

Advanced Programming Methods

Lecture 2 – Java Exceptions, Generics and Collections

Content

1. Java Exceptions

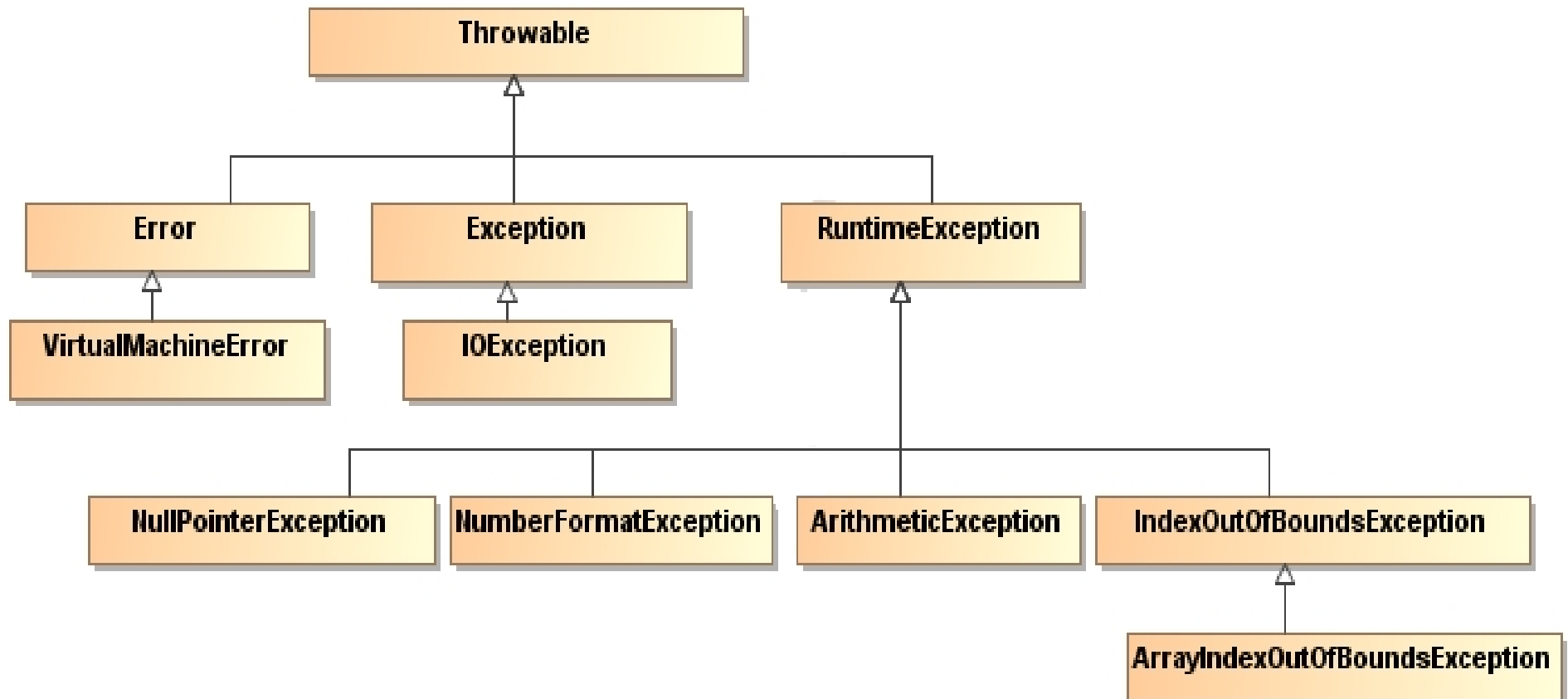
2. Java Generics

3. Java Collections

JAVA EXCEPTIONS

Java Exceptions

Three types of exceptions: Errors (external to the application), Checked Exceptions (subject to try-catch), and Runtime Exceptions (correspond to some bugs)



Example 1

Program for $ax+b=0$, where a, b are integers.

```
class P1{
    public static void main(String args[]){
        int a=Integer.parseInt(args[0]);    //(1)
        int b=Integer.parseInt(args[1]);    //(2)
        if (b % a==0)                        //(3)
            System.out.println("Solutie "+(-b/a));        //(4)
        else
            System.out.println("Nu exista solutie intreaga"); //(5)
    }
}

java P1 1 1 //-1
java P1 0 3 //exception, divide by 0
           //Lines 4 or 5 are not longer executed
```

Example 1

Java VM creates the exception object corresponding to that abnormal situation and throws the exception object to those program instructions that generates the abnormal situation.

Thrown exception object can be caught or can be ignored (in our example the program P1 ignores the exception)

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero  
at P1.main(P1.java:13)
```

Catching exceptions

Using try-catch statement:

```
try{  
    //code that might generates abnormal situations  
}catch(TipExceptie numeVariabila){  
    //treatment of the abnormal situation  
}
```

Execution Flow:

- If an abnormal situation occurs in the block try(), JVM creates an exception object and throws it to the block catch.
- If no abnormal situation occurs, try block normally executes.
- If the exception object is compatible with one of the exceptions of the catch blocks then that catch block executes

Example 2

```
class P2{
    public static void main(String args[]){
        try{
            int a=Integer.parseInt(args[0]);    //(1)
            int b=Integer.parseInt(args[1]);    //(2)
            if (b % a==0)                        //(3)
                System.out.println("Solutie "+(-b/a));    //(4)
            else
                System.out.println("Nu exista solutie intreaga"); //(5)
        }catch(ArithmeticException e){
            System.out.println("Nu exista solutie");    //(6)
        }
    }
}

java P2 1 1 //Solutie -1
java P2 0 3 // Nu exista solutie
           //(1), (2), (3), (6) are executed
```


Multiple catch clauses

```
try{
    //code with possible errors
}catch(TipExceptie1 numeVariabila1){
    //instructions
}catch(TipExceptie2 numeVariabila2){
    //instructions
}...
catch(TipExceptien numeVariabilan){
    // instructions
}
```

Example 3

```
class P3{
    public static void main(String args[]){
        try{
            int a=Integer.parseInt(args[0]);    //(1)
            int b=Integer.parseInt(args[1]);    //(2)
            if (b % a==0)                        //(3)
                System.out.println("Solutie "+(-b/a));    //(4)
            else
                System.out.println("Nu exista solutie intreaga"); //(5)
        }catch(ArithmeticException e){
            System.out.println("Nu exista solutie"); //(6)
        }catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e){
            System.out.println("java P3 a b");    //(7)
        }
    }
}

java P3 1 1 //Solution -1
java P3 0 3 // Nu exista solutie
           //(1), (2), (3), (6) are executed
java P3 1 //java P3 a b
```

Nested try statements

```
class P4{
    public static void main(String args[]){
        try{
            int a=Integer.parseInt(args[0]);    //(1)
            int b=Integer.parseInt(args[1]);    //(2)
            try{
                if (b % a==0)                    //(3)
                    System.out.println("Solutie "+(-b/a));           //(4)
                else
                    System.out.println("Nu exista solutie intreaga"); //(5)
            }catch(ArithmeticException e){
                System.out.println("Nu exista solutie"); //(6)
            }
        }catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e){
            System.out.println("java P4 a b"); //(7)
        }
    }
}

java P4 1 1 //Solutie -1
java P4 0 3 // Nu exista solutie
java P4 1 //java P4 a b
```

Nested try statements

```
try{
  //...
  try{
    //...
  }catch(TipExceptieii numeVarii) {
    //...
  }
}catch(TipExceptie1 numeVar1) {
  //instructiuni
}catch(TipExceptien numeVarn) {
  // ...
  try{
    //...
  }catch(TipExceptiein numeVarin) {
    //...
  }
}
```

Finally clause

The finally clause is executed in any situation:

```
try{
    //...
}catch(TipExceptie1 numeVar1) {
    //instructiuni
}[catch(TipExceptien numeVarn) {
    // ...
}]
[finally{
    //instructiuni
}]
```

Finally Clause

```
A
try{
    B
}catch(TipExceptie nume){
    C
}finally{
    D
}
E
```

Block D executes:

- After A and B (before E) if no exception occurs in B. (A, B, D, E)
- After C, if an exception occurs in B and that exception is caught (A, a part of B, C, D, E).
- Before exit from the method:
 - » An exception occurs in B, but is not caught (A, a part of B, D).
 - » An exception occurs in B, it is caught but a return exists in C (A, a part of B, C, D).
 - » If a return exists in B (A, B, D).

Finally Clause

```
public void writeElem(int[] vec) {  
    PrintWriter out = null;  
    try {  
        out = new PrintWriter(new FileWriter("fisier.txt"));  
        for (int elem:vec)  
            out.print(" "+elem);  
    } catch (IOException e) {  
        System.err.println("IOException: "+e);  
    }finally{  
        if (out != null)  
            out.close();  
    }  
}
```

General form of Try statement

```
try{
    //code with possible errors
}[catch(TipExceptie1 e1){
    //...
}]
//...
[catch(TipExceptien en){
    //...
}]
[finally{
    //instructions
}]
```


Defining exception classes

- By deriving from class `Exception`:

```
public class ExceptieNoua extends Exception{  
    public ExceptieNoua(){}  
    public ExceptieNoua(String mesaj){  
        super(mesaj);  
    }  
}
```

Exceptions Specification

- Use keyword `throws` in method signatures:

```
public class ExceptieNoua extends Exception{
```

```
public class A{  
    public void f() throws ExceptieNoua{  
        //...  
    }  
}
```

- Many exceptions can be specified (their order does not matter):

```
public class Exceptie1 extends Exception{  
public class B{  
    public int g(int d) throws ExceptieNoua, Exceptie1{  
        //...  
    }  
}
```

Throwing exceptions

- Statement `throw` :

```
public class B{  
    public int  g(int d) throws ExceptieNoua,Exceptie1{  
        if (d==3)  
            return 10;  
        if (d==7)  
            throw new ExceptieNoua();  
        if (d==5)  
            throw new Exceptie1();  
        return 0;  
    }  
    //...  
}
```

- Statement `throw` throws away the exception object and the method execution is interrupted.
- All exceptions thrown inside a method must be specified in the method signature.

Calling a method having exceptions

- use try-catch to treat the exception:

```
public class C{
    public void h(A a){
        try{
            a.f();
        }catch(ExceptieNoua e){
            System.err.println(" Exceptie "+e);
        }
    }
}
```

- Throwing away an uncaught exception (uncaught exception must be specified in the signature):

```
public class C{
    public void t(B b) throws ExceptieNoua {
        try{
            int rez=b.g(8);
        }catch(Exceptie1 e){           //only Exceptie1 is caught
            System.err.println(" Exceptie "+e);
        }
    }
}
```

Exception specification

- The subclass constructor must specify all the base class constructor (explicitly or implicitly called) in its signature.
- The subclass constructor may add new exceptions to its signature.

```
public class A{  
    public A() throws Exception1{  
    }  
    public A(int i){ }  
    //...  
}
```

```
public class B extends A{  
    public B() throws Exception1{ }  
    public B(int i){  
        super(i);  
    }  
    public B(char c) throws Exception1, ExceptionNoua{  
    }  
    //...  
}
```

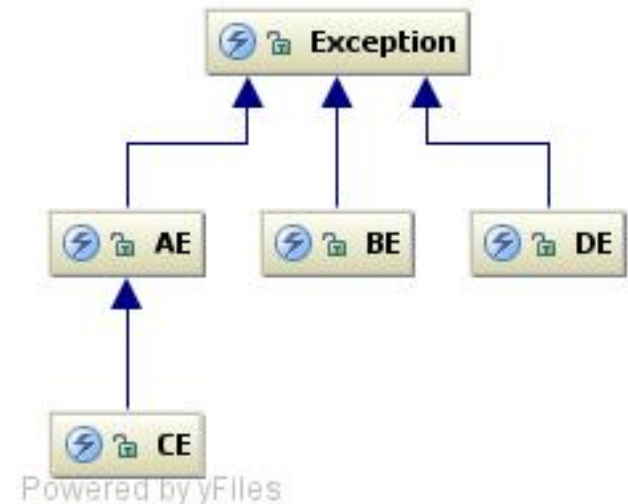
Exceptions and method overriding

- An overriding method may declare a part of the exceptions of the overridden method.
- An overriding method may add only new exceptions which are inherited from the overridden method exceptions
- The same rules are applied for the interfaces.

```
public class AA {  
    public void f() throws Exceptie1, Exceptie2{ }  
    public void g(){ }  
    public void h() throws Exceptie1{ }  
}  
  
public class BB extends AA{  
    public void f() throws Exceptie1{ } //Exceptie2 is not declared  
    public void g() throws Exceptie2{ } //not allowed  
    public void h() throws Exceptie3{ }  
}  
  
public class Exceptie3 extends Exceptie1{...}
```

Exceptions and method overriding

```
public class A {  
    public void f() throws AE, BE {}  
    public void g() throws AE{}  
}  
  
public class B extends A{  
    public void g(){}  
    public void f() throws AE, BE, CE{}  
    public void f() throws AE, BE, DE{}  
    public void g() throws DE{}  
}  
//?
```



Exceptions order in catch clauses

- The order of catch clauses is important since the JVM selects the first catch clause on which the try block thrown exception matches.
- An exception A matches an exception B if A and B have the same class or A is a subclass of B.

```
public class C {  
    public void g(B b) {  
        try {  
            b.f();  
        } catch (Exception e) { ...  
        } catch (CE ce) { ...  
        } catch (AE ae) { ...  
        } catch (BE be) { ...  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
public class C {  
    public void g(B b) {  
        try {  
            b.f();  
        } catch (CE ce) { ...  
        } catch (AE ae) { ...  
        } catch (BE be) { ...  
        } catch (Exception e) { ...  
        }  
    }  
}
```


Lost exceptions

```
public class C {  
    public void g(B b){  
        try{  
            b.f();  
        }  
        catch (CE ce) { } //At least an error message must be printed  
        catch (AE ae) { }  
        catch (BE be) { }  
    }  
}
```

Re-throwing an exception

- A caught exception can be re-thrown

```
public class C {
    public int h(A a) throws Exceptie4, BE {
        try {
            a.f();
        } catch (BE be) {
            System.out.println("Exceptie rearuncata "+be);
            throw be;
        } catch (AE ae) {
            throw new Exceptie4("mesaj", ae);
        }
        return 0;
    }
}

public class Exceptie4 extends Exception {
    public Exceptie4() { }
    public Exceptie4(String message) {
        super(message);
    }
    public Exceptie4(String message, Throwable cause) {
        super(message, cause);
    }
}
```

Exception class

■ Constructors:

- `Exception()`
- `Exception(String message)`
- `Exception(String message, Throwable cause)`
- `Exception(Throwable cause)`

■ Methods:

- `getCause(): Throwable`
- `getMessage(): String`
- `printStackTrace()`
- `printStackTrace(PrintStream s)`

```
public class C {  
    public int h(A a) throws BE {  
        try {  
            a.f();  
        } catch (BE be) {  
            System.out.println("Exceptie rearuncata "+be.getMessage());  
            throw be;  
        } catch (AE ae) {  
            ae.printStackTrace();  
        }  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

Unchecked Exceptions

- Checked exceptions are those which are derived from class `Exception`
- Exceptions may be derived from class `RuntimeException`. They are named *unchecked exceptions*.

```
public class ExceptieNV extends RuntimeException{  
    public ExceptieNV() { }  
    public ExceptieNV(String message) {  
        super(message) ;  
    }  
}
```

- Unchecked Exceptions must not be declared in the method signature.
- Unchecked Exceptions are used only for the abnormal situations that can not be solved (the recovering cannot be done).

JAVA GENERICS

Generics

- Parameterized types
- Started with Java 1.5
- Different than C++ templates
 - It does not generate a new class for each parameterized type
 - The constraints can be imposed on the type variables of the parameterized types.
- Motivation:

```
Stiva s=new Stiva();      //stack of Object
s.push("Ana");
s.push(new Persoana("Ana", 23));
Persoana p1 =(Persoana)s.pop();
Persoana p2 =(Persoana)s.pop();
//correct at compile-time, error at execution time
```

Generic Class declaration

```
[access_mode] class ClassName <TypeVar1[, TypeVar2[, ...]] >{  
    TypeVar1 field1;  
    [declarations of fields]  
    [declarations and definitions of methods]  
}
```

Obs:

Type variables must be upper letters(for example E for element, K for key, V for value, T, U, S ...).

```
public class Stiva<E>{  
    private class Nod<T>{  
        T info;  
        Nod<T> next;  
        Nod(){info=null; next=null;}  
        Nod(T info, Nod next){  
            this.info=info;  
            this.next=next;  
        }  
    }  
} //class Nod  
Nod<E> top;  
//...  
}
```

Object creation

```
public class Test{  
    public static void main(String[] args){  
        Stiva<String> ss=new Stiva<String>();  
        ss.push("Ana");  
        ss.push("Maria");  
        ss.push(new Persoana("Ana", 23));    //error at compile-time  
        String elem=ss.pop();                //NO CAST  
  
        Stiva<Persoana> sp=new Stiva<Persoana>();  
        sp.push(new Persoana("Ana", 23));  
        sp.push(new Persoana("Maria", 10));  
  
        Dictionar<String, String> dic=new Dictionar<String, String>();  
        dic.add("abc", "ABC");  
        dic.add(23, "acc"); //error at compile-time  
        dic.add("acc", 23); //error la compile-time  
    }  
}
```


Object creation

Type variables can be instantiated only with reference types. Primitive types: int, byte, char, float, double,... are not allowed. Therefore the corresponding reference types are used.

```
Stiva<int> si=new Stiva<int>();  
//error at compile-time
```

```
Stiva<Integer> si=new Stiva<Integer>();
```

primitive types	Corresponding reference types
boolean	Boolean
byte	Byte
short	Short
int	Integer
long	Long
float	Float
double	Double

Autoboxing

- Java 1.5
- Autoboxing: automatic conversion of a value of a primitive type to an object instance of a corresponding reference type when an object is expected, and vice-versa when a primitive value is expected.

```
Stiva<Integer> si=new Stiva<Integer>();
```

```
si.push(23);           //autoboxing
```

```
si.push(new Integer(23));
```

```
int val=si.pop();
```

```
Character ch = 'x';
```

```
char c = ch;
```

Generic methods

■ Methods with type variables

```
class ClassName[<TypeVar ...>]{  
  [access_mod] <TypeVar1[, TypeVar2[,...]]> TypeR nameMethod([list_param]){  
    }  
    //...  
}
```

Obs:

- Static methods cannot use the type variables of the class.
- A generic method can contain type variables different than those used by the generic class.
- A generic method can be defined in a non-generic class.

