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Department of Computer Science and Engineering

# **VI SEMESTER**

# **ADVANCED JAVA PROGRAMMING**

[21CS642]

**Module – 1: Enumerations, Autoboxing and Annotations** 

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# Module - 1: Enumerations, Autoboxing and Annotations

# **Enumerations**

- 1. Enumerations were added to the Java language in JDK5.
- 2. **Enumerations** (enum) in Java are a special type of class used to define a collection of constants. They provide a way to represent a group of named constants.
- 3. An Enumeration can have constructors, methods and instance variables.
- 4. It is created using the **enum** keyword. Each enumeration constant is *public, static* and *final* by default.
- 5. Even though enumeration defines a class type and has constructors, you do not instantiate an **enum** using **new**.
- 6. Enumeration variables are used and declared in much a same way as you do a primitive var

#### How to Define and Use an Enumeration

1. An enumeration can be defined simply by creating a list of enum variables. Let us take an example for the **WeekDays** variable with different days in the Week.

```
enum WeekDays //Enumeration defined
{
   SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY
}
```

- 2. Identifiers SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY are called enumeration constants and are public, static and final by default.
- 3. Variables of enumeration can be defined directly without using a **new** key word.

```
WeekDays day;
```

4. Variables of Enumeration type can have only enumeration constants as value. We define an enum variable as enum\_variable = enum\_type.enum\_constant;

```
day = WeekDays.SUNDAY;
```

5. Two enumeration constants can be compared for equality by using the = = relational operator.

#### **Example:**

```
if(day == WeekDays.SUNDAY) { ..... }
```

#### **Example of Enumeration**

#### **Ex1**:

```
enum WeekDays //Enumeration defined
{
    SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY
}

class EnumDemo1
{
    public static void main(String args[])
        {
        WeekDays wk; //wk is an enumeration variable of type WeekDays
        wk = WeekDays.SUNDAY; //only WeekDays enum type value can be assigned
        System.out.println("Today is "+wk);
        }
}
```

#### Output:

```
Today is SUNDAY
```

6. The enum can be defined within or outside the class.

Note: Above Ex1. demonstrate the use of enum outside the class

## Example of enum within the class

#### Ex2.

#### Output:

```
Today is SUNDAY
```

7. An enumeration value can also be used to control a switch statement **Example of Enumeration using switch statement Ex3**.

```
enum WeekDays //Enumeration defined
  SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY
class EnumDemo3
     public static void main(String args[])
     {
        WeekDays wk = WeekDays.SUNDAY;
        switch(day)
           case SUNDAY:
                System.out.println("sunday");
                break;
           case MONDAY:
                System.out.println("monday");
                break;
               System.out.println("other day");
          }
      }
 }
```

Output: sunday

# values() and valueOf() methods

- 1. All the enumerations have predefined methods values() and valueOf().
- 2. **values():** This method returns an array of enum-type containing all the enumeration constants in it.

Generic form: public static enum-type[] values()

3. **valueOf():** This method is used to return the enumeration constant whose value is equal to the string passed in as argument while calling this method.

**Generic form:** public static enum-type valueOf(String str)

# Example of enumeration using values() and valueOf() methods Ex4.

```
// use of enumeration built-in methods
// An enumeration of apple varieties
enum Apple {
    Jonathan, GoldenDel, RedDel, Winesap, Cortland
}
class EnumDemo4
{
    public static void main(String args[])
      {
        Apple ap;
        System.out.println("Here are all Apple constants:");
        // use values()
        Apple allapples[] = Apple.values();
        for(Apple a : allapples)
        System.out.println(a);
        System.out.println();
        // use valueOf()
        ap = Apple.valueOf("Winesap");
        System.out.println("ap contains " + ap);
    }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
Here are all Apple constants:
Jonathan
GoldenDel
RedDel
Winesap
Cortland
ap contains Winesap
```

4. Instead of creating an array we can directly obtain all values as shown in below code snippet From **Ex4**.

```
for(Apple a : Apple.values())
  System.out.println(a);
```

# **Java Enumerations Are Class Types**

- 1. Enumerations are defined using the **enum** keyword which resembles the syntax used to create a class using the keyword **class**.
- 2. Just like classes, enums can have instance variables, methods and constructors, even enums can implement interfaces.
- 3. Each enumeration constant is an object of its enumeration type.
- 4. The constructor is called when each enum constant is created.
- 5. Each enum constant has its own copy of any instance variable defined by the enumeration.

