Java SE 8 for the Really Impatient

Cay S. Horstmann

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Cay S. Horstmann

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To Greg Doench, my editor for two decades, whose patience, kindness,
and good judgment I greatly admire

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Preface

This book gives a concise introduction to the many new features of Java 8 (and a few features of Java 7 that haven't received much attention) for programmers who are already familiar with Java.

This book is written in the "impatient" style that I first tried out in a book called *Scala for the Impatient*. In that book, I wanted to quickly cut to the chase without lecturing the reader about the superiority of one paradigm over another. I presented information in small chunks organized to help you quickly retrieve it when needed. The approach was a big success in the Scala community, and I am employing it again in this book.

With Java 8, the Java programming language and library receive a major refresh. Lambda expressions make it possible to write "snippets of computations" in a concise way, so that you can pass them to other code. The recipient can choose to execute your computation when appropriate and as often as appropriate. This has a profound impact on building libraries.

In particular, working with collections has completely changed. Instead of specifying how to compute a result ("traverse from the beginning to the end, and if an element matches a condition, compute a value from it, and add that value to a sum"), you specify what you want ("give me the sum of all elements that match a condition"). The library is then able to reorder the computation—for example, to take advantage of parallelism. Or, if you just want to have the first hundred matches, it can stop the computation without you having to maintain a counter.

The brand-new *stream* API of Java 8 puts this idea to work. In the first chapter, you learn all about the syntax of lambda expressions, and Chapter 2 gives a complete overview of streams. In Chapter 3, I provide you with tips on how to effectively design your own libraries with lambdas.

With Java 8, developers of client-side applications need to transition to the JavaFX API since Swing is now in "maintenance mode." Chapter 4 gives a quick introduction to JavaFX for a programmer who needs to put together a graphical program—when a picture speaks louder than 1,000 strings.

Having waited for far too many years, programmers are finally able to use a well-designed date/time library. Chapter 5 covers the `java.time` API in detail.

Each version of Java brings enhancements in the concurrency API, and Java 8 is no exception. In Chapter 6, you learn about improvements in atomic counters, concurrent hash maps, parallel array operations, and composable futures.

Java 8 bundles Nashorn, a high-quality JavaScript implementation. In Chapter 7, you will see how to execute JavaScript on the Java Virtual Machine, and how to interoperate with Java code.

Chapter 8 collects miscellaneous smaller, but nevertheless useful, features of Java 8. Chapter 9 does the same for Java 7, focusing on improved exception handling, the "new I/O" enhancements for working with files and directories, and other library enhancements that you may have missed.

My thanks go, as always, to my editor Greg Doench, who had the idea of a short book that brings experienced programmers up to speed with Java 8. Dmitry Kirsanov and Alina Kirsanova once again turned an XHTML manuscript into an attractive book with amazing speed and attention to detail. I am grateful to the reviewers who spotted many embarrassing errors and gave excellent suggestions for improvement. They are: Gail Anderson, Paul Anderson, James Denvir, Trisha Gee, Brian Goetz (special thanks for the very thorough review), Marty Hall, Angelika Langer, Mark Lawrence, Stuart Marks, Attila Szegedi, and Jim Weaver.

I hope that you enjoy reading this concise introduction to the new features of Java 8, and that it will make you a more successful Java programmer. If you find errors or have suggestions for improvement, please visit http://horstmann.com/java8 and leave a comment. On that page, you will also find a link to an archive file containing all code examples from the book.

Cay Horstmann

San Francisco, 2013

About the Author

Cay S. Horstmann is the author of *Scala for the Impatient* (Addison-Wesley, 2012), is principal author of *Core Java™, Volumes I and II, Ninth Edition* (Prentice Hall, 2013), and has written a dozen other books for professional programmers and computer science students. He is a professor of computer science at San Jose State University and is a Java Champion.

Programming with Lambdas

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Chapter 3

In the first two chapters, you saw the basic syntax and semantics of lambda expressions as well as the stream API that makes extensive use of them. In this chapter, you will learn how to create your own libraries that make use of lambda expressions and functional interfaces.

The key points of this chapter are:

- The main reason for using a lambda expression is to defer the execution of the code until an appropriate time.
- When a lambda expression is executed, make sure to provide any required data as inputs.
- Choose one of the existing functional interfaces if you can.
- It is often useful to write methods that return an instance of a functional interface.
- When you work with transformations, consider how you can compose them.
- To compose transformations lazily, you need to keep a list of all pending transformations and apply them in the end.
- If you need to apply a lambda many times, you often have a chance to split up the work into subtasks that execute concurrently.
- Think what should happen when you work with a lambda expression that throws an exception.

- When working with generic functional interfaces, use `? super` wildcards for argument types, `? extends` wildcards for return types.
- When working with generic types that can be transformed by functions, consider supplying `map` and `flatMap`.

3.1 Deferred Execution

The point of all lambdas is *deferred execution*. After all, if you wanted to execute some code right now, you'd do that, without wrapping it inside a lambda. There are many reasons for executing code later, such as

- Running the code in a separate thread
- Running the code multiple times
- Running the code at the right point in an algorithm (for example, the comparison operation in sorting)
- Running the code when something happens (a button was clicked, data has arrived, and so on)
- Running the code only when necessary

It is a good idea to think through what you want to achieve when you set out programming with lambdas.

Let us look at a simple example. Suppose you log an event:

```
logger.info("x: " + x + ", y: " + y);
```

What happens if the log level is set to suppress `INFO` messages? The message string is computed and passed to the `info` method, which then decides to throw it away. Wouldn't it be nicer if the string concatenation only happened when necessary?

Running code only when necessary is a use case for lambdas. The standard idiom is to wrap the code in a no-arg lambda:

```
() -> "x: " + x + ", y: " + y
```

Now we need to write a method that

1. Accepts the lambda
2. Checks whether it should be called
3. Calls it when necessary

To accept the lambda, we need to pick (or, in rare cases, provide) a functional interface. We discuss the process of choosing an interface in more detail in Section 3.3, "Choosing a Functional Interface," on page 50. Here, a good choice is a `Supplier<String>`. The following method provides lazy logging:

```
public static void info(Logger logger, Supplier<String> message) {
   if (logger.isLoggable(Level.INFO))
      logger.info(message.get());
}
```

We use the `isLoggable` method of the `Logger` class to decide whether `INFO` messages should be logged. If so, we invoke the lambda by calling its abstract method, which happens to be called `get`.

NOTE: Deferring logging messages is such a good idea that the Java 8 library designers beat me to it. The `info` method, as well as the other logging methods, now have variants that accept a `Supplier<String>`. You can directly call `logger.info(() -> "x: " + x + ", y:" + y)`. However, see Exercise 1 for a potentially useful refinement.

3.2 Parameters of Lambda Expressions

When you ask your user to supply a comparator, it is pretty obvious that the comparator has two arguments—the values to be compared.

```
Arrays.sort(names,
   (s, t) -> Integer.compare(s.length(), t.length())); // Compare strings s and t
```

Now consider a different example. This method repeats an action multiple times:

```
public static void repeat(int n, IntConsumer action) {
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) action.accept(i);
}
```

Why an `IntConsumer` and not a `Runnable`? We tell the action in which iteration it occurs, which might be useful information. The action needs to capture that input in a parameter

```
repeat(10, i -> System.out.println("Countdown: " + (9 - i)));
```

Another example is an event handler

```
button.setOnAction(event -> action);
```

The `event` object carries information that the action may need.

In general, you want to design your algorithm so that it passes any required information as arguments. For example, when editing an image, it makes sense to have the user supply a function that computes the color for a pixel. Such a function might need to know not just the current color, but also where the pixel is in the image, or what the neighboring pixels are.

However, if these arguments are rarely needed, consider supplying a second version that doesn't force users into accepting unwanted arguments:

```
public static void repeat(int n, Runnable action) {
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) action.run();
}
```

This version can be called as

```
repeat(10, () -> System.out.println("Hello, World!"));
```

3.3 Choosing a Functional Interface

In most functional programming languages, function types are *structural*. To specify a function that maps two strings to an integer, you use a type that looks something like `Function2<String, String, Integer>` or `(String, String) -> int`. In Java, you instead declare the intent of the function, using a functional interface such as `Comparator<String>`. In the theory of programming languages this is called *nominal* typing.

Of course, there are many situations where you want to accept "any function" without particular semantics. There are a number of generic function types for that purpose (see Table 3–1), and it's a very good idea to use one of them when you can.

For example, suppose you write a method to process files that match a certain criterion. Should you use the descriptive `java.io.FileFilter` class or a `Predicate<File>`? I strongly recommend that you use the standard `Predicate<File>`. The only reason not to do so would be if you already have many useful methods producing `FileFilter` instances.

NOTE: Most of the standard functional interfaces have nonabstract methods for producing or combining functions. For example, `Predicate.isEqual(a)` is the same as `a::equals`, provided `a` is not `null`. And there are default methods `and`, `or`, `negate` for combining predicates. For example, `Predicate.isEqual(a).or(Predicate.isEqual(b))` is the same as `x -> a.equals(x) || b.equals(x)`.

Consider another example. We want to transform images, applying a `Color -> Color` function to each pixel. For example, the brightened image in Figure 3–1 is obtained by calling

```
Image brightenedImage = transform(image, Color::brighter);
```

Table 3–1 Common Functional Interfaces

Functional Interface	Parameter Types	Return Type	Abstract Method Name	Description	Other Methods
Runnable	none	void	run	Runs an action without arguments or return value	
Supplier<T>	none	T	get	Supplies a value of type T	
Consumer<T>	T	void	accept	Consumes a value of type T	andThen
BiConsumer<T, U>	T, U	void	accept	Consumes values of types T and U	andThen
Function<T, R>	T	R	apply	A function with argument of type T	compose, andThen, identity
BiFunction<T, U, R>	T, U	R	apply	A function with arguments of types T and U	andThen
UnaryOperator<T>	T	T	apply	A unary operator on the type T	compose, andThen, identity
BinaryOperator<T>	T, T	T	apply	A binary operator on the type T	andThen, maxBy, minBy
Predicate<T>	T	boolean	test	A Boolean-valued function	and, or, negate, isEqual
BiPredicate<T, U>	T, U	boolean	test	A Boolean-valued function with two arguments	and, or, negate

Figure 3–1 The original and transformed image

There is a standard functional interface for this purpose: `UnaryOperator<Color>`. That is a good choice, and there is no need to come up with a `ColorTransformer` interface.

Here is the implementation of the `transform` method. Note the call to the `apply` method.

```
public static Image transform(Image in, UnaryOperator<Color> f) {
   int width = (int) in.getWidth();
   int height = (int) in.getHeight();
   WritableImage out = new WritableImage(width, height);
   for (int x = 0; x < width; x++)
      for (int y = 0; y < height; y++)
         out.getPixelWriter().setColor(x, y,
            f.apply(in.getPixelReader().getColor(x, y)));
   return out;
}
```

NOTE: This method uses the `Color` and `Image` classes from JavaFX, not from `java.awt`. See Chapter 4 for more information on JavaFX.

Table 3–2 lists the 34 available specializations for primitive types `int`, `long`, and `double`. Use the specializations when you can to reduce autoboxing.

Sometimes, you need to supply your own functional interface because there is nothing in the standard library that works for you. Suppose you want to modify colors in an image, allowing users to specify a function `(int, int, Color) -> Color` that computes a new color depending on the (*x*, *y*) location in the image. In that case, you can define your own interface:

Table 3–2 Functional Interfaces for Primitive Types
p, *q* is int, long, double;
P, *Q* is Int, Long, Double

Functional Interface	Parameter Types	Return Type	Abstract Method Name
BooleanSupplier	none	boolean	getAsBoolean
*P*Supplier	none	*p*	getAs*P*
*P*Consumer	*p*	void	accept
Obj*P*Consumer<T>	T, *p*	void	accept
*P*Function<T>	*p*	T	apply
*P*To*Q*Function	*p*	*q*	applyAs*Q*
To*P*Function<T>	T	*p*	applyAs*P*
To*P*BiFunction<T, U>	T, U	*p*	applyAs*P*
*P*UnaryOperator	*p*	*p*	applyAs*P*
*P*BinaryOperator	*p*, *p*	*p*	applyAs*P*
*P*Predicate	*p*	boolean	test

```
@FunctionalInterface
public interface ColorTransformer {
   Color apply(int x, int y, Color colorAtXY);
}
```

NOTE: I called the abstract method `apply` because that is used for the majority of standard functional interfaces. Should you call the method `process` or `transform` or `getColor` instead? It doesn't matter much to users of the color manipulation code—they will usually supply a lambda expression. Sticking with the standard name simplifies the life of the implementor.

3.4 Returning Functions

In a functional programming language, functions are first-class citizens. Just like you can pass numbers to methods and have methods that produce numbers, you can have arguments and return values that are functions. This sounds abstract, but it is very useful in practice. Java is not quite a functional language because it uses functional interfaces, but the principle is the same. You have seen many

methods that accept functional interfaces. In this section, we consider methods whose return type is a functional interface.

Consider again image transformations. If you call

```
Image brightenedImage = transform(image, Color::brighter);
```

the image is brightened by a fixed amount. What if you want it even brighter, or not quite so bright? Could you supply the desired brightness as an additional parameter to `transform`?

```
Image brightenedImage = transform(image,
   (c, factor) -> c.deriveColor(0, 1, factor, 1), // Brighten c by factor
   1.2); // Use a factor of 1.2
```

One would have to overload `transform`:

```
public static <T> Image transform(Image in, BiFunction<Color, T, Color> f, T arg)
```

That can be made to work (see Exercise 6), but what if one wants to supply two arguments? Or three? There is another way. We can make a method that returns the appropriate `UnaryOperator<Color>`, with the brightness set:

```
public static UnaryOperator<Color> brighten(double factor) {
   return c -> c.deriveColor(0, 1, factor, 1);
}
```

Then we can call

```
Image brightenedImage = transform(image, brighten(1.2));
```

The `brighten` method returns a function (or, technically, an instance of a functional interface). That function can be passed to another method (here, `transform`) that expects such an interface.

In general, don't be shy to write methods that produce functions. This is useful to customize the functions that you pass to methods with functional interfaces. For example, consider the `Arrays.sort` method with a `Comparator` argument. There are many ways of comparing values, and you can write a method that yields a comparator for your needs—see Exercise 7. Then you can call `Arrays.sort(values, comparatorGenerator(`*customization arguments*`))`.

NOTE: As you will see in Chapter 8, the `Comparator` class has several methods that yield or modify comparators.

3.5 Composition

A single-argument function transforms one value into another. If you have two such transformations, then doing one after the other is also a transformation.

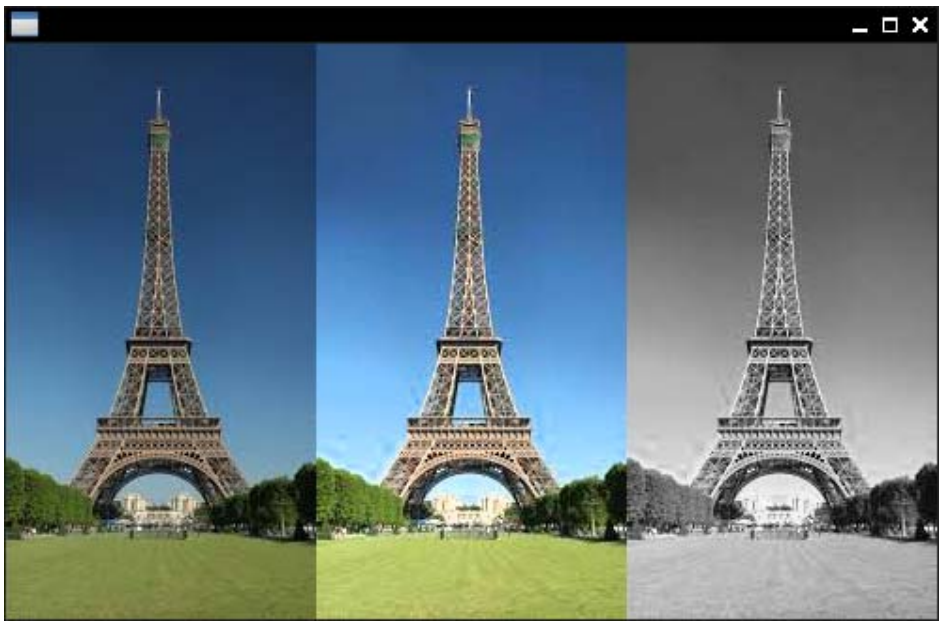


Figure 3–2 First, the image is brightened, and then grayscale is applied.

Consider image manipulation: Let's first brighten an image, then turn it to grayscale (see Figure 3–2).

NOTE: In the printed book, everything is in grayscale. Just run the program in the companion code to see the effect.

That is easy to do with our `transform` method:

```
Image image = new Image("eiffel-tower.jpg");
Image image2 = transform(image, Color::brighter);
Image finalImage = transform(image2, Color::grayscale);
```

But this is not very efficient. We need to make an intermediate image. For large images, that requires a considerable amount of storage. If we could compose the image operations and then apply the composite operation to each pixel, that would be better.

In this case, the image operations are instances of `UnaryOperator<Color>`. That type has a method `compose` that, for rather depressing reasons that are explored in Exercise 10, is not useful for us. But it is easy to roll our own:

```
public static <T> UnaryOperator<T> compose(UnaryOperator<T> op1,
      UnaryOperator<T> op2) {
   return t -> op2.apply(op1.apply(t));
}
```

Now we can call

```
Image finalImage = transform(image, compose(Color::brighter, Color::grayscale));
```

That is much better. Now the composed transformation is directly applied to each pixel, and there is no need for an intermediate image.

Generally, when you build a library where users can carry out one effect after another, it is a good idea to give library users the ability to compose these effects. See Exercise 11 for another example.

3.6 Laziness

In the preceding section, you saw how users of an image transformation method can precompose operations to avoid intermediate images. But why should they have to do that? Another approach is for the library to accumulate all operations and then fuse them. This is, of course, what the stream library does.

