

# Generics

Generic Class, Wildcards, Generic Methods, Generic Constructors, Generic Interfaces

## 9.1 Generics : Fundamentals

At its core, the term **generics** means **parameterized types** (*No exact types, type varies*). Parameterized types are important because they enable you to create **classes**, **interfaces**, and **methods** in which the type of data upon which they operate is specified as a parameter. A **class**, **interface**, or **method** that operates on a **type parameter** is called **generic**, as in **generic class** or **generic method**.

☐ **Java's generics are similar to templates in C++** : Java **generics** are similar to **templates** in C++. What Java calls a **parameterized type**, C++ calls a **template**. However, Java **generics** and C++ **templates** are **not the same**, and there are some fundamental differences between the two approaches to generic types. For the most part, Java's approach is **simpler** to use.

⚠ **WARNING**: If you have a background in C++, it is important not to jump to conclusions about how generics work in Java. The two approaches to generic code differ in subtle but fundamental ways.

🌐 **Generic code** automatically work with the type of data passed to its **type parameter**. Many algorithms are logically the same no matter what type of data they are being applied to. Eg: Quicksort is the same for int, str, Object, or Thread (similar C++ idea).

📖 **Example 1**: Following program defines two classes. The first is the generic class **Gen**, and the second is **GenDemo**, which uses **Gen**.

// Here, T is a type parameter that will be replaced by a real type when an object of type Gen is created.

```
class Gen<T> {
    T ob; // declare an object of type T
    Gen(T o) { ob = o; } // Pass the constructor a reference to an object of type T.
    T getob() { return ob; } // Return ob.
    void showType() { System.out.println("Type of T is " + ob.getClass().getName()); } // Show type of T.
}
```

// Demonstrate the generic class.

```
class GenDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Gen<Integer> iOb; // Create a reference to an object of type Gen<Integer>.
        // Notice the use of autoboxing to encapsulate the value 88 within an Integer object.
        iOb = new Gen<Integer>(88); // Create a Gen<Integer> object and assign its reference to iOb.
        iOb.showType(); // Show the type of data used by iOb
        int v = iOb.getob(); // Get the value in iOb. Notice that no cast is needed
        System.out.println("value: " + v + "\n");
        // Create a reference and an object of type Gen<String>.
        Gen<String> strOb = new Gen<String>("Generics Test");
        strOb.showType(); // Show the type of data used by strOb.
        String str = strOb.getob(); // Get the value of strOb. Again, notice that no cast is needed.
        System.out.println("value: " + str);
    }
}
```

OUTPUT:

```
Type of T is java.lang.Integer
value: 88
Type of T is java.lang.String
value: Generics Test
```

- ☞ Notice how **Gen** is declared by the line: **class Gen<T> {**
  - Here, **T** is the name of a type parameter. (Which is a **placeholder** for the **actual type** that will be passed to **Gen** when an object is created.)
  - Notice, **T** is contained within **< >**. Whenever a type parameter is being declared, it is specified within **angle brackets**.

[In the declaration of **Gen**, there is no special significance to the name **T**. Any valid identifier could have been used, but **T** is **traditional**. Furthermore, it is recommended that type parameter names be **single-character**, capital letters. Other commonly used type parameter names are **V** and **E**.]
- ☞ Next, " **T ob** ; " **T** is used to declare an object called **ob**. **ob** will be an object of the type passed to **T**. For example, if type **String** is passed to **T**, then in that instance, **ob** will be of type **String**.
- ☞ Now consider **Gen**'s constructor: **Gen(T o) { ob = o; }** Notice that its parameter, **o**, is of type **T**.
- ☞ The **type parameter T** can also be used to specify the **return type** of method, as is the case with the **getob()** method;
 

```
T getob() { return ob; }
```

Because **ob** is also of type **T**, its type is compatible with the return type specified by **getob()**.
- ☞ **showType()** displays the type of **T**. By calling **getName()** on the **Class** object returned by the call to **getClass()** on **ob**.
  - ▶ **Haven't used this feature before**: Recall **Chapter 4**, the **Object** class defines the method **getClass()**. Thus, **getClass()** is a member of all class types. It returns a **Class object** that corresponds to the **class type** of the object on which it is called.
  - ▶ **Class** is a class defined within **java.lang** that encapsulates information about a class. **Class** defines several methods that can be used to obtain information about a class at **run time**. Among these is the **getName()** method, which returns a **string representation** of the **class name**.
- ☞ A version of **Gen** for integers is created first: **Gen<Integer> iOb;**
  - ▶ Notice that the type **Integer** is specified within the **< >** after **Gen**. **Integer** is a **type argument** that is passed to **Gen**'s **type parameter, T**. This effectively **creates a version** of **Gen** in which all **references** to **T** are **translated** into **references** to **Integer**. Thus, for this declaration, **ob** is of type **Integer**, and the **return type** of **getob()** is of type **Integer**.
- ☞ **iOb = new Gen<Integer>(88);** assigns to **iOb** a reference to an instance of an **Integer** version of the **Gen** class. Notice when **Gen** constructor is called, the **type argument Integer** is also specified. Since the type of **iOb** is **Gen<Integer>**. Thus, the reference returned by **new** must also be of type **Gen<Integer>**. Otherwise **compile-time error** will result.
  - ☞ For example, **iOb = new Gen<Double>(88.0);** will cause a **compile-time error**. Because **iOb** is of type **Gen<Integer>**, it can't be used to refer to an object of **Gen<Double>**. [This type of checking is one of the advantages of generics.]

