CSE 3220

Review of Object-Oriented Programming and Java

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also based on course materials by Stuart Reges
http://www.cs.washington.edu/331/

Primitives vs. objects; value and reference semantics

A swap method?

- Does the following `swap` method work? Why or why not?

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int a = 7;
    int b = 35;

    // swap a with b?
    swap(a, b);

    System.out.println(a + " " + b);
}

public static void swap(int a, int b) {
    int temp = a;
    a = b;
    b = temp;
}
```


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Value semantics

- **value semantics**: Behavior where values are copied when assigned, passed as parameters, or returned.
  - All primitive types in Java use value semantics.
  - When one variable is assigned to another, its value is copied.
  - Modifying the value of one variable does not affect others.

```
int x = 5;
int y = x;        // x = 5, y = 5
y = 17;           // x = 5, y = 17
x = 8;            // x = 8, y = 17
```


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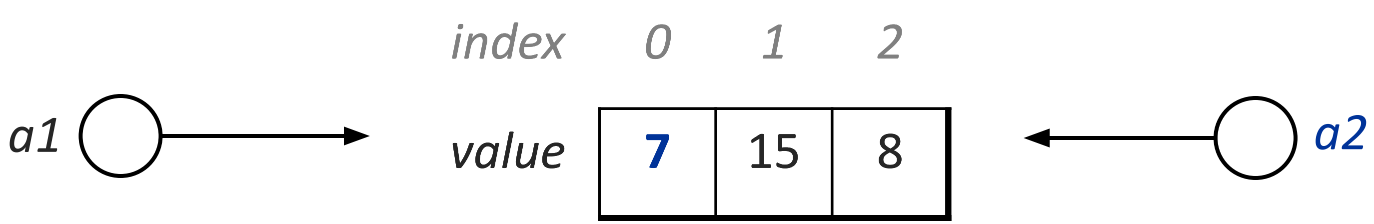
Reference semantics (objects)

- **reference semantics**: Behavior where variables actually store the address of an object in memory.
  - When one variable is assigned to another, the object is *not* copied; both variables refer to the *same object*.
  - Modifying the value of one variable *will* affect others.

```
int[] a1 = {4, 15, 8};
int[] a2 = a1;          // refer to same array as a1
a2[0] = 7;
System.out.println(Arrays.toString(a1)); // [7, 15, 8]
```



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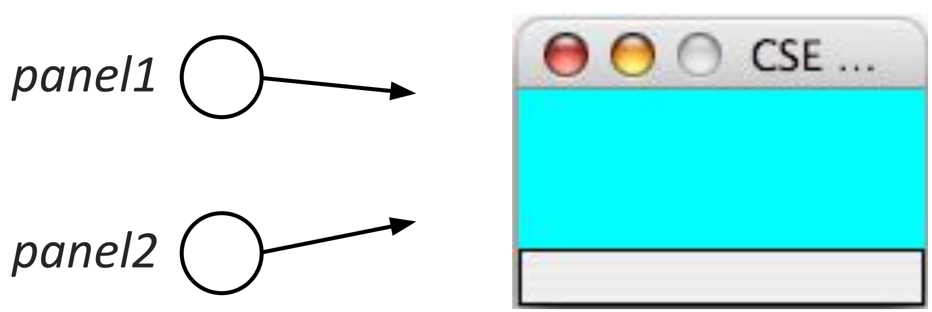
References and objects

- Arrays and objects use reference semantics. Why?
  - *efficiency.* Copying large objects slows down a program.
  - *sharing.* It's useful to share an object's data among methods.

```
DrawingPanel panel1 = new DrawingPanel(80, 50);
DrawingPanel panel2 = panel1;    // same window
panel2.setBackground(Color.CYAN);
```



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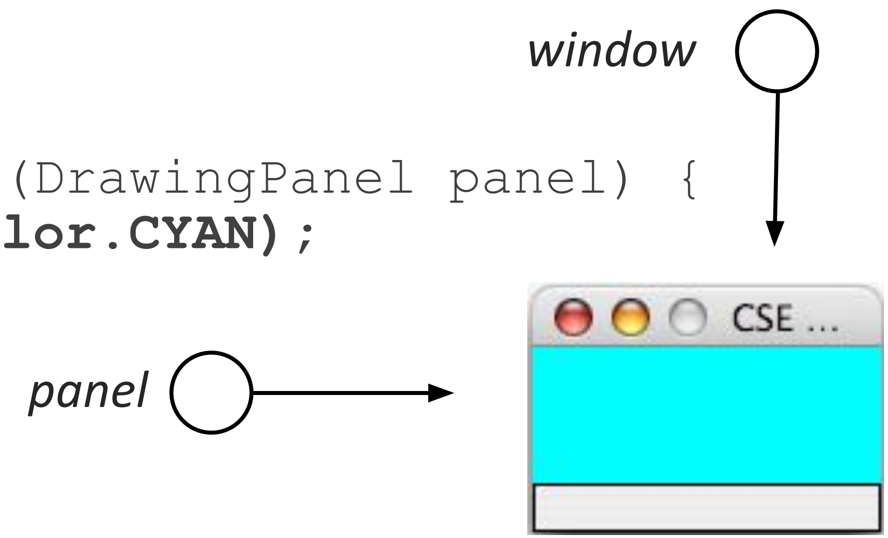
Objects as parameters

- When an object is passed as a parameter, the object is *not* copied. The parameter refers to the same object.
  - If the parameter is modified, it *will* affect the original object.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    DrawingPanel window = new DrawingPanel(80, 50);
    window.setBackground(Color.YELLOW);
    example(window);
}

public static void example(DrawingPanel panel) {
    panel.setBackground(Color.CYAN);
    ...
}
```



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Arrays as parameters

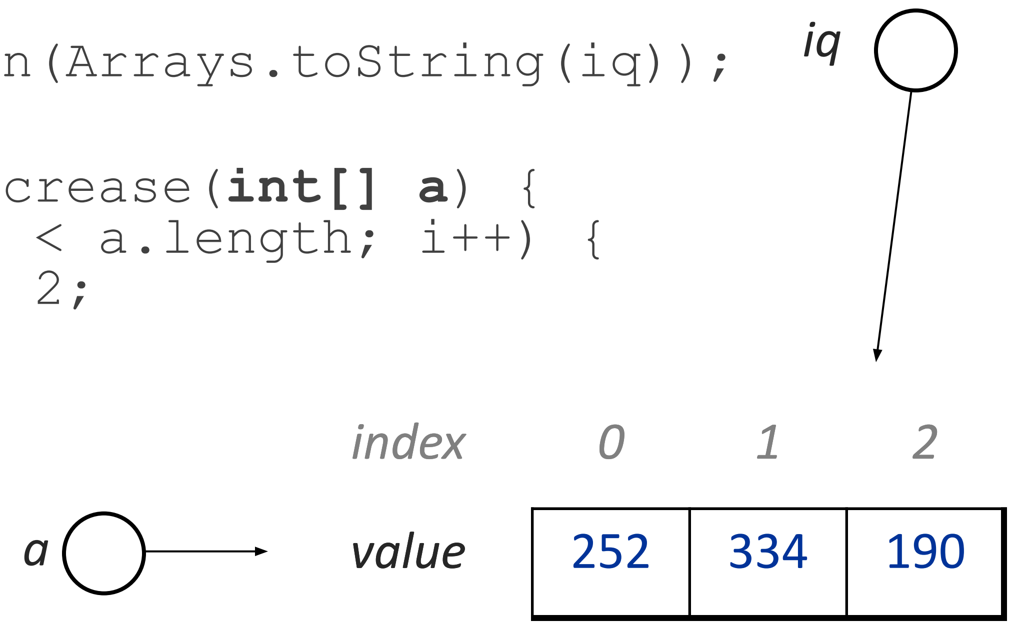
- Arrays are also passed as parameters by reference.
  - Changes made in the method are also seen by the caller.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[] iq = {126, 167, 95};
    increase(iq);
    System.out.println(Arrays.toString(iq));
}

public static void increase(int[] a) {
    for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
        a[i] = a[i] * 2;
    }
}
```

  - Output:

```
[252, 334, 190]
```



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Arrays pass by reference

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```
public static void main(String[] args) {
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    increase(iq);
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}

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```
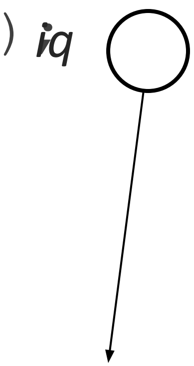
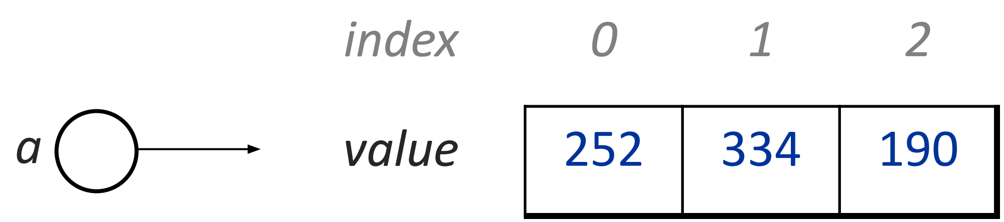



  - Output:

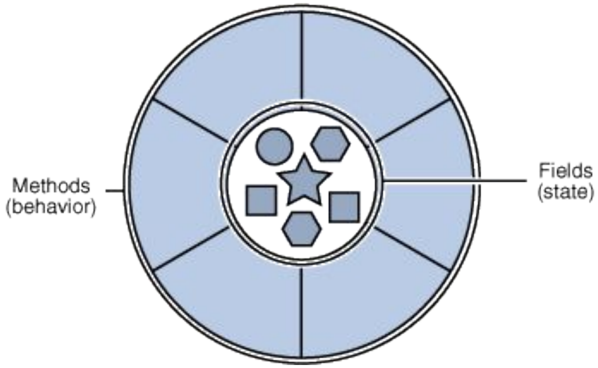
```
[252, 334, 190]
```



Classes and Objects

Objects

- **object:** An entity that encapsulates data and behavior.
  - *data*: variables inside the object
  - *behavior*: methods inside the object
    - You interact with the methods; the data is hidden in the object.



- Constructing (creating) an object:

  Type objectName = `new` **Type** (**parameters**) ;

- Calling an object's method:

  objectName . methodName (**parameters**) ;

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Classes

- **class**: A program entity that represents either:
  1. A program / module, or
  2. A template for a new type of objects.

– **object-oriented programming (OOP)**: Programs that perform their behavior as interactions between objects.

  – **abstraction**: Separation between concepts and details. Objects and classes provide abstraction in programming.

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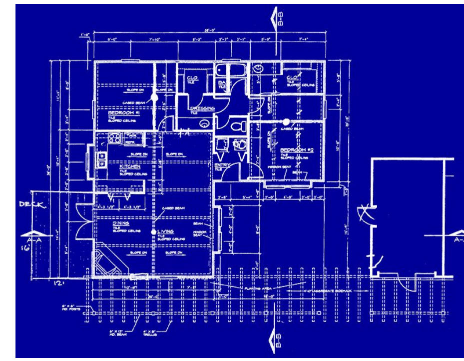
Blueprint analogy



iPod blueprint

state:
current song
volume
battery life

behavior:
power on/off
change station/song
change volume
choose random song

creates

iPod #1

state:
song = "1,000,000 Miles"
volume = 17
battery life = 2.5 hrs

behavior:
power on/off
change station/song
change volume
choose random song

iPod #2

state:
song = "Letting You"
volume = 9
battery life = 3.41 hrs

behavior:
power on/off
change station/song
change volume
choose random song

iPod #3

state:
song = "Discipline"
volume = 24
battery life = 1.8 hrs

behavior:
power on/off
change station/song
change volume
choose random song

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`Point` objects