Generic methods

```
public class GenericMethods {  
    public <T> void f(T x) {  
        System.out.println(x.toString());  
    }  
  
    public static <T> void copy(T[] elems, Stiva<T> st) {  
        for(T e:elems)  
            st.push(e);  
    }  
}
```

Calling a generic method

- The compiler automatically infers the types which instantiate the type variables when a generic method is called.

```
public class A {  
    public <T> void print(T x) {  
        System.out.println(x);  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        A a=new A();  
        a.print(23);  
        a.print("ana");  
        a.print(new Persoana("ana",23));  
    }  
}
```

Calling a generic method

- The instantiations of the type vars are explicitly given:

- Instance method:

```
a.<Integer>print(3);  
a.<Persoana>print(new Persoana("Ana",23));
```

- Static method :

```
NameClass.<Typ>nameMethod([parameters]);  
//...  
Integer[] ielem={2,3,4};  
Stiva<Integer> st=new Stiva<Integer>();  
GenericMethods.<Integer>copy(ielem, st);  
//
```

- Non-static method in a class:

```
this.<Typ>nameMethod([parameters]);  
class A{  
    public <T> void print(T x){...}  
    public void g(Complex x){  
        this.<Complex>print(x);  
    }  
}
```

Generic arrays

- Cannot be created using new:

```
T[] elem=new T[dim]; //error at compile time
```

but we can use:

```
T[] elem=(T[])new Object[dim]; //warning at compile-time
```

- Alternatives:

- Using `Array.newInstance`

```
import java.lang.reflect.Array;
public class Stiva <E>{
    private E[] elems;
    private int top;
    @SuppressWarnings("unchecked")
    public Stiva(Class<E> tip) {
        elems= (E[])Array.newInstance(tip, 10);
        top=0;
    }
    //...
}
Stiva<Integer> si=new Stiva<Integer>(Integer.class);
```

- Using `ArrayList` instead of array.

Generic arrays

- Use an array of Object, but read operation requires an explicit cast:

```
public class Stiva <E>{
    private Object[] elems;
    private int top;
    public Stiva() {
        elems=new Object[10];
        top=0;
    }
    public void push(E elem){
        elems[top++]=elem;
    }
    @SuppressWarnings("unchecked")
    public E pop(){
        if (top>0)
            return (E)elems[--top];
        return null;
    }
    //...
}
```

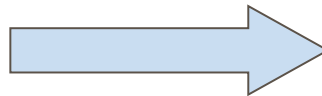

Erasure

- Java does not create a new class for each new instantiation of the type variables in case of the generic classes.
- The compiler erases all type variables and replaces them with their upper bounds (usually Object) and explicit casts are inserted when it is necessary

```
public class A {  
    public String f (Integer ix){  
        Stiva<String> st=new Stiva<String>();  
        Stiva sts=st;  
        sts.push(ix);  
        return st.top();  
    }  
}
```

```
public class A {  
    public String f (Integer ix){  
        Stiva st=new Stiva();  
        Stiva sts=st;  
        sts.push(ix);  
        return (String)st.top();  
    }  
}
```

compilation



- Reason: backward compatibility with the non-generic Java versions
- The generic class is not recompiled for each new instantiation of the type variables like in C++.

Bounds

```
public class ListOrd<E> {
    private class Nod<E>{
        E info;
        Nod<E> nxt;
        public Nod(){ info=null; nxt=null; }
        private Nod(E info, Nod<E> nxt) { this.info = info; this.nxt = nxt; }
        private Nod(E info) { this.info = info; nxt=null; }
    }
    private Nod<E> head;
    public ListOrd(){ head=null;}
    public void add(E elem){
        if (head==null){
            head=new Nod<E>(elem);
            return;
        }
        if (/*compare elem to head.info*/){
            head=new Nod<E>(elem,head);
        }else {...}
    }
}
```

Bounds

- Type variables can have constraints (namely bounds) using **extends**.

T extends E //T is the type E or is a subtype of E.

- General form of the constraint:

T extends [C &] I₁ [& I₂ &...& I_n]

T inherits the class C and implements the interfaces I₁, ... I_n.

- At compile-time T is replaced by the first element from the constraint expression:

T extends C //T is replaced by C

T extends C & I₁ & I₂ //T is replaced by C

T extends I₁ & I₂ //T is replaced by I1

T extends I₁ //T is replaced by I1

T //T is replaced by Object

- If T has constraints then through T we can call any method from the class and interfaces specified as bounds.

Bounds

```
public interface Comparable<E>{
    int compareTo(E e);
}

public class ListOrd<E extends Comparable<E>> {
    private class Nod<E>{...}
    private Nod<E> head;
    public ListOrd(){ head=null;}
    public void add(E elem){
        if (head==null){
            head=new Nod<E>(elem);
            return;
        }
        if (elem.compareTo(head.info)<0){
            head=new Nod<E>(elem,head);
        }else {...}
    }
    public E retElemPoz(int poz){
        //...
    }
}
```

Wildcards

```
ListOrd<String> ls=new ListOrd<String>();  
ListOrd<Object> lo=ls; //ASSUME this is CORRECT  
lo.add(23);  
String s=ls.retElemPoz(0); //ERROR
```

Obs:

If **SB** is a subtype of **T** and **G** is a generic container class then **G<SB>** is not a subtype of **G<T>**.

```
void printLista(ListOrd<Object> lo){  
    for(Object o:lo)  
        System.out.println(o);  
}  
...  
ListOrd<String> ls=new ListOrd<String>();  
ls.add("mere");  
ls.add("pere");  
printLista(ls);           //error at compile-time
```

Wildcards

We use ? to denote any type (or unknown type)

```
void printLista(ListOrd<?> lo) {  
    for(Object o:lo)  
        System.out.println(o);  
}
```

Obs:

1. When we use ?, the elements can be considered to be of type `Object` (upper bound).
2. When we use ? to declare an instance, the instance elements cannot be read or write, the only allowed operations are to read `Object` and to write `null`.

```
ListOrd<String> ls=new ListOrd<String>();  
ls.add("mere");  
ls.add("pere");  
ListOrd<?> ll=ls;  
ll.add("portocale"); //error  
ll.update(1, "struguri");//error  
Object el=ll.retElemPoz(0);
```

Bounded Wildcards

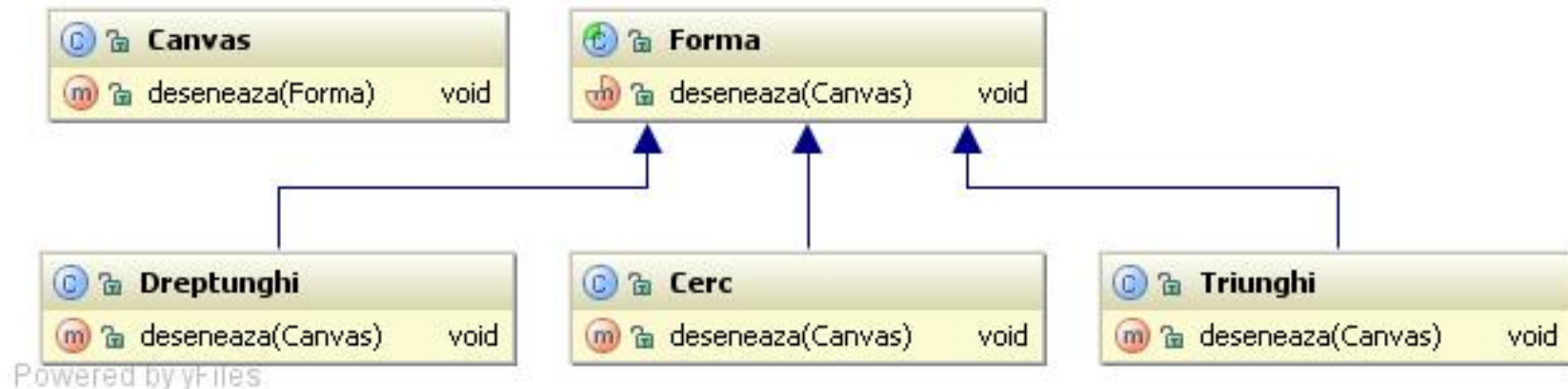
We can specify bounds for ?:

- Upper bound by `extends: ? extends C` or `? extends I`
- Lower bound by `super: ? super C` (any superclass of C)

1. Upper bound means that we can read elements of the type (or of superclass of the type) given by the upper bound.
2. Lower bound means that we can write elements of type (or of subclasses of the type) given by the lower bound.

```
ListOrd<Angajat> la=new ListOrd<Angajat>();  
la.add(new Angajat(...));  
ListOrd<? extends Persoana> lp=la;  
lp.add(new Angajat(...)); //error at compile time  
Persoana p=lp.retElemPoz(0);  
lp.retElemPoz(0).getNum();  
ListOrd<? super Angajat> linf=la;  
linf.add(new Angajat(...)); //correct
```

