints

If you have a concern or a complaint about either the course or me, I encourage you to bring it to my attention. My hope would be that by communicating your concern we would be able to come to a resolution. If you are uncomfortable speaking with me, or if you feel your concern has not been resolved after bringing it to my attention, you can contact my department chair or the Office of Student Life.

The Student Academic Non-Grade Appeals process can be found in the Student Handbook. Information about appeals and petitions for academic matters is in the UWL Catalog.
I normally give anonymized examinations: you will sit at a desk tagged with your name; rather than writing your name on the exam, you will write the number on that tag. The anonymity allows us all to be more confident in the accuracy and uniformity of assessment across the class. However, that anonymity extends only through the completion of assessing the individual exam questions. After marking I will de-anonymize the exam papers to understand both individual and group trends and weaknesses, and to address them through subsequent improvements to the class. So exam papers should not be considered an anonymous forum for suggestions or complaints.

B.12 Sexual harassment

As an employee of the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, I am a mandated reporter of sexual harassment and sexual violence (which include sexual assault, domestic violence and stalking) that either takes place on campus or otherwise affects the campus community.

So if I receive detailed or specific information about an incident such as the date, time, location, or identity of the people involved, I am obligated to share this with UWL’s Title IX Coordinator in order to enable the university to take appropriate action to ensure the safety and rights of all involved. It does not matter whether the incident took place on- or off-campus; it matters only that a person who is a member of this campus was involved in the incident.

It is possible that course assignments may lend themselves to disclosure, but you should not share any details of an incident with me until you have discussed your options under the new Title IX guidelines. There are confidential reporters available to students at UWL where you can have this discussion.

For students not wishing to make an official report, there are confidential resources available to provide support and discuss the available options. The contact in Student Life is Ingrid Peterson, Violence Prevention Specialist, 608/785-8062, ipeterson@uwlax.edu. For more resources or to file a report, please see www.uwlax.edu/violence-prevention.

I am also happy to help direct you to counseling and support services. Simply ask me to assist you in locating a confidential reporter and I will help you to do so.

B.13 Class interruptions and cancellations

In the event of a campus incident that impacts the availability of teaching spaces, any changes or cancellations will be communicated to you via your university email account. Depending on the incident, some or all of the information might be posted on the UWL home page.

In the event of inclement weather, we will follow the University’s closure policy. If classes are not canceled, I will make every effort to be in class on time, and so should you. Please do not send me email asking whether class is going to meet; instead, check the university website. The university’s emergency readiness plan is available online; that page also describes sign-ups for individual emergency alerts. In the event of a cancellation, consult the course homepage for any alternative assignments or other arrangements.
B.14 Accommodations for individual circumstances

It is my goal that all students have equivalent opportunities to succeed in this class. This section discusses the general procedures for alternative assessment accommodations in this class, as well as a number of specific situations for which there are standard mechanisms and policies in place to achieve the goal via accommodations for individual circumstances.

General procedures and constraints. Students may propose alternative assessments for assignments and exams for matters outside of a student’s control such as documented non-chronic illness, bereavement, unplanned university equipment unavailability, or university program travel or activities.

• In almost all cases, you will work with a campus office (usually one of the ACCESS Center, Veterans Services Office, or Office of Student Life) to design and manage your accommodations. They will have confidential access to the full details of your situation, and so they will be the sole authority who can certify that the accommodations you propose are both necessary and sufficient for your situation. Moreover all accommodations shall be reviewed by the same office: the necessity and sufficiency of the overall accommodation for your situation cannot be accurately assessed otherwise.

• Any accommodation must also ensure that the required objectives for this course are assessed as thoroughly as under standard procedures. It is my role to judge whether any proposed accommodation meets this requirement.

• It is your responsibility to propose assessment alternatives which which are both approved by the overseeing campus office as necessary and sufficient to accommodate your circumstances, and approved by me as appropriate for the original assessment’s objectives.

• All requests for accommodation must be accompanied by appropriate supporting documentation. In most cases this documentation will be reviewed by a separate group on campus such as the ACCESS Center or Veterans Services Office, and I will not see specific details. Where no such campus group applies, the specific form of documentation will be at my discretion.

• Proposals for alternative assessment must be made at least ten calendar days before any relevant major deadline or exam. If a proposal cannot be made in time due to medical or other emergency, the proposal should be made at the earliest possible point.

• Alternative assessment proposals should address relevant big-picture issues in addition to immediate course matters.

• Alternative assessment proposals must be explicit, and must be sent only by email or in writing.

• Students proposing alternative assessments should never simply assume that their proposal will be granted verbatim, and must allow time for thoughtful review of all proposals.

• Extracurricular and student groups/activities, planned personal trips, and similar elective activities are not considered to be outside of a student’s control, and do not qualify for alternative assessment.

• Accommodations are generally not available for the activities of other classes. Do not schedule activities for other classes during the lecture/lab/exam times of this class; you are not “free” at those times.

• Accommodations should enable you to complete the assessments for this class during the regular semester. I will avoid recording incomplete grades as part of an alternative assessment plan for any situation which has previously been addressed by accommodation, whether at UWL or other institution, whether via the ACCESS Center or not. Incomplete grades will also not be used where an advisor’s or other credible recommendation for a reduced load, for a particular semester or on an ongoing basis, was disregarded or avoided; you are expected to design a feasible schedule with your (formal and informal) advisors.

• The goal of providing equivalent opportunities to succeed in this class to all students enrolled in the class means that there will not be individual variations to assessment in this class except as allowed in this section. Thus “extra credit” and other alternative assessments not included in the class-wide assessment plan are specifically disallowed.
Disabilities and medical conditions. Accommodations for a documented disability or medical condition are made via the ACCESS Center. You must contact The ACCESS Center and meet with an advisor to register documentation of your situation, and to develop and propose alternative assessments.

- Examples of the disabilities and conditions for which this procedure applies include, but are not limited to: ADHD; autism spectrum disorder; acquired brain injury; PTSD; and physical, sensory, psychological, or learning disabilities.

- The ACCESS Center is located at 165 Murphy Library, and is reachable by phone at 608/785-6900 and by email at ACCESSCenter@uwlsx.edu.

Interactions with the ACCESS Center and with instructors should be initiated promptly. For issues and conditions identified prior to the semester, you should contact the ACCESS Center prior to the semester in order to propose and confirm an accommodation plan before assignments are due. For issues arising during the semester, you should contact the ACCESS Center to initiate their accommodations process promptly after a diagnosis. Accommodations will not be applied retroactively in the case of a delay in initiating the ACCESS Center process. Once some alternative assessment accommodation is arranged for you via the ACCESS Center in this class, any other accommodations for you as well as any changes or extensions to your accommodations, including those arising from changes in your underlying condition or disability, must also be arranged via ACCESS Center procedures (see Changes to accommodations below), and must follow the procedures described elsewhere in this syllabus.

You can find out more about services available to you with disabilities at The ACCESS Center website, www.uwlsx.edu/access-center.

Veterans and active military personnel. Veterans and active military personnel with special circumstances (e.g., upcoming deployments, drill requirements, disabilities) are welcome and encouraged to discuss these issues with me, and I expect you to do so as far in advance as possible.

For additional information and assistance, contact the Veterans Services Office, www.uwlsx.edu/veteran-services.

Students who need to withdraw from class or from the university due to military orders should familiarize themselves with the university’s current military duty withdrawal policy, catalog.uwlax.edu/undergraduate/academicpolicies/withdrawal.

Religious accommodations. Per the UWL Undergraduate and Graduate Catalogs, "any student with a conflict between an academic requirement and any religious observance must be given an alternative means of meeting the academic requirement. The student must notify the instructor within the first three weeks of class of specific days/dates for which the student will request an accommodation. Instructors may schedule a make-up examination or other academic requirement before or after the regularly scheduled examination or other academic requirement."

University athletics. Student athletes are expected to submit the semester’s full schedule, including expected travel times and possible championship tournaments, by the end of the first week of class. I realize that your coaches’ official letter may not be ready by that time: that letter can come later. But you are able and expected to collect and convey the information yourself, and later follow up with the official documentation.

In the event of cancellations or postponed events, I expect you to inform me in email before our next class meeting of the cancellation. In that email, you should also indicate to the best of your knowledge whether the university is attempting to reschedule the event later in the semester.

Changes to accommodations. Accommodations can change by mutual consent to reflect changed circumstances. Changes should follow the same review and implementation mechanism as the original accommodation; in particular where the ACCESS Center reviewed and recommended original accommodations, I will expect changes or parallel accommodations to be reviewed and recommended through the ACCESS Center.
C Departmental learning outcomes for CS120 and CS220

The UWL Department of Computer Science publishes student learning outcomes (SLOs) for all classes to ensure consistency across classes and sections. This section reproduces the departmental SLOs for CS120 and CS220. These outcomes were last updated in Spring 2019.

C.1 Student learning outcomes for CS120

Students shall be able to:

• Write Java programs using non-parallel control instructions, including assignment, method call (void and non-void), if, while, for (iterative).

• Write and evaluate expressions using literals, variables, parentheses, and the following operators (note that the precedence and associativity of the operators is included):
  – numeric: − (negation), +, −, /, *, %, ++ (postfix), − (postfix), =, !=, <, <=, >, >=
  – boolean: !, &&, ||
  – String: +
  – Object: instanceof

• Write and evaluate primitive expressions involving mixed types, widening, and casts.