```
import java.awt.*;
...
Point p1 = new Point(5, -2);
Point p2 = new Point();         // origin (0, 0)
```

- Data:

Name	Description
`x`	the point's x-coordinate
`y`	the point's y-coordinate

- Methods:

Name	Description
`setLocation(`**x**`, `**y**`)`	sets the point's x and y to the given values
`translate(`**dx**`, `**dy**`)`	adjusts the point's x and y by the given amounts
`distance(`**p**`)`	how far away the point is from point *p*

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`Point` class as blueprint

Point class

state each object should receive:

```
int x, y
```

behavior each object should receive:

```
setLocation(int x, int y)
translate(int dx, int dy)
distance(Point p)
```

Point object #1

state:

```
x = 51    y = -2
```

behavior:

```
setLocation(int x, int y)
translate(int dx, int dy)
distance(Point p)
```

Point object #2

state:

```
x = -24    y = 137
```

behavior:

```
setLocation(int x, int y)
translate(int dx, int dy)
distance(Point p)
```

Point object #3

state:

```
x = 18    y = 42
```

behavior:

```
setLocation(int x, int y)
translate(int dx, int dy)
distance(Point p)
```

- The class (blueprint) describes how to create objects.
- Each object contains its own data and methods.
  - The methods operate on that object's data.

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Clients of objects

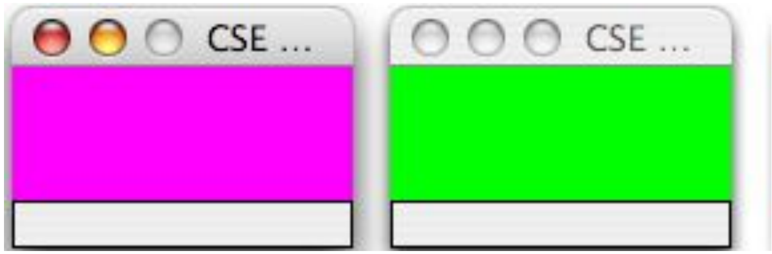
- **client program**: A program that uses objects.
  - Example: `Bomb` is a client of `DrawingPanel` and `Graphics`.

<u>`Bomb.java` (client program)</u>

```
public class Bomb {
    main(String[] args) {
        new DrawingPanel(...)
        new DrawingPanel(...)
        ...
    }
}
```

<u>`DrawingPanel.java` (class)</u>

```
public class DrawingPanel {
    ...
}
```



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Fields

- **field**: A variable inside an object that is part of its state.
  - Each object has *its own copy* of each field.

- Declaration syntax:

```
private type name;
```

  - Example:

```
public class Point {
    private int x;
    private int y;

    ...
}
```


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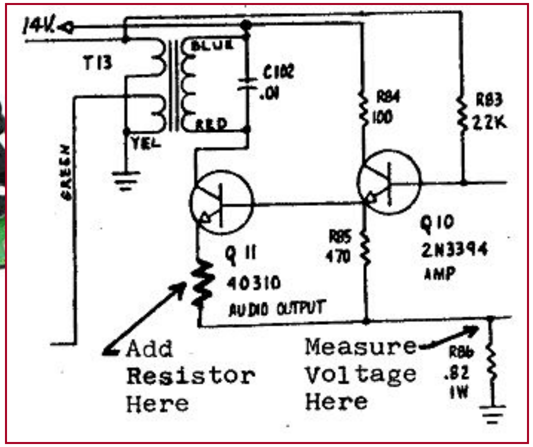
Encapsulation

- **encapsulation**: Hiding implementation details from clients.
  - Encapsulation enforces *abstraction*.
    - separates external view (behavior) from internal view (state)
    - protects the integrity of an object's data



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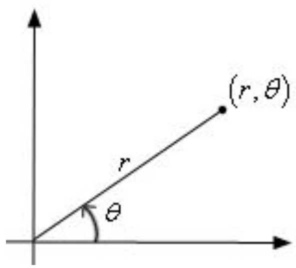
Benefits of encapsulation

- Abstraction between object and clients
- Protects object from unwanted access
  - Example: Can't fraudulently increase an `Account`'s balance.
- Can change the class implementation later
  - Example: `Point` could be rewritten in polar coordinates (r, θ) with the same methods.



- Can constrain objects' state (**invariants**)
  - Example: Only allow `Account`s with non-negative balance.
  - Example: Only allow `Date`s with a month from 1-12.

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Instance methods

- **instance method** (or **object method**): Exists inside each object of a class and gives behavior to each object.

```
public type name(parameters) {
    statements;
}
```

  - same syntax as static methods, but without `static` keyword

Example:

```
public void tranlate(int dx, int dy) {
    x += dx;
    y += dy;
}
```

The implicit parameter

- **implicit parameter**:
  The object on which an instance method is being called.
  - If we have a `Point` object `p1` and call `p1.translate(5, 3);` the object referred to by `p1` is the implicit parameter.
  - If we have a `Point` object `p2` and call `p2.translate(4, 1);` the object referred to by `p2` is the implicit parameter.
  - The instance method can refer to that object's fields.
    - We say that it executes in the *context* of a particular object.
    - `translate` can refer to the `x` and `y` of the object it was called on.

Categories of methods

- **accessor**: A method that lets clients examine object state.
  - Examples: `distance`, `distanceFromOrigin`
  - often has a non-`void` return type

- **mutator**: A method that modifies an object's state.
  - Examples: `setLocation`, `translate`

- **helper**: Assists some other method in performing its task.
  - often declared as private so outside clients cannot call it

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The `toString` method

tells Java how to convert an object into a `String` for printing

```
public String toString() {
    code that returns a String representing this object;
}
```

- Method name, return, and parameters must match *exactly*.
- Example:

```
// Returns a String representing this Point.
public String toString() {
    return "(" + x + ", " + y + ")";
}
```


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Constructors

- **constructor**: Initializes the state of new objects.

```
public type(parameters) {
     statements;
}
```

  - runs when the client uses the `new` keyword
  - no return type is specified; implicitly "returns" the new object

```
public class Point {
    private int x;
    private int y;

    public Point(int initialX, int initialY) {
        x = initialX;
        y = initialY;
    }
```


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Multiple constructors

- A class can have multiple constructors.
  - Each one must accept a unique set of parameters.

- *Example:* A `Point` constructor with no parameters that initializes the point to (0, 0).

```
// Constructs a new point at (0, 0).
public Point() {
    x = 0;
    y = 0;
}
```


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The keyword `this`

- **`this`** : Refers to the implicit parameter inside your class.

  (a variable that stores the object on which a method is called)

  - Refer to a field: `this.`**field**
  - Call a method: `this.`**method**`(`**parameters**`);`
  - One constructor `this(`**parameters**`);`
    can call another:

Calling another constructor

```
public class Point {
    private int x;
    private int y;

    public Point() {
        this(0, 0);
    }

    public Point(int x, int y) {
        this.x = x;
        this.y = y;
    }
    ...
}
```

- Avoids redundancy between constructors
- Only a constructor (not a method) can call another constructor

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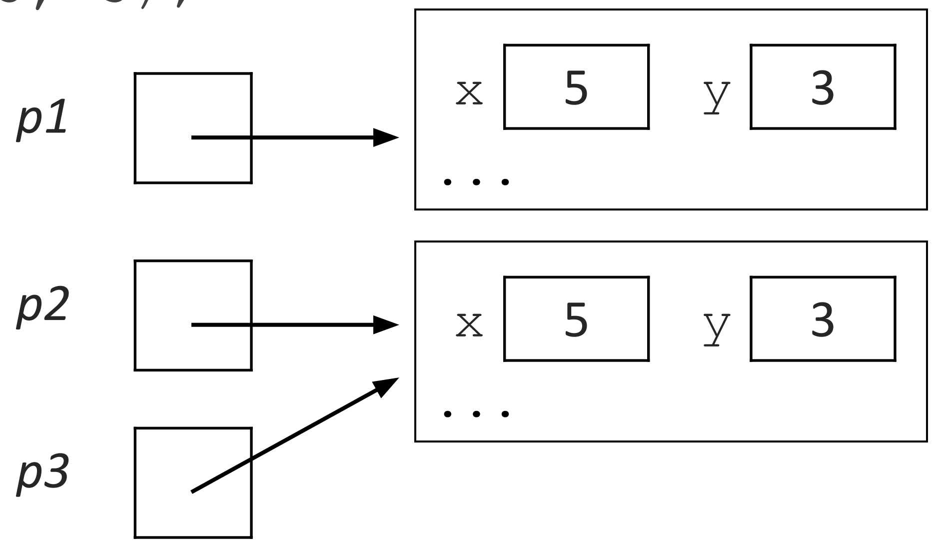
Comparing objects for equality and ordering

Comparing objects

- The == operator does not work well with objects.
  - == compares references to objects, not their state.
  - It only produces `true` when you compare an object to itself.