Bounded Wildcards



```
public class Canvas {  
    public void deseneaza(Forma f){ f.deseneaza(this); }  
    public void deseneaza(ListOrd<Forma> lf){  
        for(Forma f: lf)  
            f.deseneaza(this);  
    }  
}  
//...  
Canvas c=new Canvas();  
ListOrd<Cerc> lc=new ListOrd<Cerc>();  
c.deseneaza(lc);    //error at compile time
```


Bounded Wildcards

```
public class Canvas {  
    public void deseneaza(Forma f){ f.deseneaza(this); }  
    public void deseneaza(ListOrd<? extends Forma> lf){  
        for(Forma f: lf)  
            f.deseneaza(this);  
    }  
}  
//...  
Canvas c=new Canvas();  
ListOrd<Cerc> lc=new ListOrd<Cerc>();  
c.deseneaza(lc); //correct  
ListOrd<? extends Forma> ll=lc;  
ll.add(new Cerc()); //error at compile time;
```

JAVA COLLECTIONS

Java Collections Framework (JCF)

A *collection* is an object that maintains references to other objects

JCF is part of the `java.util` package and provides:

Interfaces

- Each defines the operations and contracts for a particular type of collection (List, Set, Queue, etc)
- Idea: when using a collection object, it's sufficient to know its interface

Implementations

- Reusable classes that implement above interfaces (e.g. LinkedList, HashSet)

Algorithms

- Useful polymorphic methods for manipulating and creating objects whose classes implement collection interfaces
- Sorting, index searching, reversing, replacing etc.

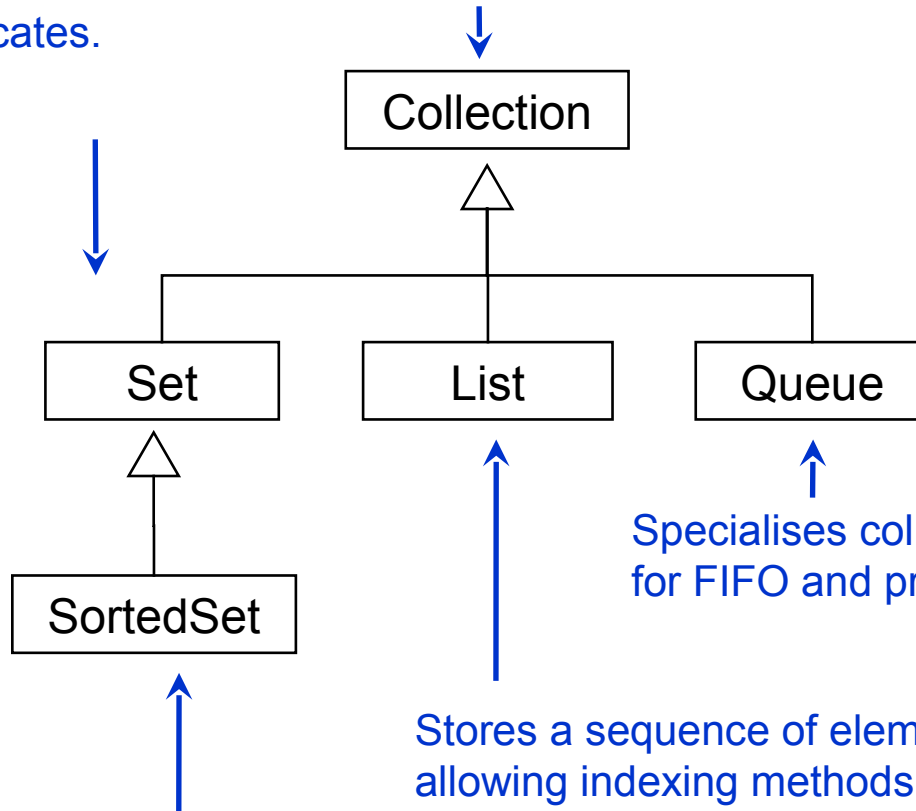
Interfaces

Generalisation

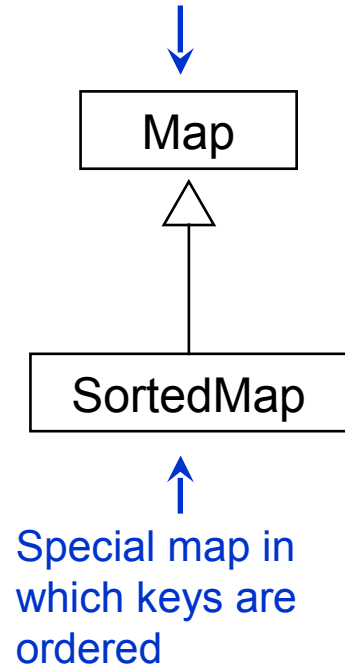
A special Collection that cannot contain duplicates.

Root interface for operations common to all types of collections

Stores mappings from keys to values



Specialises collection with operations for FIFO and priority queues.



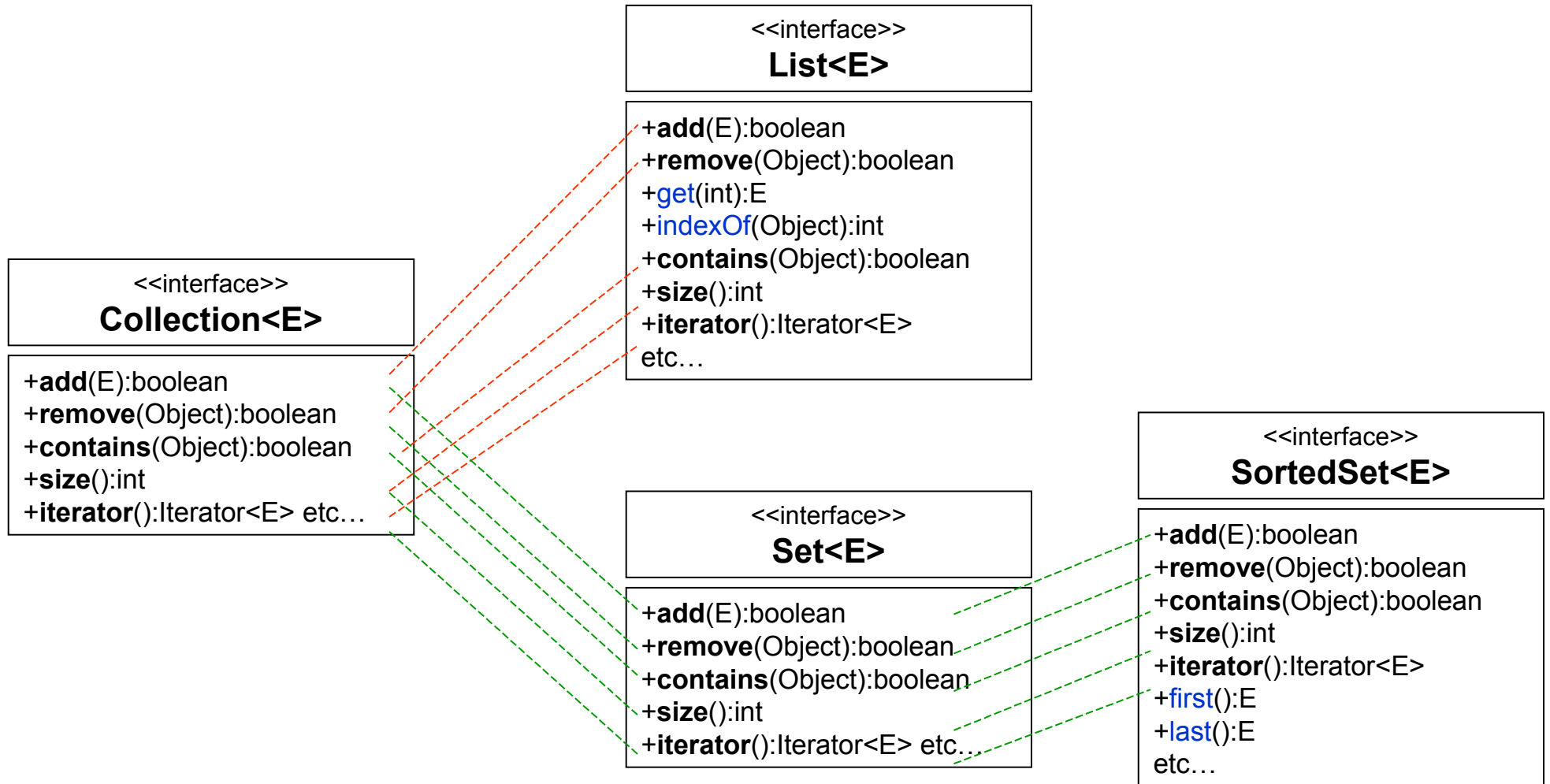
Special Set that retains ordering of elements.

