- If you try to access any method of an object, but the object is null; then you'll get an Null Pointer Exception.
- Remember: in java we initialize an array using {} curly braces; not [] square brackets.
- Consider the following scenario:
 - ▲ I have 3 files:
 - Main.java
 - * Contains the main method.
 - * It has an object of type QuestionService
 - QuestionService.java
 - * If has an array of objects.
 - * Those objects are of type Question
 - Question.java
 - It is a normal class that contains some variables and getter, setter methods to build a question.
 - Like, id (int), question(String), options (String[]), answer (String)
 - Now, I implemented the **toString()** method inside Question class, so that whenever I print the object of type Question directly, it'll print something meaningful instead of the default *hashcode*.
 - Then I compiled Main.java and ran this. But I couldn't see the changes that I did inside Question.java.
 - When you compile a .java file, it'll generate .class file of all those Class which are linked to the .java file (in our case, all Classes i.e. Main, QuestionService, Question are linked).
 - - 6 Now, it'll compile Main.java and create the Main.class file.
 - And it'll check if there is QuestionService.class and Question.class already present.
 - If present, then don't recompile those; otherwise compile those as well.
 - In my case, I had already QuestionService.class and Question.class present; so it was not re-compiling those classes.
 - So, every-time you do any changes, run the following command:
 - javac *.java (it'll re-compile all the .java files present in the current directory)
 - java Main

- > To read input from users:
 - △ Scanner is used to read the input from the user.

```
Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in); // initializing scanner to read user input
int i = 0;
for (Question q : questions) {
    System.out.println("Question No: " + q.getId());
    System.out.println(q.getQuestion());
    String[] options = q.getoptions();
    for (String option : options)
        System.out.println(" - " + option);
    this.selections[i++] = sc.nextLine(); // reading user input and storing in array
}
sc.close(); // closing scanner to prevent resource leak
```

- Here, I created an object of Scanner, and passed System.in
 - System.in is a static input stream provided by JVM.
 - It represents standard input of your program.
 - Since it is static final, there is only System.in object per JVM process.
 - Once you close the scanner object using sc.close(), you can't read the input again.
- Below is an example of wrong usage of Scanner:

```
int i = 0;
for (Question q : questions) {
    System.out.println("Question No: " + q.getId());
    System.out.println(q.getQuestion());
    String[] options = q.getoptions();
    for (String option : options)
        System.out.println(" - " + option);

    Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in); // create a Scanner object
    this.selections[i++] = sc.nextLine(); // read user input
    sc.close(); // close the scanner to prevent resource leak
    // but closing here will close System.in, causing issues on next iteration
}
```

- Here you'll get an exception after the first iteration, because System.in is already closed in the previous iteration.
- sc.close() is optional by the way.
- **Abstract Class and Abstract Method**
 - △ In java, empty methods are valid.

```
class Car {
    // this method is valid but doesn't give error
    public void drive() {
    }
    public void playMusic() {
        System.out.println(x:"Playing music");
    }
}
```

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- △ These are some conditions in Java OOP:
 - Abstract method inside Abstract class (♥)
 - Abstract method inside Normal class (X)
 - Sormal method inside Abstract class (♥)
 - Normal method inside Normal class (♥ (default only))
- △ In short:
 - Abstract method ⇒ class must be abstract
 - Normal methods ⇒ allowed anywhere
- △ An abstract class may have:
 - Only abstract methods
 - Only normal methods
 - A mix of abstract + normal methods
 - Even no methods at all

```
abstract class Car {
   public abstract void drive();
   public void playMusic() {
       System.out.println(x:"Playing music");
class Tesla extends Car {
   public void drive() {
       System.out.println(x:"Driving Tesla");
   public void show() {
       System.out.println(x:"Show method in Tesla");
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       Car car = new Tesla();
       car.drive();
       car.playMusic();
       // car.show(); // This will give an error because 'show' is not defined in Car
       Tesla myCar = new Tesla();
       myCar.drive();
       myCar.playMusic();
       myCar.show();
```

- △ If a class is inheriting an abstract class
 - It must implements the abstract methods present inside the abstract class.
 - The normal methods present inside the abstract class need not to be overridden.

- An abstract class can have constructor.
 - The constructor can be called from the base classes using super()

△ NOTE

- An abstract class can inherit another abstract class as well.
- And in this case, the child abstract class need not to implement the abstract methods inside the parent abstract class.

```
abstract class Car {
    public abstract void drive();

    public void playMusic() {
        System.out.println(x:"Playing music");
    }
}

abstract class FastCar extends Car {
    public void accelerate() {
        System.out.println(x:"Accelerating FastCar quickly");
    }
}

class Tesla extends FastCar {
    public void drive() {
        System.out.println(x:"Driving Tesla");
    }

    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"This is a Tesla car");
    }
}
```

> Inner Class

- An inner class is a class defined inside another class.
- It is logically associated with its outer class and has access to its members (even private ones).
- The inner class's type will be: OuterClassName.InnerClassName
- And to instantiate the inner class, you need an instance of the outer class.
- To instantiate the inner class, you need to call like.
 - obj.new InnerClassName()
- △ There are 4 types of Inner Class

- Non-Static Nested Inner Class
- Static Nested Inner Class
- Local Inner Class
- Anonymous Inner Class
- △ Non-Static Nested Inner Class:

```
class Outer {
   int age = 5;
   static String name = "Outer Static";
   public void show() {
       System.out.println(x:"in Outer's show");
        // shadowing occured
       int age = 30;
        public void config() {
            System.out.println("in Inner's config: inner age = " + age); // inner's age
           System.out.println("in Inner's config: outer age = " + Outer.this.age); // outer's age
            // both are correct
           System.out.println("in Inner's config: name = " + name);
           System.out.println("in Inner's config: name = " + Outer.name);
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       Outer out = new Outer();
       Outer.Inner ob = out.new Inner();
       ob.config();
        System.out.println(ob.age);
```

- Just imagine a non-static method. You can access this only by an object.
- Just like that, you can access the Non-Static Inner Class using an object of Outer Class only.
- It can access all the instance and static variables of the outer class (even private variables are accessible).
- In the above example, the instance variable age got shadowed inside the Inner class. To access the Outer class's age
 - * OuterClassName.this.VariableName
 - * Because, this.age would have given InnerClass's variable age

- Why not new obl.Inner() ?
 - * Think of it like, as the Inner class is non-static; so the Inner class's instance will be specific to the Outer class's instance.
 - So, to instantiate Inner class's instance inside the Outer class's instance (here ob1), we need to call ob1.new Inner()

△ Static Nested Inner Class:

- Declared with the static keyword.
- · It does not need an instance of the outer class.
- can access only **static members** of the outer class directly.

```
class Outer {
    int age;
    static String name = "Outer Static";
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"in Outer's show");
    static class Inner {
        public void config() {
            // // error; as age is an instance variable
            // System.out.println("in Inner's config: age = " + age);
            // both are correct
            System.out.println("in Inner's config: name = " + name);
            System.out.println("in Inner's config: name = " + Outer.name);
public class Main {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Outer.Inner ob = new Outer.Inner();
        // new Outer().Inner() <= wrong
        ob.config();
```

- Just like static method, we can access the static inner class using the Outer class directly without instantiating it.
- Feet Here, new Outer.Inner() (not Outer.new Inner() or new Outer().Inner())

△ Local Inner Class:

When the Inner class is defined inside a method of Outer class, then it is Local Inner Class.

```
class Outer {
    int age = 5;
    static String name = "Outer Static";
    private void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In outer's show..");
    public void show2() {
        System.out.println(x:"in Outer's show2..");
        class Inner {
           int val = 10;
            private void displayVal() {
                System.out.println("displayVal: val inside Inner is: " + val);
            public void displayVal2() {
                System.out.println("displayVal2: val inside Inner is: " + val);
        // it can access both private and public methods of inner class
        Inner obj = new Inner();
        obj.displayVal();
        obj.displayVal2();
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Outer ob = new Outer();
        ob.show2();
```

- It is strange that, the displayVal method is private; but still it was able to get called from outside of it i.e. inside the show() method.
- As the Inner class comes inside the scope of Outer class, so in this case, all private things of Outer class and Inner class are accessible to each-other.
- But the private method show() of the class Outer is not accessible outside.
- Because Inner lives inside the scope of Outer, they can freely access each other's private members.
- But Main is outside, so it cannot access Outer.show() or Inner.displayVal().

Anonymous Inner Class:

```
class Test {
    public void greet() {
        System.out.println(x:"Hello from Test!");
class Outer {
    int age = 5;
    static String name = "Outer Static";
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"in Outer's show...");
        // case-1
        class AdvTest extends Test {
            public void greet() {
               System.out.println(x:"Hello from AdvTest!");
            }
        Test ob = new AdvTest();
        ob.greet();
        // case-2 (anonymous inner class)
        // --- for this case: Test can be abstract as well ---
        Test ob2 = new Test() {
            public void greet() {
                System.out.println(x:"Hello from Anonymous Test!");
        }; // semicolon is necessary here
        ob2.greet();
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Outer ob = new Outer();
        ob.show();
```

```
class Test {
    public void greet() {
        System.out.println(x:"Hello from Test!");
    }
}
class Outer {
    int age = 5;
    static String name = "Outer Static";
    public Test obj = new Test() {
        public void greet() {
            System.out.println(x:"Hello from Outer => Test!");
        }
    };
}
public class Main {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Outer ob = new Outer();
        ob.obj.greet();
    }
}
```

Its just like inheriting a Normal/Abstract class and instantiating directly without creating the inherited class.

Summary of Inner Classes

In any type of inner class creation, both Outer and Inner classes can access each-other's private members.

Non-Static Inner Class:

- * Assumption: Inner class's name: Inner, Outer class's name: Outer
- * Just like non-static method, the Non-Static Inner Class can access both instance variables and static variables of the Outer class.
- * If there is any type of shadowing of Outer class's variable then (let variable name is: val)
 - " this.val ⇒ Inner class's variable val
 - " Outer.this.val ⇒ Outer class's variable val
- Just like Non-Static Method, we need an instance of the class to access the Non-Static Inner Class.
- * As the Inner class's instance will be a part of the Outer class's instance, so to instantiate this:
 - obOuter.new Inner()

Static Inner Class:

- * Assumption: Inner class's name: Inner, Outer class's name: Outer
- * Just like the Static Methods, the Static Inner Class can only access the static members of the Outer class.
- " If there is any shadowing: (let the variale name is val)
 - " val ⇒Inner class's static variable
 - " Outer.val ⇒ Outer class's static variable

Local Inner Class:

- * The Inner class is defined inside a method of the Outer Class.
- * The scope to access this Inner class is only the scope of that Method.

Anonymous Inner Class:

- * Its just like extending a class (either Normal or Abstract) and creating an object out of that; without creating the Class.
- * The syntax is:
 - ClassName obj = new ClassName() { /* override method if want */ }

> <u>Interface</u>

- By default the variables inside interfaces are: public static final.
 - So, you need to initialize while declaring it.

```
interface A {
    // by default variables are "public final static"
    // so, you need to initialize this
    int age = 23;
    String area = "Banglore";
```

You cannot override the variables that were declared and initialized in interface.

```
public static void main() {
    System.out.println("A's area: " + A.area);
    System.out.println("A's age: " + A.age);

//·A.area·=·"Delhi"; ·//·Error, ·because ·that·is·final
```

By default all the methods are public abstract; you don't need to explicitly write that.

```
interface A {
     void show(); //same as => public abstract void show()
     void config();//same as => public abstract void config()
```

- implements is the keyword that is used to implement a interface to a class.
- Unlike classes, multiple implementations are allowed in case of interface.

```
class B implements A, X {

public void show() { (multiple implementation)
```

- Interfaces can inherit another interface.
 - In this case, multiple inheritance is allowed.

```
interface Y extends X, A {
}
```

But the class which implements Y, has to override all the methods mentioned in interfaces X and A.

△ NOTE

- full Interfaces cannot have constructors (because they can't be instantiated).
- But you can create a reference of an interface type pointing to a class object.
- for Interfaces are used to achieve abstraction and multiple inheritance in Java.

```
interface A {
   void show();
   void config();
interface X {
   void run();
class B implements A, X {
   public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"overridden 'A: show'");
   public void config() {
       System.out.println(x:"overridden 'A: config'");
   public void run() {
       System.out.println(x:"overridden 'X: run'");
public class Interface {
   public static void main() {
       A obj = new B();
       obj.show();
       obj.config();
        X \text{ obj2} = \text{new B()};
       // obj.config(); // Error: X doesn't have config
       obj2.run();
```

- In case of implementing 2 interfaces, creating object of one interface type and calling the method mentioned in the other interface will not be possible.
- We had seen this during Upcasting and Downcasting.

> Need of Interface

- A You can see the below example code.
- Here if we didn't have implemented an interface, only Laptop or Desktop type of objects would have been acceptable inside the codeApplication method of Developer class.
- A Now we can think, instead of interface, abstract class can also be used;
- A But, just to write a abstract method, why to create an abstract class.
- Interface is here simple and doing all the required things.

```
interface Computer {
   void code();
class Laptop implements Computer {
   public void code() {
       System.out.println(x:"Coding started: little slow");
class Desktop implements Computer {
   public void code() {
       System.out.println(x:"Coding started: faster");
class Developer {
   public void codeApplication(Computer comp) {
       comp.code();
class Company {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       Developer alok = new Developer();
       Developer kanha = new Developer();
       Computer laptop = new Laptop();
       Computer desktop = new Desktop();
       alok.codeApplication(laptop);
        kanha.codeApplication(desktop);
```

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Enum

- enum is a special type of class in Java (its not same as Class; but similar).
- △ It's a **final class** which cannot be inherited by any other class.

- switch case statement also supports enum, so it can be used to check the status.
- Consider the following example: (more than one constructor can be created)

```
enum Laptop {
    Macbook(price:2000), Dell(price:1200), Acer(price:1400);
    private int price;

    Laptop(int price) {
        this.price = price;
    }

    public int getPrice() {
        return this.price;
    }
}
```

```
final class Laptop extends Enum<Laptop> {
    public static final Laptop Macbook = new Laptop("Macbook", 0, 2000);
    public static final Laptop Dell = new Laptop("Dell", 1, 1200);
    public static final Laptop Acer = new Laptop("Acer", 2, 1400);

    private int price;

    private Laptop(String name, int ordinal, int price) {
        super(name, ordinal); // from java.lang.Enum
        this.price = price;
    }

    public int getPrice() {
        return this.price;
    }
}
```

* Behind the scene.

```
enum Laptop {
    // these are objects of Laptop class itself
    // as you are passing some value, so you need to create a constructor
    Macbook(price:2000), Dell(price:1200), Acer(price:1400);
    public int price;
    Laptop(int price) {
        this.price = price;
   public int getPrice() {
       return this.price;
public class Enum {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Laptop lap = Laptop.Macbook;
        System.out.println(lap.getClass()); // class Laptop
        System.out.println(lap.getClass().getSuperclass()); // class java.lang.Enum
        System.out.println("s = " + lap); // Macbook
        System.out.println("price = " + lap.getPrice()); // 2000
```

> Annotations

- Provides information to the compiler, tools, or runtime.
- Think of it as a special marker/label you attach to classes, methods, variables, etc.
- △ For example @Override
 - It tells the compiler: "this method is supposed to override a method from its superclass."
 - f it doesn't, the compiler will show an error.

```
class A {
   public void greet() {
       System.out.println(x:"Hello from class A");
   }
}

class B extends A {
   public void greeet() {
       System.out.println(x:"Hello from class B");
   }
}
```

- Ferror Here you can see, I have made a spelling error in Class B.
- Instead of greet I have written greeet

```
class A {
    public void greet() {
        System.out.println(x:"Hello from class A");
    }
}

The method greeet() of type B must override or import of type B must overr
```

Now I used the annotation @Override, so now the compiler is showing me the error that this method doesn't exists in the superclass.

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Types of Interface

- → Normal Interface
 - For Interface having 2 or more methods
- △ Functional Interface / SAM (Single Abstract Method)
 - for Interface having only 1 method.
- Marker Interface
 - Interface having no method.
 - used for tagging or marking classes (e.g., Serializable).
- → Functional Interface:

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface A {
    void show();

    private static int add(int a, int b) {
        return a + b;
    }

    default void display() {
        System.out.println(add(a:4, b:5));
    }
}
```

- * Abstract method should be only 1.
- * Remaining static or default methods can be there.
- * Annotation: @FunctionalInterface

* I added one more Abstract method, so it is showing me error.

<u>Lambda Expression</u>

• This code is proper and it'll work fine.

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface A {
    void show(int a);
}

public class FuncInterface {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // if there is only single expression
        A obj3 = (int a) -> System.out.println("in show A: " + a);
        obj3.show(a:4);
    }
}
```

You can also pass the arguments.

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface A {
    void show(int a);
}

public class FuncInterface {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // if there is only single expression
        A obj = (a) -> System.out.println("in show A: " + a);
        obj.show(a:4);
    }
}
```

You don't even need to provide the data type; it'll take from the interface directly.

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface A {
    void show(int a);
}

public class FuncInterface {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // if there is only single expression
        A obj = a -> System.out.println("in show A: " + a);
        obj.show(a:4);
    }
}
```

for If you have only one argument, don't need to give the *parenthesis* as well.

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface A {
    int add(int a, int b);
}

public class FuncInterface {
    Run|Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // if there is only single expression
        A obj = (a, b) -> a + b;
        int res = obj.add(a:4, b:5);
        System.out.println("Sum = " + res);
    }
}
```

- You can directly return the values like this.
- **Lambda Expression** only works with the Functional Interface.
- Because if there are more than one method, which will be implemented.

Exceptions

- △ Compile time error and Logical Errors can be fixed;
- But Run Time error should be handled. So that the application won't stop in between.
- △ Exception Handling is nothing but handling these Run Time error.

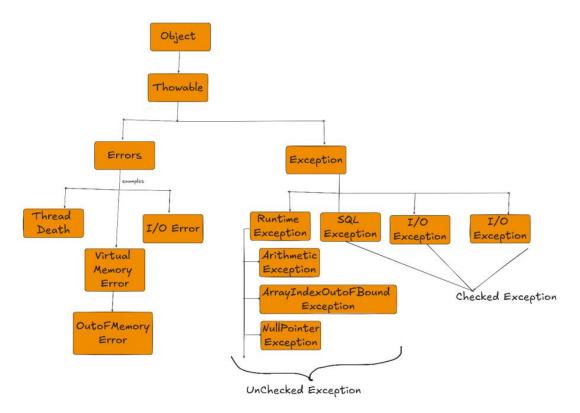
· Handling Exceptions using try catch block.

```
$ java Exceptionss

Something went wrong: java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
Bye
```

```
public class Exceptionss {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       int i, j;
       i = 5;
       j = 1;
       int[] nums = new int[5];
       try {
           j = 20 / i;
           System.err.println(nums[1]);
           System.err.println(nums[5]); // error bcs out of bound
        } catch (ArithmeticException e) {
           System.out.println("divided by zero\n" + e);
        } catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
           System.err.println("Out of bound\n" + e);
        } catch (Exception e) { // if some other exception occured
            System.err.println("Something went wrong\n" + e);
       System.err.println(x:"Bye");
```

• Using multiple catch blocks to catch different types of Exceptions.



- F This is the hierarchy of Exception classes.
- Checked means the exceptions that are checked during compile-time. i.e.

 IOException, ClassNotFoundException, SQLException
- Unchecked means the exceptions that are occur during the run-time i.e.
 NullPointerException, ArithmeticException,
 ArrayIndexOutOfBoundException ..etc etc

throw Keyword

We can throw any kind of exception we want by giving some customized error message.

```
class MyException extends Exception {
    public MyException(String string) {
        super(string);
public class Exceptionss {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 5, j = 0;
        try {
            if (j == 0)
                throw new MyException(string:"J cannot be zero!");
            j = 20 / i;
        } catch (MyException e) {
            j = 20 / 1;
            System.err.println("Set j's value as default: " + e);
        } catch (Exception e) {
            System.err.println("Something went wrong\n" + e);
        System.err.println("j = " + j);
        System.err.println(x:"Bye");
```

F It is a custom exception.

You need to inherit the Exception class or can also inherit RuntimeException class; and pass the string to the super class's constructor because those Exception classes handles this message.

```
$ java Exceptionss
Set j's value as default: MyException: J cannot be zero!
j = 20
Bye
```

throws keyword

- Let suppose, in a method **A** , you are calling 2 methods **B** and **C**.
- △ B and C both are having a critical expression that might throw the same Exception.
- So, instead of handling those inside B and C both, we can handle those inside A directly.
- △ For this, throws keyword will be used in B and C.
- It is used to forward the Exception to the method where the current method is called.
- Lets A is being called in some another method X, if you mention the keyword throws in the method A as well, then the Exception occurred from B and C will go to A then it'll go to X.

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        try {
            Class.forName(className:"NoClass");
            System.err.println(x:"Class found!");
        } catch (ClassNotFoundException e) {
            System.err.println("Not able to find the class; " + e);
        }
    }
}

public class Exceptionss {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new A();
        obj.show();
    }
}
```

Simple code only; exception will be thrown inside the **show()** method and will be handled there only.

```
class A {
    public void show() throws ClassNotFoundException {
        Class.forName(className:"NoClass");
    }
}

public class Exceptionss {
    Run|Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new A();

        try {
            obj.show();
            System.err.println(x:"Class found!");
        } catch (ClassNotFoundException e) {
            System.err.println("Not able to find the class; " + e);
        }
    }
}
```

So, like this you can use throws to forward the Exception to calling method.

```
class A {
    public void showA() throws ClassNotFoundException {
        Class.forName(className: "NoClass");
class B {
    public void showB() throws ClassNotFoundException {
        A obj = new A();
        obj.showA();
class C {
    public void showC() throws ClassNotFoundException {
        B obj = new B();
        obj.showB();
public class Exceptionss {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        C obj = new C();
        try {
            obj.showC();
            System.err.println(x:"Class found!");
        } catch (ClassNotFoundException e) {
            System.err.println("Not able to find the class; " + e);
```