- ☞ **`iOb = new Gen<Integer>(88);`** makes use of **autoboxing** to encapsulate the value **88**, which is an **int**, into an **Integer**.
  - ☞ This works because **`Gen<Integer>`** creates a constructor that takes an **Integer** argument. Since an **Integer** is expected, Java autoboxes **88** inside one. Of course, the assignment could also have been written explicitly, like following:
 

```
iOb = new Gen<Integer>(new Integer(88));
```
- ☞ **`int v = iOb.getOb();`** The return type of **`getOb()`** is also **Integer**, which **auto-unboxes** into **int** when assigned to **v** (which is an **int**). [Because the **return type** of **`getOb()`** is **T**, which was replaced by **Integer** when **iOb** was declared] Thus, there is no need to **cast the return type of `getOb()` to Integer**.
- ☞ **`Gen<String> strOb = new Gen<String>("Generics Test");`**
  - ☞ Because the **type argument** is **String**, **String** is substituted for **T** inside **Gen**. This creates a **String** version of **Gen**.

## NOTE

Java compiler does not actually create different versions of **Gen**, or of any other **generic class**. Instead, the **compiler removes all generic type information, substituting the necessary casts**, to make your code behave as if a specific version of **Gen** was created.

- ☹ Thus, there is really only one version of **Gen** that actually exists in your program.
- ☹ The process of **removing generic type information** is called **erasure**, which is discussed later in this chapter.

## 9.2 Generics : Details

- ☐ **Generics Work Only with Reference Types:** When declaring an **instance** of a **generic type**, the **type argument** passed to the **type parameter** must be a **reference type**. You cannot use a **primitive type**, such as **int** or **char**. For example, with **Gen**, it is possible to pass any **class type** to **T**, but you cannot pass a **primitive type** to **T**. i.e. **`Gen<int> intOb = new Gen<int>(53);`** is illegal.
  - ☞ You can use the **type-wrappers/ autoboxing-autounboxing** to **encapsulate** a **primitive type**.
- ☐ **Generic Types Differ Based on Their Type Arguments:** A reference of **one specific version of a generic type** is **not type-compatible** with **another version of the same generic type**. For example, **`iOb = strOb;`** of **Example 1** is in **error** and will **not compile**.
  - ☞ **In Example 1:** Even though both **iOb** and **strOb** are of type **Gen<T>**, they are references to **different types** because their **type arguments** differ. [That's how generics add type safety and prevent errors.]
- ☐ **A Generic Class with Two Type Parameters:** To specify two or more type parameters, simply use a comma-separated list.

🔗 **Example 2:** Following **TwoGen** class is a variation of the **Gen** class that has **two type parameters**:

<pre>class TwoGen&lt;T, V&gt; { T ob1;    V ob2;                     TwoGen(T o1, V o2) { ob1 = o1; ob2 = o2; }     void showTypes() {         System.out.println("Type of T is " + ob1.getClass().getName());         System.out.println("Type of V is " + ob2.getClass().getName()); }     T getOb1() { return ob1; }     V getOb2() { return ob2; } }</pre>	<pre>class SimpGen { public static void main(String args[]) {     TwoGen&lt;Integer, String&gt; tgObj =         new TwoGen&lt;Integer, String&gt;(88, "Generics");     tgObj.showTypes();           // Show the types.     int v = tgObj.getOb1();      // Obtain and show values.     String str = tgObj.getOb2();     System.out.println("value: " + v + "value: " + str); }}</pre>
--	---

- ☞ Notice how **TwoGen** is declared: **`class TwoGen<T, V> { ... }`** It specifies two type parameters, **T** and **V**, separated by a **comma**. Since it has two **type parameters**, **two type arguments** must be passed to **TwoGen** when an object is created, as:
 

```
TwoGen<Integer, String> tgObj = new TwoGen<Integer, String>(88, "Generics");
```

  - ▶ In this case, **Integer** is substituted for **T**, and **String** is substituted for **V**.
- ☞ Both **type arguments** can be the same. Eg: **`TwoGen<String, String> x = new TwoGen<String, String>("A", "B");`**
  - ☞ In this case, both **T** and **V** would be of type **String**. If the **type arguments** are the same, then two **type parameters** (i.e. **T** and **V**) would be **unnecessary**.
- ☐ **General Form of a Generic Class:** The syntax for **declaring a generic class**: **`class class-name<type-param-list>{ }`**
  - ☞ Here is the full syntax for **declaring a reference to a generic class** and creating a **generic instance**:
 

```
class-name<type-arg-list> var-name = new class-name<type-arg-list>(cons-arg-list);
```
- ☐ **Bounded Types:** In the preceding examples, the **type parameters** could be replaced by **any class type**. But sometimes it is useful to **limit the types** that can be passed to a **type parameter**.