```
Point p1 = new Point(5, 3);
Point p2 = new Point(5, 3);
Point p3 = p2;

// p1 == p2 is false;
// p1 == p3 is false;
// p2 == p3 is true
```



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The `equals` method

- The `equals` method compares the state of objects.

```
if (str1.equals(str2)) {
    System.out.println("the strings are equal");
}
```

- But if you write a class, its `equals` method behaves like `==`

```
if (p1.equals(p2)) {    // false :-(
    System.out.println("equal");
}
```

  - This is the default behavior we receive from class `Object`.
  - Java doesn't understand how to compare new classes by default.

The `compareTo` method (10.2)

- The standard way for a Java class to define a comparison function for its objects is to define a `compareTo` method.
  - Example: in the `String` class, there is a method:

    `public int compareTo(String other)`

- A call of **A**`.compareTo(`**B**`)` will return:

  a value <0 if **A** comes "before" **B** in the ordering,

  a value >0 if **A** comes "after" **B** in the ordering,

  or 0 if **A** and **B** are considered "equal" in the ordering.

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Using `compareTo`

- `compareTo` can be used as a test in an `if` statement.

```
String a = "alice";
String b = "bob";
if (a.compareTo(b) < 0) {   // true
    ...
}
```

Primitives	Objects
`if (a < b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) < 0) { ...`
`if (a <= b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) <= 0) { ...`
`if (a == b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) == 0) { ...`
`if (a != b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) != 0) { ...`
`if (a >= b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) >= 0) { ...`
`if (a > b) { ...`	`if (a.compareTo(b) > 0) { ...`

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`compareTo` and collections

- You can use an array or list of strings with Java's included binary search method because it calls `compareTo` internally.

```
String[] a = {"al", "bob", "cari", "dan", "mike"};
int index = Arrays.binarySearch(a, "dan");  // 3
```

- Java's `TreeSet/Map` use `compareTo` internally for ordering.

```
Set<String> set = new TreeSet<String>();
for (String s : a) {
    set.add(s);
}
System.out.println(s);
// [al, bob, cari, dan, mike]
```


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Comparable (10.2)

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

- A class can implement the `Comparable` interface to define a natural ordering function for its objects.

- A call to your `compareTo` method should return:

  a value < 0 if `this` object comes "before" the `other` object,

  a value > 0 if `this` object comes "after" the `other` object,

  or 0 if `this` object is considered "equal" to the `other`.

- If you want multiple orderings, use a `Comparator` instead (see Ch. 13.1)

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Comparable template

```
public class name implements Comparable<name> {

    ...

    public int compareTo(name other) {
        ...
    }
}
```


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Comparable example

```
public class Point implements Comparable<Point> {
    private int x;
    private int y;
    ...

    // sort by x and break ties by y
    public int compareTo(Point other) {
        if (x < other.x) {
            return -1;
        } else if (x > other.x) {
            return 1;
        } else if (y < other.y) {
            return -1;    // same x, smaller y
        } else if (y > other.y) {
            return 1;     // same x, larger y
        } else {
            return 0;     // same x and same y
        }
    }
}
```


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`compareTo` tricks

- *subtraction trick* - Subtracting related numeric values produces the right result for what you want `compareTo` to return:

```
// sort by x and break ties by y
public int compareTo(Point other) {
    if (x != other.x) {
        return x - other.x;    // different x
    } else {
        return y - other.y;    // same x; compare y
    }
}
```

  - The idea:
    - if `x > other.x`, then `x - other.x > 0`
    - if `x < other.x`, then `x - other.x < 0`
    - if `x == other.x`, then `x - other.x == 0`
      - NOTE: This trick doesn't work for `doubles` (but see `Math.signum`)

`compareTo` tricks 2

- *delegation trick* - If your object's fields are comparable (such as strings), use their `compareTo` results to help you:

```
// sort by employee name, e.g. "Jim" < "Susan"
public int compareTo(Employee other) {
    return name.compareTo(other.getName());
}
```

- *`toString` trick* - If your object's `toString` representation is related to the ordering, use that to help you:

```
// sort by date, e.g. "09/19" > "04/01"
public int compareTo(Date other) {
    return toString().compareTo(other.toString());
}
```


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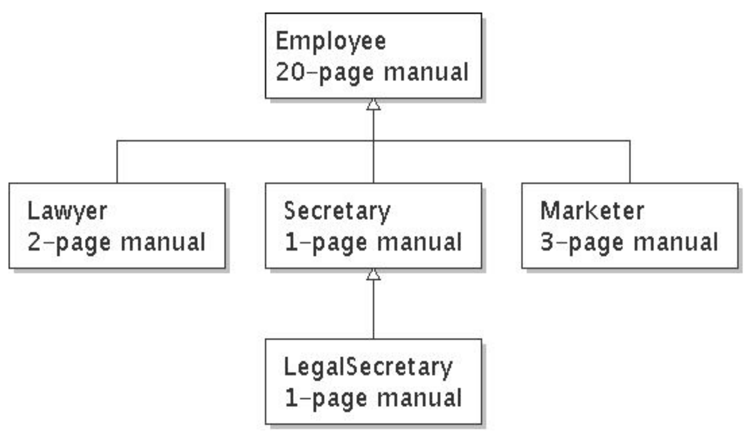
Inheritance

Inheritance

- **inheritance**: Forming new classes based on existing ones.
  - a way to share/**reuse code** between two or more classes
  - **superclass**: Parent class being extended.
  - **subclass**: Child class that inherits behavior from superclass.
    - gets a copy of every field and method from superclass
  - **is-a relationship**: Each object of the subclass also "is a(n)" object of the superclass and can be treated as one.



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Inheritance syntax

```
public class name extends superclass {
```

- Example:

```
public class Lawyer extends Employee {
    ...
}
```

- By extending `Employee`, each `Lawyer` object now:
  - receives a copy of each method from `Employee` automatically
  - can be treated as an `Employee` by client code
- Lawyer can also replace ("override") behavior from Employee.

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Overriding Methods

- **override**: To write a new version of a method in a subclass that replaces the superclass's version.
  - No special syntax required to override a superclass method. Just write a new version of it in the subclass.

```
public class Lawyer extends Employee {
    // overrides getVacationForm in Employee class
    public String getVacationForm() {
        return "pink";
    }
    ...
}
```


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The super keyword

- A subclass can call its parent's method/constructor:

```
super.method(parameters)      // method
super(parameters);            // constructor
```

```
public class Lawyer extends Employee {
    public Lawyer(String name) {
        super(name);
    }

    // give Lawyers a $5K raise (better)
    public double getSalary() {
        double baseSalary = super.getSalary();
        return baseSalary + 5000.00;
    }
}
```


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Subclasses and fields

```
public class Employee {
    private double salary;
    ...
}

public class Lawyer extends Employee {
    ...
    public void giveRaise(double amount) {
        salary += amount;   // error; salary is private
    }
}
```

- Inherited private fields/methods cannot be directly accessed by subclasses. *(The subclass has the field, but it can't touch it.)*
  - How can we allow a subclass to access/modify these fields?

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Protected fields/methods

```
protected type name;     // field

protected type name(type name, ..., type name) {
    statement(s);        // method
}
```

- a **protected field** or **method** can be seen/called only by:
  - the class itself, and its subclasses
  - also by other classes in the same "package" (discussed later)
  - useful for allowing selective access to inner class implementation

```
public class Employee {
    protected double salary;
    ...
}
```


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Inheritance and constructors

- If we add a constructor to the `Employee` class, our subclasses do not compile. The error:

```
Lawyer.java:2: cannot find symbol
symbol  : constructor Employee()
location: class Employee
public class Lawyer extends Employee {
       ^
```

  - The short explanation: Once we write a constructor (that requires parameters) in the superclass, we must now write constructors for our employee subclasses as well.

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Inheritance and constructors

- Constructors are not inherited.
  - Subclasses don't inherit the `Employee(int)` constructor.
  - Subclasses receive a default constructor that contains:

```
public Lawyer() {
    super();          // calls Employee() constructor
}
```

- But our `Employee(int)` replaces the default `Employee()`.
  - The subclasses' default constructors are now trying to call a non-existent default `Employee` constructor.

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Calling superclass constructor

```
super(parameters);
```

- Example:

```
public class Lawyer extends Employee {
    public Lawyer(int years) {
        super(years);  // calls Employee c'tor
    }
    ...
}
```

- The `super` call must be the first statement in the constructor.

Polymorphism

Polymorphism

- **polymorphism**: Ability for the same code to be used with different types of objects and behave differently with each.

  - `System.out.println` can print any type of object.
    - Each one displays in its own way on the console.

  - `CritterMain` can interact with any type of critter.
    - Each one moves, fights, etc. in its own way.

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Coding with polymorphism

- A variable of type *T* can hold an object of any subclass of *T*.

```
Employee ed = new Lawyer();
```

  - You can call any methods from the `Employee` class on `ed`.

- When a method is called on `ed`, it behaves as a `Lawyer`.