• Write and evaluate variable declarations (including final variables), that demonstrate an understanding of local, private, public and protected scope; and the use of the this notation.

• Write code that demonstrates an understanding of the principle of information hiding by choosing correct scope.

• Compose and evaluate code that demonstrates and understanding of object binding, the null notation and orphan objects.

• Draw, interpret, and trace code using object diagrams.

• Draw and interpret class diagrams; including scope annotations, and aggregation and inheritance relations.

• Develop programs involving all of the following algorithm patterns: variable content swap, cascading if instructions, counting loops, linear search, selection sort, object access shared by multiple classes, method call-back.

• Write and evaluate code that uses inheritance, constructor overloading, method overriding, and uses the super notation to invoke a superclass constructor.

• Demonstrate an understanding of method preconditions and postconditions using informal logical descriptions.

• Identify and correct code exhibiting infinite loops, NullPointerExceptions and ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

• Debug by inserting println instructions.

• Adhere to fundamental programming style conventions, including using meaningful identifiers, intelligent inclusion of comments and proper indentation patterns.

• Write and evaluate code involving one-dimensional arrays.

• Write and evaluate code with import declarations.

• Write and evaluate code involving the following standard Java classes, methods and constants:
  – Object: equals, toString
- String: length, charAt, toUpperCase, toLowerCase, substring (both versions), indexOf
- Math: random, abs, sqrt, trigonometric functions, pow, PI and E
- Scanner (using System.in): nextX, hasNextX
- System.out.print and System.out.println
- GUI:
  * JFrame
  * Container: add, remove, repaint
  * JComponent: paint
  * JButton
  * JTextField

• Write and evaluate code involving event handling with JButton and JTextField objects.

C.2  Student learning outcomes for CS220

Students shall be able to:

• Use a production quality IDE to write, debug, refactor (via renaming), and execute programs.
• Write well-designed code involving inheritance, overloading, and overriding.
• Write and evaluate code involving multi-dimensional arrays.
• Evaluate code that demonstrates the internal one-dimensional structure of multidimensional arrays.
• Write code that demonstrates an understanding of the separation of abstraction and implementation; making correct choices between alternative linear container representations.
• Write and evaluate preconditions, postconditions and class invariants using informal notation.
• Write and evaluate code involving exceptions, try blocks, throw instructions, throws qualifiers, and finally blocks.
• Understand the relationship between files and directories in a hierarchical file directory system and name files with both relative and absolute names.
• Understand the distinction between binary and text files, select between them, and translate data of each type to the equivalent other type.
• Read and write code using the following classes and associated methods:
  - File: delete, exists, getName, isDirectory,.isFile
  - DataInputStream: close, read, write
  - DataOutputStream: flush, close, read, write
  - BufferedReader: close, read, readLine
  - PrintWriter: close, print, println
  - Scanner (with input streams): next, hasNext

• Evaluate recursive definitions.
• Write and evaluate recursive methods; both void and non-void.
• Write and evaluate code that uses interfaces and abstract classes.
• Trace the behavior of code using static, dynamic and automatic memory, understanding the usage of each.

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• Write and evaluate code implementing singly and doubly linked lists including traversal, item insertion, item removal, and uses both non-sentinel and sentinel cells.

• Write and evaluate code that uses inner private classes after the style of java.util.LinkedList.

• Write and evaluate code implementing stacks and queues.

• Write and evaluate code that uses the for-each statement.

• Read and write code involving the following Java classes.

  – java.lang.Comparable
  – java.util.Comparator
  – java.util.Collection
  – java.util.List
  – java.util.Iterator

• Perform counting analyses on linear, polynomial and logarithmic algorithms.

• Give the relative ordering of logarithmic, linear, and polynomial-time algorithms.

• Write and evaluate programs involving all of the following algorithms: binary search, linear search (for both arrays and lists), insertion sort, merge sort, and quicksort.

• Interpret and utilize object type conformance and subtype polymorphism.

• Write and evaluate code that uses bounded generic classes.

• Write and evaluate code that uses the wrapper classes including auto-boxing and auto-unboxing.
D Review exercises

Some problems are marked to reflect particular challenges or interest areas:

Marks problems which use mathematical examples reaching beyond the core math requirements of the CS degree. However, all of these problems can be solved simply by implementing the formulas given with the methods in java.lang.Math, even if all of the mathematical concepts are not entirely clear.

D.1 Expressions and assignment

Exercise D.1.1. Answer these questions by writing short Java programs

• Does subtraction group to the left, or to the right? That is, when we ask Java to evaluate \(100-50-10\), will it evaluate \((100-50)-10\), or will it evaluate \(100-(50-10)\)?

• Does division group to the left, or to the right?

• Does modulus group to the left, or to the right?

• Does multiplication take precedence over addition, as it does in school algebra? That is, when we ask Java to evaluate \(100+50*10\), will it evaluate \((100+50)*10\), or will it evaluate \(100+(50*10)\)?

Exercise D.1.2. Answer the following questions using the java.lang.Math documentation

• What methods does Java provide for logarithms?

• What methods does Java provide for trigonometry?

• What is the difference between floor and ceil?

• What is the difference between floor and round?

• What do the signum methods do? Why are there two of them?

Exercise D.1.3. Write a Java class TempConverter with a static method toCelsius, which takes a Fahrenheit temperature as a double value, and returns the equivalent Celsius temperature.

Exercise D.1.4. Write static methods \(f1, f2\) and so on implementing the following mathematical functions on real numbers (double). Do not use methods from the Math class for these.

1. \(f1(x) = 2x + 1\)
2. \(f2(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy + y^2\)
3. \(f3(u) = u^3 + 2u^2 - 3u + 10\)
4. \(f4(w) = \frac{w+1}{w-1}\)
5. \(f5(z) = f3(z) + f4(2 + z^2)\)

What happens when we call \(f4(1)\) from a main method?
Exercise D.1.5. Write static methods \( g_1, g_2 \) and so on implementing the following mathematical functions on real numbers (double). Do use methods from the Math class for these.

1. \( g_1(x) = \sqrt{2x^2 + 1} \)
2. \( g_2(x, y) = \log_x y \)
3. \( g_3(w) = |w + 10| \)
4. \( g_4(z) = z^{200} \)

What happens when we call \( f_4(1) \) from a main method?

Exercise D.1.6. Most cereals are made primarily of flour, sugar and high-fructose corn syrup. Write a class CerealMaker with a static method announceComposition. Your method should take three integer arguments, representing (respectively) the number of grams of flour, sugar and high-fructose corn syrup in a standard serving of some particular cereal. Your announceComposition method should print a well-formatted announcement of the total number of grams in a standard serving, repeat the number of grams and the name of each ingredient, and then print the total percentage of the standard serving which is sweetener. Your announceComposition method should not return any result.

Exercise D.1.7. You have probably run across the factorial function in your math classes. It is defined by two rules:

\[
0! = 0 \\
\begin{align*}
\text{if } n > 0, \quad n! &= n \cdot (n - 1)! \\
\end{align*}
\]

We have not yet learned enough Java to implement a factorial method. But we can get ready for when we implement factorial, by writing methods to test our implementation. Notice the difference with the example above — there, we checked what a method was already doing; now, we are setting expectations for what a method will do. This approach is called test-driven development — we write tests first, so that our goals are clear, and so that we can know when our method is correct.

We stub the factorial method by writing an implementation which we know is wrong, but which will compile and run with our tests. By making our tests compile and run (albeit with incorrect results), when we do develop the factorial method, we can do so without worrying that our test infrastructure is lacking.

```java
public class FactorialTester {
    public long factorial(int n) {
        // TODO --- later we will implement factorial correctly
        return -1;
    }
}
```

So starting from the above class, add a main method which tests factorial on several different values.

Exercise D.1.8. Write a class NumberLengthFinder with static method lengthInDigits which takes a number as its argument, and returns the number of digits it takes to write down that number (in base-10). Your lengthInDigits method should

• Take a single long argument, and

• Return a long result.

(For a hint, see p. 221.)
Exercise D.1.9. Write a Java class `DoubleIt` with

- A method `getDoubled` which takes as parameters a single `int` value, and which returns the `int` value which is twice the value of the argument.

- A `main` method which makes at least three different test calls to `getDoubled`, and which prints for each the test argument, the expected output from the call to `getDoubled` with that argument, and the result returned by `getDoubled`.

Follow our discipline of software design, and complete this work in four steps in order:

0. Stubs of all methods.
1. Tests in the `main` method.
2. A design — but no implementation — for `getDoubled`.
3. The implementation for `getDoubled`.

Make sure your code compiles and runs at each step (add an empty stub for the `main` method at Step 0).

Exercise D.1.10. A TwoMult sequence is a sequence of numbers where each number (after the first two) is the product of the two prior numbers. Set up a Java class `TwoMult` with

- A `void` method `printTwoMult` which takes as parameters the first two numbers of a TwoMult sequence, and which when completed will print the next three numbers of the sequence.

- A `main` method which makes at least five different test calls to `printTwoMult`, and which displays for each the test arguments, the expected output from a call to `printTwoMult` with those values, and then calls `printTwoMult`.

Follow our discipline of software design, and complete this work in four steps in order, as in Exercise D.1.9.

