

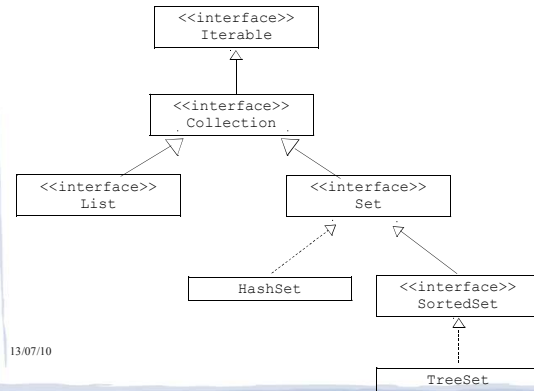
## Review

- Sets
  - Collections without duplicates
- HashSet
  - Overriding hashCode() and equals()
- TreeSet
  - Keeps things sorted
  - Implementing Comparable or Comparator

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## The Set interface



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## Methods of the Set interface

- Note that the Set interface extends the Collection interface. An implementation of Set therefore supports the methods defined in the Collection interface:
  - add(o) – add a specified element to the set (if not already a member)
  - remove(o) – remove the specified element from the set
  - contains(o) – is the specified element in the set?
  - etc.
- Note that the add method:

```
public boolean add( E item );
```

adds the item only if it isn't already in the set. The method returns true if the item is added and false if it's already in the set.
- Similarly the addAll method does not add duplicates.

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## Methods of the Set interface

- We can use these methods to define known set operations:
  - c1.containsAll(c2) - true if c2 is a subset of c1
  - c1.addAll(c2) - c1 becomes union of c1 and c2
  - c1.retainAll(c2) - c1 becomes intersection of c1 and c2
  - c1.removeAll(c2) - c1 becomes set difference of c1 and c2

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## Using Sets

- Since Set is specified as an interface, to use it we have to pick a particular implementation (e.g., HashSet, or TreeSet)

- Example:

```
public class Playlist
{
    private Set<Song> songs;

    public Playlist()
    {
        songs= new HashSet< Song >();
    }
}
```

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## The HashSet implementation

- The HashSet implementation provides an efficient implementation of the Set interface that allows us to add or remove an item or check if the set contains an item in  $O(1)$  time provided certain conditions are met (more later).

- That is, if

```
Set<...> s = new HashSet<...>();
```

- `s.add(o)` is  $O(1)$
- `s.remove(o)` is  $O(1)$
- `s.contains(o)` is  $O(1)$

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## The HashSet implementation

- As mentioned, certain conditions must be met if we are to add, remove or determine if the set contains an item in  $O(1)$  time.
- To understand these conditions, we must have a basic understanding of how the hash set works.
- A hash set uses a **hash table** as the underlying structure in which data is stored.
- A hash table is an array of linked lists...

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## The HashSet implementation

- We add elements to the table using a hash code, an integer that represents the object
- A hash set maintains a list of groups.
- All members of the group at position  $i$  have a hashCode of  $i$ .
- We'll talk more in a moment about where these hashCodes come from

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## The `HashSet` implementation

- In a `HashSet` the operations are performed as following:

`add(o)`

- compute the hashCode of `o`, say `i`
- add `o` in the `i`th group

`remove(o)`

- compute the hashCode of `o`, say `i`
- search the `i`th group and remove `o`

`contains(o)`

- compute the hashCode of `o`, say `i`
- search the `i`th group to find `o`

- If each group is small (and of constant size) each of the above operations is  $O(1)$ .

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## The `HashSet` Implementation

- What makes these operations so efficient?
  - Take `add()` for example
- Rather than iterating over a collection and checking at each step whether the object already exists, we just compute the hashCode and check that index in the array
- We then check whether the object exists in that bucket
- If we have a good hashCode and hash table, there will be few collisions, meaning few items to search through in the bucket
- If we can get close to 1 item per bucket, these operations will be  $O(1)$  – constant time

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## Where do hash codes come from?

- Each Java class inherits a `hashCode()` method from the Java class `Object`
  - when invoked, `hashCode()` returns an integer that represents the object
  - a class' `hashCode()` is usually defined in terms of the hash codes of its attributes
  - if two objects are equal according to `equals()`, they must have the same hash code
  - objects with the same hash code are not necessarily equal

- It would be nice to rely upon the Java `Object`'s class definition of `hashCode()` but you can't if you override `equals()` because two instances of an object that are equal according to `equals()` may not return the same `hashCode()` unless you ensure they do!

