



# Java and C# in depth

Carlo A. Furia, Marco Piccioni, Bertrand Meyer

C#: exceptions  
and genericity



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## Exceptions

# Exceptions

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Exceptions are objects

- They are all descendants of `System.Exception`
- Raise with a `throw ExceptionObject` instruction  
`throw new AnExceptionClass("ErrorInfo");`
- In C#, all exceptions are “unchecked” (using Java terminology)
  - May be handled, if desired
  - If the current block does not have an exception handler, the call stack is searched backward for an exception handler
  - If none is found, the unhandled exception terminates the current execution thread

# Exception handlers

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The scope of the exception handler is denoted by a **try** block

Every **try** block is immediately followed by zero or more **catch** blocks, zero or one **finally** block, or both. At least one of **catch** blocks and **finally** block is required (otherwise, the **try** would be useless)

```
public int foo(int b) {  
    try { if ( b > 3 ) {  
        throw new System.Exception();  
    }  
    } catch (System.Exception e) { b++; }  
    finally { b++; }  
    return b;  
}
```

# Exception handlers: catch blocks



**catch** blocks can be exception-specific:

```
catch (ExceptionType name) { /* handler */ }
```

- Targets exceptions whose type conforms to **ExceptionType**
- **ExceptionType** must be a descendant of **System.Exception**
- **name** behaves as a local variable inside the handler block
- A **catch** block of type **T** cannot follow a **catch** block of type **S** if  $T \leq S$  (otherwise the **T**-type block would be shadowed)
- From within a **catch** block the exception being handled can be re-thrown with **throw** (no arguments)

# Exception handlers: catch/finally blocks



When an exception of type **T** is thrown within a **try** block:

- control is transferred to the first (in textual order) catch block whose type **T** conforms to, if one exists
- then, the control is then transferred to the **finally** block (if it exists)
- finally, execution continues after the **try** block

When no conforming **catch** exists or an exception is re-thrown inside the handler:

- After executing the **finally** block, the exception propagates to the next available enclosing handler

When a **try** block terminates without exceptions:

- the control is transferred to the **finally** block (if it exists)
- then, execution continues after the **try** block

# Exception handlers: catch/finally blocks



A **finally** block is **always** executed after the **try** block even if no exceptions are thrown

- Typically used to free resources

Control-flow breaking instruction (**return** , **break** , **continue** ) inside a **finally** block are restricted.

- **return** statements cannot occur in **finally** blocks
- **goto**, **break**, and **continue** statements can occur in **finally** blocks only if they do not transfer control outside the **finally** block itself

These restrictions disallow tricky cases that are allowed in Java

# Invalid **finally** blocks



Valid Java code but **invalid C# code**:

```
public int foo() {  
    try { return 1; }  
    finally { return 2; }  
}
```

```
public void foo() {  
    int b = 1;  
    while (true) {  
        try { b++; throw new Exception(); }  
        finally { b++; break; }  
    } b++;  
}
```

(Examples from **Martin Nordio**)

# Exceptions vs. assertions (contracts)

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**Exceptions** and **assertions** have partially overlapping purposes: dealing with “special” behaviors

- invalid input
- errors in computations
- runtime failures (e.g., I/O or network errors)
- ...

# Exceptions vs. assertions

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The following guidelines are useful to choose **when to use exceptions rather than assertions**:

- **exceptions** define the actions to be taken in case of **exceptional behavior**, to restore a normal behavior
  - they define a “special” behavior that requires special handling
  - an exception occurring is a possible, if unusual, behavior
  - exceptions may occur even in correct programs
- **assertions** constitute a **specification** of what the implementation should achieve
  - they define a contract
  - an assertion violation is always an implementation error
  - if the program is correct, checking assertions should be completely useless

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

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A **BankAccount** class defines a public method **FracBonus** to add a fractional bonus to the **Balance**:

```
void FracBonus(int frac)
    // add 1/frac to Balance
```

Valid inputs: **frac > 0**

Exception or assertion?

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

---

A **BankAccount** class defines a public method **FracBonus** to add a fractional bonus to the **Balance**:

```
void FracBonus(int frac)
    // add 1/frac to Balance
```

Valid inputs: **frac > 0**

Exception or assertion?