Exercise D.1.11. Extend Exercise D.1.9 to add another method `printDoubled`. This method should also take as parameters a single `int` value, but `printDoubled` should print a nice message with the argument and its double, and return no result. So for example, when calling `printDoubled(3)`, your method might print

3 doubled is 6.

Follow our discipline of software design as usual:

0. First add a stub for `printDoubled` to class `DoubleIt`.
1. Add tests for `printDoubled` to the `main` method. Do not remove the old tests for `getDoubled` — old tests let us make sure we do not break old code when adding new code!
2. A design — but no implementation — for `printDoubled`.
3. The implementation for `printDoubled`.

Again, make sure your code compiles and runs at each step.

Exercise D.1.12. Write a class `ClockTime` with a method `getClockTime` which

- Take a single `int` argument representing a number of seconds, and

- Returns a string representing the given length of time as a number of hours, minutes and seconds written with a colon between them in the way we usually write clock times.

For example, the result of calling `getClockTime(5025)` would be `1:23:45`. Follow our discipline of software design as usual (so your class `ClockTime` will contain a `main` method in addition to `getClockTime`).

What happens when you run your program on input `7260`? Is the output what you would write (or expect to read) for a clock time? If not, why not? We will come back later to this program and fix this problem.
**Exercise D.1.13.** Write a class `ParityChecker` with a single static method `isEven` which

- Takes a single `int` argument
- Returns `true` exactly when the argument is even, that is, exactly when the argument is divisible by 2 with remainder 0.

**Exercise D.1.14.** Write a class `SquaresChecker` with a single static method `isSquared` which

- Takes a single `int` argument
- Returns `true` exactly when the argument is a perfect square, that is, exactly when there is some other integer $x$ such that the argument is equal to $x^2$.

**Exercise D.1.15.** In Warren Buffett’s 2010 philanthropic pledge, he attributed his wealth to a number of factors, one of which was *compound interest*. Unlike *simple* interest calculations which assume a constant principal (original investment) value, when calculating compound interest one adds interest payments for a period back into the principal, and then calculates further interest on the higher base value. To determine the amount that an investment made under compound interest will be worth at the end of the investment, we can use this formula:

$$A = P \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt},$$

where:

- $A$ is the total value at the end of the investment period,
- $P$ is the original invested value,
- $r$ is the interest rate as a decimal (so, 0.05 for 5%),
- $n$ is the number of times per year that interest is compounded, and
- $t$ is the (whole) number of years of investment.

Write a class `CompoundInterestCalculator` with a static method `getFinalValue` which takes the four arguments $P, r, n, t$ in that order (with $P$ and $r$ as `double`, $n$ and $t$ as `int`), and returns the total value $A$ (as a `double`).

**D.2 Control structures**

**Exercise D.2.1.** Write a class `Grader` with static method `getLetterGrade` which takes an integer argument representing to a percentage grade from 0 to 100, and returns a string representing the corresponding letter grade,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeric</th>
<th>Letter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>95 ≤ $g$</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92 ≤ $g$ &lt; 95</td>
<td>AB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86 ≤ $g$ &lt; 92</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82 ≤ $g$ &lt; 86</td>
<td>BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73 ≤ $g$ &lt; 82</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 ≤ $g$ &lt; 73</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$g$ &lt; 60</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a first step, write a `main` method with examples and expected grade calculations.

**Exercise D.2.2.** WidgetCo manufactures several different kinds of widgets for re-sale by various vendors. Based on past relationships, sales targets, and other factors, certain vendors are given discount codes which entitle them to a particular discount on their purchases. Write a class `WidgetCoDiscounts` with a static method `getDiscountedPrice` which takes two arguments, a string discount code and an integer base purchase price, and returns the price which should be charged given the particular discount code.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Discount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the discount code is an empty string or does not match any in the above table, then the method should return the original base purchase price.

As a first step, write a `main` method with examples and expected price calculations, for example

```java
System.out.println("For code S and purchase $100, expect 90, got "+ getDiscountedPrice("S", 100));
```

Remember that we compare strings with `.equals`, but compare numbers with `==`.

**Exercise D.2.3.** Write a class `MonthNamer` with a static method `getMonthName` which

- Takes a single integer corresponding to a month of the year, 1 representing January through 12 representing December, and
- Returns a string for the name of the month.

**Exercise D.2.4.** Square Deal Credit Union offers a program for first-time home buyers to save on the downpayment required for their loan. The downpayment is calculated according to the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purchase price of home</th>
<th>Downpayment required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under $50,000</td>
<td>4% of price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50,000-$124,999</td>
<td>$2,000 plus 8% of price over $50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$125,000-$175,000</td>
<td>$8,000 plus 12% of price over $125,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over $175,000</td>
<td>Not eligible for this program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write a class `SquareDeal` with static method `getProgramDownpayment` which takes one integer argument representing the home purchase price, and returns an integer representing the required downpayment under this program, or -1 if either the home is not eligible or a negative price is entered. As a first step, write a `main` method with examples and expected downpayment calculations.

**Exercise D.2.5.** Write a class `TwoSorter` with static method `printInOrder` which

- Takes two arguments of type `int`,
- Returns nothing, and
- Prints the two numbers in ascending numeric order.

As a first step, write a `main` method with examples and expected output.
Exercise D.2.6. Write a class ThreeSorter with static method printInOrder which
• Takes three arguments of type int,
• Returns nothing, and
• Prints the three numbers in ascending numeric order.
As a first step, write a main method with examples and expected output.

Exercise D.2.7. The Wisconsin Wants Walnuts company buys black walnuts from individuals, and shells them
for sale to restaurants. Sellers’ walnuts are loaded into baskets which hold about one pound of unshelled nuts, and
WWW pays $0.15 for each full basket of nuts. If the final, partially-filled basket is more than half-full, WWW
pays the full $0.15 for that basket; otherwise they pay $0.05 for the partial basket. Write a class WalnutBuyer
with a static method getPurchaseOffer which
• Takes a single double representing the number of baskets of black walnuts brought by a seller (so for
example, 3.25 represents three full baskets and an additional basket which is one-quarter full), and
• Returns the amount that WWW will pay for those baskets.
As a first step, write a main method with examples and expected payments.

Exercise D.2.8. Write a class ParityChecker and static method isOdd which
• Takes one parameter of type int, and
• Returns a result of type boolean which is true exactly when the argument is odd.
Do not use any of the methods in the Math class for your method. As a first step, write a main method
with examples and expected results.

Exercise D.2.9. Write a class TripleChecker with a static method isTriple which
• Takes a single integer, and
• Returns true when the integer argument is exactly divisible by 3.

Exercise D.2.10. Consider three sticks of length two inches, three inches and six inches. We could not form
a triangle with these sticks, because one stick is longer than the other two put together. But if instead the sticks
had lengths two inches, three inches and four inches, we could make a triangle from those sticks. Write a class
TriangleLengthsChecker and static method isTrianglePossible which
• Takes three arguments of type int,
• Returns a result of type boolean which is true exactly when sticks of the three lengths could form a
triangle.
If one of the lengths is zero or negative, your method should return false. As a first step, write a main method
with examples and expected results.

Exercise D.2.11. Write a class EvenSquares and two static methods isEvenAndSquare and
isEvenOrSquare where
• Both methods take one parameter of type int and have a result of type boolean,
• isEvenAndSquare returns true when the argument is both an even number and a perfect square, and
• isEvenOrSquare returns true when the argument is either an even number or a perfect square.
You are free to use any of the methods in the Math class for this exercise. As a first step, write a main method
with examples and expected results for both methods.
Exercise D.2.12. Write a class LeapYearChecker with a static method isLeapYear which determines whether a year is a leap year. The rules and exceptions for determining whether a year is a leap year are:

- Most years are not leap years
- Unless the year is divisible by 4, in which case it is a leap year
- Unless the year is also divisible by 100, in which case it is not a leap year
- Unless the year is also divisible by 400, in which case it is a leap year

Your isLeapYear method should take a single argument of type int representing the year being tested, and should return its answer as a boolean, with true denoting a leap year.

Exercise D.2.13. Write a class IntervalIncludeChecker with static method containsPoint which

- Takes three double values x1, x2, and z
  - The first two parameters x1 and x2 correspond to the start- and endpoints of one interval. We can assume that x1 will be less than or equal to x2.
  - The last parameter z is interpreted as a point on the same axis where the interval [x1, x2] lies.
- Returns an integer value to describe the position of z relative to the interval [x1, x2]:
  - The result should be negative if z is less than x1, that is, if the point lies to the left of the interval.
  - The result should be positive if z is greater than x2, that is, if the point lies to the right of the interval.
  - The result should be zero if z is both greater than or equal to x1 and less than or equal to x2, that is, if the point in the interval.

In both this and the next exercise, assume that the interval is closed, that is, that the endpoints are included in the interval. So for example

- IntervalIncludeChecker.containsPoint(0.0, 2.0, 0.0) should return some positive number.
- IntervalIncludeChecker.containsPoint(0.0, 2.0, 1.0) and IntervalIncludeChecker.containsPoint(0.0, 2.0, 2.0) should both return zero.
- IntervalIncludeChecker.containsPoint(0.0, 1.0, -1.0) should return some negative number.