The rule is then:

"If you override `equals()` you should always override `hashCode()`"

- See page 36 of <http://java.sun.com/developer/Books/effectivejava/Chapter3.pdf> for a complete description

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## Default `hashCode()` and `equals()`

- If you rely on the default inherited `equals()` and `hashCode()`, you are okay in the sense that they both rely on the memory location of the object and are therefore consistent with one another
- But then you are left with a very restrictive definition of `equals()` which might not be what you want

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## How do you write a good hashCode()

- Writing a fantastic hashCode() method for a class is hard
  - The kind of thing people write PhD theses about
- Writing a decent hashCode() method for a class is straightforward
  - Page 38 of <http://java.sun.com/developer/Books/effectivejava/Chapter3.pdf> provides a recipe.
    - Start with a non-zero value (preferably a prime number, like 11, 17, etc.) in the result value
    - Pick another prime number, say 37, as a multiplier
    - For each attribute that is taken into account in the equals() method
      - if attribute is of a primitive type (i.e. an integer, float, etc.),  
**result = 37 \* result + attribute's value casted to an integer**
      - if attribute is an object,  
**result = 37 \* result + attribute.hashCode()**
      - and so on...

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## The SortedSet Interface

- Allows the user to retrieve objects from the set in sorted order
- To sort a collection, the objects within the collection must be comparable:
  - the corresponding class must implement either the Comparable interface or the Comparator interface.

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## The Comparable Interface

- The Comparable interface is declared as follows:

```
public interface Comparable<T> {  
    int compareTo(T other)  
}
```

- the integer returned by `a.compareTo(b)` must adhere to the following convention:
  - negative if `a < b`
  - zero if `a.equals(b)`
  - positive if `a > b`

- `compareTo` defines the *natural ordering* for the class

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## compareTo()

- If `a` already exists in a set, and you try to add `b`, and `a.compareTo(b) == 0`, `b` will not be added
- These are considered duplicates

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## Implementing `compareTo`

- Rules to follow when you implement this method in a class C:
  - C must implement `Comparable<C>`
  - must be asymmetric
    - `a.compareTo(b)` and `b.compareTo(a)` must both equal 0 or have opposite signs
  - must be transitive
    - if `a.compareTo(b) < 0` and `b.compareTo(c) < 0` then `a.compareTo(c) < 0`
  - must be consistent with `equals()`
    - `a.equals(b)` is true iff `a.compareTo(b)` is zero and `b.compareTo(a)` is zero

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## The `Comparator` Interface

- Some classes may not have a single natural ordering
  - employees may be ordered by name or by salary or...
- A comparator is an object that defines (encapsulates) one ordering for a class
- A comparator has to implement:

```
public interface Comparator<T> {  
    int compare(T object1, T object2);  
}
```

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## The `Comparator` Interface

- The return value for this method
  - is defined in the same way as for the `compareTo` method of the `Comparable` interface:

*`compare(a,b)` is like `a.compareTo(b)`*

- We may define many comparators for a class if we need to order objects of that type in different ways.

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## Example

- Create a `Comparator` that compares `Accounts` by id numbers.

```
public class AccountIdComparator  
    implements Comparator<Account>  
{  
    public int compare( Account ac1, Account ac2 )  
    {  
        return (ac1.getId() - ac2.getId() );  
    }  
}
```

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## The SortedSet Interface

```
public interface SortedSet<E> extends Set<E>
{
    // Views on the sorted set
    SortedSet<E> subSet(E from, E to);
    SortedSet<E> headSet(E toElement);
    SortedSet<E> tailSet(E fromElement);

    // Endpoints
    E first();
    E last();

    // Comparator access
    Comparator<? super E> comparator();
}
```

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## The SortedSet Interface

- Like Set but keeps elements in ascending order according to
  - the *natural order* defined by the `compareTo` method of `Comparable`, or
  - the `compare` method of a `Comparator`
- Iterator will traverse elements in the defined order
- Array produced by `toArray` methods is sorted
- Additional operations:
  - `first()` and `last()` return min and max elements in set
  - `comparator()` returns the `Comparator` used to sort the set, or null if the *natural order* is used