But there are two restrictions that apply to enumerations:

- 1. Enumeration cannot **inherit** another class
- 2. An enum cannot be a superclass, this means that an enum can't be extended.

# Example for default constructor of enum Ex5.

```
enum WeekDays //Enumeration defined
{
   SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY;
   //Overloaded default constructor
   WeekDays(){
       System.out.println("Default constructor called");
     }
}

class EnumDemo5
{
    public static void main(String args[])
     {
       WeekDays day; //No constructor called
       day = WeekDays.MONDAY; //default constructor called for constant MONDAY
     }
}
```

#### Output:

```
Default constructor called
```

- The default constructor is called for each enum constant (SUNDAY,MONDAY,....,SATURDAY) because enum constants are implicitly instantiated when an enum type is loaded.
- Even though we are only explicitly assigning 'WeekDays.MONDAY' to 'day', the default constructor for all enum constants is still executed.
- So, when we run the program , we will see "Default constructor called" printed 7 times, once for each enum constant, regardless of how many of them we explicitly use in our code.

# Example for enum as class type Ex6.

```
enum Apple {
   Jonathan(10), GoldenDel(9), RedDel(12), Winesap(15), Cortland(8);
   //instance variable
   private int price; // price of each apple
  // Constructor
   Apple(int p){
    price = p;
   //instance method
   int getPrice(){
    return price;
}
class EnumDemo6 {
   public static void main(String args[])
   Apple ap;
   // Display price of Winesap.
   System.out.println("Winesap costs " +
   Apple.Winesap.getPrice() + " cents.\n");
   System.out.println("All apple prices:");
   for(Apple a : Apple.values())
    System.out.println(a + " costs " + a.getPrice() + " cents.");
```

#### Output:

```
Winesap costs 15 cents.

All apple prices:
Jonathan costs 10 cents.
GoldenDel costs 9 cents.
RedDel costs 12 cents.
Winesap costs 15 cents.
Cortland costs 8 cents.
```

- This example contains 3 things,
  - The first is the instance variable(price), which is used to hold the price of each variety of apple.
  - The second is the Apple constructor, which is passed the price of an apple
  - The third is the method **getPrice()**, which returns the value of price.
- As soon as the enum variable is declared and loaded, the parameterized constructor of each constant is called and it initializes the price with values specified with them in parenthesis.
- As we know, each enumeration constant has its own copy of price, we can obtain the price of a specified type of apple by calling getPrice().
  - Apple.Winesap.getPrice() returns price of Winesap apple i.e 15
- In above Apple enum, overload the constructor and initialize the price to -1, to indicate the no price data is available:

#### Ex7:

```
// Use an enum constructor.
enum Apple {
    Jonathan(10),GoldenDel(9),RedDel,Winesap(15),Cortland(8);

    private int price; // price of each apple

    // Constructor
    Apple(int p){
        price = p;
    }
    //Overloaded constructor
    Apple(){
        price = -1;
    }
    int getPrice(){
        return price;
    }
}
```

```
class EnumDemo7
{
   public static void main(String args[])
   {
      Apple ap;
      // Display price of Winesap.
      System.out.println("Winesap costs " +
      Apple.Winesap.getPrice() + " cents.\n");
      // Display all apples and prices.
      System.out.println("All apple prices:");
      for(Apple a : Apple.values())
            System.out.println(a + " costs " + a.getPrice() + " cents.");
      }
}
```

#### output:

```
Winesap costs 15 cents.

All apple prices:
Jonathan costs 10 cents.
GoldenDel costs 9 cents.
RedDel costs -1 cents.
Winesap costs 15 cents.
Cortland costs 8 cents.
```

- In this example, **RedDel** is not given an argument, that means the default constructor is called, and **RedDel**'s price variable returns the value -1.

