

CSE 12:

Basic data structures and object-oriented design

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Lecture Seven
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More on Java generics.

Making ArrayList generic

- We've already discussed the benefit to the user of making a collection generic.
- We also saw (in brief) how to instantiate a generic type, and a bit on how to implement a generic data structure.
- But let's be a bit more precise.
- We'll keep going with the `ArrayList<T>` example.

Making List generic

- Before creating a generic `ArrayList` class, let's go back to the “contract” between implementor and user -- the `List` interface.
- The benefits of a generic interface are exactly analogous to the benefits of a generic class:
- When you use a variable of the interface type, the compiler will check that the types are consistent:

```
final List<Integer> list = ... // some concrete impl
list.add(new Integer(5)); // ok
list.add("test"); // not ok -- compile-time error
```

Making List generic

- As described before, when writing a generic `List`, we include a **type parameter** at the start of the class definition.
- The type parameter tells the generic `List` interface which type of element the list can accept.
- We can define a generic `List` interface as follows:

```
interface List<T> {  
    int size ();  
    void add (T element);  
    T get (int index);  
    void remove (int index);  
}
```

Generics syntax

- Let's examine more carefully how the syntax works:

```
interface List<T> {  
    int size ();  
    void add (T element);  
    T get (int index);  
    void remove (int index);  
}
```

Generics syntax

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```
interface List<T> {  
    int size ();  
    void add (T element);  
    T get (int index);  
    void remove (int index);  
}
```

When we write angled brackets just after the type name, we are *declaring* a *type parameter*. Here, the type parameter name is **T**.

This is analogous, in a Java method signature, to declaring a data parameter and giving it the name **student**.

```
void method (Student student) {  
    student.setAge (24);  
    student.printAddress ();  
}
```

Generics syntax

- Let's examine more carefully how the syntax works:

```
interface List<T> {  
    int size ();  
    void add (T element);  
    T get (int index);  
    void remove (int index);  
}
```

Following the declaration of type parameter `T`, whenever we write `T`, we are *using* the type parameter's *value*.

This is analogous, in a Java method signature, to *using* that parameter inside the method body.

```
void method (Student student) {  
    student.setAge (24);  
    student.printAddress ();  
}
```


Generics syntax

- Now, suppose we want the `List` interface to extend the `Iterable` interface. We could write:

```
interface List<T> extends Iterable<T> {  
    int size ();  
    void add (T element);  
    T get (int index);  
    void remove (int index);  
}
```

Despite the angled brackets, we are actually “using” `T`, not declaring `T`. We are “passing `T` to the generic `Iterable` interface.”

This is analogous, in a Java method signature, to passing the parameter to another method

```
void method (Student student) {  
    student.setAge (24);  
    student.printAddress ();  
    otherMethod (student);  
}
```

Generics syntax

- Bear in mind that *type parameters* are passed to a generic class at *compile-time*, whereas *data parameters* are passed to a method at *run-time*.

Making ArrayList generic

- Now that we have a generic `List`, we can define a generic `ArrayList`.
- As mentioned last lecture, this consists mostly of replacing “Object” with “T”:

```
class ArrayList<T> implements List<T> {
    T[] _underlyingStorage;
    int _numElements;

    public void add (T element) { ... }
    public T get (int index) { ... }
    public Iterator<T> iterator () {
    }

    private class ArrayListIterator implements Iterator<T> {
        ...
        T next () { ... }
        void remove () { ... }
        boolean hasNext () { ... }
    }
}
```

Making ArrayList generic

- There is one important exception, however:
 - In the constructor `ArrayList()`, we *cannot* write:
`_underlyingStorage = new T[128];`
 - The Java compiler will give an error: “`generic array creation`”.
 - It would also be illegal to try to write:
`final T element = new T();`
 - Why?
 - It has to do with how generics are implemented “under the hood”.

Erasure

- Java generics are implemented based on the principle of *erasure*.
- In one sentence:
 - After the Java compiler checks that the types are ok, it *erases* the type parameters associated with generic classes/methods and replaces them with just “Object”. *

* Not quite true -- it actually replaces them with the upper bound of the type parameter.

Erasure

- Let's now define erasure more leisurely. Consider:

```
final List<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
```

- The `List` was instantiated with a type parameter set to `String`.
- This means that `list.add(o)` now expects `o` to be of `String` type. It will then verify that variables passed to `add(o)` have the correct type:

```
list.add("yup"); // ok
```

```
list.add(new Object()); // will not compile
```

Erasure

- Now, after verifying that all type parameters are compatible with the generic `List`, the compiler proceeds to compile your code.
- The compiler strips away (“erases”) all of the type parameters.
- The code

```
final List<String> list = new List<String>();
```

is essentially replaced by:

```
final List list = new List();
```
- We’re right back where we started -- an `List` of Objects!

Erasure

- Actually, not quite -- we still get two big benefits:
 - The compiler already verified that in all calls to `add(o)`, `o` was compatible with the `list`'s type.
 - No possibility of adding non-`Strings` to a list that's supposed to contain only `Strings`.
- We didn't have to cast the result of `get(index)` to be `String`.

Erasure

- However, the erasure does have some suboptimal side effects:
- We cannot instantiate an object of generic type T:
`final T t = new T(); // won't compile`
- Reason: After stripping away the type information T, *the JVM wouldn't know which constructor to call.*
- We also cannot instantiate arrays of generic type:
`final T[] array = new T[]; // won't compile`

Arrays of generic type

```
final T[] array = new T[]; // won't compile
```

- As a work-around, we have to instantiate an array of a *particular* (non-generic) type. An array of `Object`s will actually be sufficient for `ArrayList`:

```
final T[] array = (T[]) new Object[128];
```

- The ugly `downcast` is back.
- However, we only have to do this once in all of `ArrayList`.
- Since this one line of code is an implementation of `ArrayList`, the user need never be bothered by it.

Arrays of generic type

```
final T[] array = (T[]) new Object[128];
```

- In this “workaround” solution, we are once again “promising” the Java compiler that the `Object[]` we instantiate is really of type `T[]`.
 - If it’s not, we’ll end up with a `ClassCastException`.
 - Because we’re downcasting from `Object[]` to a generic type `T`, the compiler will issue a warning that the types are “unchecked”.
 - In this particular instance, we can safely ignore this warning.

Erasure

- FYI: C++ offers “templates” (analogous to generics).
- Templates are not implemented using erasure.
 - Instead, the compiler essentially compiles a separate version of your generic class *for every type parameter you use*.
- In C++, it is legal to write `new T ();`

Data structures: a quantitative perspective.

Data structures so far

- Up to now, we've focused on data structures from a software construction perspective:
 - Data structures as ADTs.
 - Separation of implementation from interface.
 - Encoding of the user's data in a sequence of bits.

Data structures: a quantitative analysis

- Just as important is the quantitative performance of those structures, e.g.:
 - **Time cost:** If I have a linked list of 100 elements, how long will it take to find a particular element? What if the list is 1000 elements long? 10,000?
 - **Space cost:** How much overhead (e.g., in Nodes) is there in a `DoublyLinkedList` versus an `ArrayList`?

Data structures: a quantitative analysis

- In the remainder of this lecture we will discuss *algorithmic analysis*, in particular, methods of estimating the time cost of algorithms.
- Data structures and algorithms are invariably coupled:
 - Without an algorithm, the data are useless.
 - Without a data structure, the algorithm can't accomplish anything -- they need "space" to execute.

Measuring time cost

- Instead of measuring time cost in terms of seconds, milliseconds, etc., we will count the “number of abstract operations”.
- Examples of “abstract operations” include:
 - `i = i + 1; // Assignment and/or arithmetic`
 - `if (i > 5) { // Comparison`
- On the other hand, calling another method -- i.e., *another algorithm* -- would *not* be considered a single, abstract operation:
 - `otherMethod(); // Have to look inside otherMethod!`

Measuring time cost

- As with all algorithmic analysis, we are interested in *how the time cost grows as the size of the input to the algorithm grows*:
- For instance, if we want to sort a list of numbers, and the size of the list is N , then we want to describe, as a function of N , how many operation the sort procedure will take.
- For the case of analyzing data structures and their associated storage/retrieval/removal algorithms, the input size N will often be the *number of data already stored in the ADT*.

Measuring time cost

- We are interested in asymptotic analysis:
 - We don't care if the time cost is n , or $3n$, or $0.1n$ -- the main thing is that it's "something times n ".
 - We *do* care whether it's n or n^2 or 2^n .
- Despite the fact that asymptotic analysis hides a lot of detail, it is still a very useful tool for comparing and selecting algorithms and data structures.

Unit testing.

Testing is (obviously) important

- Anyone who has written >0 programs knows that they rarely work the first time.
- There are different kinds of approaches to testing software:
 - “Macro-level” testing -- after the software is finished, test its functionality by running it as any “normal user” would.
 - E.g., hire 20 people to run the newest version of Microsoft Word for 1 day and use it normally.
 - We could conceivably *automate* the testing process by using a keyboard-and-mouse simulator.

Testing is (obviously) important

- In this course, however, we are more interested in “micro-level” testing:
 - “Micro-level” testing tests individual classes and methods to make sure they behave as intended.
 - Example: Given a `DoublyLinkedList` class, let’s test whether the boolean `remove()` method works properly.
- Micro-level testing is sometimes known as *unit-testing* -- test the “units” of a program’s code.

Testing a List implementation

```
public interface List {  
    // Adds o to the "back" of the list, i.e.,  
    // o becomes the element with the highest  
    // index in the List.  
    void add (Object o);  
  
    // Returns the element stored at the specified  
    // index.  
    Object get (int index)  
        throws IndexOutOfBoundsException;  
  
    // Removes the element stored at the specified  
    // index.  
    void remove (int index)  
        throws IndexOutOfBoundsException;  
  
    // Returns the number of elements stored in  
    // the List.  
    int size ();  
}
```