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## The TreeSet Class

- The `TreeSet` class implements the `SortedSet` interface. It has the following constructors (among others):

```
public TreeSet()
// orders the elements according to their
// natural order

public TreeSet( Comparator< ? super E > c )
// orders the elements according to the
// comparator c
```

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## The TreeSet Class

- Note the use of the bounded wildcard:
  - `Comparator< ? super E > c`
- This indicates that the `Comparator` must compare types that are supertypes of `E` (including `E` itself).
- For example, if `SavingsAccount` is a subclass of `Account` and `BalanceComparator` implements the `Comparator<Account>` interface, then we can create the following `TreeSet` of `SavingsAccount` objects:

```
TreeSet<SavingsAccount> accts
= new TreeSet<SavingsAccount>(
    new BalanceComparator() );
```

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## TreeSet - Time Complexity

- The add, remove and contains methods all have a guaranteed  $O(\log N)$  time complexity.
- So these operations on a `TreeSet` are less efficient than for a `HashSet` (assuming a good `hashCode()` implementation) but we have to remember that the `TreeSet` maintains the data in sorted order.

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## TreeSet vs. HashSet

- If you don't care about sorting but just want efficient `add()`, `remove()` and `contains()` operations, the question of which `Set` to use depends on how confident you are in your hash code method
- If you have a good hash code, there will be few collisions, which means few objects in each bucket, which means less to search through

13/07/10 Otherwise, you might want to use a `TreeSet` 26

## Using TreeSet

- Now we can do this:

```
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>();
gSet.add(bob);
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);
Iterator<Golfer> itr = gSet.iterator();
while (itr.hasNext())
{
    System.out.println(itr.next().getName());
}
```

Golfer implements Comparable

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## Using TreeSet

- Or we can supply a `Comparator`

```
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new HandicapComparator());
gSet.add(bob);
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);
Iterator<Golfer> itr = gSet.iterator();
while (itr.hasNext())
{
    System.out.println(itr.next().getName());
}
```

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## Using TreeSet

- A different Comparator if we choose...

```
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new  
BestScoreComparator());  
gSet.add(bob);  
gSet.add(jane);  
gSet.add(jim);  
Iterator<Golfer> itr = gSet.iterator();  
while (itr.hasNext())  
{  
System.out.println(itr.next().getName());  
}
```

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## Using TreeSet

- Now Java will use either the compareTo() method if we implement Comparable, or the compare() method if we use Comparators, and will keep our items nicely sorted
- Whenever we add something, Java will determine where it belongs by calling those methods
- Note: if we don't supply a Comparator and our class doesn't implement Comparable, we will get an error. We need one or the other.

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## compareTo() and equals()

- We stated earlier that one rule for implementing compareTo() - and compare() - is that it must be consistent with equals()
- a.equals(b) and (a.compareTo(b) == 0) should have the same boolean value
- If these are not consistent, the Set contract can be violated and you can end up with strange behaviour
- *In practice*, however, you will often see compareTo() that is not consistent with equals()

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## compareTo() and equals()

- If you define compareTo() or compare() in a way that is not consistent with equals(), you should note this in the comments for that method
- You should also be aware of the behaviour that can result
- For example, when trying to add b to a set containing a, if (!a.equals(b)) and (a.compareTo(b) == 0), b will not be added even though they are not equal according to equals()

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## Inconsistency I – Golfer example

- Say we define the Golfer equals() method as such:

```
public boolean equals(Object other)
{
    if (other == null) return false;
    if (other.getClass() != getClass()) return false;
    Golfer og = (Golfer) other;
    return (this.name.equals(og.getName()) &&
        this.handicap == og.getHand());
}
```

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## Inconsistency I – Golfer example

- Then we use a Comparator based on the best score attribute

```
public class BestScoreComparator implements
    Comparator<Golfer>
{
    public int compare(Golfer g1, Golfer g2)
    {
        return g1.getBest() - g2.getBest();
    }
}
```

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## Inconsistency I – Golfer Example

- So Golfers are considered equal if they have the same name and same handicap
- And the Comparator sorts Golfers based on their best scores, with the compare() method returning 0 when Golfers have the same score
- As far as the sorted set is concerned, this 0 value means that the Golfers are equal, and so this is what will happen...

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```
Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
    BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
    System.out.print(g.getName());
    System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));
```

← Create a couple  
Golfers

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```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

```

← Create a new TreeSet  
with a  
BestScoreComparator

```

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

```

```

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

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```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

```

```

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

```

```

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

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← Create a new Golfer  
Betty who happens to  
have the same best  
score as Jane

```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

```

```

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

```

```

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

Now what output do we  
get if we iterate through  
the set and print out  
each Golfer's name and  
best score?