If you do lazy processing, your API needs to distinguish between intermediate operations, which accumulate the tasks to be done, and terminal operations which deliver the result. In the image processing example, we can make `transform` lazy, but then it needs to return another object that is not an `Image`. For example,

```
LatentImage latent = transform(image, Color::brighter);
```

A `LatentImage` can simply store the original image and a sequence of image operations.

```
public class LatentImage {
   private Image in;
   private List<UnaryOperator<Color>> pendingOperations;
   ...
}
```

This class also needs a `transform` method:

```
LatentImage transform(UnaryOperator<Color> f) {
   pendingOperations.add(f);
   return this;
}
```

To avoid duplicate `transform` methods, you can follow the approach of the stream library where an initial `stream()` operation is required to turn a collection into a

stream. Since we can't add a method to the `Image` class, we can provide a `LatentImage` constructor or a static factory method.

```
LatentImage latent = LatentImage.from(image)
   .transform(Color::brighter).transform(Color::grayscale);
```

You can only be lazy for so long. Eventually, the work needs to be done. We can provide a `toImage` method that applies all operations and returns the result:

```
Image finalImage = LatentImage.from(image)
   .transform(Color::brighter).transform(Color::grayscale)
   .toImage();
```

Here is the implementation of the method:

```
public Image toImage() {
   int width = (int) in.getWidth();
   int height = (int) in.getHeight();
   WritableImage out = new WritableImage(width, height);
   for (int x = 0; x < width; x++)
      for (int y = 0; y < height; y++) {
         Color c = in.getPixelReader().getColor(x, y);
         for (UnaryOperator<Color> f : pendingOperations) c = f.apply(c);
         out.getPixelWriter().setColor(x, y, c);
      }
   return out;
}
```

CAUTION: In real life, implementing lazy operations is quite a bit harder. Usually you have a mixture of operations, and not all of them can be applied lazily. See Exercises 12 and 13.

3.7 Parallelizing Operations

When expressing operations as functional interfaces, the caller gives up control over the processing details. As long as the operations are applied so that the correct result is achieved, the caller has nothing to complain about. In particular, the library can make use of concurrency. For example, in image processing we can split the image into multiple strips and process each strip separately.

Here is a simple way of carrying out an image transformation in parallel. This code operates on `Color[][]` arrays instead of `Image` objects because the JavaFX `PixelWriter` is not threadsafe.

```
public static Color[][] parallelTransform(Color[][] in, UnaryOperator<Color> f) {
   int n = Runtime.getRuntime().availableProcessors();
   int height = in.length;
   int width = in[0].length;
   Color[][] out = new Color[height][width];
   try {
      ExecutorService pool = Executors.newCachedThreadPool();
      for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
         int fromY = i * height / n;
         int toY = (i + 1) * height / n;
         pool.submit(() -> {
               for (int x = 0; x < width; x++)
                  for (int y = fromY; y < toY; y++)
                     out[y][x] = f.apply(in[y][x]);
            });
      }
      pool.shutdown();
      pool.awaitTermination(1, TimeUnit.HOURS);
   }
   catch (InterruptedException ex) {
      ex.printStackTrace();
   }
   return out;
}
```

This is, of course, just a proof of concept. Supporting image operations that combine multiple pixels would be a major challenge.

In general, when you are given an object of a functional interface and you need to invoke it many times, ask yourself whether you can take advantage of concurrency.

3.8 Dealing with Exceptions

When you write a method that accepts lambdas, you need to spend some thought on handling and reporting exceptions that may occur when the lambda expression is executed.

When an exception is thrown in a lambda expression, it is propagated to the caller. There is nothing special about executing lambda expressions, of course. They are simply method calls on some object that implements a functional interface. Often it is appropriate to let the exception bubble up to the caller.

Consider, for example:

```
public static void doInOrder(Runnable first, Runnable second) {
   first.run();
   second.run();
}
```

If `first.run()` throws an exception, then the `doInOrder` method is terminated, `second` is never run, and the caller gets to deal with the exception.

But now suppose we execute the tasks asynchronously.

```
public static void doInOrderAsync(Runnable first, Runnable second) {
   Thread t = new Thread() {
      public void run() {
         first.run();
         second.run();
      }
   };
   t.start();
}
```

If `first.run()` throws an exception, the thread is terminated, and `second` is never run. However, the `doInOrderAsync` returns right away and does the work in a separate thread, so it is not possible to have the method rethrow the exception. In this situation, it is a good idea to supply a handler:

```
public static void doInOrderAsync(Runnable first, Runnable second,
      Consumer<Throwable> handler) {
   Thread t = new Thread() {
      public void run() {
         try {
            first.run();
            second.run();
         } catch (Throwable t) {
            handler.accept(t);
         }
      }
   };
   t.start();
}
```

Now suppose that `first` produces a result that is consumed by `second`. We can still use the handler.

```
public static <T> void doInOrderAsync(Supplier<T> first, Consumer<T> second,
      Consumer<Throwable> handler) {
   Thread t = new Thread() {
      public void run() {
         try {
            T result = first.get();
            second.accept(result);
         } catch (Throwable t) {
            handler.accept(t);
         }
      }
   };
   t.start();
}
```

Alternatively, we could make `second` a `BiConsumer<T, Throwable>` and have it deal with the exception from `first`—see Exercise 16.

