



## Programming with Java

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- IT Trainer Since 2000
- Conducting Java Training Since 2011
- More than 50+ Corporate Clients

# Objective

- Describe the key features of Java technology
- Write, compile, and run a simple Java application
- Describe the function of the Java Virtual Machine
- Define garbage collection

# History of Java

- Conceived as Programming language for embedded systems like microwave ovens, televisions etc
- One of the first projects developed using Java
  - personal hand-held remote control named Star 7.
- The original language was called Oak
- Java was developed in the year 1991 at Sun Microsystems
  - Java is a simple, object oriented, interpreted distributed, robust, secure, architecture neutral, portable high-performance, multithreaded, and dynamic language

# Primary Goals of Java

- **Provides an easy-to-use language by:**
  - Avoiding many pitfalls of other languages
  - Being object-oriented
  - Enabling users to create streamlined and clear code
- **Provides an interpreted environment for:**
  - Improved speed of development
  - Code portability
  - Enables users to run more than one thread of activity
  - Loads classes dynamically; that is, at the time they are actually needed
  - Supports changing programs dynamically during runtime by loading classes from disparate sources

# Features of Java

- The following features fulfill these goals:
  - The Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
  - Garbage collection
  - The Java Runtime Environment (JRE)
  - JVM tool interface

# The Java Virtual Machine

- Executes instructions that a Java compiler generates.
- A runtime environment, is embedded in various products, such as web browsers, servers, and operating systems
- Its Imaginary machine that is implemented by emulating software on a real machine
- Reads compiled byte codes that are platform-independent
- **Bytecode**
  - a special machine language that can be understood by the JVM independent of any particular computer hardware,

# JVM Tasks

## 1. Loads code

- Loads all classes necessary for the execution of a program
- Maintains classes of the local file system in separate *namespaces*

## 2. Verifies code (Bytecode Verifier)

- The code adheres to the JVM specification.
- The code does not violate system integrity.
- The parameter types for all operational code are correct.
- No illegal data conversions have occurred.



# Class Loader

- Bootstrap Class Loader
  - loads java's core classes like java.lang, java.util etc.
- Extensions Class Loader
  - JAVA\_HOME/jre/lib/ext contains jar packages that are extensions of standard core java classes.
  - Extensions class loader loads classes from this ext folder.
  - Using the system environment property java.ext.dirs you can add 'ext' folders and jar files to be loaded using extensions class loader.
- System Class Loader
  - Java classes that are available in the java classpath are loaded using System class loader.

# Garbage Collection

- Allocated memory that is no longer needed should be deallocated.
- In other languages, deallocation is the programmer's responsibility.
- The Java programming language provides a system-level thread to track memory allocation.
- Garbage collection has the following characteristics:
  - Checks for and frees memory no longer needed
  - Is done automatically
  - Can vary dramatically across JVM implementations

# Application and Runtime Environment

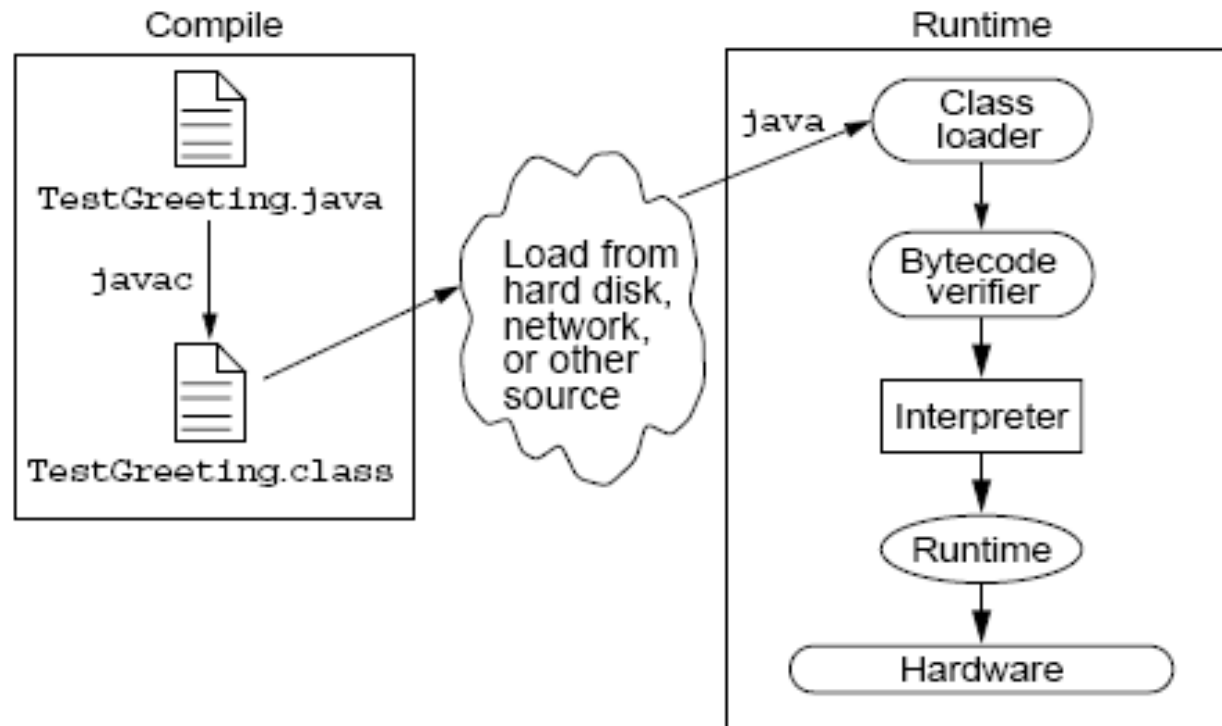
- The JRE of the SDK contains the complete set of class files for all the Java technology packages, which includes basic language classes, GUI component classes, and so on.
- The Java Application Programming Interface (API) is prewritten code, organized into packages of similar topics.
- Applet and AWT packages include classes for creating fonts, menus, and buttons. The full Java API is included in the Java 2 Standard Edition

# Application and Runtime Environment

- J2SE includes the essential compiler, tools, runtimes, and APIs for writing, deploying, and running applets and applications in the Java programming language.
- JDK is the short-cut name for the set of Java development tools, consisting of the API classes, a Java compiler, and the Java virtual machine interpreter, regardless of which version.
- The JDK is used to compile Java applications and applets. The most current version is the J2SE is 6.0

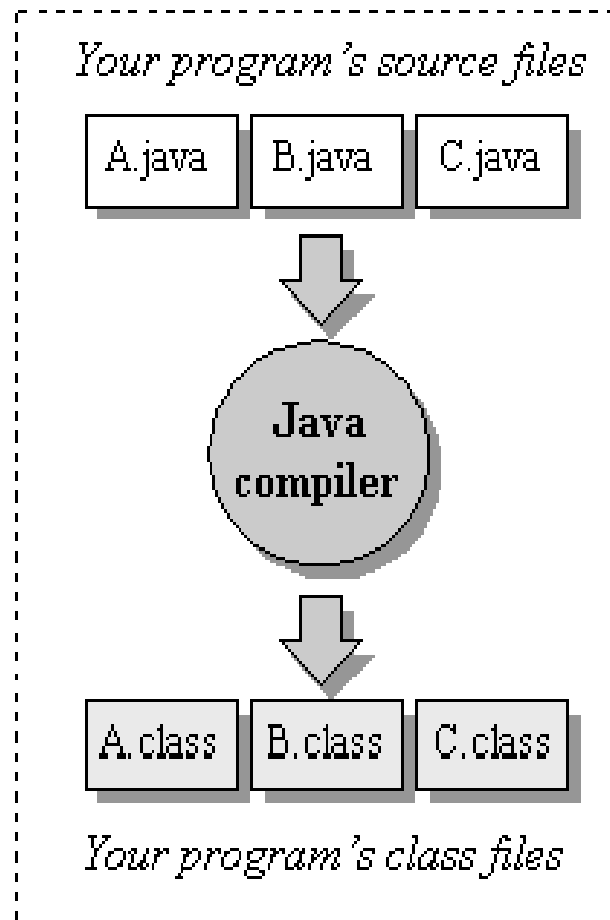
# Java Run Time Environment

The Java application environment performs as follows:

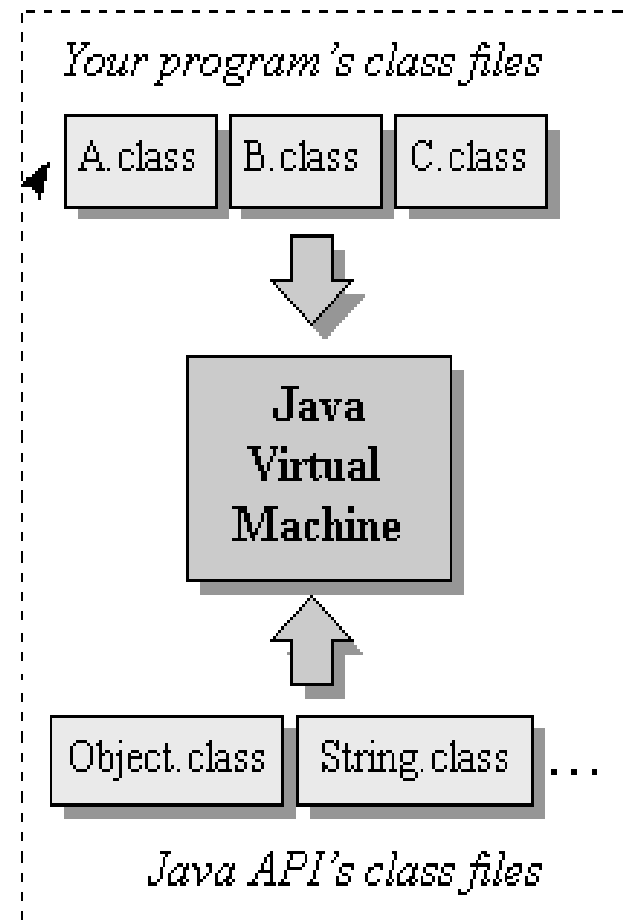


# Compile time and Runtime Environment

## compile-time environment



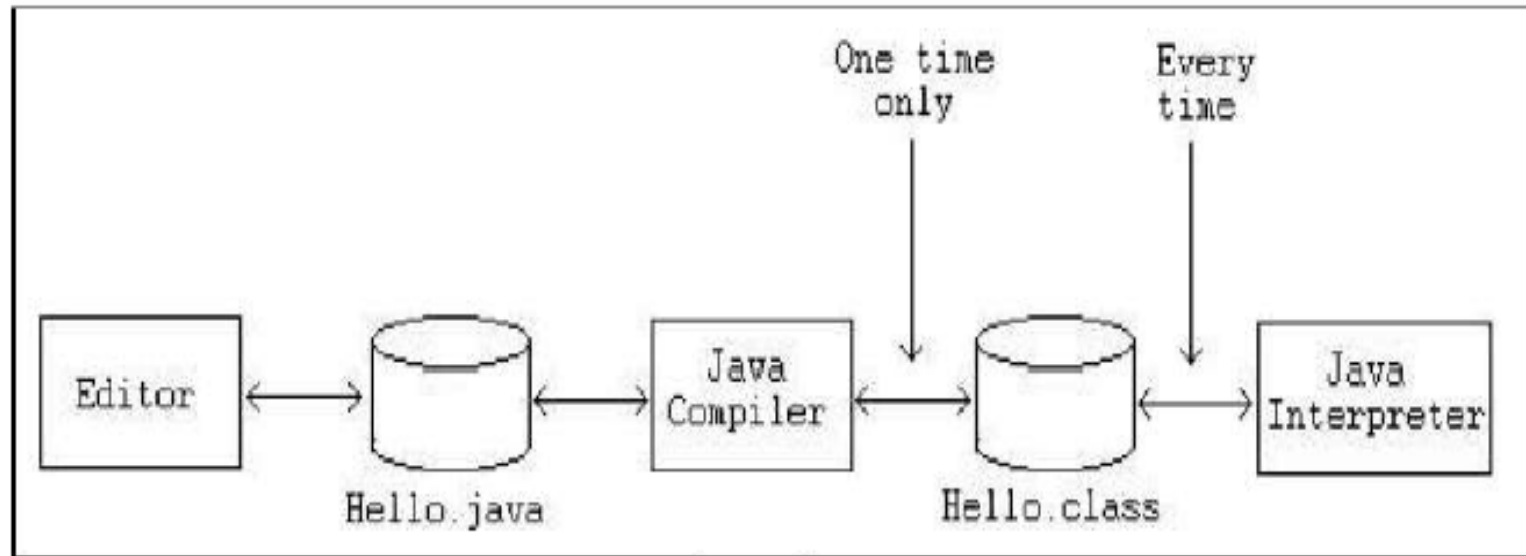
## run-time environment

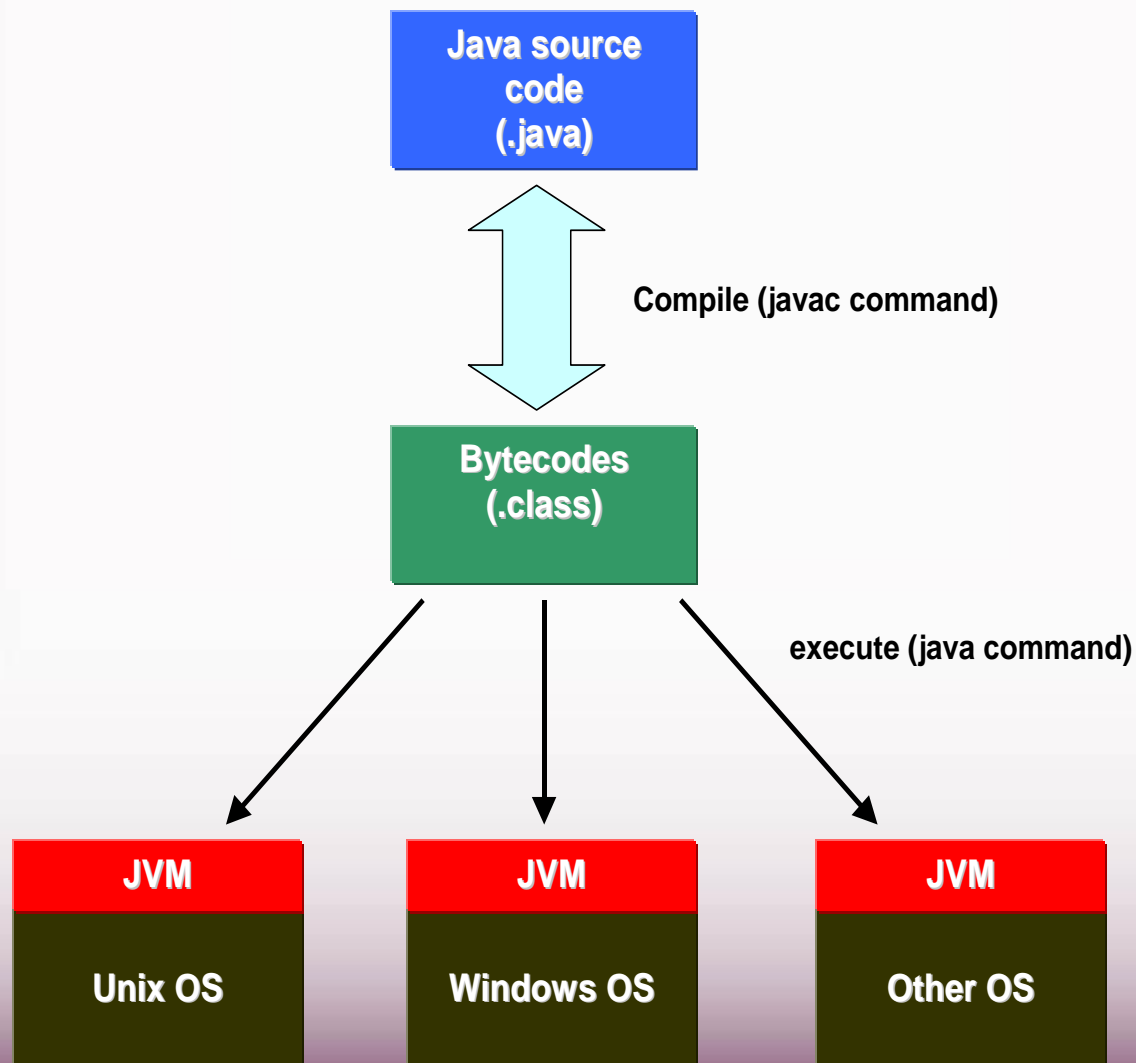


*Your class files move locally or through a network*

# Phases of a Java Program

- The following figure describes the process of compiling and executing a Java program







# Integrated Development Environments

- An IDE is the high-productivity tool
- Used to edit, compile, and test programs, manage projects, debugging, building GUI interfaces, etc.
- IDE provides extensive programming support for editing and project management,
- The Popular IDE's
  - Eclipse
  - NetBeans
  - IntelliJ

# Java language syntax

# Objectives

- Identify the basic parts of a Java program
- Differentiate among Java literals, primitive data types, variable types ,identifiers and operators
- Develop a simple valid Java program using the concepts learned in this chapter

# Program structure

- A program in Java consists of one or more class definitions
- One of these classes must define a method *main()*, which is where the program starts running
- Java programs should always end with the .java extension.
- There can be More than one Class Definition in a class ,but only one public class
- Source Filenames should match the name of the public class.

# Source File Layout

- Basic syntax of a Java source file is:
- ***[<package\_declaration>]***
- ***<import\_declaration>\****
- ***<class\_declaration>+***

# Software Packages

- Packages help manage large software systems.
- Packages can contain classes and sub-packages.
- **`package <top_pkg_name>[.<sub_pkg_name>]*;`**
- Specify the package declaration at the beginning of the source file.
- Only one package declaration per source file.
- If no package is declared, then the class is placed into the default package.
- Package names must be hierarchical and separated by dots.

# The import Statement

- `import <pkg_name>[.<sub_pkg_name>]*.<class_name>;`
- `import <pkg_name>[.<sub_pkg_name>]*.*;`
- `import java.util.List;`
- `import java.io.*;`
- `import shipping.gui.reportscreens.*;`
- The import statement does the following:
  - Precedes all class declarations
  - Tells the compiler where to find classes

# Example 1.1

```
package com.training;
```

```
public class Greetings {
```

```
    public String getMessage() {
```

```
        return "Welcome to Java Programming";
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```



## Example 1.1 (contd)

```
package com.training;  
  
public class TestGreetings {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        Greetings grtObj = new Greetings();  
  
        System.out.println(grtObj.getMessage());  
  
    }  
  
}
```

# The System Class

- Its part of the java.lang package
- The classes in this package are available without the need for an import statement
- This class contains several useful class fields and methods.
- It can't be Instantiated
- It also Provides facilities for
  - Standard Input
  - Standard Output
  - Error Output Streams
  - Access to externally defined properties

# Objectives

- Define modeling concepts: *abstraction, encapsulation,*
- Discuss why you can reuse Java technology application code
- Define *class, member, attribute, method, constructor, and package*
- Use the access modifiers `private` and `public` as appropriate for the guidelines of encapsulation
- Invoke a method on a particular object
- