

## First Program :

- Every file which ends with .java is a class
- A file must have a class of name same as filename and all the code must be inside the class in the file, this is compulsory when the class is public.

```
Main.java
class Main {
}
```

- By convention the first letter of class-name must be Capital.

- And the class must be public so that the class can be accessed by anywhere (from any other file and soon).

```
Main.java
public class Main {
}
```

- Inside the class we must have a function with name "main". resembles int main() in C/C++.

```
Main.java
public class Main {
    public static void main (String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World!");
    }
}
```

To compile, we do :

javac Main.java

- then we get a byte code generated

To ~~exe~~ run :

java Main

- then we get "Hello World!"

→ all have %

⇒ main(), it have to be present and it is the entry point of program.

⇒ public, so that main() can be accessed by anyone as main() is entry point so if we keep it private then it might create problem as someone ~~not~~ might not get access so we declare main() as "public".

⇒ static, as we know to access any member of class, we need object of the class so same for our main() function, so if we need to access the main() function, we would need an object of the class in which main function is present. But we ~~as~~ need main() as entry point so we want to access the main() without creating any object and for that we use "static".

agar mujhe main() se hi entry karna hai ~~to~~ aur  
yeh static nhi hai ~~to~~ it means mujhe ek object  
karke us object ko use karke main() mein garna  
hoga but tab to main() entry point rahiga nhi  
to use declare it as static.

⇒ void, return type of main() function.

⇒ `String[] args`, this is a command line argument which is an array (collection of strings)

Note - we can say where we want to save our byte code

javac -d . Demo.java (to create in current dir)  
javac -d .. Demo.java (to create in prev directory)

javac -d . Demo.java (to create in prev directory)

Note - how does our computer know that where the compiler or g++ or etc are present.

These javac or g++ are executable files which directs computer to the ~~an~~ appropriate compiler or etc.



⇒ shortcut for our main() is psum  
⇒ " " output " sout

→ Another thing we have in our file is "package package name", here it is a package or a folder which can contain many files so we can use the same package for any number of file.

```
package pack_name;  
      ↑  
    a folder / a package
```

⇒ `System.out.println()`, Java has provided some basic functions for printing, input taking, debugging and etc. `System` is a class inside `System` file, it (this class) have several class fields and methods which are useful to us. It cannot be instantiated since it is a final class.

`println()` is a function which is defined in such a manner that we need to give a string to it which get printed

out, is a variable which is of type `PrintStream` and out has a variable called `println()` and `println()` is also of type `PrintStream`. (`PrintStream` is a class)

And default is command line of printing or displaying but we can change it if we want. by doing `out = some value`

→ and if we want to print something without displaying it to the new line then we can do:

```
System.out.print();
```

eg- `System.out.println("Hey");`  
`System.out.println("People");`

⇓

Hey  
People

`System.out.print("Hey");`  
`System.out.println("People");`

⇓

Hey People

→ and System.out is the standard output stream.

⇒ For taking input,

syntax:

Scanner input = new Scanner();

↑                      ↑                      ↑                      ↑

[this is a]    [object]    [new]    [class]   
 [class]    [we]    [keyword]    [constructor]   
 [created]

↑

here we mention that from where we will take the input. can be a file or etc

→ Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

↑   
 this will read what we want to take as input

↑   
 this means from keyboard we are taking inputs as "in" indicates keyboard

\*   
 → For using Scanner class, we need to import java.util.Scanner.

eg-   
 Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);   
 System.out.println(input.next());

// In first line, we ask input to take value from keyboard and then in second line "input.next()" means that the input must be string and then that particular string will get displayed in command line.

→ for taking integer input, we have .nextInt()

→ " " string until space, " " .next()

→ " " line of strings, " " .nextLine()



## Primitives :

(Data type which we can't break into any other data type comes under primitive)

→ integer as int // int is primitive

→ string as String // String is not primitive (starts with double quotes)

→ char as char // char is primitive (starts with single quotes)

→ float as float // primitive

eg - float mark = 98.67f;

↑  
mentioning "f" is compulsory

→ double as double // for large decimal values

→ long as long // for large integer values (add "L" at the end)

→ boolean as boolean // either true or false

⇒ Instead of having int, we have long and instead of having float, we have double, this is due to size, we'll know in bitwise section.

⇒ why we have "f"?

by default all decimal values are of double type and so to define it as float we add "f" in the last.

⇒ why we have "L"?

by default we have integer type and so we use "L"

Note: All the primitive data types don't have any class and so all start with small case.

We do have some wrapper classes which give us more functions to our primitives.

// taking input of various primitive data type

```
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
```

```
int roll-no = input.nextInt();
```

```
System.out.println("Your roll no : " + roll-no);
```

54

Your roll no : 54

Note : any object in assignment is literal and reference to it is identifier.

eg - `int a = 10;`  
          ↑      ↑  
      identifier  literal

Note :

eg - `int a = 234_000_000;`

`System.out.println(a);`

↓  
234000000 (since "-" gets ignored)

```
String name = input.nextLine();  
System.out.println(name);
```

My name is Dwipshikha

My name is Dwipshikha



```
float marks = input.nextFloat();  
System.out.println(marks);
```

564.6758462 564.67584
--------------------------

// floating point error

10 10.0
------------

// type casting happened

## Type casting and conversion:

→ Automatic ~~type casting~~ <sup>type</sup> or conversion would happen if both the types are compatible.

eg -

```
float num = input.nextFloat();  
System.out.println(num);
```

65 65.0
------------

// here we gave  
integer ip  
// type conversion

// But if we do:

'a' // error
-----------------

// here we gave a  
char input

Main point to note: In Type conversion, the destination data type must be greater than the source data type. Since  $\text{int} < \text{float}$ , so it works.

// if we do:

```
int num = input.nextInt();
```

56.789 // error
--------------------

// here destination type is  
smaller than source type

// here we gave float as input

But type conversion (automatic) may not be helpful in some cases (suppose we give float value to store it in int).

And we have to ask for this explicitly which is known as narrow conversion as we are explicitly asking for it.

This narrow conversion is called Type casting, where the destination type can be smaller than the source type.

eg - `int num = (int)(67.56f); // giving float  
System.out.println(num);`

67
----

 // type casting

### Automatic type promotion in expression:

Now as we learned about typecasting still we have to keep in mind that the source type size must be smaller or equal to destination.

Let's see an eg of opp to this point,

```
int a = 257;  
byte b = (byte) a; // 257 % 256 = 1  
System.out.println(b);
```

1
---

here since byte can take value upto 256 and so it can't store a (a = 257) even if we do typecasting, so what it does is, it takes modulo of the assigned



value with its size and the remainder will get stored in the variable or right left side of type casting.

But when we do as:

```
byte a = 40;
```

```
byte b = 50;
```

```
byte c = 100;
```

```
int d = a * b / c;
```

```
System.out.println(d);
```

20

→ here we can see, a and b are bytes which hold-ing value less than their limit but  $a * b = 40 \times 50 = 2000$ , which  $\gg$  size of byte then how it get stored in a variable of type byte, since we know

byte \* byte  $\rightarrow$  byte, so 2000 also must be in byte but this is impossible. But we can see, we are getting correct answer.

So, what happens is that, in Java we have a thing called automatic type promotion, where

Since  $a * b$  is a sub expression so byte a \* byte b and then the result is stored in int type automatically since it is a sub expression and then this  $a * b = 2000$  is divided by c, we get 20 which is in limit of size of byte and it and the result gets stored in d which is of int type.

{ in short, (expectation)  
byte a \* byte b  $\Rightarrow$  byte (in general)  
(reality)  
but byte a \* byte b  $\Rightarrow$  int (because of auto-matic type promotion provided by Java)

so now if we do;

byte  $b = 50;$

$b = b * 2;$  // this gives error

as  $(b * 2)$  is now int and we can't assign int to a byte value automatically.

→ There are some rules for automatic type promotion

9) All the byte, short and char values are promoted to int

ii) Any operand is of float then the result of the operation will be float.

If any of the operand is double then the result of the operation will be double.

eg-  $3 * 5.1345 \Rightarrow \text{float value}$

eg -

```
byte b = 42;
```

```
char c = 'a';
```

```
short s = 1024;
```

```
int i = 50000;
```

float f = 5.67f;

double d = 0.1234;

```
double result = (f+b) + (e/c) - (d*s);
```

1/(f+b)  $\Rightarrow$  float (according rule (ii))

$1/(q/c) \Rightarrow \text{int} (" " " ")$

$!(d * s) \Rightarrow \text{double}(\_, \_, \_, \_)$

11 float + int - double  $\Rightarrow$  double (" " " ")

```
System.out.println((f+b) + " " + (p/c) + " " + (d*s));
```

```
System.out.println(result);
```



## statement and loops:

→ if (condition) {  
    // code  
}

If the condition is true then only code will run otherwise not.

→ initialization  
while (condition) {  
    // code // update  
}

same thing.

eg -  
int count = 1;  
while (count != 5) {  
    System.out.println(count);  
    count++; // shorthand for count =  
            // count + 1;  
}

→ for (initialization; condition; update) {  
    // code  
}

eg - for (int count = 1; count != 5; count++) {  
    System.out.println(count);  
}

Note: when we know, how many times the loop will run, we use for loop and otherwise we use while loop.