



Java and C# in depth

Carlo A. Furia, Marco Piccioni, Bertrand Meyer

C#: introduction to object-oriented features





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C# classes and objects

Classes and objects

- The basic encapsulation unit is the class
 - as in every object-oriented language
- A class is made of a number of features (or members)
 - fields (instance variables)
 - methods
- Classes and features have different levels of visibility
- Objects are class instances
 - and classes are sets of objects
 - or blueprints for creating objects
 - constructors are special methods to create new objects
 - in C#, objects are automatically destroyed when no longer referenced (garbage collection)
 - destructor syntax exists, but to create finalizer methods

```
namespace JavaCsharpInDepth
     using System;
     public class MainClass {
          /// <author> John H. Doe </author>
               // `Main' must be capitalized!
          public static void Main(String[] args)
            Game myGame = new Game();
            Console.WriteLine("Game starts!");
            myGame.startGame();
```

In C#, the Main static method can be:

with argument String[] argswithout arguments

returning voidreturning int

This is different than in Java, where the format of main is fixed

Fields (instance variables)

- Relate to a class instance
- Declared within the class curly brackets, outside any method
- Visible at least within the class scope, within any method of the class
- Automatically initialized to the default values
 - 0 or 0.0 for numeric types, '\0' for chars, null for references, false for booleans, the value associated with 0 for enum, a default initialization of members for struct
- Warning: in standard C# parlance, "attributes" denote a kind of annotation, not fields

Methods (instance methods)

- Relate to an instance and are declared within the class curly brackets
- May have arguments
- Must have return type (possibly void)
- Constructors are "special" (more on this later)
- Also special members in C#:
 - properties, delegate, event
 - They don't exist in Java as such
 - More on these later

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Information hiding (a.k.a. access modifiers)

Field and method visibility

- **public**: visible everywhere
- protected: visible within the class and in subclasses
- internal: visible in the same assembly (basically, the same compiled CIL file)
 - this is the default visibility for top-level types
- internal protected: class, subclasses, and in the same assembly
- **private**: visible only within the class
 - this is the default visibility for class members

Class visibility

Classes can use all access modifiers except protected.

When applied to fields and methods

- Relates to a specific class, not to a class instance
- Shared by every object of a certain class
- Accessed without creating any class object

When applied to a class

- The class must contain only static fields and methods
- The class cannot be instantiated

- Same name as the class
- No return type (not even void)
- An argumentless constructor is provided by default if no other constructor is explicitly given

- Declared within a method's scope (denoted by curly brackets)
- Visible only within the method's scope
- De-allocated at method end
- Not automatically initialized
- Must be initialized before usage
 - compiler checks this in a conservative way

Refers to the current object

```
public class Card {
```

private int value;

```
// this is a property
public int Value {
    get { return value; }
    set { this.value = value; }
}
```

It's a class defined inside another class

Less expressive than Java's nested inner classes: in C#, the nesting controls visibility only, not behavior. Hence:

- There need not be a relation between instances of the nested class and instances of the containing class
- In general, the nested class cannot access members of the containing class
- A nested class can't be anonymous

C#'s delegates replace one of the main usages of Java's (anonymous) inner classes: pieces of code handling events

Nested classes: example usages

Nested classes may be used to:

- Declare helper classes used by the containing class but whose details are irrelevant to clients of the containing class.
 - class PersonList : IEnumerable<Person> {

// implementation of the list

private class PersonEnumerator :

IEnumerator<Person> {

// enumerator customized for Persons
} // clients only know about the interface
public IEnumerator<Person> GetEnumerator() {
 return new PersonEnumerator(this);
}

 Group together a number of tightly related variants of the containing class and dispatch them to clients with static methods (as in the factory design pattern).

- Using the same name with different argument list
 - list can differ in length, argument type, or both
- Example: constructors
- Method signature: name + arguments list
 - The return type is not part of the signature
- Tip: overloading may reduce readability: don't abuse it

Method overloading with subtypes

When a method name is overloaded with argument types that are related by inheritance, method resolution selects the "closest" available type.

```
Example: Student is a subtype of Person
 class X {
        // v1
     void foo (Person p) { }
       // v2
     void foo (Student p) { }
X x = new X();
x.foo(new Person()); // Executes v1
x.foo(new Student()); // Executes v2
```

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Method overloading with subtypes

When a method name is overloaded with argument types that are related by inheritance, method resolution selects the "closest" available type.