#### **Enumerations inherit Enum**

- 1. All enumerations automatically inherit one class that is **java.lang.Enum**.
- 2. The **Enum** class defines several methods such as **ordinal()**, **compareTo()**, **equals()** and so on, that are available for use by all enumerations

#### ordinal():

- To obtain a value that indicates an enumeration constant's position in the list of constants. This is called its *ordinal value*, and it is retrieved by calling the **ordinal()** method, shown here: final int ordinal()
- It returns the ordinal value of the invoking constant.

# Example using ordinal() method: Ex8.

#### **Output:**

```
Here are all apple constants and their ordinal values:
Jonathan 0
GoldenDel 1
RedDel 2
Winesap 3
Cortland 4
```

#### compareTo():

- The ordinal value of two constants of the same enumeration can be compared by using the **compareTo()** method.
- Its general form is final int compareTo (enum-type e)

  Here,enum-type is the type of the enumeration, and e is the constant being compared to the invoking constant.
- Both the invoking constant and e must be of the same enumeration
- compareTo() method returns following 3 values
  - a. positive value (+): If the invoking constant's ordinal value greater than e's
  - b. negative value (-): If the invoking constant's ordinal value is less than e's
  - c. Zero (0): If the two ordinal values are the same.

#### Example using compareTo() method:

#### Ex9.

```
enum Apple4 {
Jonathan, GoldenDel, RedDel, Winesap, Cortland
public class EnumDemo9 {
      public static void main(String args[])
        {
               Apple4 ap1, ap2, ap3;
               ap1 = Apple4.RedDel;
               ap2 = Apple4.GoldenDel;
               ap3 = Apple4.RedDel;
               System.out.println();
             // Demonstrate compareTo()
             if(ap1.compareTo(ap2) < 0)</pre>
             System.out.println(ap1 + " comes before " + ap2);
             if(ap1.compareTo(ap2) > 0)
             System.out.println(ap2 + " comes before " + ap1);
             if(ap1.compareTo(ap3) == 0)
             System.out.println(ap1 + " equals " + ap3);
        }
```

#### **Output:**

```
GoldenDel comes before RedDel
RedDel equals RedDel
```

#### equals():

- An enumeration constant can be compared with any other object by using **equals()**, which overrides the **equals()** method defined by **Object**.
- Although **equals()** can compare an enum constant to any other object, the two objects will only be considered equal if they refer to the same constant within the same enum.

## Example using equals() method

#### Ex10.

```
enum Apple6{
   Jonathan, GoldenDel, RedDel, Winesap, Cortland
}
enum TestApple{
        Jonathan, GoldenDel, RedDel, Winesap, Cortland
}
public class EnumDemo10 {
   public static void main(String args[])
   {
        Apple6 ap1, ap2, ap3;
        TestApple t1;
        ap1 = Apple6.Cortland;
        ap2 = Apple6.Jonathan;
        t1 = TestApple.Jonathan;
        ap3 = Apple6.Cortland;

        System.out.println(ap1+" and "+ ap2+" from Apple6 are equal: "+ap1.equals(ap2));
        System.out.println(ap2+" and "+ t1+" from Apple6 and TestApple are equal: "+ap2.equals(t1));
        System.out.println(ap1+" and "+ ap3+" from Apple6 are equal: "+ap1.equals(ap3));
    }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
Cortland and Jonathan from Apple6 are equal: false
Jonathan and Jonathan from Apple6 and TestApple are equal: false
Cortland and Cortland from Apple6 are equal: true
```