- · Here the exception flows from A to Exceptionss class:
 - * A's showA \Rightarrow B's showB \Rightarrow C's showC \Rightarrow Exceptionss's main

User Input

- When we write System.out.println("...") it prints something in the CLI.
- A Here, System is a class where there is a static variable which is out.

```
J System.class ×

102 public final class System {

160  */

161  public static final PrintStream out = null;

162  /**
```

- And, this **out** variable is of type **PrintStream**.
 - Inside the class **PrintStream**, there is a method which is **println**,
 - Find the This is how, System.out.println works.
- Just like that out variable, another variable is there inside the System class which is in

```
System.class X

102 public final class System {

129 public static final InputStream in = null;

130
```

- It is of type InputStream
- Inside the class InputStream, so many methods are there like read, readAllBytes etc etc.

```
public class UserInput {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(x:"Hello");
        int val = System.in.read();
    }
    Unhandled exception type IOException Java(16777384)
}
int java.io.InputStream.read() throws IOException
```

- As we can see, it is saying that **read** method might throw **IOException** (it is a checked exception; so it'll give error during compilation)
- Just to handle this temporarily, I am appending the **throws** keyword in the main method (It is not at all preferable; because if the **main** method throws the exception, it'll go to JVM directly and the application will stop).

م

```
import java.io.IOException;

public class UserInput {

    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        System.out.println(x:"Hello");

        int val = System.in.read();
        System.out.println("val = " + val);
    }
}
```

• Now the compilation error gone.

```
alokr@Alok MINGW6
  (main)
$ java UserInput
Hello
abcd
val = 97
```

It'll just return the ASCII value of the first character (here 'a')

```
public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
    BufferedReader bf = new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(System.in));
    System.out.print(s:"Enter a string: ");
    String line = bf.readLine();
    System.out.println("line = " + line + "\n");
    System.out.print(s:"Enter a number: ");
    int val = Integer.parseInt(bf.readLine());
    System.out.println("val = " + val + "\n");
    BufferedReader bf2 = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(fileName:"./test.txt"));
    System.out.println(x:"Reading a file....");
    String fileLine = bf2.readLine();
    while (fileLine != null) {
        System.out.println("fileLine = " + fileLine);
        fileLine = bf2.readLine();
    bf.close();
    bf2.close();
```

```
$ java UserInput
Enter a string: Alok Ranjan
line = Alok Ranjan

Enter a number: 974545
val = 974545

Reading a file....
fileLine = it is alok
fileLine = it is a normal text file. (Output)
```

- For It is how we can take input from user using BufferedReader.
- BufferedReader constructor takes an Reader type argument.
 - * First case, I took InputStreamReader, it'll be used to take user's input from terminal.
 - * Second case, I took FileReader, it'll be used to read a file.
- Fere bf and bf2 (BufferedReader instance) are resources. So whenever you create these, you have to close it as well.
 - * It'll not give any error, but it is a good idea to close the resources.

```
public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
    Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);

    System.out.print(s:"Enter a number: ");
    int num = sc.nextInt();
    System.out.println("num = " + num + "\n");

    sc.nextLine();

    System.out.print(s:"Enter a string: ");
    String str = sc.nextLine();
    System.out.println("str = " + str + "\n");

    sc.close();
```

\$ java UserInput
Enter a number: 8547
num = 8547

Enter a string: abcdef
str = abcdef (Output)

- Fere you must be thinking why we have written sc.nextLine() in between.
 - When you give input and hit *Enter*, the next **sc.nextLine()** will take that as its input.
 - So, you can't take the input for the string here because it'll take that abla n(Enter) as its input.

```
$ java UserInput
Enter a number: 9475
num = 9475

985
Enter a string: str =
```

" aloke@Alok MINGW64 /c/r (it would have occurred without that middle sc.nextLine())

> Try with Resources

- There is a keyword finally; this block executes even if the Exception occurred (catch) or not (try).
- A Even you can just run try and finally without catch.
- The finally block is mostly used to *close the resources*.
- Without this finally block, we would have to close the resources on both try and catch blocks.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Scanner sc = null;
    try {
        sc = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print(s:"Enter a number: ");
        int num = sc.nextInt();
        System.out.println("num = " + num + "\n");
    } finally {
        System.out.println(x:"Closing the resource...");
        sc.close();
}
```

For This is how we can use the finally block to close the resources.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {

   try (Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in)) {
      System.out.print(s:"Enter a number: ");
      int num = sc.nextInt();
      System.out.println("num = " + num + "\n");
   }
}
```

- It is a short syntax.
- Here, after the try block is completed, the resource will be closed automatically.

```
public final class Scanner implements Iterator<String>, Closeable {
   public interface Closeable extends AutoCloseable {
```

You can see, the Scanner class's ancestor is the AutoClosable interface, so it'll be automatically closed.