```
System.out.println(ed.getSalary());        // 50000.0
System.out.println(ed.getVacationForm()); // pink
```

Polymorphic parameters

- You can pass any subtype of a parameter's type.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Lawyer lisa = new Lawyer();
    Secretary steve = new Secretary();
    printInfo(lisa);
    printInfo(steve);
}

public static void printInfo(Employee e) {
    System.out.println("pay  : " + e.getSalary());
    System.out.println("vdays: " + e.getVacationDays());
    System.out.println("vform: " + e.getVacationForm());
    System.out.println();
}
```

OUTPUT:

```
pay  : 50000.0    pay  : 50000.0
vdays: 15         vdays: 10
vform: pink       vform: yellow
```


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Polymorphism and arrays

- Arrays of superclass types can store any subtype as elements.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Employee[] e = {new Lawyer(),   new Secretary(),
                    new Marketer(), new LegalSecretary()};

    for (int i = 0; i < e.length; i++) {
        System.out.println("pay   : " + e[i].getSalary());
        System.out.println("vdays: " + i].getVacationDays());
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

Output:

```
pay   : 50000.0      pay   : 60000.0
vdays: 15            vdays: 10

pay   : 50000.0      pay   : 55000.0
vdays: 10            vdays: 10
```


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Casting references

- A variable can only call that type's methods, not a subtype's.

```
Employee ed = new Lawyer();
int hours = ed.getHours();  // ok; in Employee
ed.sue();                   // compiler error
```

  - The compiler's reasoning is, variable `ed` could store any kind of employee, and not all kinds know how to `sue` .

- To use `Lawyer` methods on `ed`, we can type-cast it.

```
Lawyer theRealEd = (Lawyer) ed;
theRealEd.sue();            // ok

((Lawyer) ed).sue();        // shorter version
```


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More about casting

- The code crashes if you cast an object too far down the tree.

```
Employee eric = new Secretary();
((Secretary) eric).takeDictation("hi");     // ok
((LegalSecretary) eric).fileLegalBriefs(); // error
//   (Secretary doesn't know how to file briefs)
```

- You can cast only up and down the tree, not sideways.

```
Lawyer linda = new Lawyer();
((Secretary) linda).takeDictation("hi");    // error
```

- Casting doesn't actually change the object's behavior. It just gets the code to compile/run.

```
((Employee) linda).getVacationForm()        // pink
```


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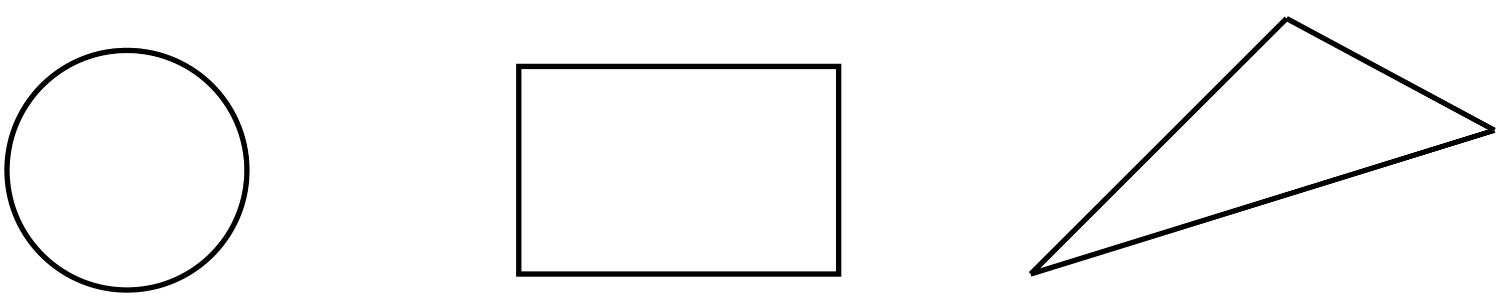
Interfaces

Shapes example

- Consider the task of writing classes to represent 2D shapes such as `Circle`, `Rectangle`, and `Triangle`.

- Certain operations are common to all shapes:
  - perimeter: distance around the outside of the shape
  - area: amount of 2D space occupied by the shape

  - Every shape has these, but each computes them differently.



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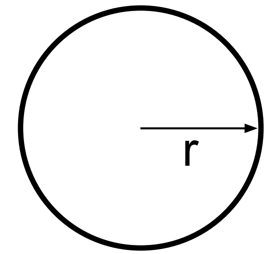
Shape area and perimeter

- Circle (as defined by radius *r*):

  area $= \pi r^2$

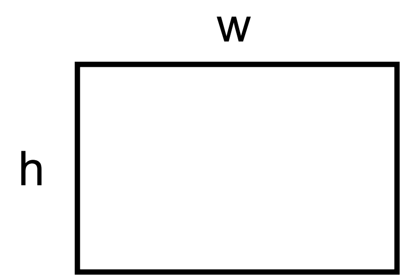
  perimeter $= 2 \pi r$



- Rectangle (as defined by width *w* and height *h*):

  area $= w h$

  perimeter $= 2w + 2h$

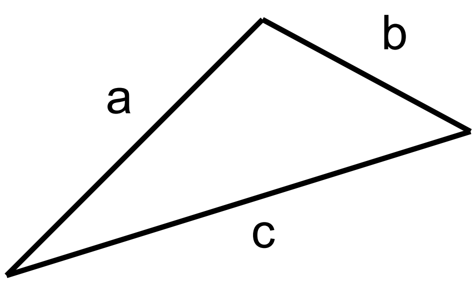


- Triangle (as defined by side lengths *a*, *b*, and *c*)

  area $= \sqrt{(s (s - a) (s - b) (s - c))}$

  where $s = ½ (a + b + c)$

  perimeter $= a + b + c$



Common behavior

- Suppose we have 3 classes `Circle`, `Rectangle`, `Triangle`.
  - Each has the methods `perimeter` and `area`.

- We'd like our client code to be able to treat different kinds of shapes in the same way:
  - Write a method that prints any shape's area and perimeter.
  - Create an array to hold a mixture of the various shape objects.
  - Write a method that could return a rectangle, a circle, a triangle, or any other kind of shape.
  - Make a `DrawingPanel` display many shapes on screen.

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Interfaces

- **interface**: A list of methods that a class can promise to implement.
  - Inheritance gives you an is-a relationship *and* code sharing.
    - A `Lawyer` can be treated as an `Employee` and inherits its code.
  - Interfaces give you an is-a relationship *without* code sharing.
    - A `Rectangle` object can be treated as a `Shape` but inherits no code.
  - Analogous to non-programming idea of roles or certifications:
    - "I'm certified as a CPA accountant.
      This assures you I know how to do taxes, audits, and consulting."
    - "I'm 'certified' as a Shape, because I implement the Shape interface.
      This assures you I know how to compute my area and perimeter."

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Interface syntax

```
public interface name {
    public type name(type name, ..., type name);
    public type name(type name, ..., type name);
    ...
    public type name(type name, ..., type name);
}
```

Example:

```
public interface Vehicle {
    public int getSpeed();
    public void setDirection(int direction);
}
```


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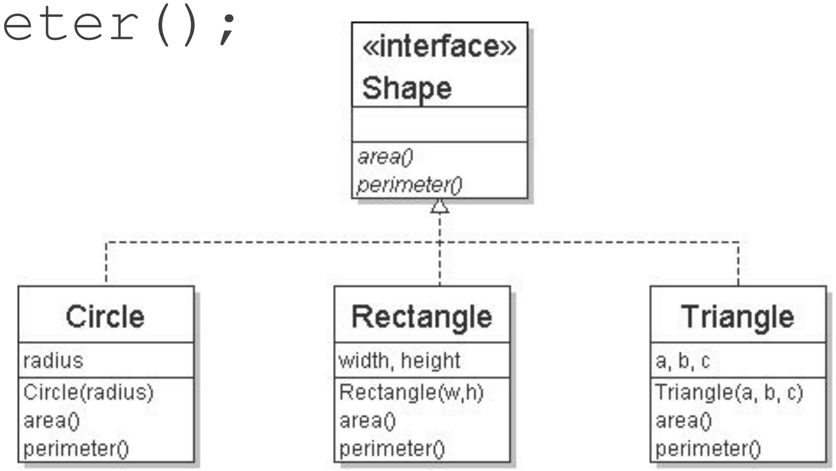
Shape interface

```java
// Describes features common to all shapes.
public interface Shape {
    public double area();
    public double perimeter();
}
```

- Saved as `Shape.java`



- **abstract method**: A header without an implementation.
  - The actual bodies are not specified, because we want to allow each class to implement the behavior in its own way.

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Implementing an interface

```
public class name implements interface {
    ...
}
```

- A class can declare that it "implements" an interface.
  - The class promises to contain each method in that interface.
    (Otherwise it will fail to compile.)
  - Example:

```
public class Bicycle implements Vehicle {
    ...
}
```

Interface requirements

```
public class Banana implements Shape {
    // haha, no methods! pwned
}
```

- If we write a class that claims to be a `Shape` but doesn't implement `area` and `perimeter` methods, it will not compile.

```
Banana.java:1: Banana is not abstract and does
not override abstract method area() in Shape
public class Banana implements Shape {
             ^
```


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Interfaces + polymorphism

- Interfaces benefit the *client code* author the most.
  - they allow **polymorphism**
    (the same code can work with different types of objects)

```
public static void printInfo(Shape s) {
    System.out.println("The shape: " + s);
    System.out.println("area : " + s.area());
    System.out.println("perim: " + s.perimeter());
    System.out.println();
}
...
Circle circ = new Circle(12.0);
Triangle tri = new Triangle(5, 12, 13);
printInfo(circ);
printInfo(tri);
```


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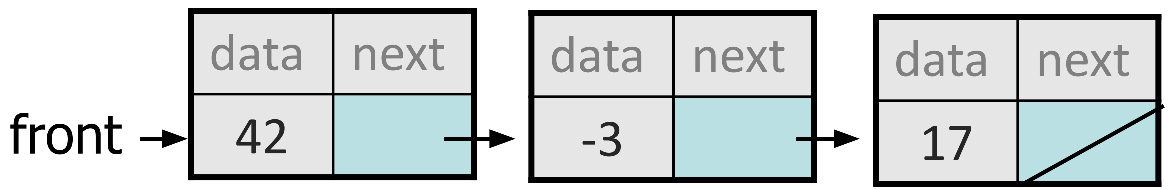
Abstract Classes

List classes example

- Suppose we have implemented the following two list classes:
  - `ArrayList`

index	0	1	2
value	42	-3	17

  - `LinkedList`



  - We have a `List` interface to indicate that both implement a List ADT.
  - Problem:
    - Some of their methods are implemented the same way (redundancy).

