# Programming with Data Structures

CMPSCI 187 Spring 2016

- Please find a seat
  - Try to sit close to the center (the room will be pretty full!)
- Turn off or silence your mobile phone
- · Turn off your other internet-enabled devices

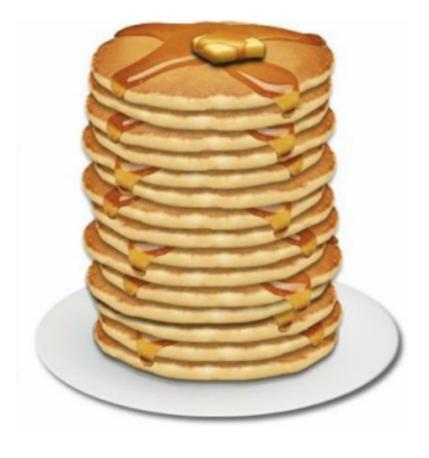
#### What is a Stack?

- A stack stores a collection of objects with the following restricted access:
  - You can only access the top element of the stack.
  - You can push a new object (to the top of the stack).
  - You can pop the top element of the stack (which removes it from the stack).
  - You can peek, which means looking at the top element without removing it.
  - No way to directly access other elements in the stack.

## What is a Stack?

Here are some real-world examples of stack:







#### What is a Stack?

- Pop always removes the last element that's pushed into the stack. This is called **LIFO** (last-in-first-out).
- It seems so restricted, why do we need it?
  - Turns out this is a great data structure for computer systems to manage method calls and returns.
  - Imagine you started cleaning your house (task A), but realized to do so you need to buy cleaning supplies (task B). To buy supplies you need to get cash first (task C). But your car is broken and you have to fix it first (task D). Think about the order these tasks come up and the order they are done.

#### Underflow and Overflow

- Popping from an empty stack causes an error condition called **stack underflow**. Before every pop, we need to check and make sure the stack is not empty. Otherwise throw a underflow exception.
- Some stacks are **bounded**, meaning that they have a fixed capacity. Pushing onto a full stack causes **stack overflow**, and we hence before every push we have to check and make sure the stack is not full (still has available spots).

# Application 1 — Reversing a Word

- Say you are to write a program that accepts a word, and outputs the word in reverse order.
  - PROGRAM -> MARGORP
- This can be done easily using a stack:
  - Push each character one by one to stack
  - Pop the stack one by one

# Application 1 — Reversing a Word

```
public void reverse(String word) {
   Stack s;
   for(int i=0;i<word.length;i++)
      s.push(word.charAt(i));
   while(!s.isEmpty())
      System.out.print(s.pop());
}</pre>
```

# Application 2 — Delimiter Matching

 You want to write a program to make sure the parentheses in a math expression are balanced:

```
• (w * (x + y) / z - (p / (r - q)))
```

- It may have several different types of delimiters:braces{}, brackets[], parentheses()
  - Each opening (left) delimiter must be matched by a closing (right) delimiter.
  - A delimiter that opens the last must be closed by a matching delimiter first. For example,
     [a \* (b + c] + d ) is wrong!

## Application 2 — Delimiter Matching

 Think for a moment about how you would implement this algorithm.

# Application 2 — Delimiter Matching

- Read characters one-by-one from the expression.
- Whenever you see a left (opening) delimiter, push it to stack.
- Whenever you see a right (closing) delimiter, pop from stack and check match (i.e. same type?)
- If they don't match, report mismatch error.
- What happens if the stack is empty when you try to match a closing delimiter?
- What happens if the the stack is non-empty after you reach to the end of the expression?

# Object Types in Class Definition

 So far we've learned to write StringLog and Linked List, but the type of data stored in these classes are hard-coded:

```
class ArrayStringLog {
  protected String[] log;
  protected int lastIndex;
}

class LLStringNode {
  private String info;
  private LLStringNode link;
}
```

# Object Types in Class Definition

 What if we need to define classes to store other types of data, like ArrayIntegerLog, LLAppleNode, do we have to redefine the class over and over again?? That's awful!

```
class ArrayIntegerLog {
   protected Integer[] log;
   protected int lastIndex;
}

class LLAppleNode {
   private Apple info;
   private LLAppleNode link;
}
```

## Generics

- Java (and many other languages) has a
  mechanism called **generics** to create entire
  families of classes (or interfaces) at once, where
  the object **type** is provided as a **parameter** to the
  class (or interface) definition.
- Each different type variable gives us a new class (or interface).
- In C++, generics are known as **templates**.