3. We can compare 2 enumeration references for equality using ==( operator).

Example using ordinal(), compareTo(), equals() and == operator Ex11.

```
enum Apple11 {
    shimla, ooty, wood, green, red
}
    public class EnumDemo11 {
        public static void main(String args[])
      {
             Apple11 ap, ap2, ap3;
            // Obtain all ordinal values using ordinal().
            System.out.println("Here are all Apple11 constants" + " and their ordinal values:");
```

```
for(Apple11 a : Apple11.values())
    System.out.println(a + " " + a.ordinal());
  ap = Apple11.wood;
  ap2 = Apple11.ooty;
 ap3 = Apple11.wood;
 System.out.println();
  // Demonstrate compareTo() and equals()
 if(ap.compareTo(ap2) < 0)</pre>
    System.out.println(ap + " comes before " + ap2);
 if(ap.compareTo(ap2) > 0)
   System.out.println(ap2 + " comes before " + ap);
  if(ap.compareTo(ap3) == 0)
   System.out.println(ap + " equals " + ap3);
  System.out.println();
 if(ap.equals(ap2))
    System.out.println("Error!");
 if(ap.equals(ap3))
   System.out.println(ap + " equals " + ap3);
 if(ap == ap3)
   System.out.println(ap + " == " + ap3);
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
Here are all Apple11 constants and their ordinal values:
shimla 0
ooty 1
wood 2
green 3
red 4
ooty comes before wood
wood equals wood
wood equals wood
wood equals wood
wood == wood
```

# **Type Wrappers**

1. Java uses primitive data types such as int, double, float etc. to hold the basic data types.

Ex.

Int a =10;

Float f=24.7;

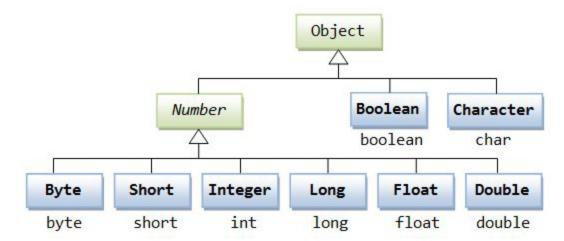
Char ch='c';

- 2. Despite the performance benefits offered by the primitive data types, there are situations when you will need an object representation of the primitive data type.
- 3. For example, many data structures in Java operate on objects. So you cannot use primitive data types with those data structures.
- 4. To handle these situations ,Java provides *type wrappers* , which are classes that encapsulate a primitive type within an object.

#### List of Primitive Data types and its corresponding Wrapper classes

sl.no	Primitive	Wrapper Class	Constructor Argument	Methods to get Primitive Values
1	byte	Byte	Byte(byte b) <b>or</b> Byte(String str)	byteValue()
2	short	Short	Short(short s) <b>or</b> Short(String str)	shortValue()
3	int	Integrer	Integer(int i) <b>or</b> Integer(String str)	intValue()
4	float	Float	Float(float f) <b>or</b> Float(float str)	floatValue()
5	double	Double	Double(double d) <b>or</b> Double(String str)	doubleValue()
6	long	Long	Long(long I) <b>or</b> Long(String str)	longValue()
7	char	Character	Character(char ch) <b>or</b> Character(String str)	charValue()
8	boolean	Boolean	Boolean(boolean b) <b>or</b> Boolean(String str)	booleanValue()

#### **Type Wrapper Hierarchy**



## **Character:**

- It encapsulates primitive type char within an object. The constructor for character is Character (char ch)
  - Here, *ch* specifies the primitive character for which you want to create an object and Character specifies the Wrapper class.
- To obtain the char value contained in a Character object, the charValue() method is used.

char charValue()

It returns the encapsulated character

#### **Boolean:**

- It encapsulates primitive type boolean within an object.

Boolean (boolean b)

To obtain primitive bool value contained in **Boolean** object, call boolean booleanValue()

# The Numeric Type Wrappers:

- The Numeric Type Wrappers in Java, including Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, and Double, inherit the abstract class Number.
- These wrappers provide methods like byteValue(), doubleValue(), floatValue(), intValue(), longValue(), and shortValue() to return the value in different number formats.
- Constructors like Integer(int num) and Integer(String str) allow object creation from given values or string representations, throwing a NumberFormatException if the string is invalid.
- Overriding toString() provides a human-readable form of the value, enabling direct output using println().
- **Boxing**: The process of encapsulating a value within an object is called *boxing*.