Stores a sequence of elements, allowing indexing methods

Special map in which keys are ordered

Specialisation

Expansion of contracts



The Collection Interface

- The Collection interface provides the basis for List-like collections in Java. The interface includes:

```
boolean add(Object)
boolean addAll(Collection)
void clear()
boolean contains(Object)
boolean containsAll(Collection)
boolean equals(Object)
boolean isEmpty()
Iterator iterator()
boolean remove(Object)
boolean removeAll(Collection)
boolean retainAll(Collection)
int size()
Object[] toArray()
Object[] toArray(Object[])
```

List Interface

- Lists allow duplicate entries within the collection
- Lists are an ordered collection much like an array
 - Lists grow automatically when needed
 - The list interface provides accessor methods based on index
- The List interface extends the Collections interface and add the following method definitions:
 - `void add(int index, Object)`
 - `boolean addAll(int index, Collection)`
 - `Object get(int index)`
 - `int indexOf(Object)`
 - `int lastIndexOf(Object)`
 - `ListIterator listIterator()`
 - `ListIterator listIterator(int index)`
 - `Object remove(int index)`
 - `Object set(int index, Object)`
 - `List subList(int fromIndex, int toIndex)`

Set Interface

- The Set interface also extends the Collection interface but does not add any methods to it.
- Collection classes which implement the Set interface have the add stipulation that Sets CANNOT contain duplicate elements
- Elements are compared using the equals method
- NOTE: exercise caution when placing mutable objects within a set. Objects are tested for equality upon addition to the set. If the object is changed after being added to the set, the rules of duplication may be violated.

SortedSet Interface

- SortedSet provides the same mechanisms as the Set interface, except that SortedSets maintain the elements in ascending order.
- Ordering is based on natural ordering (Comparable) or by using a Comparator.

java.util.Iterator<E>

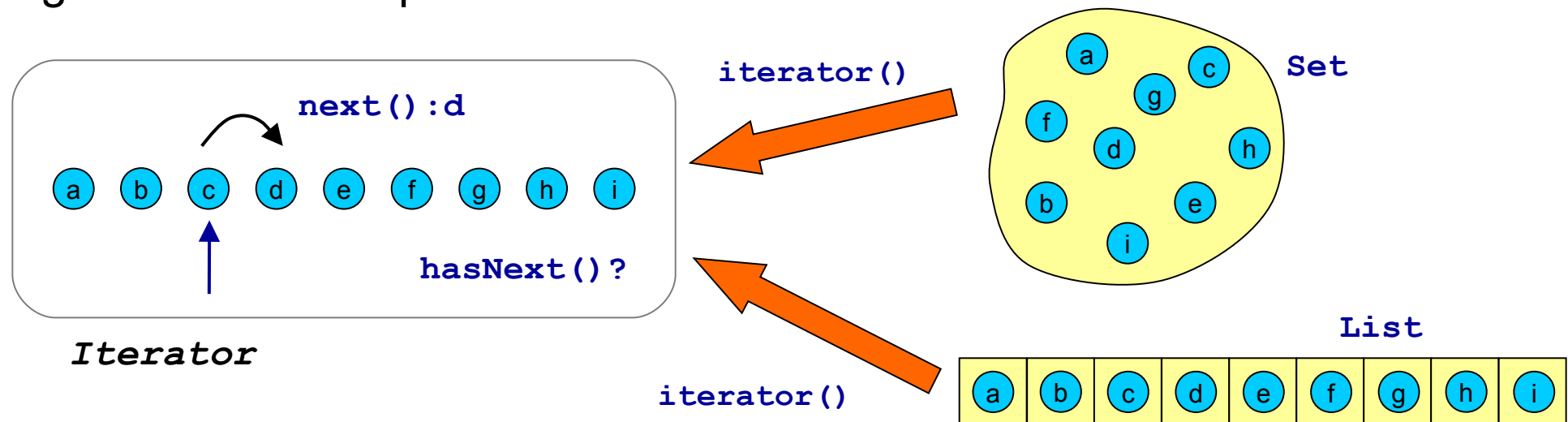
Think about typical usage scenarios for Collections

Retrieve the list of all patients

Search for the lowest priced item

More often than not you would have to traverse every element in the collection – be it a List, Set, or your own datastructure

Iterators provide a generic way to traverse through a collection regardless of its implementation



Using an Iterator

Quintessential code snippet for collection iteration:

```
public void list(Collection<T> items) {  
    Iterator<T> it = items.iterator();  
    while(it.hasNext()) {  
        Item item = it.next();  
        System.out.println(item.toString());  
    }  
}
```

<<interface>>

Iterator<E>

+hasNext():boolean

+next():E

+remove():void

Design notes:

- Above method takes in an object whose class implements Collection
 - List, ArrayList, LinkedList, Set, HashSet, TreeSet, Queue, MyOwnCollection, etc
- We know any such object can return an Iterator through method iterator()
- We don't know the exact implementation of Iterator we are getting, but **we don't care**, as long as it provides the methods next() and hasNext()
- Good practice: **Program to an interface!**

java.lang.Iterable<T>

```
for (Item item : items) {  
    System.out.println(item);  
}
```

=

```
Iterator<Item> it = items.iterator();  
while(it.hasNext()) {  
    Item item = it.next();  
    System.out.println(item);  
}
```

This is called a “**for-each**” statement

For each `item` in `items`

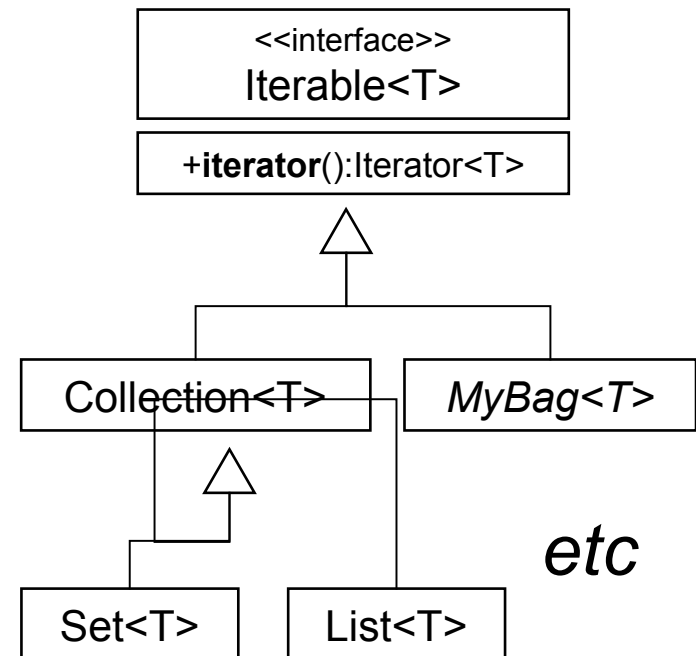
This is possible as long as `items` is of type **Iterable**

Defines single method `iterator()`

Collection (and hence all its subinterfaces) implements **Iterable**

You can do this to your own implementation of **Iterable** too!

To do this you may need to return your own implementation of **Iterator**



java.util.Collections

Offers many very useful utilities and algorithms for manipulating and creating collections

Sorting lists

Index searching

Finding min/max

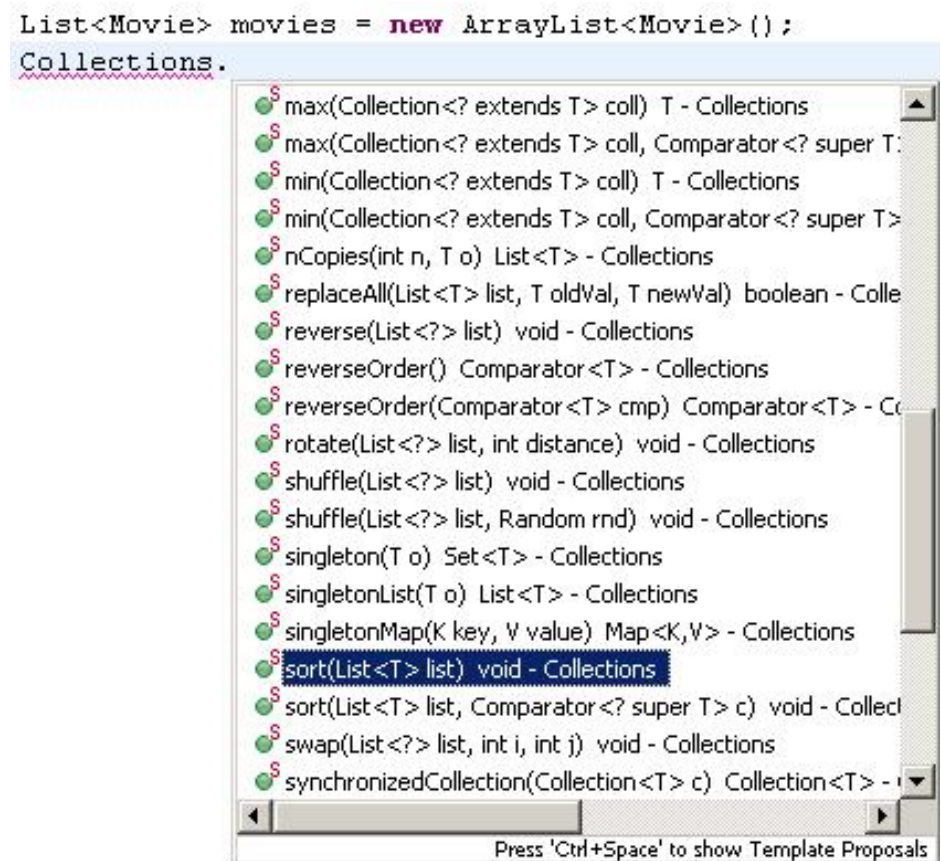
Reversing elements of a list

Swapping elements of a list

Replacing elements in a list

Other nifty tricks

Saves you having to implement them yourself → **reuse**

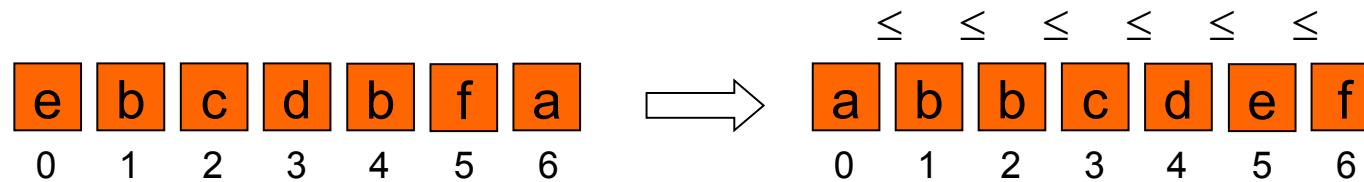


Comparable and Comparators

- You will have noted that some classes provide the ability to sort elements.
 - How is this possible when the collection is supposed to be de-coupled from the data?
- Java defines two ways of comparing objects:
 - The objects implement the Comparable interface
 - A Comparator object is used to compare the two objects
- If the objects in question are Comparable, they are said to be sorted by their "natural" order.
- Comparable object can only offer one form of sorting. To provide multiple forms of sorting, Comparators must be used.

Collections.sort()

Java's implementation of merge sort – ascending order



- What types of objects can you sort? Anything that has an **ordering**
- Two sort() methods: sort a given List according to either 1) *natural ordering* of elements or an 2) externally defined ordering.

1) `public static <T extends Comparable<? super T>> void sort(List<T> list)`

2) `public static <T> void sort(List<T> list, Comparator<? super T> c)`

■ Translation:

1. Only accepts a List parameterised with type implementing `Comparable`
2. Accepts a List parameterised with any type as long as you also give it a `Comparator` implementation that defines the ordering for that type

java.lang.Comparable<T>

A **generic interface** with a single method: `int compareTo(T)`

Return 0 if this = other

Return **any +’ve integer** if this > other

Return **any –’ve integer** if this < other

Implement this interface to define **natural ordering** on objects of type T

```
public class Money implements Comparable<Money> {  
    ...  
    public int compareTo( Money other ) {  
        if( this.cents == other.cents ) {  
            return 0;  
        }  
        else if( this.cents < other.cents ) {  
            return -1;  
        }  
        else {  
            return 1;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
m1 = new Money(100,0);  
m2 = new Money(50,0);  
m1.compareTo(m2) returns 1;
```

A more concise way of doing this? (hint: 1 line)

```
return this.cents - other.cents;
```


Natural-order sorting

```
List<Money> funds = new ArrayList<Money>();  
funds.add(new Money(100,0));  
funds.add(new Money(5,50));  
funds.add(new Money(-40,0));  
funds.add(new Money(5,50));  
funds.add(new Money(30,0));
```

```
Collections.sort(funds);  
System.out.println(funds);
```

```
List<CD> albums = new ArrayList<CD>();  
albums.add(new CD("Street Signs","Ozomatli",2.80));  
//etc...  
Collections.sort(albums);
```

What's the output?
[-40.0,
5.50,
5.50,
30.0,
100.0]

CD does not implement a
Comparable interface

```
public static <T extends Comparable<? super T>> void sort(List<T> list)
```

java.util.Comparator<T>

Useful if the type of elements to be sorted is not Comparable, or you want to define an alternative ordering

Also a generic interface that defines methods **compare(T, T)** and **equals(Object)**

Usually only need to define **compare(T, T)**

Define ordering by CD's getPrice() → **Money**

Note: PriceComparator implements a Comparator parameterised with CD → T “becomes” CD

<<interface>> Comparator<T>
+compare(T o1, T o2):int +equals(Object other):boolean

CD
+getTitle():String +getArtist():String +getPrice():Money

```
public class PriceComparator
implements Comparator<CD> {
    public int compare(CD c1, CD c2) {
        return c1.getPrice().compareTo(c2.getPrice());
    }
}
```

Comparator and Comparable
going hand in hand 😊

Comparator sorting

```
List<CD> albums = new ArrayList<CD>();  
albums.add(new CD("Street Signs", "Ozomatli", new Money(3, 50)));  
albums.add(new CD("Jazzinho", "Jazzinho", new Money(2, 80)));  
albums.add(new CD("Space Cowboy", "Jamiroquai", new Money(5, 00)));  
albums.add(new CD("Maiden Voyage", "Herbie Hancock", new Money(4, 00)));  
albums.add(new CD("Here's the Deal", "Liquid Soul", new Money(1, 00)));  
  
Collections.sort(albums, new PriceComparator());  
System.out.println(albums);
```

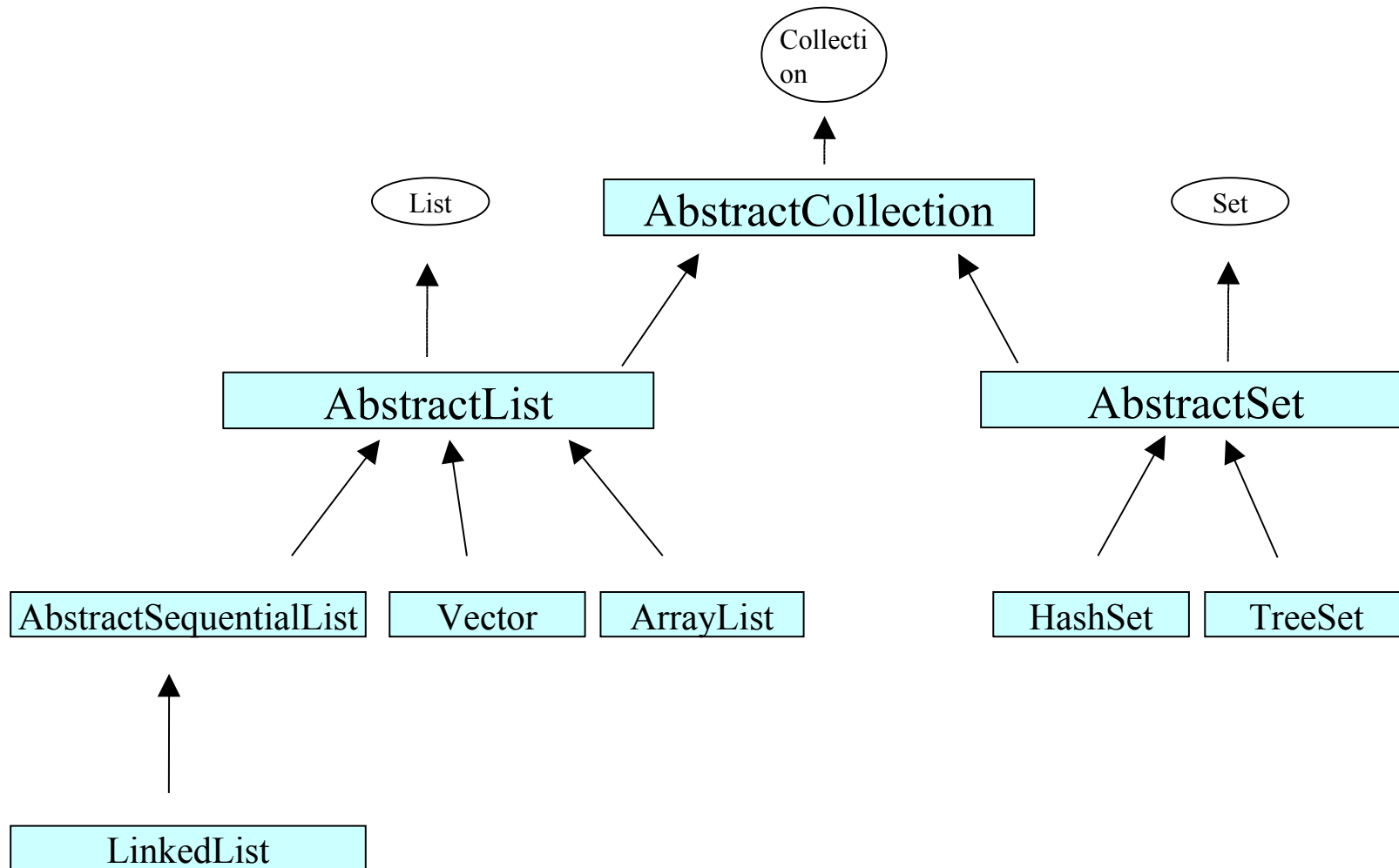
implements `Comparator<CD>`

Note, in `sort()`, `Comparator` overrides natural ordering
i.e. Even if we define natural ordering for `CD`, the given
comparator is still going to be used instead
(On the other hand, if you give `null` as `Comparator`, then
natural ordering is used)

```
public static <T> void sort(List<T> list, Comparator<? super T> c)
```

The Class Structure

- The Collection interface is implemented by a class called AbstractCollection. Most collections inherit from this class.