🔗 **Example 3:** To create a **generic class** that stores a **numeric value** and is capable of performing various mathematical functions using any type of number, including **integers, floats, and doubles**:

```
class NumericFns<T> { T num;
    NumericFns(T n) { num = n; }
    double reciprocal() { return 1 / num.doubleValue(); /* Error! */ } // Return the reciprocal.
    double fraction() { return num.doubleValue() - num.intValue(); /* Error! */ } // Return the fractional component.
}
```

- ☹ Unfortunately, **NumericFns** will **not compile** as written because **both methods** will generate **compile-time errors**.
  - ☐ In **`reciprocal()`** method, the value of **num** is obtained by calling **`doubleValue()`**, which obtains the **double version** of the numeric object stored in **num**.
  - ☐ All **numeric wrapper classes**, such as **Integer** and **Double**, are subclasses of **Number**, and **Number** defines the **`doubleValue()`** method, this **method** is available to all **numeric wrapper classes**.
    - ▶ The trouble is that the **compiler** has no way to know that you are intending to create **NumericFns** objects using only **numeric types**. Thus, when you try to compile **NumericFns**, an error is reported that indicates that the **`doubleValue()`** method is **unknown**. The same type of error occurs twice in **`fraction()`**, which needs to call both **`doubleValue()`** and **`intValue()`**. Both calls result in error messages **stating that these methods are unknown**.
    - ▶ To solve this problem, you need some way to tell the **compiler** that you intend to pass only **numeric types** to **T**. Furthermore, you need some way to ensure that **only numeric types** are actually **passed**.

☞ **Bounded Types:** To handle such situations, Java provides **bounded types**. When specifying a **type parameter**, you can create an **upper bound** that **declares the superclass from which all type arguments must be derived**. This is accomplished through the use of an **extends** clause when specifying the **type parameter**: **<T extends superclass>**

► specifies that **T** can be replaced only by **superclass**, or **subclasses** of **superclass**. [i.e. **superclass** defines an **inclusive, upper limit**.]

🔗 **Example 4:** We can use an upper bound to fix the **NumericFns** class shown earlier by specifying **Number** as an **upper bound**:

<pre>// T must be either Number, or a class derived from Number. class NumericFns&lt;T extends Number&gt; { /* all as in Example 3 */ }  class BoundsDemo { public static void main(String args[]) {     NumericFns&lt;Integer&gt; iOb = new NumericFns&lt;Integer&gt;(5);     System.out.println("Reciprocal: " + iOb.reciprocal());     System.out.println("Fractional component : " + iOb.fraction());     System.out.println(); }</pre>	<pre>NumericFns&lt;Double&gt; dOb = new NumericFns&lt;Double&gt;(5.25); System.out.println("Reciprocal : " + dOb.reciprocal()); System.out.println("Fractional component : " + dOb.fraction());  // Following won't compile because String is not a subclass of Number. // NumericFns&lt;String&gt; strOb = new NumericFns&lt;String&gt;("Err"); }}</pre>
---	---

- 👁 Notice how **NumericFns** is now declared: **class NumericFns<T extends Number> {}**
- 👁 Because the type **T** is now bounded by **Number**, Java compiler knows that all objects of type **T** can call **doubleValue()** because it is a method declared by **Number**.
- 👁 The **bounding** of **T** also prevents **nonnumeric NumericFns** objects from being created. For example, you will receive **compile-time errors** because **String** is not a subclass of **Number**.

☞ **Parameter compatibility:** **Bounded types** are especially useful when you need to ensure that **one type parameter is compatible with another**. For example, consider the following class called **Pair**

```
class Pair<T, V extends T>{ // Here, V must be either the same type as T, or a subclass of T.
    T first; V second;
    Pair(T a, V b) { first = a; second = b; }
    /* ... */
}
```

- Notice that **Pair** uses two type parameters, **T** and **V**, and that **V extends T**. This means that **V** will either be the **same** as **T** or a **subclass** of **T**. This ensures that the two arguments to **Pair**'s constructor **will be objects of the same type or of related types**. For example, the following **constructions** are valid:

```
Pair<Integer, Integer> x = new Pair<Integer, Integer>(1, 2); // This is OK because both T and V are Integer.
Pair<Number, Integer> y = new Pair<Number, Integer>(10.4, 12); // OK because Integer is a subclass of Number.
```

- ☠ **Following is invalid:** In this case, **String** is not a subclass of **Number**, which violates the **bound** specified by **Pair**.  
**Pair<Number, String> z = new Pair<Number, String>(10.4, "12");** // error because String is not a subclass of Number

## 9.3 Wildcard Arguments

Consider **Example 4**, in **NumericFns** we want to create a method called **absEqual()** that returns **true** if two **NumericFns** objects contain numbers **whose absolute values are the same**.

🌟 Now we want to make **absEqual()** **generic**. For example, if one object contains the **Double** value **1.25** and the other object contains the **Float** value **-1.25**, then **absEqual()** would return **true**. And we want to be able to call **absEqual()**, as:

```
/* typical call to generic absEqual() */
NumericFns<Double> dOb = new NumericFns<Double>(1.25);
NumericFns<Float> fOb = new NumericFns<Float>(-1.25);

if(dOb.absEqual(fOb)) System.out.println("Absolute values are the same.");
else System.out.println("Absolute values differ.");
```

⊗ But how can we define **absEqual()** method? Normally we can define as follows (which **won't work** actually):

```
boolean absEqual(NumericFns<T> ob) { // This won't work!
    if(Math.abs(num.doubleValue()) == Math.abs(ob.num.doubleValue())) return true;
    return false; }
```

⊗ This won't work because what **type** do you specify for **NumericFns** type parameter? The problem is that, **Math.abs()** will work only with other **NumericFns** objects whose type is the **same as the invoking object**. For example, if the **invoking object** is of type **NumericFns<Integer>**, then the parameter **ob** must also be of type **NumericFns<Integer>** (i.e. it can't be used to compare an object of type **NumericFns<Double>**).