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```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

```

```

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

```

```

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

>  
jane 76  
jim 105

Betty never got added to the  
set, because the  
BestScoreComparator  
considered her and Jane to  
be equal (returned 0)

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```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

Golfer betty = new Golfer(8, 76, "betty");
gSet.add(betty);

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

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>  
jane 76  
jim 105  
false

Even though jane and betty  
are not considered equal  
according to the equals() method

## Inconsistency II – Golfer Example

- On the other hand, if a.equals(b) and (a.compareTo(b)) != 0, b *will* be added to the set even though a and b are equal
- For example, using the same Golfer example, with the same equals() method and same BestScoreComparator, this could happen...

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```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

Golfer jane2 = new Golfer(5, 88, "jane");
gSet.add(jane2);

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

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We create a new Golfer with the  
same name and handicap as  
jane, thus making them equal  
according to the equals() method

```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

Golfer jane2 = new Golfer(5, 88, "jane");
gSet.add(jane2);

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(betty.equals(jane));

```

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However, they have different best  
scores, so compareTo() will return a  
non-zero value.  
The golfer jane2 gets added to  
the set even though jane and  
jane2 are equal

```

Golfer jane = new Golfer(5, 76, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 105, "jim");
Set<Golfer> gSet = new TreeSet<Golfer>(new
BestScoreComparator());
gSet.add(jane);
gSet.add(jim);

Golfer jane2 = new Golfer(5, 88, "jane");
gSet.add(jane2);

for (Golfer g: gSet)
{
System.out.print(g.getName());
System.out.println(" "+g.getBest());
}
System.out.println(jane2.equals(jane));

```

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```

> jane 76
jane 88
jim 105
true

```

## compareTo() and equals()

- By making compareTo() and equals() inconsistent, we now have unexpected behaviour for sets
- So it's recommended to make them consistent
- Otherwise, just be aware of this behaviour

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## Maps, Stacks, Queues and Generic Algorithms

You will be expected to:

- program to the generic Map and SortedMap interfaces by reading and using the API
- compare and contrast HashMap and TreeMap classes (benefits of using each, basic run time analysis)
- program to the generic Queue interface
- program to the API of the generic Stack class
- program to the API of the generic Deque class
- identify (in words or through code) appropriate types for collections of data needed in a given software system
- write code (solve problems) that uses the generic algorithms provided in the Collections class

### Reading:

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed: 20.4, 21.2, 21.7
- 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed: 15.4, 16.2, 16.7

### Additional references:

Online Java Tutorial at  
<http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/collections/>

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## The Map Interface

- A **map** structure is also known as a **table** or **dictionary** or **association list**.
- A **map** is a collection of pairs (key, value).
  - The keys are unique within the map
  - The map associates exactly one value with each key
- Examples:
  - map of student ids to student records
  - map of words to frequency of occurrence in a document

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## The `Map` Interface

- The `Map` interface is *not* related to the other interfaces in the Java Collections Framework:
- `Map` does not extend `Iterable` (so you can't iterate over a map or use the for-each loop)
- `Map` does not extend `Collection`
- a `Collection` operates on items
- a `Map` manipulates (key, value) pairs

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## The `Map` Interface (cont')

```
public interface Map<K,V>
{
    // Basic Operations
    int size();
    boolean isEmpty();
    boolean containsKey(Object key);
    boolean containsValue(Object value);

    V get(Object key);
    V remove(Object key);
    V put(K key, V value);

    // Bulk Operations
    void clear();
    void putAll(Map<? extends K, ? extends V> m);
}
```

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## The `Map` Interface (cont')

```
// Collection Views
Set<K> keySet();
Collection<V> values();
Set<Map.Entry<K,V>> entrySet();