Exercise D.2.14. Write a class IntervalOverlapChecker with static method intervalsOverlap which

- Takes four double values x1, x2, y1, and y2
  - The first two parameters x1 and x2 correspond to the start- and endpoints of one interval. We can assume that x1 will be less than or equal to x2.
  - The latter two parameters y1 and y2 correspond to the start- and endpoints of a second interval. Again, we can assume that y1 will be less than or equal to y2.
- Returns true when the first and second intervals overlap.

As in the previous exercise, take both intervals to be closed, that is, that the endpoints are included in the intervals. So for example
IntervalOverlapChecker.intervalsOverlap(0.0, 2.0, 9.0, 11.0) and
IntervalOverlapChecker.intervalsOverlap(9.0, 11.0, 0.0, 2.0) should both
return false.

IntervalOverlapChecker.intervalsOverlap(0.0, 2.0, 1.0, 3.0) and
IntervalOverlapChecker.intervalsOverlap(1.0, 3.0, 0.0, 2.0) should both
return true.

IntervalOverlapChecker.intervalsOverlap(0.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.0) should return
true.

Exercise D.2.15. In these exercises, do not use Math methods to calculate the square; just use multiplication.

1. Write a class SimpleLoop whose main method uses a loop to print the squares of the integers from 0 to 10.
2. Write a class SimpleLoop2 whose main method uses a loop to print the squares of the integers from 10 to 30.
3. Write a class SimpleLoop3 whose main method uses a loop to print the squares of the even integers from 10 to 30.

Exercise D.2.16. Write a class SentenceFixer with a static method printCapitalized which

• Accepts a String parameter assumed to be a sentence,

• Returns nothing, and

• Prints that sentence making sure the first character is capitalized, and that subsequent characters are lower-case.

The standard methods toUpperCase and toUpperCase in class java.lang.Character will be helpful in converting characters to the correct case. As the usual first step, write a main method with examples and expected results. Step through your method by hand for the argument string HELLO! to be sure you understand you it works.

Exercise D.2.17. The factorial function $n!$ is defined informally as $n! = n \cdot (n - 1) \cdot \ldots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$, and is defined formally by two rules:

• If $n = 0$, then $n! = 1$

• If $n > 0$, then $n! = n \cdot (n - 1)!$

Write a class FactorialFinder with a static method factorial which

• Accepts a single int parameter

• Returns a long result representing the factorial of the argument.

Since factorial is not defined on negative numbers, it does not matter what your method does for such input. As the usual first step, write a main method with examples and expected results.
Exercise D.2.18. The choose function from probability is defined as

\[ \binom{n}{m} = \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!} . \]

Given the factorial method above, it is certainly possible to extend the FactorialFinder of Exercise D.2.17 class with a method to implement choose directly:

```java
public static long nChooseM(final int n, final int m) {
    return factorial(n)/factorial(m)/factorial(n-m);
}
```

But this implementation is inefficient, and may cause overflow even when the final result actually can be represented as a long. Write a more efficient version of nChooseM which only performs the multiplications and divisions which are absolutely necessary. As usual, extend the main method with examples and expected results as a first step.

Exercise D.2.19. The Fibonacci numbers are a sequence of integers indexed from 0 up, defined by:

- Fibonacci number 0 is 0.
- Fibonacci number 1 is 1.
- For any \( n > 1 \), Fibonacci number \( n \) is the sum of the two previous Fibonacci numbers (indexed \( n-1 \) and \( n-2 \)).

Write a class FibonacciFinder with a static method fibonacci which

- Accepts a single int parameter \( n \)
- Returns a long result representing Fibonacci number \( n \).

Since the series is not defined on negative numbers, it does not matter what your method does for such input. As the usual first step, write a main method with examples and expected results.

Exercise D.2.20. Write a class VowelCounter with static method getVowelCount whose one argument is a String and which returns the number of characters in the string which are vowels (a, e, i, o and u).

Exercise D.2.21. The sequence \( A_1 \) is defined as follows:

\[ A_1(n) = \begin{cases} 
  n^2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\
  n + 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd}
\end{cases} \]

Write a class AltSequence with a static method getSumTo which takes an integer \( n \), and returns the sum of the elements 0 through \( n \) of sequence \( A_1 \). Use only a single loop, and test inside the loop whether a particular index is even or odd.

Exercise D.2.22. Write a class ChangeMaker with a static method getChange which

- Takes a single int argument representing a number of cents
- Returns a string describing the way to represent that amount in the fewest number of common US coins. The string should be of the form "XX quarters, YY dimes, ZZ nickels, WW pennies". When (for example), YY is one, the string should use the singular dime instead of dimes.
Exercise D.2.23. What do these loops do? Try to work out what it prints without running it before checking your prediction with Java.

1. for (int i=1; i<=6; i=i+1) {
   for (int j=1; j<=i; j=j+1) {
      System.out.print(i);
   }
   System.out.println();
}

2. for (int i=1; i<=6; i=i+1) {
   for (int j=1; j<=(6-i); j=j+1) {
      System.out.print("-");
   }
   for (int j=1; j<=i; j=j+1) {
      System.out.print(i);
   }
   System.out.println();
}

What if we swap the two inner loops?

Exercise D.2.24. Write a program to print this triangle:

```
0
01
012
0123
01234
012345
01234
0123
012
01
0
```

Find a solution which uses only a single outer and a single inner loop.

Exercise D.2.25. Write a class `FramedSquare` with static method `printFramed` which

- Takes two arguments `frameSize` and `innerSize`
- Draws a square made of asterisks and periods, where
  - The asterisks form a frame on the outer edge of the square with thickness `frameSize`, and
  - The inside of the frame is filled in with a `innerSize-by-innerSize` square of periods.

So `printFramed(2, 7)` would print

```
***********
***********
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
```

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Exercise D.2.26. Write a class `FrameDrawing` with a static method `drawFramed` which

- Takes two integer arguments
  - The first describing the thickness of a border
  - The second giving the length \( n \) of the side of a square
- Draws an \( n \)-by-\( n \) square, with a border of asterisks of the given thickness, and an interior of periods.

So for inputs 2 and 11, your method should print

```
***********
***********
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
**.......**
***********
***********
```

D.3 Arrays

Arrays
An array is a primitive data structure for storing multiple objects

- All elements of the array must have the same type
- The length of the array is fixed at its creation, and never changes
- Each position in the array stores a single element
- Each element is referenced by its index in the array

Basic syntax
- Declare an array (does not allocate memory):
  ```java
  final dataType[] arrayName;
  ```
- Alternative syntax
  
  ```java
  final dataType arrayName[];
  ```

- Allocate memory for a previously declared array:

  ```java
  arrayName = new dataType[numberOfElements];
  ```

  Size cannot be negative

- Store and retrieve values in array:

  ```java
  arrayName[index] = expression;  // Store value at index
  arrayName[index];             // Retrieve value from index
  ```

- Access the length of an array:

  ```java
  arrayName.length
  ```

  *Not the same as the method call for String — str.length()*

- One-liners for declaration, allocation, and initialization:

  ```java
  final dataType[] arrayName = new dataType[ numberOfElements ];
  final dataType[] arrayName = { val1, val2, ..., valN }; // Initialize
  ```

**Basic examples**

- Declare an array (does not allocate memory):

  ```java
  double[] numbers;  /* Alternate: */ double numbers[];
  ```

- Allocate memory for a previously declared array:

  ```java
  numbers = new double[10];
  ```

- Store and retrieve values in array:

  ```java
  numbers[3] = 7.5;
  System.out.print(numbers[3]);
  ```

- Access the length of an array:

  ```java
  numbers.length
  ```

- One-liners for declaration, allocation, and initialization:

  ```java
  double[] numbers = new double[10];
  double[] numbers = { 1.5, 4.5, 7.5, ..., 15.2 };
  ```
Arrays of primitive types

When using arrays, we need to ensure:

- Array variable is declared
- Memory is allocated for the array (using `new`)
- Contents of the array have been initialized

With primitive type:

```java
class Honda implements Car {
    private String name = "Honda Civic";
    private double price;

    public Honda() {
        price = 1000;
    }
}
```

```java
final int[] intArray = new int[5];
for(int i=0; i<intArray.length; ++i) {
    System.out.print(intArray[i] + ", ");
}
```

• Output:

```
0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
```

This works even though we skipped Step 3 – Java takes care of the initialization for us.

Arrays of objects

We can also have arrays of complex type:

```java
final Car[] carArray = new Car[5];
for(int i=0; i<carArray.length; ++i) {
    System.out.println(carArray[i]);
}
```

• Output is

```
null
null
null
null
null
```

Why does this fail? Need to `initialize` array contents!

- Java doesn’t know how to initialize the objects

Example: all civics

```java
final Car[] carArray = new Car[5];
// We need to initialize the objects in a sensible way
for(int i=0; i<carArray.length; ++i) {
    carArray[i] = new Car("Honda Civic", 1000 * i);
}
for(int i=0; i<carArray.length; ++i) {
    System.out.println(carArray[i]);
}
```
Arrays of objects

```java
final Person[] simpsons = new Person[3];
simpsons[0] = new Person("Homer", "D'oh!");
simpsons[1] = new Person("Flanders", "Okily Dokily!");
```

In an array of complex type (i.e., class), each element in the array stores a reference to an object of that class

- Does not store the object itself (just like a variable of complex type)
- We need to instantiate an object for each element of the array

Exercise D.3.1. Trace through the execution of this class (without running it first). What does it print?

```java
public class UseAnArray {
    public static void main(String[] argv) {
        int[] numbers = { 10, 20, 30, 40 }; // 1
        for(int i=0; i<numbers.length; i=i+1) { // 2
            final int number = numbers[i]; // 3
            System.out.println(number); // 4
        }
    }
}
```

Exercise D.3.2. What is the largest Java array you can define? Is there a difference between the largest array that the Java compiler will allow you define, and the largest array that a running program on the system you happen to be using right now can allocate to a running program?