❑ **Wildcard " ? " Argument:** **Wildcard argument** is another feature of Java **generics**. **Wildcard argument** is specified by the **?**, and it represents an **unknown type**. Using a **wildcard**, here is one way to write the **absEqual()** method:

```
boolean absEqual(NumericFns<?> ob) { //wildcard argument is used
    if(Math.abs(num.doubleValue()) == Math.abs(ob.num.doubleValue())) return true;
    return false; }
```

☞ Here, **NumericFns<?>** matches **any type** of **NumericFns** object, allowing any two **NumericFns** objects to have their absolute values compared.

🔗 **Example 5:** The following program demonstrates **wildcard**.

<pre>class NumericFns&lt;T extends Number&gt; {     T num;     NumericFns(T n) { num = n; } // constructor     double reciprocal() { return 1 / num.doubleValue(); }     double fraction() { return num.doubleValue() - num.intValue(); }      boolean absEqual(NumericFns&lt;?&gt; ob) { // absolute values check         if(Math.abs(num.doubleValue()) == Math.abs(ob.num.doubleValue())) return true;         return false; } }</pre>	<pre>class WildcardDemo {     public static void main(String args[]) {         NumericFns&lt;Integer&gt; iOb = new NumericFns&lt;Integer&gt;(3);         NumericFns&lt;Float&gt; fOb = new NumericFns&lt;Float&gt;(-3.00);         if(iOb.absEqual(fOb)) System.out.println("Abs values are same.");         else System.out.println("Absolute values differ."); } }</pre>
---	--

☞ Notice, **iob** is an object of type **NumericFns<Integer>** and **fob** is an object of type **NumericFns<Float>**. However, through the use of a **wildcard**, it is possible for **iob** to pass **fob** in the call to **absEqual()**.

☐ **Type remain unaffected:** **wildcard** doesn't affect the **type** (i.e. doesn't affect what type of **NumericFns** objects can be created). This is **governed by the extends clause** in the **NumericFns** declaration. The **wildcard** simply **matches** any **valid NumericFns** object.

☐ **Bounded Wildcards:** Wildcard arguments can be **bounded** in much the same way that a **type parameter** can be **bounded**. A **bounded wildcard** is especially important when you are **creating a method** that is designed to operate only on **objects that are subclasses of a specific superclass**.

☞ **Upper bound:** To establish an **upper bound** for a **wildcard**, use this **wildcard expression**: **< ? extends superclass>**

▶ Where superclass is the name of the class that serves as the upper bound.

▶ It is an **inclusive clause** because the class forming the **upper bound** (specified by **superclass**) is also within bounds.

☞ **Lower bound:** To specify a **lower bound** for a **wildcard**, add a **super** to a **wildcard** declaration: **<? super subclass>**

▶ In this case, only classes that are **superclasses** of **subclass** are acceptable arguments. This is an **inclusive clause**.

🔗 **Example 6:** Let's work through a simple example. Consider the following set of classes:

```
class A { /*...*/ }
class B extends A { /*...*/ }
class C extends A { /*...*/ }
```

// Note that D does NOT extend A.

```
class D { /*...*/ }
```

☞ Next, consider the following very **simple generic class**:

// A simple generic class.

```
class Gen<T>{ T ob;
             Gen(T o) { ob = o; } }
```

☞ **Gen** takes **one type parameter**, which specifies the **type of object** stored in **ob**. Because **T** is **unbounded**, the **type of T** is **unrestricted**. That is, **T** can be of any **class type**.

☞ Now, suppose that you want to create a method that **operates only on objects of Gen<type>**, where **type** is either **A** or a **subclass of A**. To accomplish this, you must use a **bounded wildcard**. For example, here is a method called **test()** that accepts as an argument only **Gen** objects whose type parameter is **A** or a **subclass of A**:

// Here, the ? will match A or any class type that extends A.

```
static void test(Gen<? extends A> o){ /*...*/ }
```

The following class demonstrates the **types of Gen** objects that can be passed to **test()**.

```
class UseBoundedWildcard {
    static void test(Gen<? extends A> o) { /*...*/ } // bounded wildcard.

    public static void main(String args[]) { A a = new A();
                                             B b = new B();
                                             C c = new C();
                                             D d = new D();

                                             Gen<A> w = new Gen<A>(a);
                                             Gen<B> w2 = new Gen<B>(b);
                                             Gen<C> w3 = new Gen<C>(c);
                                             Gen<D> w4 = new Gen<D>(d);

                                             test(w);           // call to test() is OK.
                                             test(w2);          // call to test() is OK.
                                             test(w3);          // call to test() is OK.

                                             // Can't call test() with w4 because it is not an object of a class that inherits A.
                                             // test(w4);          // Error!!! Unacceptable call to test()
    }
```

☞ In **main()**, objects of type **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D** are created. These are then used to create **four Gen** objects, one for each type.

☞ Finally, four calls to **test()** are made, with **the last call commented out**.

➤ The **first three calls** are valid because **w**, **w2**, and **w3** are **Gen** objects whose type is either **A** or a **subclass of A**.

➤ The **last call** to **test()** is **illegal** because **w4** is an **object of type D**, which is **not derived from A**. Thus, the **bounded wildcard** in **test()** will not accept **w4** as an argument.