// Interface for entrySet elements; defined inside Map
interface Entry<K,V>
{
    K getKey();
    V getValue();
    V setValue(V value);
}
}
```

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## `Map` Methods

- Basic methods:
  - `put` adds a (key, value) entry; returns previous value for that key or null
  - `containsKey`, `containsValue` check if a key or value is in the map
  - `get` returns the value of a given key; returns null if key is not in the map
    - problems if map allows null values; must use `containsKey`
  - `remove` removes the entry for that key; returns the value removed or null if the map doesn't contain the given key

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## Map Methods

- **Collection Views:** restructure the map (or parts of it) as a `Collection` so we can use iterators:
  - `keySet` returns a `Set` containing all keys in the map
  - `values` returns a `Collection` with all map values (may have duplicates)
  - `entrySet` returns a `Set` of entries; each entry represents a (key, value) pair and it is defined by the interface `Entry` defined inside `Map`

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## Map Implementations

- The class `HashMap` provides an implementation of the `Map` interface.
- The underlying implementation is similar to a `HashSet` (it uses a hash table)
- When a ( key, value ) pair is added to a `HashMap`, the hash code is generated using only the key (not the value)
- Assuming a good `hashCode()` method for the `Key`, the `put`, `get` and `remove` methods run in  $O(1)$  time.

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## Map Examples

- A generic method that prints out all the key-value pairs of a `Map`:

```
public static <K,V> void printMap( Map<K,V> theMap )
{
    for(Map.Entry<K,V> e : theMap.entrySet()) {
        System.out.println(e.getKey() + ": "
            + e.getValue());
    }
}
```

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## Map example, cont'd

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
    HashMap<String, String>();
    ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
    ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
    ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
    printMap(ourJobs);
}
```

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## Map example, cont'd

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
    HashMap<String, String>();
    ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
    ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
    ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
    printMap(ourJobs);
}
```

Gina: architect  
Geneva: librarian  
Grover: researcher

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## Map Examples

- We could have used an Iterator instead (same output)

```
public static <K, V> void printMapIterator(Map<K, V> theMap)
{
    Iterator<Map.Entry<K, V>> i = theMap.entrySet().iterator();
    while (i.hasNext()) {
        Map.Entry<K, V> e = i.next();
        System.out.println(e.getKey() + ": " + e.getValue());
    }
}
```

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## What gets printed here?

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
HashMap<String, String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
ourJobs.remove("Grover");
printMapIterator(ourJobs);
```

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## What gets printed here?

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
HashMap<String, String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
ourJobs.remove("Grover");
printMapIterator(ourJobs);
```

>  
Gina: dog trainer  
Geneva: librarian

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## What gets printed here?

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
HashMap<String, String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
ourJobs.remove("Grover");
printMapIterator(ourJobs);
```

Gina gets overwritten here. You can't have duplicate keys.

```
>
Gina: dog trainer
Geneva: librarian
```

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## What gets printed here?

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new
HashMap<String, String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
ourJobs.remove("Grover");
printMapIterator(ourJobs);
```

Grover gets removed – both the key and its value.

```
>
Gina: dog trainer
Geneva: librarian
```

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## What gets printed here?

- Notice that `put` has a return type of the previous value for that key, or null

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new HashMap<String,
String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
String ginaOld = ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
System.out.println("Gina used to be an "+ginaOld);
System.out.println("Now she is a "+ourJobs.get("Gina"));
```

Get the previous value

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## What gets printed here?

- Notice that `put` has a return type of the previous value for that key, or null

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new HashMap<String,
String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
String ginaOld = ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
System.out.println("Gina used to be an "+ginaOld);
System.out.println("Now she is a "+ourJobs.get("Gina"));
```

Get current value for key "Gina"

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## What gets printed here?

- Notice that `put` has a return type of the previous value for that key, or `null`

```
Map<String, String> ourJobs = new HashMap<String, String>();
ourJobs.put("Grover", "researcher");
ourJobs.put("Geneva", "librarian");
ourJobs.put("Gina", "architect");
String ginaOld = ourJobs.put("Gina", "dog trainer");
System.out.println("Gina used to be an "+ginaOld);
System.out.println("Now she is a "+ourJobs.get("Gina"));
```

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Gina used to be an architect  
Now she is a dog trainer

## In-Class Exercise I

- A function that returns a map of words to the number of times each word occurs in a text document (`doc`):