Integer iob = new Integer(100);

- **Unboxing**: The process of extracting value from a type wrapper is called *unboxing*.

```
int i = iob.intValue();
```

**Ex1**: Program to demonstrate how to use numeric wrapper to encapsulate a value and then extract that value.

```
public class BoxingUnboxing {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer iob = new Integer(100); // boxing
        int i = iob.intValue(); //unboxing
        System.out.println("value from primitive variable:"+i);
        System.out.println("value from wrapper object: "+iob);
    }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
value from primitive variable:100
value from wrapper object: 100
```

Following example shows constructors in wrapper classes.

#### Ex2.

```
public class WrapperDemo1 {
public static void main(String[] args)
{
Byte B1 = new Byte((byte) 10); //Constructor which takes byte value as an argument
Byte B2 = new Byte("10"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
//Byte B3 = new Byte("abc"); //Run Time Error : NumberFormatException
//Because, String abc can not be parse-able to byte
Short S1 = new Short((short) 20); //Constructor which takes short value as an argument
Short S2 = new Short("10"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Integer I1 = new Integer(30); //Constructor which takes int value as an argument
Integer I2 = new Integer("30"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Long L1 = new Long(40); //Constructor which takes long value as an argument
Long L2 = new Long("40"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Float F1 = new Float(12.2f); //Constructor which takes float value as an argument
Float F2 = new Float("15.6"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Float F3 = new Float(15.6d); //Constructor which takes double value as an argument
Double D1 = new Double(17.8d); //Constructor which takes double value as an argument
Double D2 = new Double("17.8"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Boolean BLN1 = new Boolean(false); //Constructor which takes boolean value as an argument
Boolean BLN2 = new Boolean("true"); //Constructor which takes String as an argument
Character C1 = new Character('D'); //Constructor which takes char value as an argument
Character C2 = new Character("abc"); //Compile time error : String abc can not be
converted to character
```

# Autoboxing and Unboxing

- Autoboxing and Unboxing features were added in Java5.
- Autoboxing is a process by which primitive type is automatically encapsulated(boxed) into its equivalent type wrapper
- Auto-Unboxing is a process by which the value of an object is automatically extracted from a type Wrapper class.

#### **Autoboxing:**

- With autoboxing there is no need to explicitly construct an object to wrap a primitive type.
- You need to assign that value to a type-wrapper reference, Java automatically constructs an object..

#### **Auto-unboxing:**

- To unbox an object ,just assign that object reference to a primitive type reference variable.

#### **Ex3.** Demonstrate autoboxing and unboxing

```
public class AutoBox {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer iob = 100; // autobox
        int i = iob; //auto-unbox
        System.out.println(i+" "+iob);
    }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
100 100
```

#### **Autoboxing and Methods:**

Autoboxing and auto-unboxing might occur when an argument is passed to a method or when a value is returned by a method.

#### Ex4.

```
class AutoBox2 {
  // Take an Integer parameter and return an int value;
  static int m(Integer v) {
  return v; // auto-unbox to int
  }
  public static void main(String args[]) {
   // Pass an int to m() and assign the return value to an Integer. Here, the argument 100 is autoboxed into an Integer. The return value is also autoboxed
  // into an Integer.
  Integer iOb = m(100);
  System.out.println(iOb);
  }
}
```

#### **Output:**

#### 100

- In Program the method m() specifies an Integer parameter and returns an int result.
- In **main()**, method **m()** is passed with value 100, as method **m()** expecting an **Integer** this value is automatically boxed.
- Then, **m()** auto-unboxes the value of **v** and returns the **int** equivalent of its argument.
- This int value is assigned to iob in main(), this causes the returned int value to be autoboxed.

#### **Autoboxing/Unboxing Occurs in Expressions**

- Whenever we use an object of the Wrapper class in an expression, automatic unboxing and boxing is done by JVM.