Exercise D.3.3. What errors do you get when you:
- Try to read from an array slot which is beyond the upper limit of an array?
- Use round parentheses instead of square brackets when you declare an array?
- Use round parentheses instead of square brackets when you access an array element?

Which of these errors are compile-time errors, and which are run-time errors?

Exercise D.3.4. Write a class UseAStringArray whose main method
- Declares a String array containing two values, "Hello" and "Goodbye", and then
- Loops through the array to print each of the values.

Exercise D.3.5. Update your class MonthNamer from Exercise D.2.3 to use an array within getMonthName.
**Exercise D.3.6.** Write a class `ColumnMaker` with a static method `printInColumn` which

- Takes an array of integers as its single argument, and
- Prints the numbers right-aligned in a single column.

Use your `getCharacterLength` method from Exercise D.1.8.

**Exercise D.3.7.** Write a class `StatsFinder` with a static method `printSummaryStats` which takes an array of `double` values as its single argument, and calculates and prints messages detailing

- How many numbers there are.
- Their mean: the sum of the values divided by how many values there are.
- Their standard deviation: \( \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (\bar{x} - x_i)^2}{N-1}} \), where \( \bar{x} \) is the mean and \( N \) is the number of values.

**Exercise D.3.8.** Extend method `printSummaryStats` of Exercise D.3.7 to also print the median: the middlemost value contained in the array.

**Exercise D.3.9.** Modify `StatsFinder` from Exercise D.3.7 (or D.3.8 or D.3.18) to work with integers, and to additionally calculate:

- The maximum and minimum values of the array.
- The number of different values in the array, and how many times each one appears in the array.
- Their mode, the value which appears more often than any other.

**Exercise D.3.10.** Write a class `ArrayIntFinder` with a static method `getIndexOf` which

- Takes two arguments
  1. An array `numbers` of integers, and
  2. A single integer `target`
- Searches `numbers` for the index where `target` is found
- Returns either that index, or -1 if `target` was not found in `numbers`

When testing your code, be sure to try both cases where `target` is found in `numbers`, and cases where `target` is not found in `numbers`.

**Exercise D.3.11.** Write a class `SortedArrayIntFinder` with a static method `getIndexOf` which whose arguments and result are just as in class `ArrayIntFinder` of Exercise D.3.10, but where your method is allowed to assume that the array is sorted in order. Take advantage of the assumption of an ordered list by starting your search in the middle of the list, so that after every comparison your method can exclude half of the unsearched elements based on the target being greater or less than the middle element.

(For a hint, see p. 221.)
Exercise D.3.12. The dot product is a common mathematical operation on pairs of numeric vectors (arrays) of the same size. Given two vectors \((x_i) \) and \((y_i)\), their dot product \(\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i\). Write a class DotProduct with static method getDotProduct which

- Takes two arguments of type double[], and
- Returns the double dot product of the two arrays.

It does not matter what your program does if the arrays are not the same size. As the usual first step, write a main method with examples and expected results.

Exercise D.3.13. Trace through the execution of this class (without running it first). What does it print?

```java
public class ChangeAnArray {
    public static void main(String[] argv) {
        int[] numbers = { 10, 20, 30, 40 };
        for(int i=0; i<numbers.length; i=i+1) {
            numbers[i] = numbers[i] * 2;
            System.out.println(numbers[i]);
        }
    }
}
```

Exercise D.3.14. What errors do you get when you:

- Try to write to an array slot which is beyond the upper limit of an array?
- Assign a String to an array which you have declared to hold int values?

Which of these errors are compile-time errors, and which are run-time errors?

Exercise D.3.15. What do these programs do? Trace through the programs by hand before running them in Eclipse to confirm your hypotheses.

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int y=30;
    f(y);
    System.out.println(y);
}
public static void f(int x) {
    System.out.println(x);
    x=10;
    System.out.println(x);
}

public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(x);
    x=10;
    System.out.println(x);
}
```

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x=30;
    f(x);
    System.out.println(x);
}
```

```java
public static void f(int x) {
    System.out.println(x);
    x=10;
    System.out.println(x);
}
public static void f(int x) {
```
Exercise D.3.16. What do these programs do? Trace through each one by hand before running them in Eclipse to confirm your hypotheses.

- public static void main(String[] args) {
  int[] y = new int[] { 10, 20, 30 };
  f(y);
  for(int i=0; i<y.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(y[i]);
  }
}

public static void f(int[] x) {
  if (x.length > 1) {
    x[1] = -1;
  }
  return;
}

- public static void main(String[] args) {
  int[] y = new int[] { 10, 20, 30 };  
  System.out.println("==========");
  f(y);
  for(int i=0; i<y.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(y[i]);
  }
}

public static void f(int[] x) {
  x = new int[] { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };  
  x[1] = -1;
  for(int i=0; i<x.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(x[i]);
  }
  return;
}

- public static void main(String[] args) {
  int[] y = new int[] { 10, 20, 30 };  
  System.out.println("==========");
  f(y);
  for(int i=0; i<y.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(y[i]);
  }
}

public static void f(int[] x) {
  for(int i=0; i<x.length; i=i+1) {
    x[i] = i*100;
  }
}
for(int i=0; i<x.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(x[i]);
}
x = new int[] { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
if (x.length > 1) {
    x[1] = -1;
}
System.out.println("==========");
for(int i=0; i<x.length; i=i+1) {
    System.out.println(x[i]);
}
return;

Exercise D.3.17. Write a class ScaleBy with method scaleByFactor which
- Takes two arguments:
  1. An array numbers of double
  2. Another double value called factor
- Multiplies every element of numbers by factor
- Has no explicit return value

Include a main routine with several tests of scaleByFactor

Exercise D.3.18. Add another static method getSummaryStats to class StatsFinder from Exercise D.3.7. Your getSummaryStats should, instead of just printing the various statistics, returns a new double[] array where element 0 is the mean, element 1 is the standard deviation, and so on. As the usual first step, create several tests as the main method of StatsFinder. Be sure to examine the length of the array as well as each element. Rewrite printSummaryStats to remove duplicated code, so that it just calls getSummaryStats and prints its results in a comprehensible manner.

Exercise D.3.19. Write a class CapitalizeAllChars with method upcaseAll which
- Takes two arguments:
  1. An array characters of char
- Capitalizes every element of characters (use the library method Character.toUpperCase)
- Has no explicit return value

Include a main routine with several tests of upcaseAll

Exercise D.3.20. Write a class TwoGrouper with method sortIntoGroups which
- Takes a single argument, an array of characters, which your method should assume contains only ’R’ and ’W’, and
- Reorganizes the array so that all of the ’R’ s come before all of the ’W’ s.

Important restriction: your program may "visit" each element of the list only once. So for example, a program which simply goes through the array once to count the ’R’ s, and which then makes a second pass to assign ’R’ s and ’W’ s, would not satisfy this restriction!

(For a hint, see p. 221.)
Exercise D.3.21. (Continues from Exercise D.3.20) Write a class ThreeGrouper with method sortIntoGroups which
– Takes a single argument, an array of characters, which your method should assume contains only ‘R’, ‘W’, and ‘B’, and
– Reorganizes the array so that all of the ‘R’ s come before all of the ‘W’ s, all of the ‘W’ s come before all of the ‘B’ s.

Follow the same restriction as for Exercise D.3.20: visit each node only once.

This problem was invented by Edsgar W. Dijkstra, who discovered many important computer science algorithms, and who originated in the Netherlands. The Dutch flag consists of three stripes, one red, one white, and one blue, and Dijkstra named this problem The Dutch National Flag problem.

Exercise D.3.22. Write a class ArrayReverser with a static method reverse which
– Takes a single argument, an array of String values, and
– Returns a new array which contains the same elements as the argument, but in the reverse order.

The array used as an argument should not be altered in any way by the reverse method.

Follow the usual procedure for writing stubs, and then developing example calls and a design, before starting the Java implementation.

Exercise D.3.23. Write a class ArraySplitter with a static method getUpperHalf which
– Takes a single argument, an array of int values
– Return an array which
  * Is half the length of the argument array
  * Contains the same values as the elements of the argument from the midway point to the highest index.

As usual, begin with a main method containing tests which verify the behavior of getUpperHalf.

Exercise D.3.24. Write a class TakeEveryThird with a static method everyThird which
– Takes a single argument, an array of int values, and
– Returns an array which contains only every third element of the original, beginning with the first one.

So a call to

```java
final int[]
    result = everyThird(new int[] { 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20 });
for(int i=0; i<result.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(result[i]);
}
```

should print:

2
8
14
20
Exercise D.3.25. Write a class `TakeEveryNth` with a static method `everyNth` which

- Takes two arguments,
  1. An integer
  2. An array of `int` values
- Returns an array which contains only every $n^{th}$ element of the array argument, where $n$ is the integer argument.