```
public static Map<String, Integer>
    frequencies(Collection<String> doc)
{
    Map<String,Integer> map = new HashMap<String,Integer>();
    for (String word : doc) {
        if ( _____ )
            _____
        else
            _____
    }
    return map;
}
```

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## Tea break!

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## Sorted Map

- The `SortedMap` interface extends the `Map` interface.
- A `SortedMap` maintains the entries in the map sorted by their key (not their value)
- The class `TreeMap` implements the `SortedMap` interface
- `TreeMap` uses a similar underlying implementation to `TreeSet`. The `get`, `put` and `remove` operations run in  $O(\log N)$  time.

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## Sorted Map

- The `TreeMap<K, V>` has the following constructors (note the similarity with `TreeSet`):

- `public TreeMap()`  
// orders the entries using the natural  
// ordering for the Key
- `public TreeMap( Comparator< ? super K > c )`  
// orders the entries using the given  
// comparator for the Key

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## SortedMap Interface

```
public interface SortedMap<K, V> extends Map<K, V>
{
    // Range-view
    SortedMap<K, V> subMap(K fromKey, K almostToKey);
    SortedMap<K, V> headMap(K almostToKey);
    SortedMap<K, V> tailMap(K fromKey);

    // Endpoints
    K firstKey();
    K lastKey();

    // Comparator access
    Comparator<? super K> comparator();
}
```

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## SortedMap Example

```
Map<Golfer, String> golfTeams = new TreeMap<Golfer,
String>(new HandicapComparator());
```

Let's create a map associating Golfers with team names.  
We'll supply the `HandicapComparator` that we defined before.

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## SortedMap Example

```
Map<Golfer, String> golfTeams = new TreeMap<Golfer,
String>(new HandicapComparator());
Golfer betty = new Golfer(12, 76, "betty");
Golfer jane = new Golfer(10, 88, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 99, "jim");
```

We create a few `Golfer` instances.

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## SortedMap Example

```
Map<Golfer, String> golfTeams = new TreeMap<Golfer,
String>(new HandicapComparator());
Golfer betty = new Golfer(12, 76, "betty");
Golfer jane = new Golfer(10, 88, "jane");
Golfer jim = new Golfer(15, 99, "jim");
golfTeams.put(betty, "fairweather fairways");
golfTeams.put(jane, "the water hazards");
golfTeams.put(jim, "the water hazards");
```

Then we associate our Golfers with team names. Notice again that it's possible to have duplicate values, just not duplicate keys.

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## SortedMap Example

- Our map should now be sorted according to key
- We can get the entrySet and iterate through to see

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

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## SortedMap Example

- It seems like there's a lot happening in a few lines, so let's unpack it

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

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## SortedMap Example

EntrySet() returns a Set of type Entry.  
Entry is defined within Map

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

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## SortedMap Example

The Entry has two type parameters, Golfer and String, representing the keys and the values.

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

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## SortedMap Example

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

An Entry object has a getKey() method and a getValue() method. In this case getKey() returns a Golfer object and getValue() returns a String.

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## SortedMap Example

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

We can then call the getName() method of the Golfer object.

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## SortedMap Example

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

So we get the name associated with each key (Golfer) and the value for each key (String), with the result sorted using the supplied comparator.

```
>
jane the water hazards
betty fairweather fairways
jim the water hazards
```

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## In-Class Exercise II

- Replace the for loop in that example with an iterator

```
for (Map.Entry<Golfer, String> e: golfTeams.entrySet())
{
    System.out.println(e.getKey().getName()+"
"+e.getValue());
}
```

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## Some other structures

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## Queues

- A **queue** is a collection of items organized in a structure with the **First-In-First-Out (FIFO)** property.
  - new items join the queue at the end,
  - the first item to enter the queue is the first to exit
  - like a line-up at a cashier
- Typical queue operations
  - add an item to a queue (**enqueue**)
  - remove and return the first item of a queue (**dequeue**)
  - return a queue's first item without removing it (**front**)
  - check if a queue is empty (**empty**)

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## Applications of Queues.

- Queues are frequently used in operating systems and networking software modules
  - processor queue
  - network router queues of outgoing packets, etc.
- Queues are very useful structures for computer based simulation
  - event queues, etc.

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## Interface Queue

```
public interface Queue<E> extends Collection<E>
{
    // enqueue
    public boolean offer(E element);

    // front
    public E peek(); // returns null if queue is empty
    public E element(); // throws a NoSuchElementException
    // if queue is empty

    // dequeue
    public E poll(); // returns null if queue is empty
    public E remove(); // throws a NoSuchElementException
    // if queue is empty
}
```

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## Stacks

- A **stack** is a collection of items organized in a structure with the **Last-In-First-Out (LIFO)** property:
  - new items are stacked on top of older items
  - the item on top of the stack is the first to be removed from it
  - like a stack of plates in a cafeteria
- Stack operations
  - **push** an item onto a stack
  - **pop** an item off the stack and return it
  - **peek** at the item on top of the stack (without popping it)
  - check if the stack is **empty**

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## Stack class (partial)