NOTE :

**CAST one INSTANCE of a GENERIC CLASS into another:** you can cast one instance of a generic class into another, but only if the two are otherwise compatible and their type arguments are the same. For example, assume a **generic class** called **Gen**:

```
class Gen<T> { /*...*/ }
```

Next, assume that **x** is declared as: **Gen<Integer> x = new Gen<Integer>();**

😊 Then, this **cast** is **legal** because **x** is an instance of **Gen<Integer>**: **(Gen<Integer>) x** // legal

☹ But, this **cast** is **illegal** because **x** is not an instance of **Gen<Long>**: **(Gen<Long>) x** // illegal

## 9.4 Generic Methods and Generic Constructors

**Generic Methods:** Methods inside a **generic class** are **automatically generic** relative to the **type parameter**. However, it is possible to declare a **generic method** that uses **one or more type parameters of its own**. Furthermore, it is possible to create a **generic method** that is enclosed within a **nongeneric class**. The **syntax for a generic method**:

```
<type-param-list> ret-type meth-name(param-list) { /*...*/ }
```

☞ In all cases, **type-param-list** is a **comma-separated list** of **type parameters**.

☞ Notice that for a **generic method**, the **type parameter list precedes** the **return type**.

🔗 **Example 7:** The following program declares a **nongeneric class** called **GenericMethodDemo** and a **static generic method** within that class called **arraysEqual()**. This method determines if two arrays contain the same elements, in the same order. It can be used to compare any two arrays as long as the arrays are of the **same** or **compatible types** and the array **elements** are **comparable**.

```
class GenericMethodDemo {
    // Determine if the contents of two arrays are the same.
    static <T extends Comparable<T>, V extends T> boolean arraysEqual(T[] x, V[] y) { //A generic method
        // Comparable<T> is a standard interface
        if(x.length != y.length) return false;
        for(int i=0; i < x.length; i++) if(!x[i].equals(y[i])) return false; // arrays differ
        return true;
    }
    // contents of arrays are equivalent
}
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) { Integer nums[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    Integer nums2[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    Integer nums3[] = { 1, 2, 7, 4, 5 };
    Integer nums4[] = { 1, 2, 7, 4, 5, 6 };

```

```
if(arrayEquals(nums, nums)) System.out.println("nums equals nums");
if(arrayEquals(nums, nums2)) System.out.println("nums equals nums2");
if(arrayEquals(nums, nums3)) System.out.println("nums equals nums3");
if(arrayEquals(nums, nums4)) System.out.println("nums equals nums4");

```

```
Double dvals[] = { 1.1, 2.2, 3.3, 4.4, 5.5 }; //array of Doubles
// This won't compile because nums and dvals are not of the same type.
// if(arrayEquals(nums, dvals))
// System.out.println("nums equals dvals");
// }

```

OUTPUT:      nums equals nums  
              nums equals nums2

- ☛ The generic method **arrayEquals()** is declared by following line:  
**static <T extends Comparable<T>, V extends T> boolean arrayEquals(T[] x, V[] y) {**  
  - Here **static <T extends Comparable<T>, V extends T>** are the type parameters
  - **boolean** is return type of the method.
  - Also note that **T extends Comparable<T>**. [See NOTE below]

☛ Next, notice that the type **V** is **upper-bounded** by **T**. Thus, **V** must be either the **same** as type **T** or a **subclass** of **T**. This relationship enforces that **arrayEquals()** can be called only with *arguments that are comparable with each other*.

☛ Also notice that **arrayEquals()** is **static**, enabling it to be called independently of any object. [Generic methods can be either **static** or **nonstatic**. There is no restriction in this regard.]

☛ Notice **arrayEquals()** is called within **main()** by use of the normal call syntax, **without specify type arguments**.

➤ This is because the types of the arguments are **automatically discerned**, and the types of **T** and **V** are adjusted accordingly.

[Eg: In **if(arrayEquals(nums, nums))** the **element type** of the first argument is **Integer**, which causes **Integer** to be substituted for **T**. The **element type** of the second argument is also **Integer**, which makes **Integer** a substitute for **V**, too. Thus, the call to **arrayEquals()** is **legal**, and the two arrays can be compared.]

☛ Now, notice the commented-out code:  

```
// if(arrayEquals(nums, dvals))
// System.out.println("nums equals dvals");
```

☛ Since **V** is **bounded by T** in the **extends clause** in **V**'s declaration, then **V** must be either type **T** or a **subclass** of **T**. In this case, the **first argument** is of type **Integer**, making **T** into **Integer**, but the **second argument** is of type **Double**, which is **not a subclass of Integer**. This makes the call to **arrayEquals()** **illegal**, and results a **compile-time type-mismatch error**.

☐ **Generic Constructors:** A constructor can be generic, even if its class is not.

🔗 **Example 8:** For example, in the following program, the class **Summation** is **not generic**, but its **constructor is**.

<pre>class Summation { private int sum;     &lt;T extends Number&gt; Summation(T arg){ /* generic constructor */         sum = 0;         for(int i=0; i &lt;= arg.intValue(); i++) sum += i;     }     int getSum() { return sum; } }</pre>	<pre>class GenConsDemo {     public static void main(String args[]) {         Summation ob = new Summation(4.0);         System.out.println("Summation of 4.0 is " + ob.getSum());     } }</pre>
--	--

☛ Because **Summation()** specifies a type parameter that is bounded by **Number**, a **Summation object** can be constructed using any numeric type, including **Integer**, **Float**, or **Double**. No matter what numeric type is used, its value is **converted to Integer** by calling **intValue()**, and the summation is computed. Therefore, it is not necessary for the **class Summation** to be generic; **only a generic constructor is needed**.

## NOTE

**Comparable:** **Comparable** is an interface declared in **java.lang**. A class that implements **Comparable** defines objects that can be ordered. Thus, **requiring an upper bound of Comparable ensures that arrayEquals() can be used only with objects that are capable of being compared. Comparable is generic, and its type parameter specifies the type of objects that it compares.**

## 9.5 Generic Interfaces

In previous example we used **standard generic interface Comparable<T>**. However, you can also define your own **generic interface**. **Generic interfaces** are specified just like **generic classes**.

✗ The **generalized syntax** for a **generic interface**: **interface interface-name<type-param-list> { // ...**

☑ Here, **type-param-list** is a comma-separated list of **type parameters**.

☑ When a **generic interface** is implemented, you must specify the **type arguments**:

**class class-name<type-param-list> implements interface-name<type-param-list> {**

🔗 **Example 9:** Following creates an **interface** called **Containment**, which can be implemented by classes that store one or more values. It declares a method called **contains()** that determines if a specified value is **contained** by the **invoking object**.

```
interface Containment<T> { boolean contains(T o); } //A generic interface
// The contains() method tests if a specific item is contained within an object that implements Containment.

// Implement Containment using an array to hold the values. Any class that implements a generic interface must itself be generic.
class MyClass<T> implements Containment<T> { T[] arrayRef;
    MyClass(T[] o) { arrayRef = o; }
    /* Implement contains() */ public boolean contains(T o) { for(T x : arrayRef) if(x.equals(o)) return true;
                                                                    return false; }
}
```

```
class GenIFDemo { public static void main(String args[]) { Integer x[] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    MyClass<Integer> ob = new MyClass<Integer>(x);

```

OUTPUT :  
2 is in ob  
5 is NOT in ob

```
if(ob.contains(2)) System.out.println("2 is in ob");
else System.out.println("2 is NOT in ob");
if(ob.contains(5)) System.out.println("5 is in ob");
else System.out.println("5 is NOT in ob");

```

```
// The following is illegal because ob is an Integer Containment
// and 9.25 is a Double value.
// if(ob.contains(9.25)) // Illegal!
// System.out.println("9.25 is in ob");
// }
```

☞ Notice that **Containment** is declared like this: `interface Containment<T> {`

▶ The **type parameter** *T* specifies the *type of objects* that are contained.

☞ Next, **Containment** is implemented by **MyClass**. Notice the declaration of **MyClass**:

`class MyClass<T> implements Containment<T> {`

▶ In general, if a class implements a **generic interface**, then that **class must also be generic**, at least to the extent that **it takes a type parameter that is passed to the interface**. Eg: The following attempt to declare **MyClass** is in **error**:

`class MyClass implements Containment<T> {` // Wrong!

☞ It is wrong because **MyClass** doesn't declare a **type parameter**, i.e. there is no way to pass one to **Containment**. Here, the **identifier T** is simply **unknown** and the **compiler** reports an **error**.

☞ If a class implements a **specific type of generic interface**, then the **implementing class does not need to be generic**. Eg:

`class MyClass implements Containment<Double> {` // OK: Double type of generic interface

❑ **Bounding a generic interface:** The **type parameter(s)** specified by a **generic interface** can be **bounded**. This lets you **limit the type of data for which the interface can be implemented**. For example, to limit **Containment** to numeric types, then declare:

`interface Containment<T extends Number> {`

☞ Remember, **any implementing class must pass to Containment a type argument** also having the **same bound**. For example, **MyClass** must be declared as:

`class MyClass<T extends Number> implements Containment<T> {`

▶ **Notice** the way the **type parameter T** is declared by **MyClass** and then **passed to Containment**. Because **Containment** now requires a **type** that **extends Number**, the implementing class (i.e. **MyClass**) must specify the **same bound**.

▶ Furthermore, once this **bound** has been **established**, there is **no need to specify it again** in the **implements clause**. In fact, it would be **wrong** to do so. Once the **type parameter** has been established, it is simply passed to the **interface** without further modification. For example, this declaration is incorrect and **won't compile**:

`class MyClass<T extends Number> implements Containment<T extends Number>{` // Wrong!

## 9.6 Raw Types and Legacy Code

Prior to JDK 5, **generics code** was not supported. There need a way that **pre-generics code** must be able to work with **generics**, and **generic code** must be able to work with **pre-generics** code.

❑ To handle the **transition to generics**, Java allows a **generic class** to be **used without any type arguments**. This creates a **raw type** for the class. This **raw type** is compatible with **legacy (older-pre-generic) code**, which has no knowledge of **generics**.

☞ When **no type argument** is supplied to a **generic class**, a **raw type** is created.

☞ The **main drawback** to using the **raw type** is that the **type safety of generics** is lost.

🔗 **Example 10:** Here is an example that shows a **raw type** in action:

<pre>class Gen&lt;T&gt; {     T ob; // declare an object of type T     Gen(T o) { ob = o; } // Pass the constructor a reference to an object of type T     T getob() { return ob; } // Return ob. }  // Demonstrate raw type. class RawDemo {     public static void main(String args[]) {         Gen&lt;Integer&gt; iOb = new Gen&lt;Integer&gt;(88); // Create a Gen object for Integers.         Gen&lt;String&gt; strOb = new Gen&lt;String&gt;("Generics Test"); // Gen object for Strings.          // When no type argument is supplied to a generic class, a raw type is created.         Gen raw = new Gen(new Double(8.6)); // Create a raw-type Gen object &amp; give it a Double.         double d = (Double) raw.getob(); // Cast here is necessary because type is unknown.         System.out.println("value: " + d);     } }</pre>	<pre>/* The use of a raw type can lead to run-time exceptions. Here are some examples. */  // int i = (Integer) raw.getob(); // run-time error  // In this assignment raw types overrides type safety. strOb = raw; // OK, but potentially wrong // String str = strOb.getob(); // run-time error  // This assignment also overrides type safety. raw = iOb; // OK, but potentially wrong // d = (Double) raw.getob(); // run-time error }}</pre>
---	---

☞ A **raw type** of the generic **Gen** class is created by the declaration: `Gen raw = new Gen(new Double(98.6));`

▶ Notice that **no type arguments** are specified. In essence, this creates a **Gen** object whose type *T* is replaced by **Object**.

❑ **BYPASSING the type-safety mechanism using Raw:** A **raw type** is not **type safe**. Thus, a variable of a **raw type** can be assigned a **reference** to any type of **Gen** object. The assignment of a **raw reference** to a **generic reference** bypasses the **type-safety mechanism**.

☞ The **reverse** is also allowed, in which a variable of a **specific Gen** type can be assigned a **reference** to a **raw Gen** object.

[However, both operations are potentially unsafe because the type checking mechanism of generics is circumvented. Notice the COMMENTED lines at the end.]

▶ `// int i = (Integer) raw.getob();` // run-time error

❑ In this statement, the value of **ob** inside **raw** is obtained, and this value is **cast to Integer**. The trouble is that **raw** contains a **Double** value, not an **Integer** value. However, this cannot be detected at **compile time** because the **type of raw** is unknown. Thus, this statement fails at **run time**.

▶ `strOb = raw;` // OK, but potentially wrong **and** `// String str = strOb.getob();` // run-time error

❑ The assignment itself is syntactically correct, but questionable. It assigns to **strOb** (a reference of type **Gen<String>**) a reference to a **raw Gen** object. Because **strOb** is of type **Gen<String>**, it is assumed to contain a **String**. However, after the assignment, the object referred to by **strOb** contains a **Double**. At **run time**, when an attempt is made to assign the contents of **strOb** to **str**, a **run-time error** results because **strOb** now contains a **Double**.

▶ `raw = iOb;` // OK, but potentially wrong **and** `// d = (Double) raw.getob();` // run-time error

❑ This sequence inverts the preceding case. Here, a **generic reference** is assigned to a **raw reference variable**. Although this is syntactically correct, it can lead to problems, as illustrated by the second line. In this case, **raw** now refers to an object that contains an **Integer object**, but the cast assumes that it contains a **Double**. This error cannot be prevented at compile time. Rather, it causes a run-time error.

❑ **Javac** displays **unchecked warnings** when a **raw type** is used in a way that might **violate type safety**. Eg: following generate **unchecked warnings**:

<code>Gen raw = new Gen(new Double(98.6));</code>	Use of <b>Gen</b> without a type argument that causes the warning.
<code>strOb = raw;</code> // OK, but potentially wrong	Assignment of a <b>raw reference</b> to a <b>generic variable</b> that generates the warning.

ONE FINAL POINT: You should limit the use of **raw types** to those cases in which you must mix **legacy** code with **newer, generic code**. **Raw types** are simply a transitional feature and not something that should be used for **new code**.

## 9.7 TYPE INFERENCE using DIAMOND Operator <>

Beginning with **JDK 7**, it is possible to **shorten the syntax** used to create an **instance** of a **generic type**. When **type inference** is used, the declaration syntax for a **generic reference** and **instance** creation has this general form [Here <> is called the *diamond operator*]:

**class\_name<type-arg-list> var\_name = new class\_name< >(cons-arg-list);**

👉 Here, the **type argument list** of the **new** clause is empty i.e. <> which is an **empty type argument list**.

❑ Consider the following portion of **TwoGen** class shown earlier. Notice that it uses **two generic types**.

```
class TwoGen<T, V>{ T ob1; V ob2;
    TwoGen(T o1, V o2){ob1 = o1; ob2 = o2;} // Pass the constructor a reference to an object of type T.
    /*...*/ }
```

☞ To create an instance of **TwoGen** using the **full-length syntax**, use a statement similar to the following:

```
TwoGen<Integer, String> tgOb = new TwoGen<Integer, String>(42, "testing");
```

▶ Here, the **type arguments** (which are **Integer** and **String**) are specified **twice: first**, when **tgOb** is declared, and **second**, when a **TwoGen** instance is created via **new**.

[Since, in the **new** clause, the **type** of the **type arguments** can be **readily inferred**, there is really no reason that they need to be specified a **second time**. To address this situation, JDK 7 added a **syntactic element** that lets you avoid the second specification.]

☞ **Using the Diamond operator '<>'**: The preceding declaration can be rewritten as:

```
TwoGen<Integer, String> tgOb = new TwoGen<>(42, "testing"); // Diamond operator used
```

▶ Notice that the **instance creation** portion simply uses < >, which is an **empty type argument list**. This is referred to as the **diamond operator**. It tells the **compiler** to **infer** the **type arguments** needed by the **constructor** in the **new** expression. [Type-inference syntax is especially helpful for generic types that specify bounds.]

❑ **Parameter passing using <>: Type inference** can also be applied to **parameter passing**. For example, if the following method is added to **TwoGen**:

```
boolean isSame(TwoGen<T, V> o) { if(ob1 == o.ob1 && ob2 == o.ob2) return true;
                                else return false; }
```

Then this call is legal: **if(tgOb.isSame(new TwoGen<>(42, "testing"))) System.out.println("Same");**

[In this case, the **type arguments** for the arguments passed to **isSame()** can be inferred from the parameters' types. They don't need to be specified again.]

## 9.8 Erasure

Usually, it is not necessary for the programmer to know the details about how the **Java compiler** transforms a **source code** into **object code**. However, in the case of **generics**, some **general understanding of the process** is important because it explains why the **generic features** work as they do—and why their **behavior** is sometimes a bit **surprising**.

❑ **Generic code** had to be compatible with preexisting, **nongeneric code**. Thus, any changes to the syntax of the **Java language**, or to the **JVM**, had to avoid **breaking older code**. This **issue is resolved** by the use of **erasure** when implements **generics**.

✂ **How erasure works:** When your **Java code** is compiled, all **generic type information is removed (erased)**. This means replacing **type parameters** with their **bound type**, which is **Object** if no explicit bound is specified, and then applying the appropriate casts (as determined by the **type arguments**) to maintain **type compatibility** with the types specified by the **type arguments**.

🔭 The **compiler** also enforces this **type compatibility**. This approach to generics means that **no type parameters exist at run time**. **They are simply a source-code mechanism**.

## 9.9 AMBIGUITY Errors and RESTRICTIONS on Generic Classes

Ambiguity errors occur when erasure causes two **seemingly (apparently) distinct generic declarations** to resolve to the **same erased type**, causing a **conflict**. Here is an example of **ambiguity** that involves **method overloading**:

```
class MyGenClass<T, V> { T ob1; V ob2;
                        // Following two overloaded methods are ambiguous and will not compile.
    /* These two methods are inherently ambiguous.*/ void set(T o) { ob1 = o; }
    void set(V o) { ob2 = o; } }
```

👤 Notice, **MyGenClass** declares two generic types: **T** and **V**. Inside **MyGenClass**, an attempt is made to overload **set()** based on parameters of type **T** and **V**. Looks reasonable because **T** and **V** appear to be **different types**. But, there are two ambiguity problems:

💀 As **MyGenClass** is written there is no requirement that **T** and **V** actually be **different types**. Eg: Construct a **MyGenClass** object as: **MyGenClass<String, String> obj = new MyGenClass<String, String>()**

▶ Here, both **T** and **V** will be replaced by **String**. This makes both versions of **set()** **identical**, which is, of course, an **error**.

💀 The **type erasure** of **set()** effectively **reduces both versions** to: **void set(Object o) { //...**

😊 The **SOLUTION** in this case is to **use two separate method names** rather than trying to overload **set()**.

❑ **Some Generic Restrictions:** There are a few restrictions which involve creating objects of a **type parameter**, **static members**, **exceptions**, and **arrays**.

💀 **Type Parameters Can't Be Instantiated:** It is not possible to create an instance of a type parameter. For example:

```
class Gen<T>{ T ob;
    Gen() { ob = new T(); /* Can't create an instance of T: Illegal!!! */ } }
```

▶ Here, it is illegal to attempt to create an **instance** of **T**. The reason is: the **compiler** has no way to know **what type of object** to create. **T** is simply a **placeholder**.

💀 **Generic Exception Restriction:** A generic class cannot extend **Throwable**. i.e. Creation of **generic exception classes** isn't possible.



**Restrictions on Static Members:** No **static member** can use a **type parameter** declared by the enclosing class. For example, both of the **static members** of this class are **illegal**:

```
class Wrong<T> {
    static T ob; // Wrong, no static variables of type T.
    static T getob() { return ob; } // Wrong, no static method can use T.
}
```

- ▶ Although you can't declare **static members** that use a **type parameter** declared by the enclosing class, you **can declare static generic methods**, which define their own **type parameters**.



**Generic Array Restrictions:** There are **two important generics restrictions** that apply to **arrays**.

- ⊗ First, you **cannot instantiate an array** whose element type is a **type parameter**.
- ⊗ Second, you **cannot create an array of type-specific generic references**. The following shows both situations:

<pre>class Gen&lt;T extends Number&gt; {     T ob;     T vals[]; // OK     Gen(T o, T[] nums) { ob = o; //          vals = new T[10]; /* ILLEGAL: can't create an array of T */ //          vals = nums; /* OK: can assign reference to existent array */ } }</pre>	<pre>class GenArrays { public static void main(String args[]) {     Integer n[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };     Gen&lt;Integer&gt; iOb = new Gen&lt;Integer&gt;(50, n); // Can't create an array of type-specific generic references. //    Gen&lt;Integer&gt; gens[] = new Gen&lt;Integer&gt;[10]; // Wrong!     Gen&lt;?&gt; gens[] = new Gen&lt;?&gt;[10]; // OK: Leagal }}</pre>
---	---



It's **valid** to declare a reference to an **array of type T**, as this line does: **T vals[];** //OK



But, cannot instantiate an array of T, as this commented-out line attempts: **// vals = new T[10];** //can't create an array of T

- ▶ **Reason you can't create an array of T is:** there is no way for the **compiler** to know what **type of array** to actually create.



However, can pass a reference to a type-compatible array to **Gen()** when an object is created and assign that reference to **vals** as this line: **vals = nums;** // OK to assign reference to existent array

- ▶ This works because the array passed to **Gen()** has a **known type**, which will be the same type as **T** at the time of object creation.



Inside **main()**, notice that you **can't declare** an **array of references** to a **specific generic type**. i.e, following won't compile.

```
// Gen<Integer> gens[] = new Gen<Integer>[10]; // Wrong!
```



**Advanced Study of Generics:** To learn about how generics affect **class hierarchies**, **run-time type comparisons**, and **overriding**, for example. Discussions of these and other topics are found in **Java: The Complete Reference, Ninth Edition** (Oracle Press/McGraw-Hill Professional, 2014).