#### Ex5.

```
public class Autobox3 {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Integer iOb;
        iOb = 100; //Autoboxing of int
        ++iOb;
        System.out.println(iOb);
    }
}
```

- When we perform an increment operation on an Integer object, it is first unboxed, then incremented and then again reboxed into an Integer type object.
- This will always happen, when we will use Wrapper class objects in expressions or conditions etc.

#### Ex: 6

```
class Autobox4 {
public static void main(String args[]) {
  Integer i = 35;
  Double d = 33.3;
  d = d + i;
  System.out.println("Value of d is " + d);
  }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
Value of d is 68.3
```

 Because of auto-unboxing, we can use Integer numeric objects to control a switch statement

```
Integer iOb = 2;
```

```
switch(i0b) {
case 1: System.out.println("one");
break;
case 2: System.out.println("two");
break;
default: System.out.println("error");
}
```

- When the switch expression is evaluated, iOb is unboxed and its int value is obtained.

# **Autoboxing/Unboxing Boolean and Character Values**

 Because of auto-unboxing, a Boolean object can be used in conditional statements and looping statements in Java.

Ex:

```
// Autoboxing/unboxing a Boolean and Character.
class AutoBox5 {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        // Autobox/unbox a boolean.
        Boolean b = true;
        // Below, b is auto-unboxed when used in
        // a conditional expression, such as an if.
        if(b) System.out.println("b is true");
        // Autobox/unbox a char.
        Character ch = 'x'; // box a char
        char ch2 = ch; // unbox a char
        System.out.println("ch2 is " + ch2);
    }
}
```

#### **Output:**

```
b is true
ch2 is x
```

# **Autoboxing/Unboxing Helps Prevent Errors**

- Autoboxing and unboxing in Java offer convenience and error prevention.
- They automatically convert primitive types to their corresponding wrapper objects and vice versa.
- This automation helps prevent errors, as shown in the example below:

```
class UnboxingError {
   public static void main(String args[]) {
        Integer iOb = 1000; // autobox the value 1000
        int i = iOb.byteValue(); // manually unbox as byte !!!
        System.out.println(i); // does not display 1000 !
    }
}
```

- In this example, the program tries to unbox an **Integer** object **iOb** to a **byte**.
- However, the manual unboxing truncates the value, resulting in an unexpected output of -24 instead of the expected 1000.
- Auto-unboxing, on the other hand, prevents such errors by always producing a value compatible with the target type.

#### A Word of Warning

- Autoboxing and auto-unboxing can make code less efficient if used excessively.
- While they allow primitives to be treated like objects, using them for simple operations, like in the example below, adds unnecessary overhead:

```
Double a, b, c;
a = 10.0;
b = 4.0;
c = Math.sqrt(a*a + b*b);
System.out.println("Hypotenuse is " + c);
```

- In this code, **Double** objects are used for basic arithmetic, which is less efficient than using primitive types like **double**.
- It's best to reserve wrapper types for cases where object representation is needed, rather than replacing primitives entirely.

# **Annotations (Metadata)**

- 1. Java **Annotations** allow us to add metadata information into our source code, Annotations were added to the java from JDK 5.
- 2. Annotations in Java provide additional information to the compiler and Java.
- 3. Annotations do not impact the execution of the code that they annotate. However they can change the way a program is treated by the compiler.
- 4. Annotations are used in tools during both development and deployment.

#### **Annotation Basics**

- 1. They can be attached with various java elements such as classes, methods, fields, constructors, enum and even to an annotation.
- 2. Annotations are created through a mechanism based on the interface.
- 3. Annotation is defined using the '@' symbol followed by the annotation name.
- 4. Annotation can include elements with values, which can be specified when using the annotation.