Lists

- Java provides 3 concrete classes which implement the list interface
 - Vector
 - ArrayList
 - LinkedList
- Vectors try to optimize storage requirements by growing and shrinking as required
 - Methods are synchronized (used for Multi threading)
- ArrayList is roughly equivalent to Vector except that its methods are not synchronized
- LinkedList implements a doubly linked list of elements
 - Methods are not synchronized

Sets

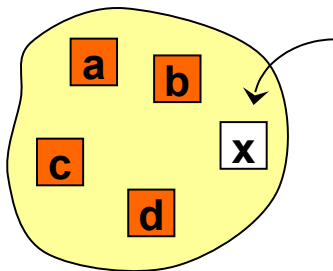
- Java provides 2 concrete classes which implement the Set interface
 - HashSet
 - TreeSet
- HashSet behaves like a HashMap except that the elements cannot be duplicated.
- TreeSet behaves like TreeMap except that the elements cannot be duplicated.
- Note: Sets are not as commonly used as Lists

Set<E>

Mathematical Set abstraction – contains **no duplicate** elements
i.e. no two elements e_1 and e_2 such that $e_1.equals(e_2)$

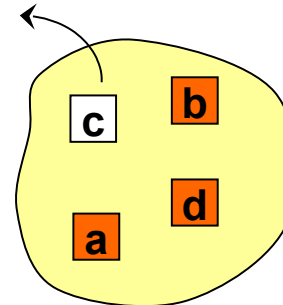
add(x)
→ *true*

add(b)
→ *false*



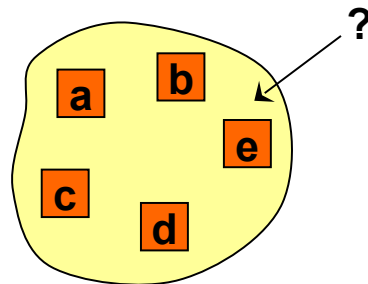
remove(c)
→ *true*

remove(x)
→ *false*



contains(e)
→ *true*

contains(x)
→ *false*



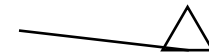
isEmpty()
→ *false*

size()
→ 5

<<interface>>

Set<E>

+**add**(E):boolean
+**remove**(Object):boolean
+**contains**(Object):boolean
+**isEmpty**():boolean
+**size**():int
+**iterator**():Iterator<E> etc...



<<interface>>

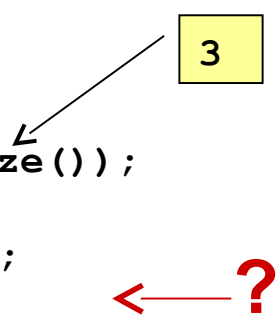
SortedSet<E>

+**first**():E
+**last**():E
etc...

HashSet<E>

- Typically used implementation of Set.
- Parameterise Sets just as you parameterise Lists
- Efficient (constant time) insert, removal and contains check – all done through hashing
- x and y are duplicates if x.equals(y)
- How are elements ordered? Quiz:

```
Set<String> words = new HashSet<String>();  
words.add("Bats");  
words.add("Ants");  
words.add("Crabs");  
words.add("Ants");  
System.out.println(words.size());  
for (String word : words) {  
    System.out.println(word);  
}
```



<<interface>>
Set<E>

+**add**(E):boolean
+**remove**(Object):boolean
+**contains**(Object):boolean
+**size**():int
+**iterator**():Iterator<E> etc...

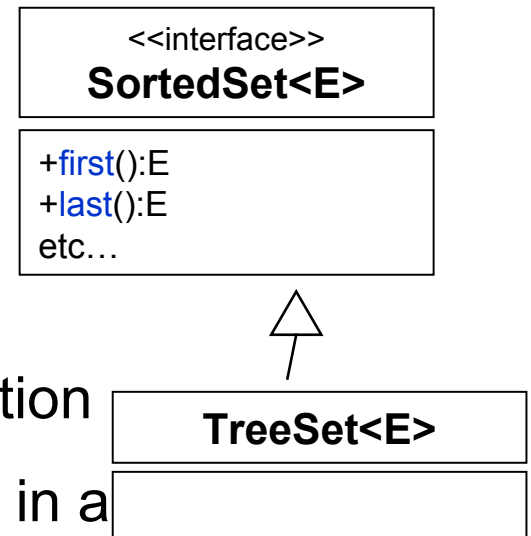


HashSet<E>

- a) Bats, Ants, Crabs
b) Ants, Bats, Crabs
c) Crabs, Bats, Ants
d) Nondeterministic

TreeSet<E> (SortedSet<E>)

- If you want an ordered set, use an implementation of a SortedSet: TreeSet
- What's up with "Tree"? Red-black tree
- Guarantees that all elements are ordered (sorted) at all times
 - » **add()** and **remove()** preserve this condition
 - » **iterator()** always returns the elements in a specified order
- Two ways of specifying ordering
 - » Ensuring elements have natural ordering (**Comparable**)
 - » Giving a **Comparator<E>** to the constructor
- **Caution:** TreeSet considers x and y are duplicates if `x.compareTo(y) == 0` (or `compare(x,y) == 0`)



TreeSet construction

```
Set<String> words = new TreeSet<String>();  
words.add("Bats");  
words.add("Ants");  
words.add("Crabs");  
for (String word : words) {  
    System.out.println(word);  
}
```

String has a **natural ordering**, so empty constructor

What's the output?

Ants; Bats; Crabs

- But CD doesn't, so you must pass in a Comparator to the constructor

```
Set<CD> albums = new TreeSet<CD>(new PriceComparator());  
albums.add(new CD("Street Signs", "O", new Money(3, 50)));  
albums.add(new CD("Jazzinho", "J", new Money(2, 80)));  
albums.add(new CD("Space Cowboy", "J", new Money(5, 00)));  
albums.add(new CD("Maiden Voyage", "HH", new Money(4, 00)));  
albums.add(new CD("Here's the Deal", "LS", new Money(2, 80)));  
System.out.println(albums.size());  
for (CD album : albums) {  
    System.out.println(album);  
}
```

What's the output?

4

Jazzinho; Street; Maiden; Space

The Map Interface

- The Map interface provides the basis for dictionary or key-based collections in Java. The interface includes:

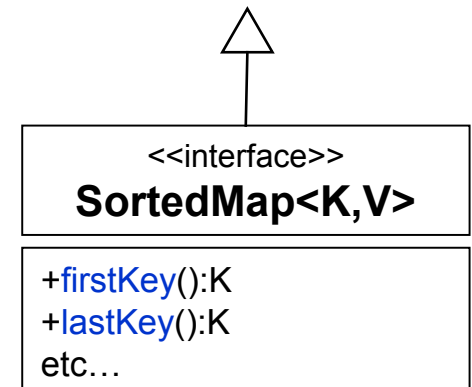
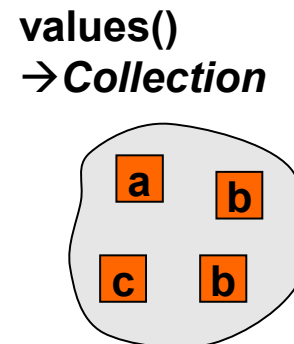
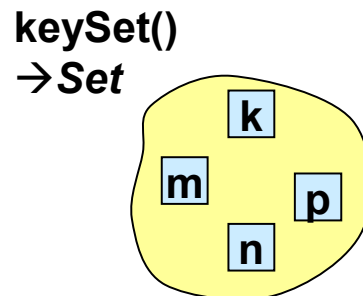
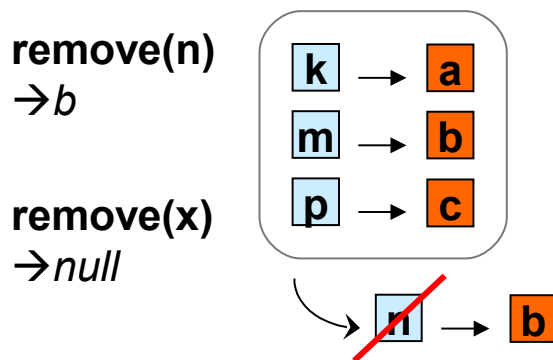
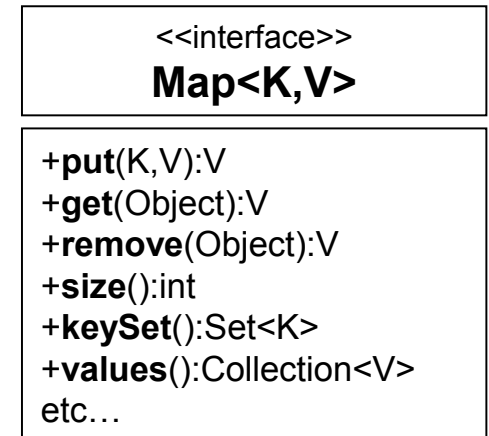
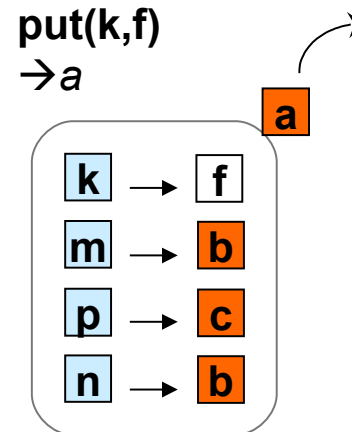
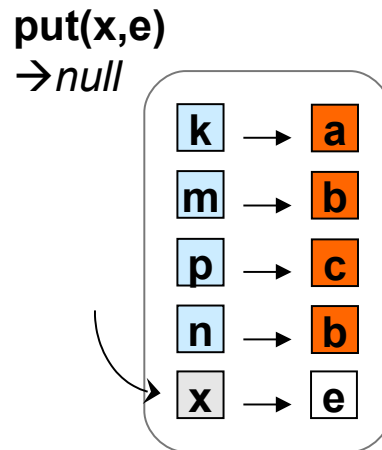
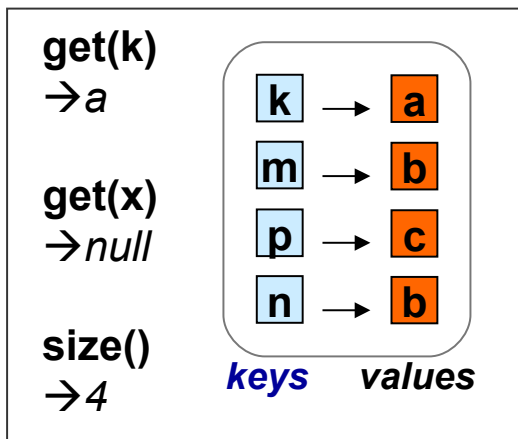
```
void clear()
boolean containsKey(Object)
boolean containsValue(Object)
Set entrySet()
boolean equals(Object)
Object get(Object)
boolean isEmpty()
Set keySet()
Object put(Object key, Object value)
void putAll(Map)
boolean remove(Object key)
int size()
Collection values()
```