Example: Student is a subtype of Person

```
class Y { void foo (Person p) { ... } }
class Z { void foo (Student p) { ... } }
```

```
Y y = new Y();
y.foo(new Person()); // OK
y.foo(new Student()); // OK
```

```
Z z = new Z();
z.foo(new Person()); // Error
z.foo(new Student()); // OK
```

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Operator overloading is possible with the operator keyword

```
public class Complex {
    private int re, im;
    public Complex(int re, int im) {
        this.re = re;
        this.im = im;
    }
    public static Complex operator +(Complex cl, Complex c2) {
        return new Complex(cl.re + c2.re, cl.im + c2.im);
    }
```

Operator overloading (cont'd)

The following operators can be overloaded:

- Unary: + ! ~ ++ -- true false
- Binary: + * / % & | ^ << >> == != > < >= <=</p>

If you overload a binary operator +, the += operator is implicitly overloaded, too

■Same for – and –=, * and *=, etc.

Cast operators are also overloaded by defining conversion operations

•At least one argument of the overloaded operator must belong to the class where the overloading definition occurs

Operators don't have to be static and can have side effects
but think twice before relying on this feature!

C# supports two argument passing semantics

- by value (the default)
- by reference (with the **ref** keyword)
- the "output parameter semantics" (with the out keyword) is a variant of the reference semantics

This is the default (no keywords)

- All the primitive types are passed by value
 - Inside the method body we work with a local copy
 - We return information using the **return** keyword
- (Object) Reference types are passed by value too, but:
 - What is passed by value is the reference (i.e, an object address)
 - Consequently, a method can change the state of the object attached to the actual arguments through the reference

This is the default (no keywords)

```
public void no swap(int i, int j) {
   int tmp = i;
   i = j; j = tmp;
}
   int a, b;
   a = 3; b = 5;
   no swap(a, b);
   // a == 3 && b == 5
```

With the **ref** keyword

- The method can modify directly the value of the actual argument in the caller
 - The caller must use the **ref** keyword too (rationale: it enhances the clarity of what's going on)
- If a reference type is passed by reference the method can change the value of the reference itself in the caller

With the **ref** keyword

```
public void swap(ref int i, ref int j) {
   int tmp = i;
   i = j; j = tmp;
}
   int a, b;
   a = 3; b = 5;
   swap(ref a, ref b);
   // a == 5 && b == 3
```

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With the **out** keyword

- This is meant to mark arguments used as "additional returned values"
- In practice, it achieves a semantics which is very similar to the **ref** keyword
- The differences:
 - a ref argument must be initialized by the caller before calling the method
 - an out argument must be written by the callee before the method returns

Variable number of arguments

To pass a variable number of arguments to a method:

- Use a collection (including arrays)
- Use a params argument

public void write(params String[] someStrings) {
 foreach (String aString in someStrings) {
 Console.Write(aString);
 }

- This is just syntactic sugar for an array
 - You can pass an array as actual
- The params parameter must be the only one of its kind and the last one in the signature

- Similar to "static block initializers" in Java
- No arguments, no return type, no visibility specifiers
- The code within them is executed before the first instance of the class is created or any static member is referenced

Any class **C** may include a destructor method:

~C ()

which is syntactic sugar for overriding **Object**.**Finalize** in any class.

The destructor method is called just sometime after an object becomes inaccessible

- The destructor may not be called at all (e.g. if running process terminates first)
- No guarantee on when a destructor is called during garbage collection
- What's for: do some final clean-up upon object disposal
 - E.g.: resources not properly released beforehand
- It is not meant for general release of resources

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Inheritance, polymorphism, and dynamic dispatching

Inheritance

- We can explicitly inherit from one class only
 - A class C inheriting from D: public class C : D
 - Otherwise, every class implicitly inherits from Object
- Visible (i.e., **public** and **protected**) inherited fields and methods are available in the heir

Overriding and dynamic dispatching

Overriding: method redefinition in a subclass

Overriding rule:

- overriding method must have the same signature and return type as in the superclass
- covariant return types are not allowed in C# (Something similar can be obtained with genericity)

Unlike Java: static dispatching applies by default.