> Threads

- A There is a class **Thread** in java, which has a method called **start()**.
 - F This start() method call a method whose name is run().
 - So, if you want to run a method in a thread, then you need to give run as the method name.
 - Below is the example of threads:

```
class A extends Thread {
    public void run() {
        for (int i = 1; i \le 20; i++)
            System.err.println(x:"--A--A--A);
class B extends Thread {
    public void run() {
        for (int i = 1; i \le 20; i++)
            System.err.println(x:"B--B--B");
                                                   B--B--B--B
public class ThreadPractice {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A ob1 = new A();
        B ob2 = new B();
        ob1.start();
                                                   -A--A--A-
        ob2.start();
                                                   B--B--B
                                                   В--В--В
```

- Output is not continuous like --A--, --B--, --A--, --B-- like this
- F If your CPU has n cores, then n threads can be run at a same time.
 - * In modern systems, 1 core may be able to run 2 or more threads at a same time.

```
A ob1 = new A();
B ob2 = new B();

System.err.println(ob1.getPriority()); // 5
System.err.println(ob2.getPriority()); // 5
```

- The priority range is from **0 to 10**.
 - 0 is least priority and 10 is highest priority.
- * To set the priority, we can use setPriority method.

```
class A extends Thread {
   public void run() {
      for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
            System.err.println(x:"Hi");
            try {
                Thread.sleep(millis:10);
            } catch (InterruptedException e) {
                e.printStackTrace();
            }
        }
    }
}
class B extends Thread {
   public void run() {
      for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
            System.err.println(x:"Hello");
            try {
                Thread.sleep(millis:10);
            } catch (InterruptedException e) {
                 e.printStackTrace();
            }
        }
    }
}</pre>
```

```
public class ThreadPractice {
   Run|Debug
   public static void main(String[] a) {
        A ob1 = new A();
        B ob2 = new B();
        ob1.setPriority(Thread.MAX_PRIORITY);

        ob1.start();
        ob2.start();
   }
}
```

- * (System.out, not System.err (minor mistake :))
- * Here, I gave some sleep to make the output alternate Hi, Hello, Hi, Hello.. like this.

Hello Hi Hi Hello Hi

- * Hello (you can just optimize it; how it'll work can't control)
- In above case, might be both the run came to the scheduler to get executed after their respective sleep of 10 milliseconds (mentioned in code), then scheduler might have given someone.

Runnable vs Thread

- It is not a good idea to inherit the Thread class to make a thread.
- Because, if the class has to inherit some other class, then it can't be done in this case.

```
public class Thread implements Runnable {
```

For The Thread class implements an functional interface Runnable, and the run method is present inside the Runnable interface only.

```
@FunctionalInterface
public interface Runnable {
    public abstract void run();
    /**
```

```
class A implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
            System.out.println(x:"Hi");
class B implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
            System.out.println(x:"Hello");
public class RunnablePractice {
    public static void main(String[] a) {
         * Runnable bcs Thread constructor accepts Runnable
          We can even create with A, B in stead of Runnable,
           so why to give a heavy object...
        Runnable ob1 = new A();
        Runnable ob2 = new B();
        Thread t1 = new Thread(ob1);
        Thread t2 = new Thread(ob2);
        t1.start();
        t2.start();
```

F It is how Runnable and Thread work.

```
public class RunnablePractice {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] a) {
        Runnable ob1 = () \rightarrow {
            for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
                 System.out.println(x:"Hi");
        };
        Runnable ob2 = () \rightarrow {
            for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
                 System.out.println(x:"Hello");
        };
        Thread t1 = new Thread(ob1);
        Thread t2 = new Thread(ob2);
        t1.start();
        t2.start();
```

(using lambda

expression)

Some subtle links between Thread and Runnable

```
public Thread(ThreadGroup group, Runnable target, String name,
              long stackSize) {
    this(group, target, name, stackSize, acc:null, inheritThreadLocals:true);
```

This is the main constructor of the Thread class.

- target is of Runnable type.
- When we extend the Thread class by any custom class, by default the default constructor of the Thread class (non-parameterized constructor) gets called.

```
public Thread() {
    this(group:null, target:null, "Thread-" + nextThreadNum(), stackSize:0);
```

- It is the default constructor of Thread class.
- Here we can see, the target is null.
- So, when we extends Thread class from our class, the target is null.
- Also there is a run() method inside the Thread class which overrides the run() method of the interface Runnable.

```
@Override
public void run() {
    if (target != null) {
        target.run();
```

- In case of extending Thread class, we override this run() method, so that our run() method (present in our class) will get executed.
- One more constructor inside Thread is there which accepts target.

```
public Thread(Runnable target) {
    this(group:null, target, "Thread-" + nextThreadNum(), stackSize:0);
}
```

- So, if we are not extending the class, we need to pass a **Runnable** type object inside the Thread constructor while initializing.
- Our custom class can implement the **Runnable** interface and that object can be passed inside the **Thread** class's constructor.

Race Condition

- △ When 2 threads are running, they should not modify one variable at the same time.
- △ Like imagine transacting to 2 different persons from the same bank account at the same time, it'll cause issues.
- - If you want to execute the statements after the threads are complete, then use join() method.

```
class Counter {
   int count;
   Counter() {
       this.count = 0;
   public void increment() {
       this.count++;
public class RacePractice {
   public static void main(String[] args) throws InterruptedException {
       Counter c = new Counter();
       Runnable ob1 = () -> {
           for (int i = 1; i \le 5000; i++)
                c.increment();
       Runnable ob2 = () -> {
           for (int i = 1; i <= 5000; i++)
                c.increment();
        };
       Thread t1 = new Thread(ob1);
       Thread t2 = new Thread(ob2);
       t1.start();
       t2.start();
       t1.join();
       t2.join();
       System.err.println(c.count);
```

F This code should give the output 10000, but the output will not be consistent.

```
$ for((i=1;i<=5;i++)); do java RacePractice; done
10000
8631
10000
10000
8705</pre>
```

- I ran for 5 times, the results are inconsistent.
- It is happening because, at sometimes, both the threads are executing the increment() method at same time;
 - Lets value of count was 100 at a time, both executed increment() method at that time.
 - So, now, instead of 102, the value of count became 101.
 - F This is the cause of the inconsistent result.
- There is a keyword called **synchronized**, it doesn't allow the method to be called 2 times at once.

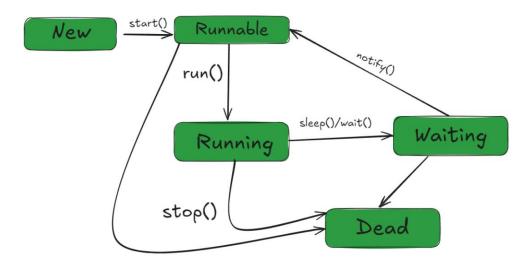
```
this.count++;
}

dv_java (main)
$ for((i=1;i<=5;i++)); do java RacePractice; done
10000
10000
10000
10000
10000
```

public synchronized void increment() {

• Now, the result is consistent.

Thread States

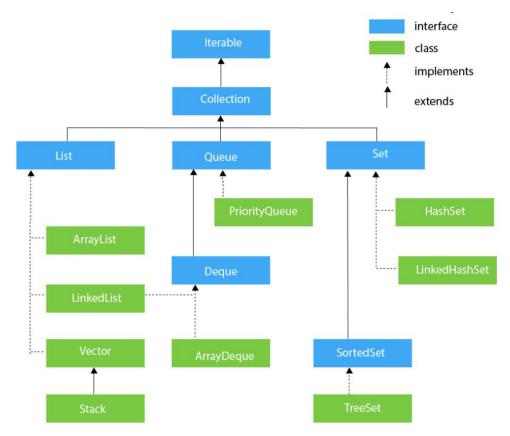


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> Collection API

Collection API: concept

△ Collections : class



.

> ArrayList

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Collection nums = new ArrayList();
    for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
        nums.add(i);

    System.err.println(nums);
}</pre>
```

· Here, you can directly print the object.

```
$ java ArrayListPractice
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
```

- Here you can't access the values like nums[2]
- You can use **nums.get(2)** to get the value at index-2.
- In the above code, we have taken **nums** as **Collection** type. In that *Collection* interface, there is no method called **get()**.
- For The type of nums should be List or ArrayList or something like that.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Collection<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
        nums.add(i);

    System.err.println(nums);
}</pre>
```

- For The warning that was coming before, was due to not specifying the type.
- Note: here you can use Wrapper type (Integer, Double etc.) not primitive type (int, double etc).

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>();
   for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
        nums.add(i);

   for (int i = 0; i <= nums.size(); i++)
        nums.get(i);
}</pre>
```

Now we used List in place of Collection, so we can use the get() method now.

م

➤ <u>Set</u>

- - Internally, it stores elements in a hash table based on the element's hash code.
 - The iteration order you see depends on how the hash table buckets are organized.

- Set is interface; HashSet is class
- △ If you want a sorted set, then go for TreeSet instead of HashSet

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Set<Integer> st = new TreeSet<Integer>();
    int[] arr = { 62, 54, 82, 21 };

    for (int x : arr)
        st.add(x);

    for (int val : st)
        System.err.println(val);
}
```

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➤ <u>Map</u>

- For The HashMap is not synchronized.
- To use synchronized version, use HashTable.

Comparator vs Comparable

The Collections class contains static methods that operate or returns collections.

```
@SuppressWarnings({"unchecked", "rawtypes"})
public static <T> void sort(List<T> list, Comparator<? super T> c) {
    list.sort(c);
}
```

- F This is the sort() method.
- Here Comparator is there; Comparator is nothing but a Functional Interface containing a compare() method.

```
@FunctionalInterface
public interface Comparator<T> {
   int compare(T o1, T o2);
}
```

In the below code snippet, the list nums will be sorted according to its values.

```
$ java Demo
[43, 31, 72, 29]
[29, 31, 43, 72]
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>();
   nums.add(e:43);
   nums.add(e:31);
   nums.add(e:72);
   nums.add(e:29);

   System.err.println(nums);

   // Collection(s); not Collection
   Collections.sort(nums);

   System.err.println(nums);
}
```

ء

I want to short the values by their right most digit:

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>();
   nums.add(e:43);
   nums.add(e:31);
   nums.add(e:72);
   nums.add(e:29);

   System.err.println(nums);

   Comparator<Integer> comp = new Comparator<Integer>() {
      @Override
      public int compare(Integer v1, Integer v2) {
            return (v1 % 10) - (v2 % 10);
      }
   };

   Collections.sort(nums, comp); // [31, 72, 43, 29]

   System.err.println(nums);
}
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    List<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    nums.add(e:43);
    nums.add(e:31);
    nums.add(e:72);
    nums.add(e:29);

    System.err.println(nums);

Collections.sort(nums, (v1, v2) -> (v1 % 10) - (v2 % 10)); // [31, 72, 43, 29]

    System.err.println(nums);
}
```

* Using lambda expression.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Student> students = new ArrayList<Student>();
   students.add(new Student(age:21, name:"Alice"));
   students.add(new Student(age:19, name:"Bob"));
   students.add(new Student(age:22, name:"Charlie"));
   students.add(new Student(age:20, name:"Diana"));

for (Student st : students)
   System.err.println(st);

System.err.println();

Collections.sort(students);
```

Here, in case of a list of objects, **sort()** method is not working without passing the **comparator**.

```
@SuppressWarnings("unchecked")
public static <T extends Comparable<? super T>> void sort(List<T> list) {
    list.sort(c:null);
}
```

It is the **sort()** method, it requires that the Type (i.e. Integer, Double etc etc) should be of **Comparable**.

You can see, Integer is implementing Comparable; so it can be used in the sort() method without passing the comparator.

- * Now, we implemented the **Comparable** interface in the **Student** class, and overridden the **compareTo** method inside it.
- Now, when we sort without using comparator, it'll not give any error.