Maps

- Java provides 3 concrete classes which implement the map interface
 - HashMap
 - WeakHashMap
 - TreeMap
- HashMap is the most commonly used Map.
 - Provides access to elements through a key.
 - The keys can be iterated if they are not known.
- WeakHashMap provides the same functionality as Map except that if the key object is no longer used, the key and its value will be removed from the Map.
- A Red-Black implementation of the Map interface

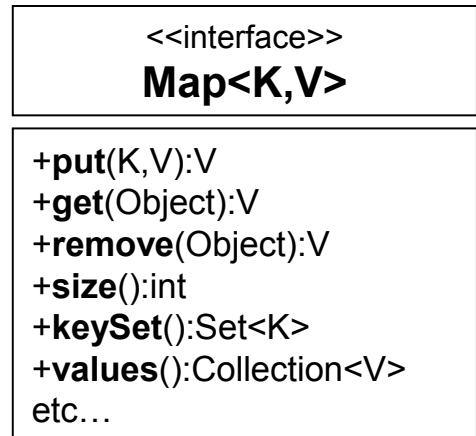
Map<K, V>

- Stores mappings from (unique) keys (type \mathbb{K}) to values (type \mathbb{V})
 - » See, you can have more than one type parameters!
- Think of them as “arrays” but with objects (keys) as indexes
 - » Or as “directories”: e.g. "Bob" → 021999887



HashMap<K, V>

- keys are hashed using `Object.hashCode()`
 - » i.e. no guaranteed ordering of keys
- `keySet()` returns a `HashSet`
- `values()` returns a `Collection`



```
Map<String, Integer> directory
    = new HashMap<String, Integer>();
directory.put("Mum", new Integer(9998888));
directory.put("Dad", 9998888);
directory.put("Bob", 12345678);
directory.put("Edward", 5553535);
directory.put("Bob", 1000000);
System.out.println(directory.size());
for (String key : directory.keySet()) {
    System.out.print(key+"'s number: ");
    System.out.println(directory.get(key));
}
System.out.println(directory.values());
```

"autoboxing"

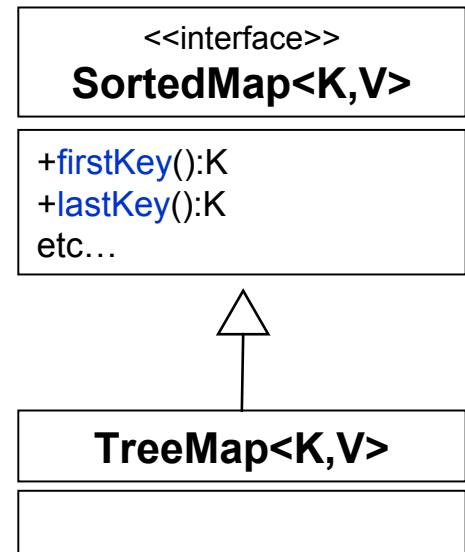
4 or 5?

Set<String>

What's Bob's number?

TreeMap<K, V>

- Guaranteed ordering of keys (like TreeSet)
 - » In fact, TreeSet is implemented using TreeMap ☺
 - » Hence `keySet()` returns a `TreeSet`
- `values()` returns a Collection – ordering depends on ordering of keys



Empty constructor
→ natural ordering

```
Map<String, Integer> directory
    = new TreeMap<String, Integer>();
directory.put("Mum", new Integer(9998888));
directory.put("Dad", 9998888);
directory.put("Bob", 12345678);
directory.put("Edward", 5553535);
directory.put("Bob", 1000000);
System.out.println(directory.size());
for (String key : directory.keySet()) {
    System.out.print(key+"'s #: ");
    System.out.println(directory.get(key));
}
System.out.println(directory.values());
```

4

Loop output?

```
Bob's #: 1000000
Dad's #: 9998888
Edward's #: 5553535
Mum's #: 9998888
```

?

TreeMap with Comparator

As with TreeSet, another way of constructing TreeMap is to give a Comparator → necessary for non-Comparable keys

```
Map<CD, Double> ratings
    = new TreeMap<CD, Double>(new PriceComparator());
ratings.put(new CD("Street Signs", "O", new Money(3, 50)), 8.5);
ratings.put(new CD("Jazzinho", "J", new Money(2, 80)), 8.0);
ratings.put(new CD("Space Cowboy", "J", new Money(5, 00)), 9.0);
ratings.put(new CD("Maiden Voyage", "H", new Money(4, 00)), 9.5);
ratings.put(new CD("Here's the Deal", "LS", new Money(2, 80)), 9.0);

System.out.println(ratings.size());
for (CD key : ratings.keySet()) {
    System.out.print("Rating for "+key+": ");
    System.out.println(ratings.get(key));
}
System.out.println("Ratings: "+ratings.values());
```

4

Ordered by key's price

Depends on key ordering

Most Commonly Use Methods

- While it is a good idea to learn and understand all of the methods defined within this infrastructure, here are some of the most commonly used methods.
- For Lists:
 - `add(Object)`, `add(index, Object)`
 - `get(index)`
 - `set(index, Object)`
 - `remove(Object)`
- For Maps:
 - `put(Object key, Object value)`
 - `get(Object key)`
 - `remove(Object key)`
 - `keySet()`

Which class should I use?

- You'll notice that collection classes all provide the same or similar functionality. The difference between the different classes is how the structure is implemented.
 - This generally has an impact on performance.
- Use Vector
 - Fast access to elements using index
 - Optimized for storage space
 - Not optimized for inserts and deletes
- Use ArrayList
 - Same as Vector except the methods are not synchronized. Better performance
- Use linked list
 - Fast inserts and deletes
 - Stacks and Queues (accessing elements near the beginning or end)
 - Not optimized for random access

Which class should I use?

- Use Sets
 - When you need a collection which does not allow duplicate entries
- Use Maps
 - Very Fast access to elements using keys
 - Fast addition and removal of elements
 - No duplicate keys allowed
- When choosing a class, it is worthwhile to read the class's documentation in the Java API specification. There you will find notes about the implementation of the Collection class and within which contexts it is best to use.

Collections and Fundamental Data Types

- Note that collections can only hold Objects.
 - One cannot put a fundamental data type into a Collection
- Java has defined "wrapper" classes which hold fundamental data type values within an Object
 - These classes are defined in java.lang
 - Each fundamental data type is represented by a wrapper class
- The wrapper classes are:
 - Boolean
 - Byte
 - Character
 - Double
 - Float
 - Short
 - Integer
 - Long

Wrapper Classes

- The wrapper classes are usually used so that fundamental data values can be placed within a collection
- The wrapper classes have useful class variables.
 - `Integer.MAX_VALUE`, `Integer.MIN_VALUE`
 - `Double.MAX_VALUE`, `Double.MIN_VALUE`, `Double.NaN`, `Double.NEGATIVE_INFINITY`, `Double.POSITIVE_INFINITY`
- They also have useful class methods
 - `Double.parseDouble(String)` - converts a `String` to a `double`
 - `Integer.parseInt(String)` - converts a `String` to an `integer`