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Overriding and dynamic dispatching

There are two types of method redefinition in C#:

- With the new keyword (hiding/shadowing)
 - dynamic dispatching does not apply
 - if you don't write new you get a warning but hiding semantic is assumed
 - can change the visibility of the method
- With the override keyword (overriding)
 - dynamic dispatching does apply
 - only allowed if method is declared as virtual in parent class
 - cannot change the visibility of the method
- An override method implicitly remains virtual until it is declared as sealed

Overriding and dynamic dispatching

public class A { public virtual void Do() { } } // virtual; hence both types of redefinition are possible

public class B : A { public new void Do() { } } // non-polymorphic redefinition

public class C : A { public override void Do() { } } // polymorphic redefinition

- A x = new B(); x.Do(); // static dispatching
- B y = new B(); y.Do(); // static dispatching
- A z = new C(); z.Do(); // dynamic dispatching

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Casting and Polymorphism

Casting is C++/Java/C# jargon to denote polymorphic assignments.

- •Let S be an ancestor of T (that is, $T \rightarrow^* S$)
 - Upcasting: an object of type T is attached to a reference of type S
 - Downcasting: an object of type S is attached to a reference of type T

```
class Vehicle;
class Car extends Vehicle;
Vehicle v =(Vehicle)new Car(); // upcasting
Car c = (Car)new Vehicle(); // downcasting
```

Casting in C#

Upcasting is implicit

- For primitive types, upcasting means assigning a "smaller" type to a "larger" compatible type
 - byte to short to int to long to float to double
 (long to float may actually lose precision)
 - char to int
- For reference types, upcasting means assigning a subtype to a supertype, that is:
 - a subclass to superclass
 - an implementation of an interface X to that interface X
 - an interface X to the implementation of an ancestor of X
- Downcasting must be explicit

can raise runtime exceptions if it turns out to be impossible
 No casts are allowed for reference types outside the inheritance hierarchy

- The is keyword performs runtime checking of the dynamic type of a reference variable
 - Syntax: aVariable is aType
 - Is the object attached to aVariable compatible with aType?
 - Compatible means of aType or one of its subtypes
- The as keywords performs a conversion; if the conversion fails, the reference takes value null
 - Syntax: aVariable as aType
 - If aVariable is aType is the case, it is equivalent to: (aType) aVariable
 - Otherwise, it is equivalent to null

Variables with the same name and different (but overlapping) scopes:

- A local variable shadows a field with the same name: use this to access the field
- For fields, only shadowing redefinitions are allowed
 - use the new keyword to avoid warnings
- For methods, we've seen the two different types of redefinition

- sealed class
 - Cannot be inherited from
- sealed method or field
 - Can't have further override (but must itself be an override)
 - Further new redefinitions are still allowed
- To have constant (local) variables: use keyword const





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The object creation process

- Enables invocation of a superclass method or constructor from within an overriding method in a subclass
 - regardless of whether the overriding was with dynamic or static dispatching
- Can be used to explicitly invoke a constructor of the superclass (see next example)

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Chained constructors

Any constructor implicitly starts by executing the argumentless constructor of the parent class, unless:

- A specific constructor of the superclass is invoked using base (...)
- Another specific constructor of the same class is invoked using this (...)
- base(...) or this(...) must occur after the signature of the constructor, separated by a colon

```
public class CreatureCard : Card {
   int value;
   public CreatureCard(String name)
     : base(name) {
          //specific initializations
          value = 7;
     }
     public CreatureCard(int value)
     : this("Big Monster") {
          //specific initializations
          this.value = value;
     }
```

Object creation process

MyClass obj = new MyClass(); (static members are initialized before)

- new allocates memory for a MyClass instance (all attributes, including inherited ones)
- initializes all attributes to default values

If constructor references **base** (explicitly or by default):

- 1. Execute MyClass's initializers in their textual order
- 2. Recursive call to constructor of superclass
- 3. Execute constructor body

If constructor references
this (another constructor
X):

- 1. Recursive call to other constructor X
- 2. Execute rest of originally called constructor body

```
public class Person {
    protected int age = 1;
}
```

```
public class Student : Person {
    protected double gpa;
    public Student() {
        age = 6;
        gpa = age/2 + 1.0;
    }
}
```

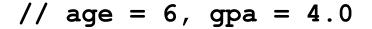
```
Person p1 = new Person(); // age = 1
Person p2 = new Student(); // age = 6, gpa = 4.0
```

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```
public class Person {
      protected int age;
      public Person() : this(1) {}
      public Person(int age) { this.age = age; }
public class Student : Person {
  protected double gpa;
  public Student() : base(6) {
      gpa = age/2 + 1.0;
```

Person p2 = new Student();



()