#### Syntax:

```
@interface <annotation-name>{ element1,element2,....} //declaration
@<annotation-name>(element1=value,element2=value2..) //applying
annotation with its member values
```

- 5. All annotations consist solely of method declaration and methods act much like fields.
- 6. An annotation cannot include an **'extends'** clause. All Annotation types automatically extends an **'Annotation'** interface which is a super-interface for all the annotations.
- 7. It is declared within the **java.lang.annotation** package.

let's take the example of an annotation called MyAnno:

```
// A simple annotation type.
@interface MyAnno {
    String str();
    int val();
}
```

- In this declaration, the @ symbol before interface indicates that it's an annotation type.
- Annotations contain method declarations, like str() and val(), but without method bodies. Java handles these methods behind the scenes.
- When we apply an annotation we give value to its members. For instance:

```
// Annotate a method.
@MyAnno(str = "Annotation Example", val = 100)
public static void myMeth() { // ...
```

- Here, @MyAnno is linked to the myMeth() method.
- Annotations are followed by a list of member initializations in parentheses.
- Each member is assigned a value using its name, without parentheses. This makes annotation members resemble fields.

#### Specifying a Retention Policy

- Annotation retention policies determine when an annotation is discarded.
- Java defines 3 policies which are encapsulated within the 'java.lang.annotation.RetentionPolicy' enumeration.
- Java has three retention policies: SOURCE, CLASS, and RUNTIME.
  - SOURCE: Retained only in the source file, discarded during compilation.
  - CLASS: Stored in the .class file during compilation but not available at runtime.

- RUNTIME: Stored in the .class file and available at runtime, offering the longest persistence.
- To specify a retention policy for an annotation, use the **@Retention** annotation with the desired policy. If no policy is specified, CLASS is used by default.
- Its general form is shown here:

```
@Retention(retention-policy)
Here, retention-policy must be one of the enumeration constants
```

- The following version of **MyAnno** uses **@Retention** to specify the **RUNTIME** retention policy. Thus, MyAnno will be available to the JVM during program execution.

```
@Retention(RetentionPolicy.RUNTIME)
@interface MyAnno {
String str();
int val();
}
```

## **Types of Annotations**

#### 1. Marker Annotations

- A marker annotation is a special type of annotation with no members, used solely to mark an item.
- Its presence indicates a certain characteristic or behavior.
- Marker Annotation's primary purpose is to convey information about the annotated element without providing any additional parameters or values.
- To check if a marker annotation is present, we use isAnnotationPresent() method, which is defined by the AnnotatedElement interface.

#### Output:

```
MyMarker is present.
```

 Note that when applying the marker annotation, like @MyMarker, no parentheses are needed.

#### 2. Single-Member Annotations

- A single-member annotation is an annotation with only one member.
- It behaves like a regular annotation but allows a shortcut for specifying the value of its single member.
- When there's only one member, you can directly provide its value without specifying the member's name.
- However, for this shortcut to work, the member must be named **value**.

```
import java.lang.annotation.*;
import java.lang.reflect.*;
@Retention(RetentionPolicy.RUNTIME)
@interface MySingle {
  int value(); // The member must be named 'value'
class Single {
  @MySingle(100)
  public static void myMeth() {
       Single ob = new Single();
      try {
          Method m = ob.getClass().getMethod("myMeth");
          MySingle anno = m.getAnnotation(MySingle.class);
          System.out.println(anno.value()); // Displays 100
       } catch (NoSuchMethodException exc) {
          System.out.println("Method Not Found.");
       }
```

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

- In this example, @MySingle(100) annotates the method myMeth().
- Since it's a single-member annotation and the member is named **value**, we can directly specify its value without using the member's name.
- Additionally, single-value syntax can be used for annotations with default values for other members. For instance:

```
@interface SomeAnno {
    int value();
    int xyz() default 0;
}

// Applying the annotation with single-value syntax
@SomeAnno(88)
```

- In this case, if **xyz** is not specified, it defaults to zero, and only the value for **value** needs to be provided using the single-member syntax.
- If you want to specify a value for both value and xyz, you must explicitly name both members. Ex, @SomeAnno(value = 88, xyz = 99)

#### The Built-In Annotations

- There are many built-in annotations in java. Some annotations are applied to java code and some to other annotations.
- Some annotations are specialized and 9 are general purpose
- Four are imported from **java.lang.annotation**:
  - a. @Retention
  - b. @Documented
  - c. @Target, and
  - d. @Inherited.
- Five are imported from java.lang:
  - a. @Override
  - b. @Deprecated
  - c. @FunctionalInterface,
  - d. @SafeVarargs and
  - e. @SuppressWarnings

**@Retention:** It is designed to be used only as an annotation to another annotation. It specifies the retention policy.

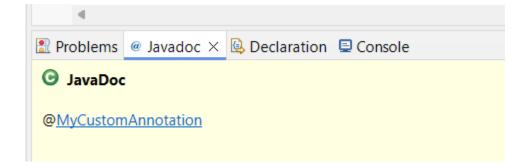
**Example**: @Retention(RetentionPolicy.RUNTIME)

#### @Documented:

- It is a marker interface that tells a tool that an annotation is to be documented.
- Use of @Documented annotation in the code enables tools like Javadoc to process it and include the annotation type information in the generated document.

#### Example:

```
@Documented
@interface MyCustomAnnotation {
   //Annotation body
}
@MyCustomAnnotation
public class JavaDoc {
   /**
   * This is a Javadoc comment for the class.
   */
   //Class body
}
```



#### @Target:

- This annotation specifies the types of items to which an annotation can be applied.
- It's used only to annotate other annotations.
- When using **@Target**, we provide an argument, which is an array of constants from the **ElementType** enumeration.
- This argument specifies the types of things (like classes, methods, or fields) to which the annotation can be applied.

Target Constant	Annotation Can Be Applied To	
ANNOTATION_TYPE	Another annotation	
CONSTRUCTOR	Constructor	
FIELD	Field	
LOCAL_VARIABLE	Local variable	
METHOD	Method	
PACKAGE	Package	
PARAMETER	Parameter	
TYPE	Class, interface, or enumeration	
TYPE_PARAMETER	Type parameter (Added by JDK 8.)	
TYPE_USE	Type use (Added by JDK 8.)	

For example, to specify that an annotation applies only to fields and local variables, you can use this @Target annotation:

@Target( { ElementType.FIELD, ElementType.LOCAL\_VARIABLE } )

## @Inherited:

- @Inherited is a marker annotation that can be used only on another annotation declaration.
- It affects only annotations that will be used on class declarations.
- The @Inherited annotation in Java is used to indicate that an annotation should be inherited from the superclass to the subclass.
- This means that if a class does not directly have a particular annotation, the Java runtime will check if its superclass has the annotation, and if so, it will be inherited by the subclass.

#### Example:

```
import java.lang.annotation.*;

@Inherited
@Retention(RetentionPolicy.RUNTIME)
@interface MyAnnotation {
    String value();
}
```

#### @Override:

- **@Override** is a marker annotation that can be used only on methods.
- A method annotated with **@Override** must override a method from a superclass.
- If it doesn't, a compile-time error will result.
- It is used to ensure that a superclass method is actually overridden, and not simply overloaded.

#### @Deprecated:

- @Deprecated is a marker annotation.
- It indicates that a declaration is outdated and has been replaced by a newer form.

# @FunctionalInterface

- **@FunctionalInterface** is a marker annotation introduced in JDK 8 for interfaces.
- It signals that the annotated interface is a functional interface, which means it has only one abstract method. Functional interfaces are essential for lambda expressions.
- If an interface annotated with **@FunctionalInterface** doesn't meet the criteria of having exactly one abstract method, it will cause a compilation error.
- It's important to note that @FunctionalInterface is not necessary to create a functional
  interface; any interface with just one abstract method automatically qualifies as a
  functional interface.
- Therefore, @FunctionalInterface serves as informational, providing clarity about the functional nature of an interface.

# @SafeVarargs

- @SafeVarargs is a marker annotation that can be applied to methods and constructors.
- It is used to indicate that a method or constructor is safe to be called with a variable number of arguments (varargs) without causing any unsafe actions related to type safety.
- It helps suppress unchecked warnings that might occur due to varargs usage with non-reifiable types or parameterized array instantiation.

#### @SuppressWarnings

- @SuppressWarnings specifies that one or more warnings that might be issued by the compiler are to be suppressed.
- The warnings to suppress are specified by name, in string form.