> forEach method

```
default void forEach(Consumer<? super T> action) {
    Objects.requireNonNull(action);
    for (T t : this) {
        action.accept(t);
    }
}
```

- · It accepts a Consumer typed object.
- Consumer is a functional interface.
- < <? super T> means, type should be T or any of its super class.

This the abstract method that is to be overridden.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Integer[] nums = { 3, 4, 2, 5, 3, 5 };
    List<Integer> ls = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    for (Integer num : nums)
        ls.add(num);

    ls.forEach(new Consumer<Integer>() {
        public void accept(Integer val) {
            System.err.println(val);
        }
    });
}
```

F It can also be written like this.

> Stream API

- You'll get a method in the List objects called stream().
- It'll create a Stream object containing all the methods that List has.
- Even if you change something inside that Stream object, nothing will affect the original list.
- But the condition is: the Stream object can be used once. If you use it more than once, it'll give Run time exception.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Integer> ls = Arrays.asList(...a:4, 3, 5, 6, 4, 3, 5, 3, 5);

   Stream<Integer> strm = ls.stream();

   strm.forEach(val -> System.err.print(val + " "));
   System.err.println();
   strm.forEach(val -> System.err.print(val + " "));
```

- Run-Time exception. Only once the Stream object can be used.
- Using of stream provides so many methods like map, filter, flatMap, sorted, ..etc.

These are part of Stream API, not part of the List or something like that.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<Integer> ls = Arrays.asList(...a:4, 3, 5, 6, 4, 3, 5, 3, 5);

   Stream<Integer> s1 = ls.stream();
   Stream<Integer> s2 = s1.filter(val -> val % 2 == 0);
   // s1 is used now; can't use it again

s2.forEach(val -> System.err.print(val + " "));
   // s2 is used now; can't use it again
```

.

As the return types of these stream api's methods are Stream only, so we can chain these kind of methods.

parallelStream in Java

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int size = 10_000; // just to make it eye catching
    List<Integer> nums = new ArrayList<Integer>(size);
    Random ran = new Random();
    for (int i = 1; i <= size; i++)
        nums.add(ran.nextInt(bound:100));
    long t1 = System.currentTimeMillis();
    int sum1 = nums.stream()
            .map(n -> {
                try {Thread.sleep(millis:3);} catch (Exception e) {}
                return n * 2;
            1)
            .reduce(identity:0, (a, b) -> a + b);
    long t2 = System.currentTimeMillis();
    int sum2 = nums.parallelStream()
            .map(n \rightarrow \{
                try {Thread.sleep(millis:3);} catch (Exception e) {}
                return n * 2;
            .reduce(identity:0, (a, b) -> a + b);
    long t3 = System.currentTimeMillis();
    System.err.println("sum1 = " + sum1 + ", sum2 = " + sum2);
    System.err.println("stream : " + (long) (t2 - t1));
    System.err.println("parallelStream : " + (long) (t3 - t2));
```

```
$ java Demo
sum1 = 998040, sum2 = 998040
stream : 38450
parallelStream : 2445
```

parallelStream ran faster (as multiple threads)

```
Thread 1 handles nums[0..2499] → produces sum1

Thread 2 handles nums[2500..4999] → produces sum2

Thread 3 handles nums[5000..7499] → produces sum3

Thread 4 handles nums[7500..9999] → produces sum4

Final result = sum1 + sum2 + sum3 + sum4

(it works like this)
```

> Optional class

△ It's a class just to avoid the Null Pointer Exception.

م

> Method Reference

- Fere, in the lambda expression passed inside the map() method, we are just calling a method i.e. toUpperCase() present inside that object i.e. str.
- So, when you are just calling a method of an object, no need to write the full lambda expression. Just pass the reference of that method.

: is used to reference a instance method of a class.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    List<String> names = Arrays.asList(...a:"Alok", "Laxmi", "Ram", "Hari");
    names.forEach(System.out::println);
```

- Now the confusion is: in both the cases, it is acting differently.
 - In first case, its calling that method using the str i.e. str.toUpperCase()
 - But in second case, its calling that method using the object (System.out)
 provided and passing the str inside it.

• NOTE

- If the reference is in the form ClassName::methodName, the method is called on the object provided by the function (e.g., str.toUpperCase()).
- If the reference is in the form objectName::methodName, the method is called on that object, with the function-provided value passed as an argument (e.g., System.out.println(str)).

Constructor Reference

Here, I am creating a ArrayList of type Student, from a List of type String, using map function.

F It'll do the work.

> Supplier interface

△ It is a *functional interface* that provides a **get** method to create something.

```
@FunctionalInterface
public interface Supplier<T> {
    /**
    * Gets a result.
    *
    * @return a result
    */
    T get();
}
```

```
Supplier<List<Integer>> sp1 = new Supplier<List<Integer>>() {
    public List<Integer> get() {
        return new ArrayList<Integer>();
    }
};

Supplier<List<Integer>> sp2 = () -> new ArrayList<Integer>();

List<Integer> ls1 = sp2.get();
List<Integer> ls2 = sp2.get();
System.err.println("ls1 = " + ls1);
System.err.println("ls2 = " + ls2);
```

Fere, I used sp2 to create 2 ArrayList<Integer>

```
$ java Demo
| ls1 = []
| ls2 = []
```

```
Supplier<List<Integer>> sp2 = ArrayList<Integer>::new;
List<Integer> ls1 = sp2.get();
List<Integer> ls2 = sp2.get();
System.err.println("ls1 = " + ls1);
System.err.println("ls2 = " + ls2);
```

For It can also be written like this using the Constructor reference.