**assertion:**

this is a requirement imposed on clients of the method

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples



## Using exceptions:

- In class **BankAccount**:

```
void FracBonus(int frac) {  
    if (frac <= 0)  
        throw new Exception("Wrong input");  
    Bonus = Bonus * 1/frac;  
}
```

- In clients of **BankAccount**:

```
BankAccount ba;  
int x;  
// ...  
try { ba.FracBonus(x) }  
    catch (Exception e) {  
        if (e.Message == "Wrong input") {  
            x = -x + 1; ba.FracBonus(x);  
        }  
    }
```

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

---



## Using assertions:

- In class **BankAccount**:

```
void FracBonus(int frac) {  
    Assert(frac > 0);  
    Bonus = Bonus * 1/frac;  
}
```

- In clients of **BankAccount**:

```
BankAccount ba;  
int x;  
// ...  
if (!(x > 0)) { x = -x + 1; }  
ba.FracBonus(x);
```

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

---

A **BankAccount** class defines a public method **LoadBalance** to read a new value of **Balance** from file:

```
void LoadBalance(String fileName);  
    // read a new value  
    // of Balance from fileName
```

Valid inputs:

- **fileName** is the name of an existing file
- the file can be opened correctly
- the content reads as an integer
- ...

Exception or assertion?

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

---

A **BankAccount** class defines a public method **LoadBalance** to read a new value of **Balance** from file:

Valid inputs:

- **fileName** is the name of an existing file
- the file can be opened correctly
- the content reads as an integer
- ...

Exception or assertion?

- **exception:**  
an invalid input is a runtime error that requires extra measures but doesn't depend on the implementation being incorrect

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples

## Using assertions:

- In class **BankAccount**:

```
void LoadBalance(string fileName) {
    Assert(fileName != null);
    Assert(fileName != "");
    Assert(System.IO.File.Exists(fileName));
    TextReader tr = new StreamReader(fileName);
    int result;
    bool ok = Int32.TryParse(tr.ReadLine(), out result);
    Assert(ok);
    return result;
}
```

- In clients of **BankAccount**:

```
BankAccount ba; string fn;
// read file name from user into fn
// redo the checks and notify user if they go wrong
if (fn == "") {
    Console.WriteLine("Invalid filename"); }
// ...
```

# Exceptions vs. assertions: examples



## Using exceptions:

- In class **BankAccount**:

```
void LoadBalance(string fileName) {  
    TextReader tr = new StreamReader(fileName);  
    return Convert.ToInt32(tr.ReadLine());  
}
```

- In clients of **BankAccount**:

```
BankAccount ba;  
string fn;  
// read file name from user into fn  
// catch assertions and notify user accordingly  
try { ba.LoadBalance(fn) }  
    catch (ArgumentException e) {  
        Console.WriteLine("Invalid filename"); }  
  
// ...
```



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## Genericity in C#

C#'s genericity mechanism, available since C# 2.0

Most common use:

- Use (and implement) generic type-safe containers  
`List<String> safeBox = new List<String>();`
- Compile-time type-checking is enforced

More sophisticated uses:

- Custom generic classes and methods
- Bounded genericity

```
public T test <T> (T x) where T:Interface1, Interface2
```

# Generic classes

---



A **generic class** is a class parameterized w.r.t. one or more generic types.

```
public <T> class Cell {  
    public T Val { get; set; }  
}
```

To instantiate a generic class we must provide an actual type for the generic parameters.

```
Cell<String> c = new Cell<String>();
```

# Generic classes

---



The generic parameters of a generic class may constrain the valid actual types.

```
public class Cell<T> where T:S { ... }
```

The following is valid only if **X** is a subtype of **S**:

```
Cell<X> c = new Cell<X>();
```

The constrains may involve multiple types.

```
public class C<T> where T: A, IB
```

The following is valid only if **Y** is a subtype of both **A** and **IB**:

```
C<Y> c = new C<Y>();
```