So a call to

```java
final int[] result = everyNth(3, new int[] { 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20 });
for(int i=0; i<result.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(result[i]);
}
```

would print the same output as the example for Exercise D.3.24; and a call to

```java
final int[] result = everyNth(5, new int[] { 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34, 36 });
for(int i=0; i<result.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(result[i]);
}
```

should print:

```
2
12
22
32
```

Exercise D.3.26. Write a class `ArrayInterleaver` with a static method `interleaveArrays` which

- Takes two arguments, each an array of `String` values
- Returns a new array
  * Whose length is the sum of the two argument arrays
  * And which contains the elements of the arrays, drawing in alternation from one array and then the other. If one argument array is longer than the other, then its additional elements should appear together at the end of the result.

So for arguments containing

```
"A", "B", "C"
```

and

```
"V", "W", "X", "Y", "Z"
```

```java
```
the result should contain

As usual, begin with a main method containing tests which verify the behavior of `interleaveArrays`.

**Exercise D.3.27.** The main method of your class `ArrayReverser` for Exercise D.3.22 probably contains example calls of `reverse` which look like this:

```java
System.out.println("For { "A", "B", "C", "D", "E" } ");
System.out.println("reverse should return { "E", "D", "C", "B", "A" } ");
final String[] result = reverse(new String[] { "A", "B", "C", "D", "E" });
for(int i=0; i<result.length; i=i+1) {
    if (i>0) {
        System.out.print (",");
    }
    System.out.print(" "+result[i]);
}
System.out.println(" }");
```

When we have multiple similar tests, we will end up with a considerable amount of duplicated code. But this is exactly why we have methods! The code for different tests of `reverse` will differ only by the actual argument and expected result — the rest will be the same from test to test. So we can write a `testReverse` method (note that this is not the same as the `reverse` method!) to consolidate all of the similar code into one method as shown in Figure 1 (p. 210). With this method in place, we can replace the test code with just a call to `testReverse`,

```java
testReverse(
    new String[] { "A", "B", "C", "D", "E" },
    new String[] { "E", "D", "C", "B", "A" } );
```

Adopt this idea to other problems from this section:

1. For Exercise D.3.23, write a method `testGetUpperHalf` in class `ArraySplitter` for one test call of method `getUpperHalf`. Either replace your tests in the main method with similar calls to `testGetUpperHalf`, or add new tests for it.

2. For Exercise D.3.24, write a method `testEveryThird` in class `TakeEveryThird` for one test call of method `everyThird` Either replace your tests in the main method with similar calls to `everyThird`, or add new tests for it.

3. For Exercise D.3.25, write a method `testEveryNth` in class `TakeEveryNth` for one test call of method `everyNth`. Since `everyNth` takes two arguments, `testEveryNth` will need to take three arguments. Either replace your tests in the main method with similar calls to `everyNth`, or add new tests for it.

4. For Exercise D.3.26, write a method `testInterleaveArrays` in class `ArrayInterleaver` for one test call of method `interleaveArrays`. Either replace your tests in the main method with similar calls to `interleaveArrays`, or add new tests for it.

□
Exercise D.3.28. We can further improve the testing of reverse from Exercise D.3.27 by adding a method to print the contents of one array, and replacing the repeated loops in the test method with a call to this second new helper method.

1. In the ArrayReverser class as extended in Exercise D.3.27, add a method printContents:

```java
public static void printContents(String[] arr) {
    System.out.println("{ ");
    for(int i=0; i<arr.length; i=i+1) {
        if (i>0) {
            System.out.print(",");
        }
        System.out.print(" " + arr[i]);
    }
    System.out.println(" } ");
}
```

Simplify testReverse to use this new method instead of repeating the iteration multiple times. Make sure the output of main is unchanged by this simplification.

2. Apply a similar simplification in class ArraySplitter from Exercise D.3.27.(a).
3. Apply a similar simplification in class TakeEveryThird from Exercise D.3.27.(b).
4. Apply a similar simplification in class TakeEveryNth from Exercise D.3.27.(c).
5. Apply a similar simplification in class ArrayInterleaver from Exercise D.3.27.(d).

Exercise D.3.29. Write a class WordsTaker with a static method getWords which

- Takes two arguments,
  1. A String, expected to consist of several space-separated words
  2. An int, representing how many of these words are of interest
- Returns an array of strings
  * The length of the array should be the same as the integer argument
  * The first (index 0) element of the result array should be the first space-separated word of the string argument, and so on

Assume for this exercise that there will always be enough words in the string for the integer argument. As the usual first step, create several tests of getWords for the main method of WordsTaker. Be sure to examine the length of the array as well as each element.

Exercise D.3.30. Write a class BiggestElements with static method getBiggest which

- Takes two arguments
  1. An array of integers numbers
  2. An additional integer howMany
- If howMany is less than the length of numbers, then getBiggest should return a new array of length howMany containing the biggest values numbers.
  If howMany is greater than or equal to the length of numbers, then it should return numbers as-is.

As usual, begin with a main method containing tests which verify the behavior of getBiggest.
Exercise D.3.31. Selection sort implements the following idea for sorting an array:

– First, go through every element of the list, and find the index of the smallest value. If that value is not at slot 0, swap it with the value at slot 0.
– Next, go through every element of the list except the first, and find the index of the smallest value among them. If that value is not at slot 1, swap it with the value at slot 1.
– And so on, for each slot in the list.

Write a class SelectionSorter with a static method sort which

– Takes an array of integers as its input,
– Performs a selection sort on the array, and
– Returns nothing.

Follow our usual process of stubbing methods, creating several tests of sort for the main method of SelectionSorter, and adapting the above idea into a design, before implementing sort in Java code.

Exercise D.3.32. Write a class FilteredSumOfSquares with a single static method getFiltered which

– Takes two parameters,
  1. An array of int values called vals, and
  2. An int value called threshold
– Returns an int value, the sum of the squares of the values in vals which are larger than threshold.

So for example, a call to

getFiltered(new int[] { 2, 5, 10, 1 }, 4)

should return 125, since 5 and 10 are larger than 4, but 2 and 1 are not.

D.4 Classes and objects

Real-life objects

This object is commonplace, and yet complicated

• It possesses some state
  – Including its current location, gear, current speed

• It has some behaviors
  – Like moving, accelerating, braking

• It interacts with other objects
  – Like the road, other cars, trees, people

• It is made of other objects
  – Like the engine, seats, tires, radio

Most of us can use it as a black box
public static void testReverse(String[] argument, String[] expected) {
    System.out.println("For {");
    for(int i=0; i<argument.length; i=i+1) {
        if (i>0) {
            System.out.print(",");
        }
        System.out.print(" "+argument[i]);
    }
    System.out.println(" }");
    System.out.println("reverse should return { ");
    for(int i=0; i<expected.length; i=i+1) {
        if (i>0) {
            System.out.print(",");
        }
        System.out.print(" "+expected[i]);
    }
    System.out.println(" }");
    final String[] result = reverse(argument);
    System.out.println("actually returns {");
    for(int i=0; i<result.length; i=i+1) {
        if (i>0) {
            System.out.print(",");
        }
        System.out.print(" "+result[i]);
    }
    System.out.println(" }");
}

Figure 1: Method testReverse for Exercise D.3.27.
• Don’t need to understand *how* it works
• Just need to know *what* we can do with it

Running a Java program
A CarLot will create Car objects, but what creates the CarLot itself? The solution is to use *static* methods (and variables).

• Content marked static is independent of any object instance
• Usually associated with the class itself

```java
public class CarLot {
    private Car car1;
    private Car car2;

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        CarLot myCarLot = new CarLot();
    }

    public CarLot() {
        car1 = new Car("Honda Civic", 214118);
        ...
    }
}
```

The main method
In Java, the main method has special significance

• Provides a point of entry for starting a program
  – Must be public and static
• Any class can have a main method
• Must have proper signature (including String array param)
• In OO paradigm, main typically creates a top-level object and invokes a method which then takes over

```java
public class CarLot {
    ...
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        CarLot myCarLot = new CarLot();
        myCarLot.manage();
    }
    ...
    public void manage() {
        // Most of program functionality goes here
    }
}
```
Exercise D.4.1. Create a class `Student` to store the following information about a student:

- Their name
- Their ID
- Their current classes
- The number of credits earned

Include a constructor which receives these values, and accessor methods for each.

- Store their name in two fields `firstName` and `lastName`
- Store their ID as an `int`
- Store their current classes as an array of strings
- Store the number of credits earned as an `int`

Exercise D.4.2. Create a class `Vehicle` with the following private field:

- A single `String` field `makeModel` for the make/model
- An `int` field `fuelCap` for the capacity of the fuel tank
- An `double` field `mpg` for the miles-per-gallon efficiency

Define a constructor which receives and assigns the field values in the above order, and accessor methods for each.

Exercise D.4.3. Create a class `SSN` to store a Social Security number. Class `SSN` should have:

- Three private and `final` fields `group1`, `group2` and `group3`, each of type `int`, corresponding to the three parts of a Social Security number
- Accessors for these three fields
- A method `ssnToString` which takes no arguments, and formats the SSN in the usual way with a hyphen between fields

Include two constructors for `SSN`

- One constructor takes a single `int` argument representing the entire SSN.
- The other constructor takes three `int` arguments representing the three segments.

Each constructor should set the fields `group1`, `group2` and `group3` in the way appropriate for its arguments.

Exercise D.4.4. Change class `SSN` to have a single private field `number`, an `int` representing the entire nine-digit SSN. The methods (including `getGroup1` and so forth) should behave just the same way.
Exercise D.4.5. Extend class Student of Exercise D.4.1 with a method hasUnitsToGraduate which
• Takes no arguments, and
• Returns true if the student has earned the 120 units needed to graduate.

Exercise D.4.6. Add a method getRange to class Vehicle of Exercise D.4.2, which calculates from the the
fuelCap and mpg fields the maximum distance which the vehicle could drive on a single tank. As the usual first
step, add tests of getRange to a main method.

Exercise D.4.7. Write a class QuizScores to hold information about a student’s quiz scores in a class (obvi-
ously not this class, since we do not have quizzes). Your class should have the following constructor and methods:
• The constructor should take an array of integers, holding the quiz scores.
• Methods getHighest and getLowest should return the highest and lowest scores received. They take
no arguments, and return an int.
• Method getAverage should return a double value, the average score received.

Exercise D.4.8. Extend class QuizScores from Exercise D.4.7 with two additional methods,
• Method countGreaterThan takes an integer and returns the number of quiz scores which are greater
than the argument.
• Method getAverageDroppingLowest should return a double value, the average score excluding the
lowest.
As the usual first step, add tests of these methods to a main method.

Exercise D.4.9. Write a class CharChecker whose constructor takes a single string (which we will refer to as
base), and with the following methods:
• An accessor getBase for base
• A method countMatches which take a single string str, and which returns the number of characters of
str which are also in base.

For example, the statements
CharChecker cc = new CharChecker("abc");
System.out.println(cc.countMatches("abracadabra"));

should print 8.
As the usual first step, add tests of these methods to a main method. Do not use any methods of String
except charAt and length to solve this problem.

Exercises D.4.10 through D.4.13 will remind you of Exercises D.3.7 through D.3.9. Review your
StateFinder implementations before starting these exercises, and expect to deploy some of the same algo-
rithms here.
**Exercise D.4.10.** Write a class `DataSet` to perform statistical analysis of a set of numbers.

- It should have a constructor which takes a single argument, an array of `double` values.
- Method `mean` should take no arguments, and should return the mean of the values from the array.
- Its field for storing data should be `private`.

As the usual first step, add tests of its method to a `main` method.

**Exercise D.4.11.** Consider your class `DataSet` from Exercise D.4.10. What happens if we run

```java
int[] numbers = new int[] { 5.0, 6.0, 7.0};
DataSet ds = new DataSet(numbers);
numbers[1] = 12.0;
System.out.println(ds.mean());
```

With the usual setup for fields

```java
private double[] numbers;

public DataSet(double[] numbers) {
  this.numbers = numbers;
}
```

The `mean` would return 8.0, not 6.0 — the array itself is shared — we have allocated only one of them, and passed around references to it. Update the `DataSet` constructor to make sure that the storage we use for the numbers in a `DataSet` instance is separated from the array passed to the constructor. (See p. 221 for a hint if you need.)

**Exercise D.4.12.** Extend class `DataSet` of the previous exercises to give the data sets a name.

- Add an additional constructor that takes both the `String` name and a `double` array.
- Provide accessor and mutator methods `getName` and `setName`.
- But keep the original constructor as well! For a `DataSet` instance created without a name, the `getName` accessor should return the string "(unnamed)".

**Exercise D.4.13.** Add a method `stdDev` to `DataSet` from Exercise D.4.17 which takes no arguments and returns the standard deviation of the data. (See Exercise D.3.7 for a formula for standard deviation.) Since we use the mean for calculating the standard deviation, `stdDev` will need to call `mean`.

**Exercise D.4.14.** Extend class `Student` of Exercise D.4.1 with the assumption that a student ID will never change.

**Exercise D.4.15.** Extend class `Student` of Exercise D.4.14 with methods to update a student record:

- Update the name
- Report passed classes
- Enroll in new classes
Exercise D.4.16. Revise class Vehicle of Exercise D.4.6 with an additional private fields:

- An int field mileage for the number of miles recorded by the vehicle

Modify the constructor to initialize this field as well, and add both an accessor and a mutator method to set the field. As the usual first step, add tests of using the setter to a main method.

Exercise D.4.17. Extend the class DataSet of Exercise D.4.10 with two methods:

- addData, which takes an array additionalData of double values. These values should be added to the values already in the DataSet, and should cause mean to return an updated, new value based on all of the data.
- clearData, which resets the data storage to contain no numbers.

Exercise D.4.18. Consider your class DataSet from Exercise D.4.17 (without the stdDev method of Exercise D.4.13). We have made mean a method, but when the data do not change, the mean will not change either. Update the class and methods so that we recalculate the mean value only when we need to, and just save the value when the data is unchanged. (See p. 221 for a hint if you need.)

Exercise D.4.19. Redo Exercise D.4.18, but starting from Exercise D.4.13 instead of Exercise D.4.17 (or alternatively, add a stdDev method to your result of Exercise D.4.18). Cache the two values separately, updating each one only when demanded.

Exercise D.4.20. Another way to add caching of derived values is to use a single boolean flag to indicate new data, but still multiple double fields for the cached values, plus a private helper method updateCached which recomputes all of the cached values. Extend DataSet of Exercise D.4.13 to implement this idea, making sure that mean and stdDev call it only when there is new data.

Exercise D.4.21. In DataSet, we considered data where the individual points have no particular identity — they were just numbers. Sometimes, individual data points have an identity beyond just their value, and each comes with its own label. For examples, the times of racers may be labeled with the racer’s name, or rainfall totals may be labelled with the location of measurement.

Write a class TopThree to keep track of the three highest labelled data values. There should be six simple accessor methods for the stored data:

- Methods getValue1 and getLabel1 return the highest data value, and its label
- Methods getValue2 and getLabel2 return the second-highest data value, and its label
- Methods getValue3 and getLabel3 return the third-highest data value, and its label

There should be one mutator method newResult which

- Takes two arguments, a double value and a String label
- Returns no value
- Might update some of the top three values, if the value is higher than the ones reviewed previously

The constructor for TopThree should take the initial top three values and labels

```java
public TopThree(double bestValue, String bestLabel,
                 double secondValue, String secondLabel,
                 double thirdValue, String thirdLabel)
```

#+beginexercise Modify class TopThree of Exercise D.4.21 so that the constructor does not assume that the three value/label pairs are already in order, but instead works out for itself which label has the highest value. □
Exercise D.4.22. Write a class Complex to model complex numbers

- The constructor should take two double values, for the real and imaginary parts
- Numbers are constants, so the fields should be final
- Provide accessors getReal and getImaginary
- Provide method magnitude, returning a double
- Provide method conjugate, which needs no arguments, and returns another Complex
- Provide methods add, subtract, multiply and divide, each taking a single Complex argument and returning a Complex result

The formulas for these operations are on p. 221.

Exercise D.4.23. In Exercise D.4.17 we added a method addData which changed the underlying data, so that mean would normally return a different value. For this exercise we will again extend the DataSet Exercise D.4.10 to add data, but in a way that does not change the underlying data set:

- Add a method addData which takes an array of double values, and returns a new DataSet. The resulting instance should contain all of the values of the original instance, plus all values from the argument array. The original instance should not be changed in any way.
- Add a method removeData which takes an array of double values, and which also returns a new DataSet. The resulting instance should contain all of the values of the original instance except the values from the argument array. Again, the original instance should not be changed in any way.

As usual, begin by adding tests of the new methods to main.

Exercises D.4.24 and D.4.25 refer to class Rectangle:

```java
public class Rectangle {
    private final double width, height, leftX, upperY;

    /**
     * Construct the representation of a rectangle on the plane.
     * @param width The width along the x-axis of this rectangle
     * @param height The width along the y-axis of this rectangle
     * @param leftX The x-coordinate of the left edge of the rectangle
     * @param upperY The y-coordinate of the upper edge of the rectangle
     */
    public Rectangle(final double width, final double height,
                     final double leftX, final double upperY) {
        this.width = width;
        this.height = height;
        this.leftX = leftX;
        this.upperY = upperY;
    }

    public double getWidth() { return width; }
    public double getHeight() { return height; }
    public double getLeftX() { return leftX; }
    public double getUpperY() { return upperY; }
}
```
Exercise D.4.24. Add a method `overlaps` to class `Rectangle` which

- Takes one argument, which is also a `Rectangle`, and
- Return `true` when the two rectangles overlap in the plane with an area greater than 0, or `false` otherwise.

As usual, write a `main` method for `Rectangle` which verifies that `overlaps` is implemented correctly.

Exercise D.4.25. Add a static method `centeredAt` to class `Rectangle` which

- Takes four `double` arguments,
  1. A width
  2. A height
  3. An x-coordinate
  4. A y-coordinate, and
- Returns a `Rectangle` whose `center` is at the given point.

Extend the `main` method for `Rectangle` to verify that `centeredAt` is implemented correctly.

Exercise D.4.26. In algebra we study two ways of representing points on a plane: for *Cartesian coordinates* we give two values representing distance along the x- and y-axes, and for *polar coordinates* we give a distance from the origin or *magnitude*, and an angle offset counterclockwise from the x-axis. The angle value is usually given in radians, where $2\pi$ is the measure of a single full rotation around the circle.

This interface describes operations we might want to associate with a point:

```java
public interface Point {
    public double getX();
    public double getY();
    public double getMagnitude();
    public double getAngle();
    public Point addVectors(Point that);
}
```

Create two classes `CartesianPoint` and `PolarPoint` which implement this interface, and which represent points (both in their constructor and in the fields of each object) in these two ways. Where we understand a point be a vector from the origin to a coordinate, the `addVectors` methods returns the point we find when we follow both vectors, first one and then the other (for a hint, see p. 221). Make sure that the result of `CartesianPoint`’s version of `addVectors` is again a `CartesianPoint`; and the result of `PolarPoint`’s version, a `PolarPoint`.

Exercise D.4.27. There is another common way to represent complex numbers. We can imagine the complex numbers as points on a plane, with the real component for the x-axis, and the imaginary component as the y-axis. But we can also represent points on the plane by two other numbers: their distance from the origin, and the measure of the angle formed by a line from the point to the origin, and the positive part of the x-axis.

So for example, the point (1,1) is at a distance of $\sqrt{2}$ from the origin. It forms a 45°-angle with the positive part of the x-axis, but we use radian measure instead of degrees, so we would measure the angle as $\frac{\pi}{4}$. In terms of complex numbers, we write: $1 + i = \sqrt{2}e^{\pi i}$. In terms of complex numbers, we write: $1 + i = \sqrt{2}e^{\pi i}$.

Refactor the class `Complex` of Exercise D.4.22 to have the name `CartesianComplex`, and instead define `Complex` to be this interface:

```java
public interface Complex {
    public double getReal();
    public double getImaginary();
    public boolean isZero();
}
```

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public double getMagnitude();
public double getAngle();
public Complex conjugate();
public Complex add(Complex that);
public Complex subtract(Complex that);
public Complex multiply(Complex that);
public Complex dividedBy(Complex that);
}

Then create a class PolarCartesian which also implements Complex. Be sure you use accessor methods to access the components of a number passed as an argument to the various operations — this way it makes sense to add two numbers which happen to have different representations.

As the usual first step, write tests making sure that both CartesianComplex and PolarComplex are correct.

Exercise D.4.28. Write a class Square which extends class Rectangle of Exercises D.4.24 and D.4.25. Square should have a single constructor which takes three double arguments: the first for the length of a side of the square, and the other for the x- and y-coordinates of the upper-left corner of the square.

Extend the main method for Rectangle to verify that your constructor for Square is implemented correctly.

Exercise D.4.29. In Exercise D.1.8 we thought about the length of a number. We assumed that numbers should be written in base 10 — that is, with digits from 0 through 9, and place values corresponding to powers of 10. So the number we write as 6,098 means $6 \times 10^3 + 0 \times 10^2 + 9 \times 10^1 + 8 \times 10^0$.

But we can use other bases too: the number we write as 41 in base 10 would be written as 101001 in base 2 ($1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$), and in base 7 as 56 ($5 \times 7^1 + 6 \times 7^0$). We can think of bases larger than 10 as well. Base 12 usually uses digits A for 10 and B for 11, so 41 in base 10 would be 35 ($3 \times 12^1 + 5 \times 12^0$), and 1,575 in base 10 would be ab3 ($10 \times 12^2 + 11 \times 12^1 + 3 \times 12^0$).

Write a class BaseRepresenter for finding the String representation of numbers in a particular base, with:

- A single method numberToString, which
  - Takes a single long argument, and
  - Returns the String representation of the argument in the object’s base; and

- A constructor which takes a single argument of type char[], giving the digits to be used in representing numbers (and implicitly, the place value to be used).

Then, write classes InBase2 and InBase16 which are subclasses of BaseRepresenter, but which only define a constructor, and do not need to override numberToString.

Exercise D.4.30. Update class SSN from Exercise D.4.3 so that, instead of defining method ssnToString, it overrides toString to implement that behavior.

Exercise D.4.31. The class Card models playing cards

```java
public class Card {
    private final String suit;
    private final int rank;

    public Card(final String suit, final int rank) {
        this.suit = suit;
        this.rank = rank;
    }
```
public String getSuit() { return suit; }
public int getRank() { return rank; }
}

Add an equals method to this class which overrides Object.equals, and which returns true when the two Card instances have both the same rank and the same suit. Remember to think about the appropriate comparison techniques for each field, and add tests of the correct operation of equals to your main method.

Exercise D.4.32. Add a toString method to class Card which overrides Object.toString, and which

- Returns an output string of the form RANK of SUIT. So for example the statements

```java
Card c = new Card("hearts", 5);
System.out.println(c);
```

should print 5 of hearts

- Prints rank 1 as ace, rank 11 as jack, rank 12 as queen, and rank 13 as king. So for example the statements

```java
Card c = new Card("spades", 12);
System.out.println(c);
```

should print queen of spades. Add tests to ensure that toString returns correct results to your main method.

Exercise D.4.33. Add a method equals to class Complex of Exercise D.4.22 which overrides Object.equals, and which equates two instances of Complex exactly when they have both the same real component, and the same complex component. Add tests to your main method to ensure that equals returns correct results.

Exercise D.4.34. Add a toString method to class Complex of Exercise D.4.22 which overrides Object.toString, and which

- Returns the single-character 0 for any instance in which both components are zero
- Returns the string representation of the real component only when the complex component is zero
- Returns the string representation of the imaginary component followed by i when the real component is zero
- Returns a string of the form X+Yi otherwise

Add tests to your main method to ensure that toString returns correct results.

Exercise D.4.35. Add toString methods to classes CartesianComplex and PolarComplex of Exercise D.4.27 which override Object.toString, and which both return a string in the same format as described in Exercise D.4.34. Add tests to your main methods to ensure that toString returns correct results.

Exercise D.4.36. Add equals methods to classes CartesianComplex and PolarComplex of Exercise D.4.27 which override Object.equals, and which equates two instances of classes implementing Complex exactly when they denote the same complex number. Add tests to your main method to ensure that equals returns correct results.
**Exercise D.4.37.** Write classes which implement a media library:

- Class Media includes immutable private fields and public accessors for the title, primary artist, and playing time.
- Classes Video and Audio both extend Media
  - Class Video includes immutable private fields and public accessors for the director, studio and actors.
  - Class Audio includes immutable private fields and public accessors for the music company/label.
- Classes DVD, FromNetflix, CD, and Cassette extend the above classes with further information specific to each format.

**D.5 GUIs**

Most CS120 sections include a unit on Java Swing programming. There are many, many resources for learning/reviewing Swing programming online, and we do not attempt to reproduce them here.

Because not all CS220 students will have covered Swing in their non-UWL equivalents of CS120, we use a number of prepared classes to simplify GUI programming.

The DrawingPad class provides a simple interface for drawing lines and shapes in a graphical window. You can download this class from [https://cs.uwlax.edu/~jmarais/220/code/DrawingPad.java](https://cs.uwlax.edu/~jmarais/220/code/DrawingPad.java)

**Exercise D.5.1.** Download the DrawingPad class, and set up a new Eclipse project which includes that class as a source file. If you have not yet discovered how to view the Javadoc pages generated from a class, do so. Generate the Javadoc page for DrawingPad, and read about the methods which it provides.

**Exercise D.5.2.** Write a class ItsAPuppy which uses the DrawingPad class to sketch a puppy.

**Exercise D.5.3.** Write a class GraphSquared which uses the DrawingPad class to draw an x- and y-axis with the plot of the function $y = x^2$. 

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E  Hints for selected exercises

E.1  Review exercises

Exercise D.1.8  Use the logarithm function for base 10.

Exercise D.3.20  Use two different int variables as two different pointers into the list — one from the start, looking for Ws; the other from the end, looking for Rs. Use a while loop instead of a for loop to decide whether there are more swaps to be made.

Exercise D.3.11  
- Identify lo and hi indices
  - Structure your searching loop to continue as long as lo<hi.
  - When target is less than what you find at the midpoint between lo and hi, update hi to exclude the indices where you now now that target could not possibly be; and similarly for when target is greater than the middle element.

Exercise D.4.11  Allocate a new array for the DataSet object, and then copy the numbers into it.

Exercise D.4.18  Add a pair of private fields:
  - A boolean field newData which set to true whenever there is new data.
  - A double field mean which is sometimes set to the mean value.

The method mean should check whether there is new data: if not, then it can used the stored value; if so, it should first update both of these two fields.

Exercise D.4.22  
- Magnitude: \(|x+iy| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\)
  - \((x + iy) + (z + iw) = (x + z) + i(y + w)\)
  - \((x + iy) - (z + iw) = (x - z) + i(y - w)\)
  - \((a + bi) \cdot (c + di) = (ac - bd) + i(ad + bc)\)
  - Conjugate: \(a + ib = a - ib\)
  - \(\frac{a+bi}{c+di} = \frac{(a+bi)(c-di)}{(c+di)(c-di)}\). Note that the product of a number with its conjugate is a real number.

Exercise D.4.26  Most of the math in this exercise is straightforward trigonometry, but the formula for adding two vectors specified as polar coordinates is more complicated. Given two points \((r_1\angle\theta_1)\) and \((r_2\angle\theta_2)\), the vector of their sum is \((r\angle\theta)\) where:

\[
egin{align*}
  r &= \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2r_1r_2 \cos(\theta_2 - \theta_1)} \\
  \theta &= \theta_1 + \arctan2(r_2 \sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1), r_1 + r_2 \cos(\theta_2 - \theta_1))
\end{align*}
\]
References