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Common code

- Notice that some of the methods are implemented the same way in both the array and linked list classes.
  - `add(`**value**`)`
  - `contains`
  - `isEmpty`

- Should we change our interface to a class? Why / why not?
  - How can we capture this common behavior?

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Abstract classes (9.6)

- **abstract class**: A hybrid between an interface and a class.
  - defines a superclass type that can contain method declarations (like an interface) and/or method bodies (like a class)
  - like interfaces, abstract classes that cannot be instantiated (cannot use `new` to create any objects of their type)

- What goes in an abstract class?
  - implementation of common state and behavior that will be inherited by subclasses (parent class role)
  - declare generic behaviors that subclasses implement (interface role)

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Abstract class syntax

```
// declaring an abstract class
public abstract class name {
    ...

    // declaring an abstract method
    // (any subclass must implement it)
    public abstract type name(parameters);

}
```

- A class can be `abstract` even if it has no abstract methods
- You can create variables (but not objects) of the abstract type

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Abstract and interfaces

- Normal classes that claim to implement an interface must implement all methods of that interface:

```
public class Empty implements List {}  // error
```

- Abstract classes can claim to implement an interface without writing its methods; subclasses must implement the methods.

```
public abstract class Empty implements List {} // ok
public class Child extends Empty {}            // error
```


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An abstract list class

```
// Superclass with common code for a list of integers.
public abstract class AbstractList implements List {
    public void add(int value) {
        add(size(), value);
    }

    public boolean contains(int value) {
        return indexOf(value) >= 0;
    }

    public boolean isEmpty() {
        return size() == 0;
    }
}


public class ArrayList extends AbstractList { ...

public class LinkedList extends AbstractList { ...
```


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Abstract class vs. interface

- Why do both interfaces and abstract classes exist in Java?
  - An abstract class can do everything an interface can do and more.
  - So why would someone ever use an interface?

- Answer: Java has single inheritance.
  - can extend only one superclass
  - can implement many interfaces

  - Having interfaces allows a class to be part of a hierarchy (polymorphism) without using up its inheritance relationship.

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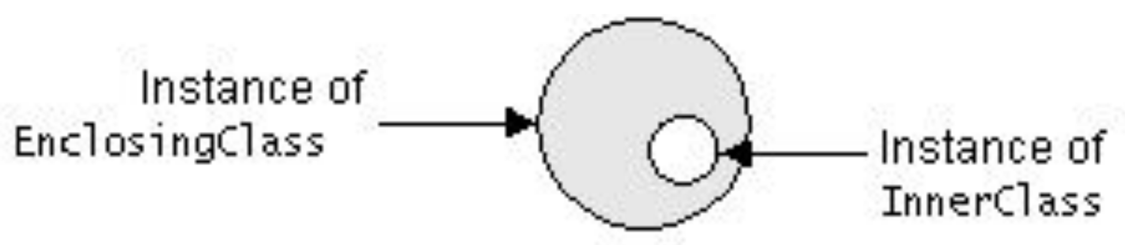
Inner Classes

Inner classes

- **inner class**: A class defined inside of another class.
  - can be created as `static` or non-static
  - we will focus on standard non-static ("nested") inner classes

- usefulness:
  - inner classes are hidden from other classes (encapsulated)
  - inner objects can access/modify the fields of the outer object



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Inner class syntax

```
// outer (enclosing) class
public class name {
    ...

    // inner (nested) class
    private class name {
        ...
    }
}
```

- Only this file can see the inner class or make objects of it.
- Each inner object is associated with the outer object that created it, so it can access/modify that outer object's methods/fields.
  - If necessary, can refer to outer object as **OuterClassName**`.this`

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Example: Array list iterator

```
public class ArrayList extends AbstractList {
    ...
    // not perfect; doesn't forbid multiple removes in a row
    private class ArrayIterator implements Iterator<Integer> {
        private int index;   // current position in list

        public ArrayIterator() {
            index = 0;
        }

        public boolean hasNext() {
            return index < size();
        }

        public E next() {
            index++;
            return get(index - 1);
        }

        public void remove() {
            ArrayList.this.remove(index - 1);
            index--;
        }
    }
}
```


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Collections

Collections

- **collection**: an object that stores data; a.k.a. "data structure"
  - the objects stored are called **elements**
  - some collections maintain an ordering; some allow duplicates
  - typical operations: *add*, *remove*, *clear*, *contains* (search), *size*

  - examples found in the Java class libraries:
    - `ArrayList`, `LinkedList`, `HashMap`, `TreeSet`, `PriorityQueue`

  - all collections are in the `java.util` package

```
import java.util.*;
```


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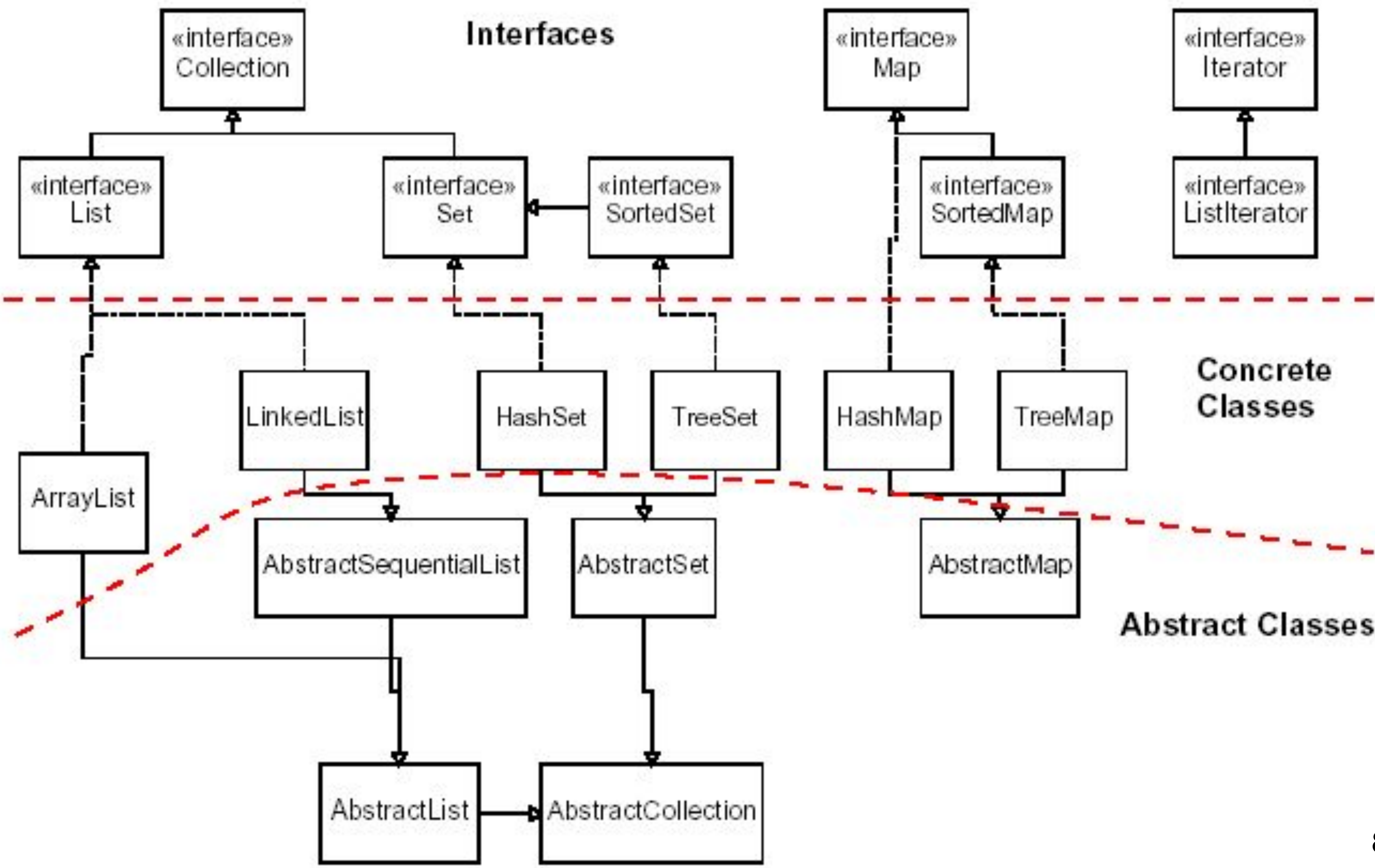
Java collection framework



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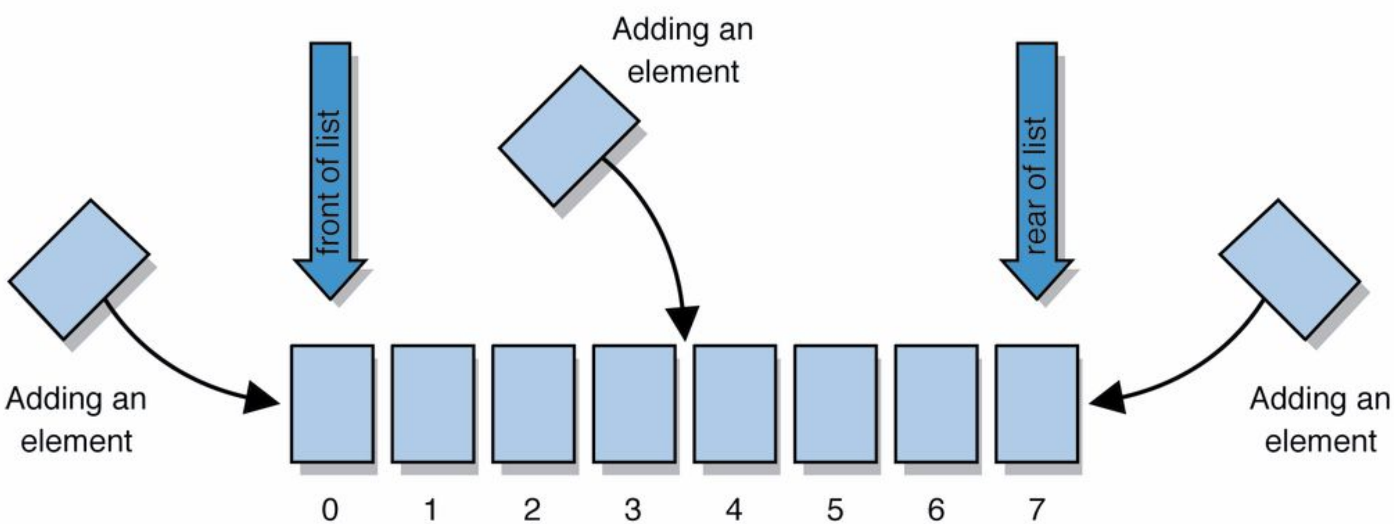
Lists