Let's start with an example of a generic class. Say
we want to define a generic Log class that can be a
StringLog, but can also be an IntegerLog or other
types of logs:

```
public class Log<T> {
    private T[] log;
    private int lastIndex = -1;
    ... ...
}
```

Think of this as a 'template' to create classes.

```
public class Log<T> {
    private T[] log;
    private int lastIndex = -1;
    ... ...
}
```

 When using the generic class, you provide a specific type T inside the angle brackets:

```
Log<Integer> intLog = new Log<Integer>();
Log<String> strLog = new Log<String>();
```

 You cannot use primitive data types (int, float etc.), you have to use their wrapper classes (Interger, Float etc.)

• When the compiler sees Log<Interger>, it basically creates a new class LogInterger (if it hasn't been created already) and substitutes every T in the 'template' with Integer.

```
public class LogInterger {
    private Interger[] log;
    private int lastIndex = -1;
    public void insert(Interger e);
    ... ...
}
```

• Similarly, when it sees Log<String>, it basically creates a new class LogString (if it hasn't been created already) and substitutes every T in the 'template' with String.

```
public class LogString {
    private String[] log;
    private int lastIndex = -1;
    public void insert(String e);
    ... ...
}
```

 Generics is a deep topic: there are complications that we can ignore for the moment.

- We've mentioned two cases where the stack may cause an error, namely underflow and overflow.
   These are called **exceptions** (conditions that break the normal program execution and require special processing)
- We don't want the program to simply crash or terminate when exceptions happen.
- Java provides exception handling through the Exception class, throw, and try-catch-finally statements.

 Method can throw an Exception object (which carries information about the exception) when it detects an error condition. Example:

```
public void push() {
    ... ...
    throw new Exception("Stack overflow!");
}
```

- You can extend the **Exception** class to define inherited exception classes with custom data.
- The caller method can use try-catch statement to handle the error condition and process accordingly.

- A lot of Java-provided methods, such as I/O related, require exception handling.
- The try-catch-finally statement:

```
try {
  // call methods
} catch(IOException e) {
  // handle IOException
 System.out.println(e.getMessage());
} finally {
  // this block is always executed
  whether exception or not
```

- If the caller doesn't handle the exception, it will be thrown further (i.e. deferred) to the upper-level caller.
   If it reaches the main method and not caught / handled there either, the program execution will terminate with error.
- Some exceptions are "checked", meaning that the compiler insists that it be told whenever a method may throw exceptions to its calling method.

```
class Nested {
  public static void checkInteger(int i) throws Exception {
    if (i < 0)
      throw new Exception("Negative Number!!\n");
    System.out.println("Check passed.");
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      checkInteger(-100);
    catch(Exception e) {
      System.out.print( e.getMessage() );
    System.out.println("Execution complete.");
```

#### What is the output when executed?

```
2. So it is
class Nested {
                                                      specified here
  public static void checkInteger(int i) throws Exception {
    if (i < 0)
       throw new Exception("Negative Number!!\n");
    System.out.println("Check passed.");
  }
                                                    1. Exception can
                                                     be raised here
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
       checkInteger(-100);
    catch(Exception e) {
                                                  3. It is caught
                                                 and handled here
       System.out.print( e.getMessage() );
    System.out.println("Execution complete.");
```

#### What is the output when executed?

```
class Code {
  public static void foo(int i) throws RuntimeException {
    System.out.print("1");
    if (i < 0)
      throw new RuntimeException("2");
    System.out.print("3");
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      System.out.print("4");
      foo(-1);
      System.out.print("5");
    catch(RuntimeException e) {
      System.out.print( e.getMessage() );
    System.out.print("6");
```

```
class Code {
  public static void foo(int i) throws RuntimeException {
    System.out.print("1");
    if (i < 0)
      throw new RuntimeException("2");
    System.out.print("3");
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      System.out.print("4");
      foo(-1);
      System.out.print("5");
    catch(RuntimeException e) {
      System.out.print( e.getMessage() );
    System.out.print("6");
                                      Output is: 4126
```