```
class Stack <E> extends Vector<E>
{
    // Return true if the stack is empty.
    boolean empty();

    // Returns the item on top of the stack.
    E peek();

    // Pops item on top of stack and returns it.
    E pop();

    // Pushes a new item onto the stack, and returns it.
    E push(E item);
}
```

**NOTE:** A more consistent Stack interface is provided by Deque interface and its implementations

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## Applications of Stacks.

- A computer uses a run-time stack to keep track of the function calls
  - when a function is called, a new stack frame (with space for the parameters and local variables) is created and pushed onto the stack
  - when the function returns, the system pops the frame from the stack

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## Example Using Stacks

- **Problem:** Given an algebraic expression (with single letter operands) with brackets, check if brackets are balanced

- $[a * (b+c) - \{ (d/a) - (d-a) \}]$  is balanced
- $[a * (b+c) - \{ (d/a) - (d-a) )]$  is not balanced
- $a * (b+c) - \{ (d/a) - (d-a) \}]$  is not balanced
- $[a * (b+c) - \{ (d/a) - (d-a) ]$  is not balanced

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## Example (cont'd)

- **Solution Strategy**
  - use a stack
  - scan expression string from left to right once
  - when we find a left bracket, we push it onto the stack
  - when we find a right bracket:
    - if the stack is empty, report "not balanced"
    - otherwise:
      - pop an item off the stack
      - if the two brackets don't match, report "not balanced"
  - when you reach the end of the expression
    - if the stack is not empty, report "not balanced"
    - otherwise report "balanced"

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## Example (cont'd)

```
public static boolean match(String expression)
{
    final String LEFTS = "[{<";
    final String RIGHTS = ")]>";

    char nxtChar; // next character in expression
    char topChar; // character on top of stack
    Stack<Character> brackets = new Stack<Character>();

    for (int index = 0; index < expression.length(); index++)
    {
        nxtChar = expression.charAt(index);
        if (LEFTS.indexOf(nxtChar) != -1)
        {
            // ch is left bracket
            brackets.push(nxtChar); // autoboxing
        }
    }
}
```

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## Example (cont'd)

```
    else if (RIGHTS.indexOf(nxtChar) != -1)
    {
        // ch is a right bracket
        if (brackets.empty())
        {
            return false; // stack empty, so no match.
        }

        topChar = brackets.pop(); // auto-unboxing
        if (LEFTS.indexOf(topChar) != RIGHTS.indexOf(nxtChar))
        {
            return false; // mismatched pair
        }
    }
    return brackets.empty();
}
```

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## Deque<E> Interface

- A deque is a double ended queue:
  - can insert and remove items from both ends of a deque
  - Methods throw exception or return a special value

	First Element (Head)		Last Element (Tail)	
	Throws exception	Special value	Throws exception	Special value
<b>Insert</b>	<code>addFirst(e)</code>	<code>offerFirst(e)</code>	<code>addLast(e)</code>	<code>offerLast(e)</code>
<b>Remove</b>	<code>removeFirst()</code>	<code>pollFirst()</code>	<code>removeLast()</code>	<code>pollLast()</code>
<b>Examine</b>	<code>getFirst()</code>	<code>peekFirst()</code>	<code>getLast()</code>	<code>peekLast()</code>

Deque implementations:  
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 ➤ ArrayDeque, Linked List

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## Generic Algorithms

- The `Collections` class (in `java.util`) has many useful static methods that operate on collections including the following:

- `public static void reverse( List<?> list )`  
// reverses the items in the list
- `public static void shuffle( List<?> list )`  
// randomly permutes the items in the list

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## Generic Algorithms

- Two methods to sort a list:
  - `public static <T> void sort( List<T> list, Comparator<? super T> c )`  
// sorts the list using the given comparator
  - `public static <T extends Comparable<? super T>> void sort( List<T> list )`  
// sorts the list according to the natural ordering of its elements
- And many more...

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## Learning Goals Review

You will be expected to:

- program to the generic `Map` and `SortedMap` interfaces by reading and using the API
- compare and contrast `HashMap` and `TreeMap` classes (benefits of using each, basic run time analysis)
- program to the generic `Queue` interface
- program to the API of the generic `Stack` class
- program to the API of the generic `Deque` class
- identify (in words or through code) appropriate types for collections of data needed in a given software system
- write code (solve problems) that uses the generic algorithms provided in the `Collections` class

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## Sneak Preview

- In an upcoming lecture we will talk in detail about implementing associations
- But this is useful for your current assignment, so here's a preview

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## Unidirectional one-to-one associations

- The simplest type of association to implement is a unidirectional one-to-one association between two classes
- With a unidirectional association, you can navigate from an object of one class to an object of the other class (as indicated by the direction of the arrow) but not vice-versa
- This kind of association is easily implemented using an attribute that holds a reference to an object of the other class

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## Unidirectional one-to-one cont'd

- Consider the following association:



- Implementation:

```
public class Watch
{
    private Display theDisplay;
    ...
}
```

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## Bidirectional one-to-one associations

- The following UML diagram indicates a bidirectional association
  - no arrows on any end of the association



- We must be able to navigate from an account to the corresponding customer and vice versa
- Implementation:
  - each class needs an attribute that holds a reference to an object of the other class
  - each class must have setter methods that allow the reference to the object of the other class be established

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## A Bad Implementation

```
public class Customer
{
    private Account theAccount;
    public void setAccount(Account account)
    {
        theAccount = account;
    }
    // etc.
}
public class Account
{
    private Customer theCustomer;
    public void setCustomer(Customer customer)
    {
        theCustomer = customer;
    }
    // etc.
}
```

What is Wrong?

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## How about this?

```
public class Customer
{
    private Account theAccount;
    public void setAccount(Account account)
    {
        theAccount = account;
        account.setCustomer(this)
    }
}
public class Account
{
    private Customer theCustomer;
    public void setCustomer(Customer customer)
    {
        theCustomer = customer;
        customer.setAccount(this)
    }
}
```

What is Wrong?

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## A Better Solution

```
public class Customer
{
    private Account theAccount;
    public void setAccount(Account account)
    {
        if (theAccount != account) {
            theAccount = account;
            account.setCustomer(this)
        }
    }
}
public class Account
{
    private Customer theCustomer;
    public void setCustomer(Customer customer)
    {
        if (theCustomer != customer) {
            theCustomer = customer;
            customer.setAccount(this)
        }
    }
}
```

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## One-to-many Associations

- One-to-many associations can also be bidirectional:



or unidirectional:



depending on the needs of the application. In either case the “many” part of the association is realized using a collection of references.

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## One-to-many Associations cont'd

- ```
public class Customer
{
    private Set<Video> rentedVideos;
    public void addVideo(Video video)
    {
        ...
    }
    // etc.
}
```
- The particular type of collection that is used will depend on the needs of the application.
- If ordering matters, we may use an `Array` or `List`.
- If an element appears in the collection only once, we may choose to use a `Set`, etc.

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## One-to-many Associations cont'd

- Assuming a bidirectional association between customer and Video, the implementation of the Video class would look something like:

```
public class Video
{
    private Customer rentee;

    public void setRentee(Customer c)
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

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## One-to-many associations cont'd

- Again, we have to be careful to ensure consistency. Would this be ok?

```
public class Customer {
    //...
    public void addVideo(Video video)
    {
        rentedVideos.add(video);
        video.setRentee(this);
    }
}

public class Video {
    //...
    public void setRentee(Customer c)
    {
        rentee = c;
        rentee.addVideo(this);
    }
}
```

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## One-to-many associations cont'd

- Here's a better implementation ...

```
public class Customer {
    //...
    public void addVideo(Video video)
    {
        if (rentedVideos.add(video)){
            video.setRentee(this);
        }
    }
}

public class Video {
    //...
    public void setRentee(Customer c)
    {
        if (rentee != c)
        {
            rentee = c;
            rentee.addVideo(this);
        }
    }
}
```

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## Many-to Many Associations

- Consider the following many-to-many association between SalesRep and Customer:



- One way of implementing it is for both classes to maintain collections of references to instances of the other class.
- Again, operations need to be added that preserve consistency between the two collections of references.

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## Aggregations and Compositions

- The implementation of an aggregation does not differ from an association
- The implementation of a composition should ensure that when the whole is deleted, the parts are also deleted
  - In Java, we need to make sure that when the whole is deleted, there are no references to its parts, so the parts are garbage collected.

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