- **list**: a collection storing an ordered sequence of elements
  - each element is accessible by a 0-based **index**
  - a list has a **size** (number of elements that have been added)
  - elements can be added to the front, back, or elsewhere
  - in Java, a list can be represented as an `ArrayList` object



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Idea of a list

- Rather than creating an array of boxes, create an object that represents a "list" of items. (initially an empty list.)

```
[]
```

- You can add items to the list.
  - The default behavior is to add to the end of the list.

```
[hello, ABC, goodbye, okay]
```

- The list object keeps track of the element values that have been added to it, their order, indexes, and its total size.
  - Think of an "array list" as an automatically resizing array object.
  - Internally, the list is implemented using an array and a size field.

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`ArrayList` methods (10.1)

`add(`**value**`)`	appends value at end of list
`add(`**index**`, `**value**`)`	inserts given value just before the given index, shifting subsequent values to the right
`clear()`	removes all elements of the list
`indexOf(`**value**`)`	returns first index where given value is found in list (-1 if not found)
`get(`**index**`)`	returns the value at given index
`remove(`**index**`)`	removes/returns value at given index, shifting subsequent values to the left
`set(`**index**`, `**value**`)`	replaces value at given index with given value
`size()`	returns the number of elements in list
`toString()`	returns a string representation of the list such as `"[3, 42, -7, 15]"`

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`ArrayList` methods 2

`addAll(`**list**`)` `addAll(`**index**`, `**list**`)`	adds all elements from the given list to this list (at the end of the list, or inserts them at the given index)
`contains(`**value**`)`	returns true if given value is found somewhere in this list
`containsAll(`**list**`)`	returns true if this list contains every element from given list
`equals(`**list**`)`	returns true if given other list contains the same elements
`iterator()` `listIterator()`	returns an object used to examine the contents of the list
`lastIndexOf(`**value**`)`	returns last index value is found in list (-1 if not found)
`remove(`**value**`)`	finds and removes the given value from this list
`removeAll(`**list**`)`	removes any elements found in the given list from this list
`retainAll(`**list**`)`	removes any elements *not* found in given list from this list
`subList(`**from**`, `**to**`)`	returns the sub-portion of the list between indexes **from** (inclusive) and **to** (exclusive)
`toArray()`	returns the elements in this list as an array

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Type Parameters (Generics)

```
List<Type> name = new ArrayList<Type>();
```

- When constructing an `ArrayList`, you must specify the type of elements it will contain between < and >.
  - This is called a *type parameter* or a *generic* class.
  - Allows the same `ArrayList` class to store lists of different types.

```
List<String> names = new ArrayList<String>();
names.add("Marty Stepp");
names.add("Stuart Reges");
```


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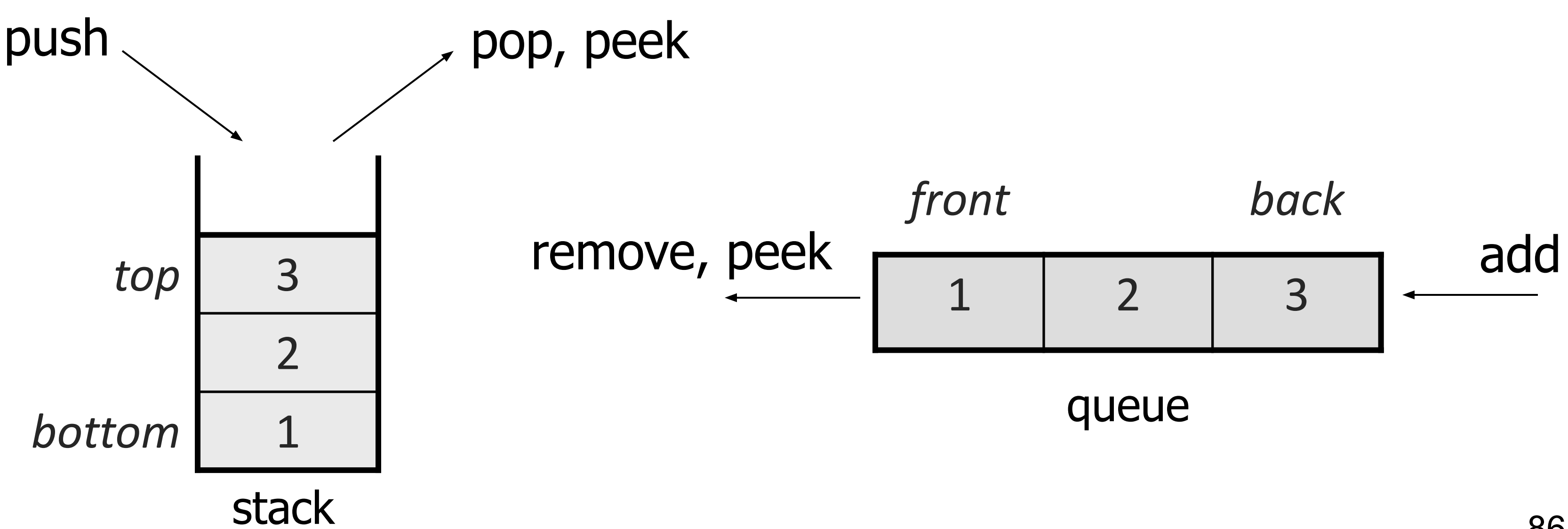
Stacks and queues

- Sometimes it is good to have a collection that is less powerful, but is optimized to perform certain operations very quickly.

- Two specialty collections:
  - **stack**: Retrieves elements in the reverse of the order they were added.
  - **queue**: Retrieves elements in the same order they were added.



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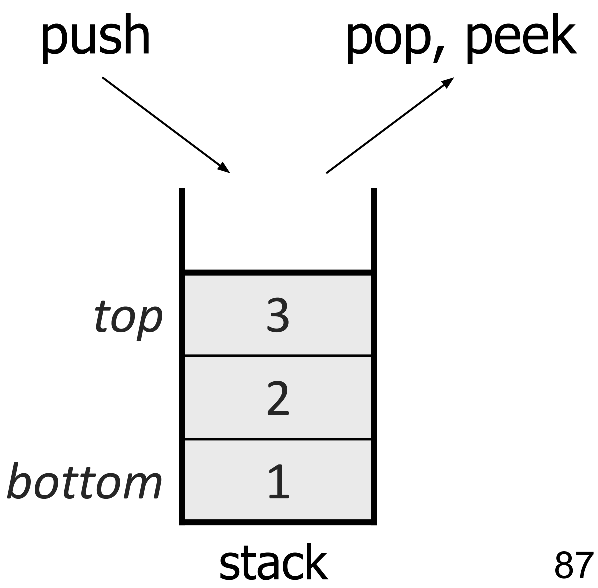
Stacks

- **stack**: A collection based on the principle of adding elements and retrieving them in the opposite order.
  - Last-In, First-Out ("LIFO")
  - The elements are stored in order of insertion, but we do not think of them as having indexes.
  - The client can only add/remove/examine the last element added (the "top").



- basic stack operations:
  - **push**: Add an element to the top.
  - **pop**: Remove the top element.
  - **peek**: Examine the top element.

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Class `Stack`

`Stack<`**E**`>()`	constructs a new stack with elements of type **E**
`push(`**value**`)`	places given value on top of stack
`pop()`	removes top value from stack and returns it; throws `EmptyStackException` if stack is empty
`peek()`	returns top value from stack without removing it; throws `EmptyStackException` if stack is empty
`size()`	returns number of elements in stack
`isEmpty()`	returns `true` if stack has no elements

```
Stack<Integer> s = new Stack<Integer>();
s.push(42);
s.push(-3);
s.push(17);                  // bottom [42, -3, 17] top

System.out.println(s.pop()); // 17
```

- `Stack` has other methods, but you should not use them.

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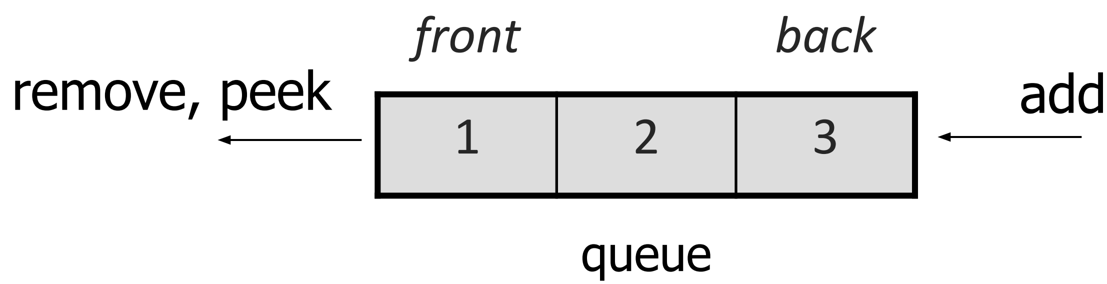
Queues

- **queue**: Retrieves elements in the order they were added.
  - First-In, First-Out ("FIFO")
  - Elements are stored in order of insertion but don't have indexes.
  - Client can only add to the end of the queue, and can only examine/remove the front of the queue.



- basic queue operations:
  - **add** (enqueue): Add an element to the back.
  - **remove** (dequeue): Remove the front element.
  - **peek**: Examine the front element.

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Programming with Queues

`add(`**value**`)`	places given value at back of queue
`remove()`	removes value from front of queue and returns it; throws a `NoSuchElementException` if queue is empty
`peek()`	returns front value from queue without removing it; returns `null` if queue is empty
`size()`	returns number of elements in queue
`isEmpty()`	returns `true` if queue has no elements

```
Queue<Integer> q = new LinkedList<Integer>();
q.add(42);
q.add(-3);
q.add(17);          // front [42, -3, 17] back

System.out.println(q.remove());   // 42
```

- **IMPORTANT**: When constructing a queue you must use a new `LinkedList` object instead of a new `Queue` object.

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Queue idioms

- As with stacks, must pull contents out of queue to view them.

```
// process (and destroy) an entire queue
while (!q.isEmpty()) {
    do something with q.remove();
}
```

  - another idiom: Examining each element exactly once.

```
int size = q.size();
for (int i = 0; i < size; i++) {
    do something with q.remove();
    (including possibly re-adding it to the queue)
}
```


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Abstract data types (ADTs)

- **abstract data type (ADT)**: A specification of a collection of data and the operations that can be performed on it.
  - Describes *what* a collection does, not *how* it does it

- We don't know exactly how a stack or queue is implemented, and we don't need to.
  - We just need to understand the idea of the collection and what operations it can perform.

(Stacks are usually implemented with arrays; queues are often implemented using another structure called a linked list.)

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ADTs as interfaces (11.1)

- **abstract data type (ADT)**: A specification of a collection of data and the operations that can be performed on it.
  - Describes *what* a collection does, not *how* it does it.

- Java's collection framework uses interfaces to describe ADTs:
  - `Collection`, `Deque`, `List`, `Map`, `Queue`, `Set`

- An ADT can be implemented in multiple ways by classes:
  - `ArrayList` and `LinkedList` implement `List`
  - `HashSet` and `TreeSet` implement `Set`
  - `LinkedList`, `ArrayDeque`, etc. implement `Queue`
    - They messed up on `Stack`; there's no `Stack` interface, just a class.

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Using ADT interfaces

When using Java's built-in collection classes:

- It is considered good practice to always declare collection variables using the corresponding ADT interface type:

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

- Methods that accept a collection as a parameter should also declare the parameter using the ADT interface type:

```
public void stutter(List<String> list) {
    ...
}
```


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Why use ADTs?

- Why would we want more than one kind of list, queue, etc.?

- Answer: Each implementation is more efficient at certain tasks.
  - `ArrayList` is faster for adding/removing at the end; `LinkedList` is faster for adding/removing at the front/middle. Etc.

  - You choose the optimal implementation for your task, and if the rest of your code is written to use the ADT interfaces, it will work.

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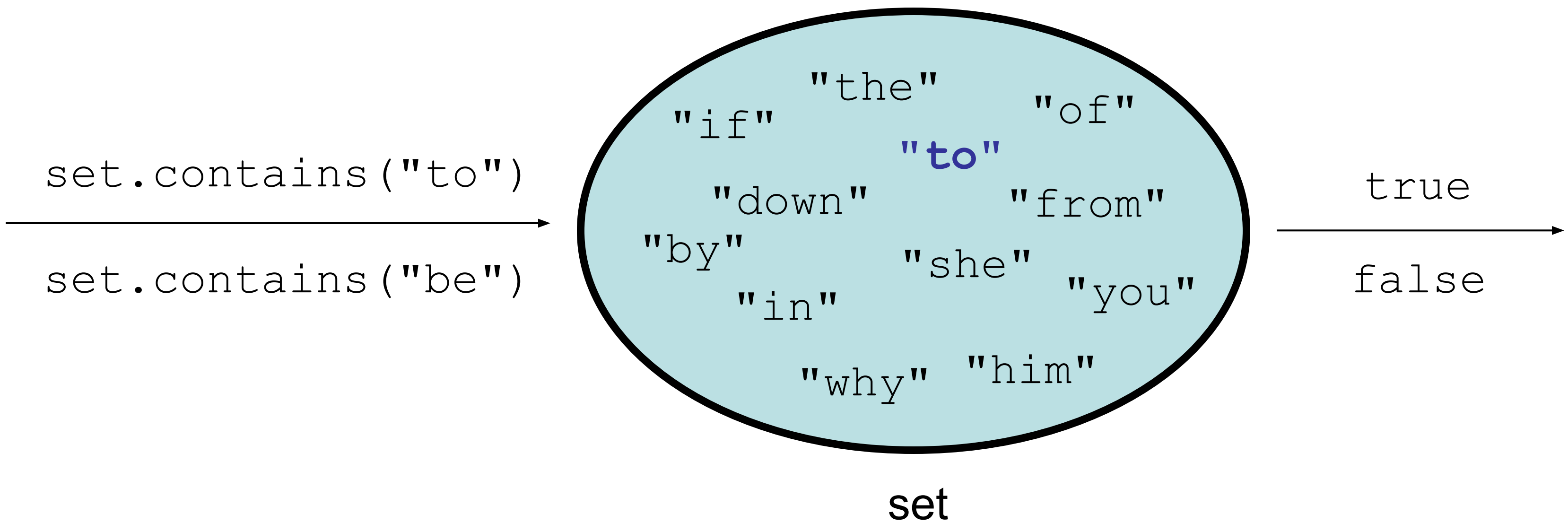
Sets

- **set**: A collection of unique values (no duplicates allowed) that can perform the following operations efficiently:
  - add, remove, search (contains)

  - We don't think of a set as having indexes; we just add things to the set in general and don't worry about order



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`Set` implementation

- in Java, sets are represented by `Set` interface in `java.util`
- `Set` is implemented by `HashSet` and `TreeSet` classes
  - `HashSet`: implemented using a "hash table" array;
    very fast: **O(1)** for all operations
    elements are stored in unpredictable order
  - `TreeSet`: implemented using a "binary search tree";
    pretty fast: **O(log N)** for all operations
    elements are stored in sorted order
  - `LinkedHashSet`: **O(1)** but stores in order of insertion

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Set methods

```
List<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
...
Set<Integer> set = new TreeSet<Integer>();      // empty
Set<String> set2 = new HashSet<String>(list);
```

- can construct an empty set, or one based on a given collection

`add(`**value**`)`	adds the given value to the set
`contains(`**value**`)`	returns `true` if the given value is found in this set
`remove(`**value**`)`	removes the given value from the set
`clear()`	removes all elements of the set
`size()`	returns the number of elements in list
`isEmpty()`	returns `true` if the set's size is 0
`toString()`	returns a string such as `"[3, 42, -7, 15]"`

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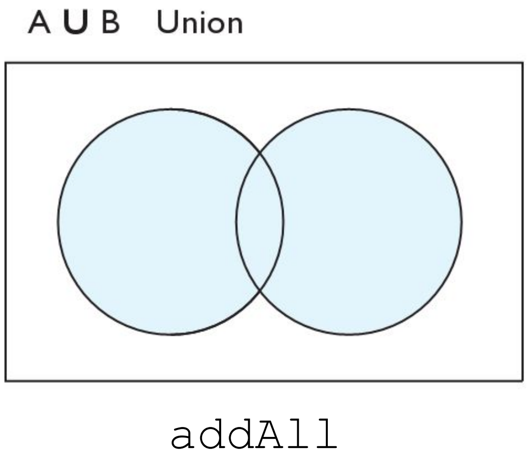
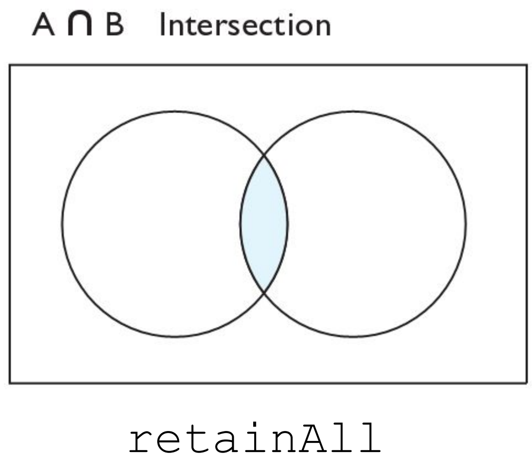
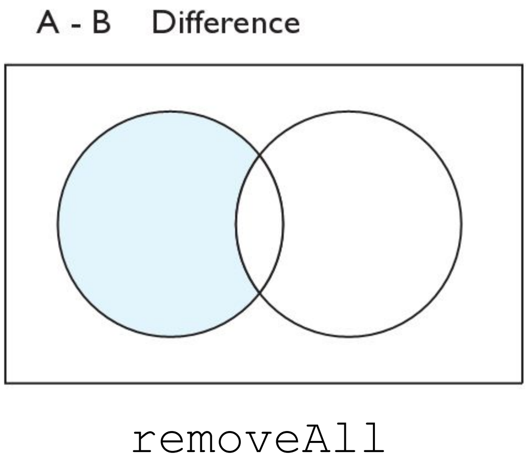
Set operations







`addAll(`**collection**`)`	adds all elements from the given collection to this set
`containsAll(`**coll**`)`	returns `true` if this set contains every element from given set
`equals(`**set**`)`	returns `true` if given other set contains the same elements
`iterator()`	returns an object used to examine set's contents *(seen later)*
`removeAll(`**coll**`)`	removes all elements in the given collection from this set
`retainAll(`**coll**`)`	removes elements *not* found in given collection from this set
`toArray()`	returns an array of the elements in this set

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Sets and ordering

- `HashSet` : elements are stored in an unpredictable order

```
Set<String> names = new HashSet<String>();
names.add("Jake");
names.add("Robert");
names.add("Marisa");
names.add("Kasey");
System.out.println(names);
// [Kasey, Robert, Jake, Marisa]
```

- `TreeSet` : elements are stored in their "natural" sorted order

```
Set<String> names = new TreeSet<String>();
...
// [Jake, Kasey, Marisa, Robert]
```

- `LinkedHashSet` : elements stored in order of insertion

```
Set<String> names = new LinkedHashSet<String>();
...
// [Jake, Robert, Marisa, Kasey]
```


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The "for each" loop (7.1)

```
for (type name : collection) {
    statements;
}
```

- Provides a clean syntax for looping over the elements of a `Set`, `List`, array, or other collection

```
Set<Double> grades = new HashSet<Double>();
...

for (double grade : grades) {
    System.out.println("Student's grade: " + grade);
}
```

  - needed because sets have no indexes; can't `get` element `i`

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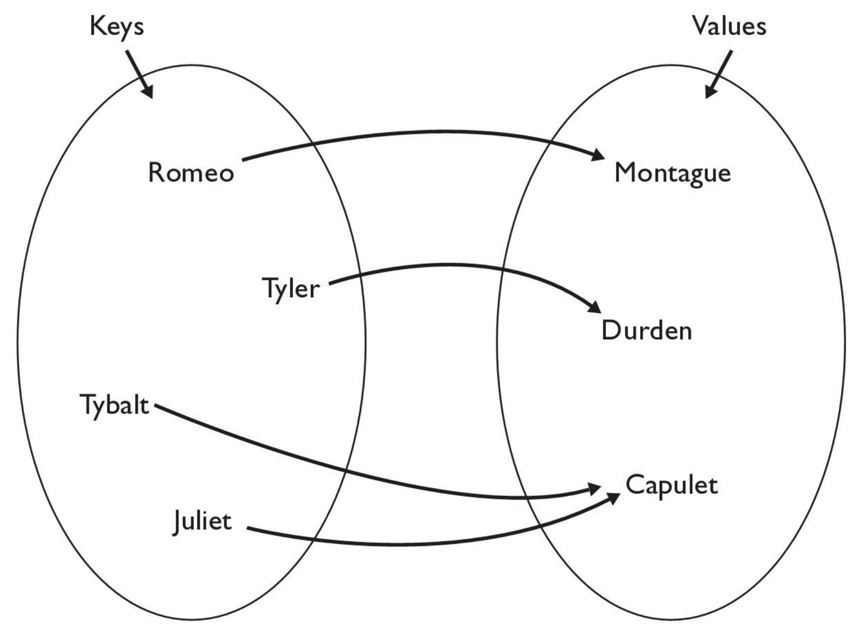
The Map ADT

- **map**: Holds a set of unique *keys* and a collection of *values*, where each key is associated with one value.
  - a.k.a. "dictionary", "associative array", "hash"

- basic map operations:
  - **put**(*key, value*): Adds a mapping from a key to a value.
  - **get**(*key*): Retrieves the value mapped to the key.
  - **remove**(*key*): Removes the given key and its mapped value.



`myMap.get("Juliet")` returns `"Capulet"`

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Map concepts

- a map can be thought of as generalization of a tallying array
  - the "index" (key) doesn't have to be an `int`

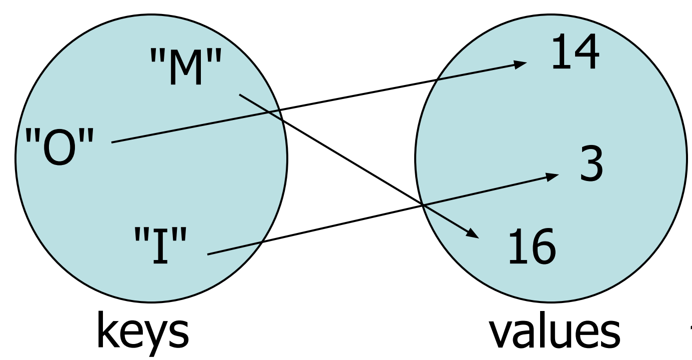
- recall previous tallying examples from CSE 142
  - count digits: `22092310907`

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
value	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	2

```
// (M)cCain, (O)bama, (I)ndependent
```

  - count votes: `"MOOOOOOMMMMMOOOOOOMOMMIMOMMIMOMMIO"`

key	"M"	"O"	"I"
value	16	14	3



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`Map` implementation

- in Java, maps are represented by `Map` interface in `java.util`

- `Map` is implemented by the `HashMap` and `TreeMap` classes
  - `HashMap`: implemented using an array called a "hash table"; extremely fast: **O(1)** ; keys are stored in unpredictable order
  - `TreeMap`: implemented as a linked "binary tree" structure; very fast: **O(log N)** ; keys are stored in sorted order

  - A map requires 2 type parameters: one for keys, one for values.

```
// maps from String keys to Integer values
Map<String, Integer> votes = new HashMap<String, Integer>();
```


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`Map` methods

`put(`**key**`, `**value**`)`	adds a mapping from the given key to the given value; if the key already exists, replaces its value with the given one
`get(`**key**`)`	returns the value mapped to the given key (`null` if not found)
`containsKey(`**key**`)`	returns `true` if the map contains a mapping for the given key
`remove(`**key**`)`	removes any existing mapping for the given key
`clear()`	removes all key/value pairs from the map
`size()`	returns the number of key/value pairs in the map
`isEmpty()`	returns `true` if the map's size is 0
`toString()`	returns a string such as `"{a=90, d=60, c=70}"`

`keySet()`	returns a set of all keys in the map
`values()`	returns a collection of all values in the map
`putAll(`**map**`)`	adds all key/value pairs from the given map to this map
`equals(`**map**`)`	returns `true` if given map has the same mappings as this one

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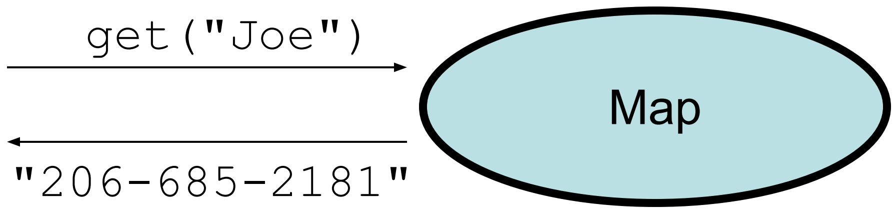
Using maps

- A map allows you to get from one half of a pair to the other.
  - Remembers one piece of information about every index (key).

  - Later, we can supply only the key and get back the related value:

    Allows us to ask: *What is Joe's phone number?*



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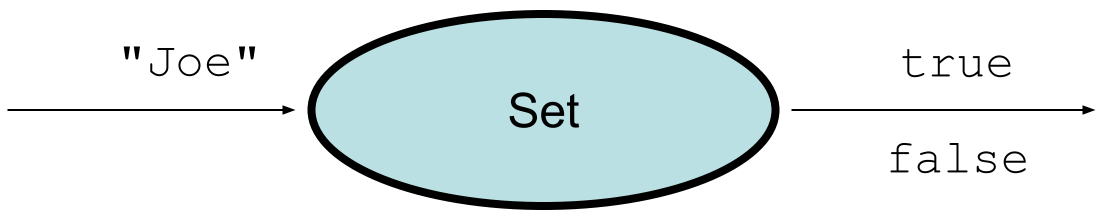
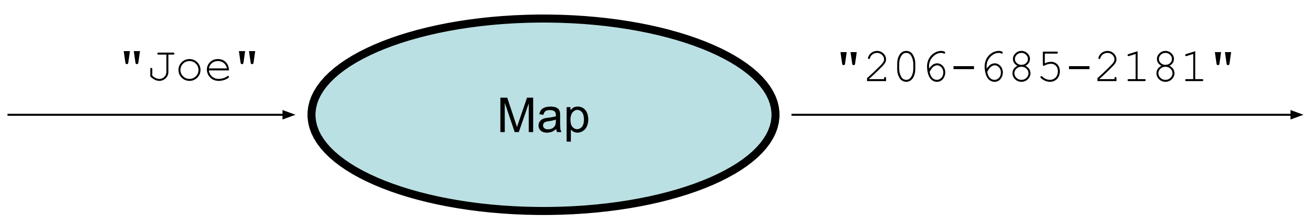
Maps vs. sets

- A set is like a map from elements to `boolean` values.
  - *Set: Is Joe found in the set? (true/false)*



  - *Map: What is Joe's phone number?*



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keySet and values

- `keySet` method returns a `Set` of all keys in the map
  - can loop over the keys in a foreach loop
  - can get each key's associated value by calling `get` on the map

```
Map<String, Integer> ages = new TreeMap<String, Integer>();
ages.put("Joe", 19);
ages.put("Geneva", 2);  // ages.keySet() returns Set<String>
ages.put("Vicki", 57);
for (String name : ages.keySet()) {                // Geneva -> 2
    int age = ages.get(name);                      // Joe -> 19
    System.out.println(name + " -> " + age);      // Vicki -> 57
}
```

- `values` method returns a collection of all values in the map
  - can loop over the values in a foreach loop
  - no easy way to get from a value to its associated key(s)

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Priority queue ADT

- **priority queue**: a collection of ordered elements that provides fast access to the minimum (or maximum) element
  - usually implemented using a tree structure called a *heap*

- priority queue operations:
  - `add` adds in order; O(log *N*) worst
  - `peek` returns **minimum** value; O(1) always
  - `remove` removes/returns **minimum** value; O(log *N*) worst
  - `isEmpty`, `clear`, `size`, `iterator` O(1) always

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Java's `PriorityQueue` class

`public class PriorityQueue<E> implements Queue<E>`

Method/Constructor	Description	Runtime
`PriorityQueue<E>()`	constructs new empty queue	O(1)
`add(E value)`	adds value in sorted order	O(log *N*)
`clear()`	removes all elements	O(1)
`iterator()`	returns iterator over elements	O(1)
`peek()`	returns minimum element	O(1)
`remove()`	removes/returns min element	O(log *N*)

```
Queue<String> pq = new PriorityQueue<String>();
pq.add("Stuart");
pq.add("Marty");
...
```


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Priority queue ordering

- For a priority queue to work, elements must have an ordering
  - in Java, this means implementing the `Comparable` interface

- Reminder:

```
public class Foo implements Comparable<Foo> {
    …
    public int compareTo(Foo other) {
        // Return positive, zero, or negative number
    }
}
```


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