# Type inference: implicit types

---

When creating an instance of a generic class, the compiler is often able to infer the generic type from the context. In such cases, we can omit the type and use **var** instead.

```
var c = new Cell<String>();
```

is equivalent to:

```
Cell<String> c = new Cell<String>();
```

In general, **var** can be used for every variable declaration where the compiler can figure out the types.

```
var x = new String[12];
```

```
var y = 12;
```

```
var z = 12.4 + 5 + "OK"; // String "17.4OK"
```

# Generic methods



A **generic method** is a method parameterized w.r.t. one or more generic types.

```
public U downcast <U> (T x) where U:T {  
    return (U) x;  
}
```

Notice the different position of the generic parameter:

- C#: `public T foo <T> (T x) ;`
- Java: `public <T> T foo (T x) ;`

# Generic methods



Clients must provide actual types for the generic parameters only when the compiler cannot infer them from context.

```
public U downcast <U> (T x) where U:T
```

```
Person p = new Person();
```

```
Employee e = downcast(p); // error: which type  
// among all subtypes of Employee?
```

```
Employee e = downcast<Employee>(p); // OK
```

```
var e = downcast<Employee>(p); // OK
```

```
public static void a2c <G> (G[] a, IList<G> c)  
a2c(new String[8], new List<String>()); // OK
```

# Generics: features and limitations



Unlike Java, genericity is supported natively by .NET bytecode

Hence, basically all limitations of Java generics disappear:

- Can instantiate generic parameter with value types
- At runtime you can tell the difference between `List<Integer>` and `List<String>`
- Exception classes can be generic classes
- Can instantiate a generic type parameter
  - provided a clause `where T : new()` constrains the parameter to have a default constructor
- Can get the default value of a generic type parameter  
`T t = default (T) ;`
- Arrays with elements of a generic type parameter can be instantiated
- A static member can reference a generic type parameter
- Another consequence is that raw types (unchecked generic types without any type argument) don't exist in C#

# Generics and inheritance

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- Let  $S$  be a subtype of  $T$  (i.e.  $S \leq T$ )

In general, there is no inheritance relation between:

**`SomeGenericClass<S>`** and **`SomeGenericClass<T>`**

In particular: the former is not a subtype of the latter

However, let `AClass` be a non-generic type:

- **`S<AClass>`** is a subtype of **`T<AClass>`**

There's no C# equivalent of Java's wildcards, but C#'s full-fledged genericity mechanisms normally provide alternative ways to achieve the same designs

However, C# doesn't have lower-bounded genericity

# Why subtyping with generics is tricky



Consider a method of class **F**:

```
public static void foo(List<Vehicle> x) {  
    // add a Truck to the end of list 'x'  
    x.Add(new Truck());  
}
```

If **List<Car>** were a subtype of **List<Vehicle>**, this would be valid code:

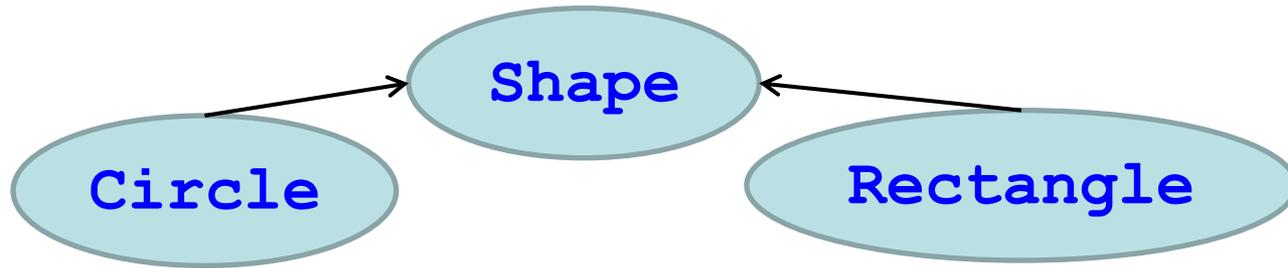
```
var cars = new List<Car>();  
cars.Add(new Car());  
F.foo(cars);
```

But now a **List<Car>** would contain a **Truck**, which is not a **Car**!

# Replacing wildcards in C#: example



Consider the following hierarchy of classes:



What should be the signature of a method **drawShapes** that takes a list of **Shape** objects and draws all of them?

- **DrawShapes ( List<Shape> shapes )**
  - this doesn't work on a **List<Circle>**, which is not a subtype of **List<Shape>**

# Replacing wildcards in C#: example



What should be the signature of a method `drawShapes` that takes a list of `Shape` objects and draws all of them?

First solution: use a helper class with bounded genericity

```
class DrawHelper <T> where T: Shape {  
    public static void DrawShapes( List<T> shapes)  
}
```

Client usage:

```
DrawHelper<Shape>.DrawShapes(listOfShapes);  
DrawHelper<Circle>.DrawShapes(listOfCircles);
```

The compiler may be able to infer the generic type argument from context.



# Replacing wildcards in C#: example

---

What should be the signature of a method `drawShapes` that takes a list of `Shape` objects and draws all of them?

Second solution: use a generic method inside `Shape`

```
public static void DrawShapes <T> (List<T> shapes)
    where T:Shape
```

Client usage:

```
Shape.DrawShapes<Shape>(listOfShapes);
Shape.DrawShapes<Circle>(listOfCircles);
```

The compiler may be able to infer the generic type argument from context.

# Replacing wildcards in C#: example

---

What should be the signature of a method `drawShapes` that takes a list of `Shape` objects and draws all of them?

Third solution: use an `out` generic parameter, which declares that objects of generic type will only be read (and hence passing a collection of a subtype is type safe). Typically done using the `IEnumerable<out T>` interface.

```
public static void DrawShapes
    (IEnumerable<Vehicle> shapes)
```

Client usage:

```
DrawShapes(listOfShapes);
DrawShapes(listOfCircles);
```

Conversion from `List` to `IEnumerable` is implicit, but the signature guarantees that `DrawShapes` only reads the list while iterating.

# Covariant generic parameters



If **S** is subtype of **T** (i.e.  $S \leq T$ ) and generic interface **I** is declared as covariant: **IC<out G>**, then:

**IC<S>** is a subtype of **IC<T>**

That is: instances of classes implementing **IC<S>** can be attached to references of type **IC<T>**

Covariant **out** generic parameters have restrictions that conservatively ensure type safety:

- they can only be used in interfaces and delegates
- they can only be use as return types (not as argument type)
- they cannot be used as genericity constraint

# Contravariant generic parameters

---

Consider a method `SameArea` that takes a list of `Circles` and counts how many have the same area as a given `Circle`:

```
public static int SameArea
    (IEnumerable<Circle> clist, Circle c,
     IEqualityComparer<Circle> cmp)
```

A comparator of areas of generic shapes should also work to compare the area of circles. In fact, the `IEqualityComparer<in T>` interface allows us to pass a comparator for a supertype of `Circle`.

Client usage:

```
IEqualityComparer<Shape> shapeComparer = ...
SameArea(listOfCircles, circle, shapeComparer);
```

# Contravariant generic parameters



If **S** is subtype of **T** (i.e.  $S \leq T$ ) and generic interface **I** is declared as contravariant: **IC<in G>**, then:

**IC<T>** is a subtype of **IC<S>**

That is: instances of classes implementing **IC<T>** can be attached to references of type **IC<S>**

Contravariant **in** generic parameters have restrictions that conservatively ensure type safety:

- they can only be used in interfaces and delegates
- they can only be used as argument type (not as return types), and not for **out** or **ref** arguments

(Contravariant genericity may be unintuitive to use in general.)

# Collections

A classic example of separating interface from implementation

Some library interfaces from `Systems.Collections.Generic`:

- `ICollection<E>`
  - `int Count`;
    - number of elements in the collection
  - `void add(E item)`
  - `bool remove(E item)`
    - returns whether the collection actually changed
  - `IEnumerator<E> GetEnumerator()`
- `IEnumerator<E>`
  - `bool MoveNext()`
    - Moves to the next element; returns `false` if the enumerator has passed the end of the collection
  - `E Current`
    - returns the current element in the enumeration

# Collections: some implementations

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- List: indexed, dynamically growing
- LinkedList: doubly-linked list
- HashSet: unordered, rejects duplicates
- TreeSet: ordered, rejects duplicates
- Dictionary: key/value associations
- SortedDictionary: key/value associations, sorted keys