It is often inconvenient that methods in functional interfaces don't allow checked exceptions. Of course, your methods can accept functional interfaces whose methods allow checked exceptions, such as `Callable<T>` instead of `Supplier<T>`. A `Callable<T>` has a method that is declared as `T call() throws Exception`. If you want an equivalent for a `Consumer` or a `Function`, you have to create it yourself.

You sometimes see suggestions to "fix" this problem with a generic wrapper, like this:

```
public static <T> Supplier<T> unchecked(Callable<T> f) {
   return () -> {
      try {
         return f.call();
      }
      catch (Exception e) {
         throw new RuntimeException(e);
      }
      catch (Throwable t) {
         throw t;
      }
   };
}
```

Then you can pass a

```
unchecked(() -> new String(Files.readAllBytes(
   Paths.get("/etc/passwd")), StandardCharsets.UTF_8))
```

to a `Supplier<String>`, even though the `readAllBytes` method throws an `IOException`.

That is a solution, but not a complete fix. For example, this method cannot generate a Consumer<T> or a Function<T, U>. You would need to implement a variation of unchecked for each functional interface.

3.9 Lambdas and Generics

Generally, lambdas work well with generic types. You have seen a number of examples where we wrote generic mechanisms, such as the unchecked method of the preceding section. There are just a couple of issues to keep in mind.

One of the unhappy consequences of type erasure is that you cannot construct a generic array at runtime. For example, the toArray() method of Collection<T> and Stream<T> cannot call T[] result = new T[n]. Therefore, these methods return Object[] arrays. In the past, the solution was to provide a second method that accepts an array. That array was either filled or used to create a new one via reflection. For example, Collection<T> has a method toArray(T[] a). With lambdas, you have a new option, namely to pass the constructor. That is what you do with streams:

```
String[] result = words.toArray(String[]::new);
```

When you implement such a method, the constructor expression is an IntFunction<T[]>, since the size of the array is passed to the constructor. In your code, you call T[] result = constr.apply(n).

In this regard, lambdas help you overcome a limitation of generic types. Unfortunately, in another common situation lambdas suffer from a different limitation. To understand the problem, recall the concept of type variance.

Suppose Employee is a subtype of Person. Is a List<Employee> a special case of a List<Person>? It seems that it should be. But actually, it would be unsound. Consider this code:

```
List<Employee> staff = ...;
List<Person> tenants = staff; // Not legal, but suppose it was
tenants.add(new Person("John Q. Public")); // Adds Person to staff!
```

Note that staff and tenants are references to the same list. To make this type error impossible, we must disallow the conversion from List<Employee> to List<Person>. We say that the type parameter T of List<T> is *invariant*.

If List was immutable, as it is in a functional programming language, then the problem would disappear, and one could have a *covariant* list. That is what is done in languages such as Scala. However, when generics were invented, Java had very few immutable generic classes, and the language designers instead embraced a different concept: use-site variance, or "wildcards."

A method can decide to accept a List<? extends Person> if it only reads from the list. Then you can pass either a List<Person> or a List<Employee>. Or it can accept a

`List<? super Employee>` if it only writes to the list. It is okay to write employees into a `List<Person>`, so you can pass such a list. In general, reading is covariant (subtypes are okay) and writing is contravariant (supertypes are okay). Use-site variance is just right for mutable data structures. It gives each service the choice which variance, if any, is appropriate.

However, for function types, use-site variance is a hassle. A function type is *always* contravariant in its arguments and covariant in its return value. For example, if you have a `Function<Person, Employee>`, you can safely pass it on to someone who needs a `Function<Employee, Person>`. They will only call it with employees, whereas your function can handle any person. They will expect the function to return a person, and you give them something even better.

In Java, when you declare a generic functional interface, you can't specify that function arguments are always contravariant and return types always covariant. Instead, you have to repeat it for each use. For example, look at the javadoc for `Stream<T>`:

```
void forEach(Consumer<? super T> action)
Stream<T> filter(Predicate<? super T> predicate)
<R> Stream<R> map(Function<? super T, ? extends R> mapper)
```

The general rule is that you use `super` for argument types, `extends` for return types. That way, you can pass a `Consumer<Object>` to `forEach` on a `Stream<String>`. If it is willing to consume any object, surely it can consume strings.

But the wildcards are not always there. Look at

```
T reduce(T identity, BinaryOperator<T> accumulator)
```

Since `T` is the argument *and* return type of `BinaryOperator`, the type does not vary. In effect, the contravariance and covariance cancel each other out.

As the implementor of a method that accepts lambda expressions with generic types, you simply add `? super` to any argument type that is not also a return type, and `? extends` to any return type that is not also an argument type.

For example, consider the `doInOrderAsync` method of the preceding section. Instead of

```
public static <T> void doInOrderAsync(Supplier<T> first,
   Consumer<T> second, Consumer<Throwable> handler)
```

it should be

```
public static <T> void doInOrderAsync(Supplier<? extends T> first,
   Consumer<? super T> second, Consumer<? super Throwable> handler)
```

3.10 Monadic Operations

When you work with generic types, and with functions that yield values from these types, it is useful to supply methods that let you *compose* these functions—that is, carry out one after another. In this section, you will see a design pattern for providing such compositions.

Consider a generic type `G<T>` with one type parameter, such as `List<T>` (zero or more values of type `T`), `Optional<T>` (zero or one values of type `T`), or `Future<T>` (a value of type `T` that will be available in the future).

Also consider a function `T -> U`, or a `Function<T, U>` object.

It often makes sense to apply this function to a `G<T>` (that is, a `List<T>`, `Optional<T>`, `Future<T>`, and so on). How this works exactly depends on the nature of the generic type `G`. For example, applying a function f to a `List` with elements $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ means creating a list with elements $f(e_1), \ldots, f(e_n)$.

Applying f to an `Optional<T>` containing v means creating an `Optional<U>` containing $f(v)$. But if f is applied to an empty `Optional<T>` without a value, the result is an empty `Optional<U>`.

Applying f to a `Future<T>` simply means to apply it whenever it is available. The result is a `Future<U>`.

By tradition, this operation is usually called `map`. There is a `map` method for `Stream` and `Optional`. The `CompletableFuture` class that we will discuss in Chapter 6 has an operation that does just what `map` should do, but it is called `thenApply`. There is no `map` for a plain `Future<V>`, but it is not hard to supply one (see Exercise 21).

So far, that is a fairly straightforward idea. It gets more complex when you look at functions `T -> G<U>` instead of functions `T -> U`. For example, consider getting the web page for a URL. Since it takes some time to fetch the page, that is a function `URL -> Future<String>`. Now suppose you have a `Future<URL>`, a URL that will arrive sometime. Clearly it makes sense to map the function to that `Future`. Wait for the URL to arrive, then feed it to the function and wait for the string to arrive. This operation has traditionally been called `flatMap`.

The name `flatMap` comes from sets. Suppose you have a "many-valued" function—a function computing a set of possible answers. And then you have another such function. How can you compose these functions? If $f(x)$ is the set $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$, you apply g to each element, yielding $\{g(y_1), \ldots, g(y_n)\}$. But each of the $g(y_i)$ is a *set*. You want to "flatten" the set of sets so that you get the set of all possible values of both functions.

There is a `flatMap` for `Optional<T>` as well. Given a function `T -> Optional<U>`, `flatMap` unwraps the value in the `Optional` and applies the function, except if either the source or target option was not present. It does exactly what the set-based `flatMap` would have done on sets with size 0 or 1.

Generally, when you design a type `G<T>` and a function `T -> U`, think whether it makes sense to define a `map` that yields a `G<U>`. Then, generalize to functions `T -> G<U>` and, if appropriate, provide `flatMap`.

NOTE: These operations are important in the theory of monads, but you don't need to know the theory to understand `map` and `flatMap`. The concept of mapping a function is both straightforward and useful, and the point of this section is to make you aware of it.

Exercises

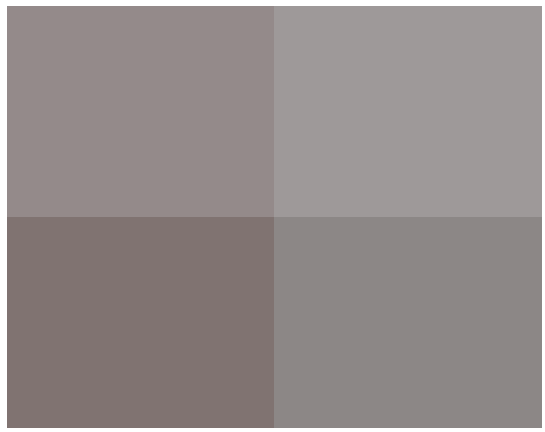
1. Enhance the lazy logging technique by providing conditional logging. A typical call would be `logIf(Level.FINEST, () -> i == 10, () -> "a[10] = " + a[10])`. Don't evaluate the condition if the logger won't log the message.
2. When you use a `ReentrantLock`, you are required to lock and unlock with the idiom

   ```
   myLock.lock();
   try {
      some action
   } finally {
      myLock.unlock();
   }
   ```

   Provide a method `withLock` so that one can call

   ```
   withLock(myLock, () -> { some action })
   ```

3. Java 1.4 added assertions to the language, with an `assert` keyword. Why were assertions not supplied as a library feature? Could they be implemented as a library feature in Java 8?
4. How many functional interfaces with `Filter` in their name can you find in the Java API? Which ones add value over `Predicate<T>`?
5. Here is a concrete example of a `ColorTransformer`. We want to put a frame around an image, like this:



First, implement a variant of the `transform` method of Section 3.3, "Choosing a Functional Interface," on page 50, with a `ColorTransformer` instead of an `UnaryOperator<Color>`. Then call it with an appropriate lambda expression to put a 10 pixel gray frame replacing the pixels on the border of an image.

6. Complete the method

```
public static <T> Image transform(Image in, BiFunction<Color, T, Color> f, T arg)
```

from Section 3.4, "Returning Functions," on page 53.

7. Write a method that generates a `Comparator<String>` that can be normal or reversed, case-sensitive or case-insensitive, space-sensitive or space-insensitive, or any combination thereof. Your method should return a lambda expression.
8. Generalize Exercise 5 by writing a static method that yields a `ColorTransformer` that adds a frame of arbitrary thickness and color to an image.
9. Write a method `lexicographicComparator(String... fieldNames)` that yields a comparator that compares the given fields in the given order. For example, a `lexicographicComparator("lastname", "firstname")` takes two objects and, using reflection, gets the values of the `lastname` field. If they are different, return the difference, otherwise move on to the `firstname` field. If all fields match, return `0`.
10. Why can't one call

```
UnaryOperator op = Color::brighter;
Image finalImage = transform(image, op.compose(Color::grayscale));
```

Look carefully at the return type of the `compose` method of `UnaryOperator<T>`. Why is it not appropriate for the `transform` method? What does that say about

the utility of structural and nominal types when it comes to function composition?

11. Implement static methods that can compose two `ColorTransformer` objects, and a static method that turns a `UnaryOperator<Color>` into a `ColorTransformer` that ignores the *x*- and *y*-coordinates. Then use these methods to add a gray frame to a brightened image. (See Exercise 5 for the gray frame.)
12. Enhance the `LatentImage` class in Section 3.6, "Laziness," on page 56, so that it supports both `UnaryOperator<Color>` and `ColorTransformer`. Hint: Adapt the former to the latter.
13. Convolution filters such as blur or edge detection compute a pixel from neighboring pixels. To blur an image, replace each color value by the average of itself and its eight neighbors. For edge detection, replace each color value c with $4c - n - e - s - w$, where the other colors are those of the pixel to the north, east, south, and west. Note that these cannot be implemented lazily, using the approach of Section 3.6, "Laziness," on page 56, since they require the image from the previous stage (or at least the neighboring pixels) to have been computed. Enhance the lazy image processing to deal with these operations. Force computation of the previous stage when one of these operators is evaluated.
14. To deal with lazy evaluation on a per-pixel basis, change the transformers so that they are passed a `PixelReader` object from which they can read other pixels in the image. For example, `(x, y, reader) -> reader.get(width - x, y)` is a mirroring operation. The convolution filters from the preceding exercises can be easily implemented in terms of such a reader. The straightforward operations would simply have the form `(x, y, reader) -> reader.get(x, y).grayscale()`, and you can provide an adapter from `UnaryOperation<Color>`. A `PixelReader` is at a particular level in the pipeline of operations. Keep a cache of recently read pixels at each level in the pipeline. If a reader is asked for a pixel, it looks in the cache (or in the original image at level 0); if that fails, it constructs a reader that asks the previous transform.
15. Combine the lazy evaluation of Section 3.6, "Laziness," on page 56, with the parallel evaluation of Section 3.7, "Parallelizing Operations," on page 57.
16. Implement the `doInOrderAsync` of Section 3.8, "Dealing with Exceptions," on page 58, where the second parameter is a `BiConsumer<T, Throwable>`. Provide a plausible use case. Do you still need the third parameter?
17. Implement a `doInParallelAsync(Runnable first, Runnable second, Consumer<Throwable>)` method that executes `first` and `second` in parallel, calling the handler if either method throws an exception.

18. Implement a version of the `unchecked` method in Section 3.8, "Dealing with Exceptions," on page 58, that generates a `Function<T, U>` from a lambda that throws checked exceptions. Note that you will need to find or provide a functional interface whose abstract method throws arbitrary exceptions.
19. Look at the `Stream<T>` method `<U> U reduce(U identity, BiFunction<U,? super T,U> accumulator, BinaryOperator<U> combiner)`. Should `U` be declared as `? super U` in the first type argument to `BiFunction`? Why or why not?
20. Supply a static method `<T, U> List<U> map(List<T>, Function<T, U>)`.
21. Supply a static method `<T, U> Future<U> map(Future<T>, Function<T, U>)`. Return an object of an anonymous class that implements all methods of the `Future` interface. In the `get` methods, invoke the function.
22. Is there a `flatMap` operation for `CompletableFuture`? If so, what is it?
23. Define a `map` operation for a class `Pair<T>` that represents a pair of objects of type `T`.
24. Can you define a `flatMap` method for `Pair<T>`? If so, what is it? If not, why not?

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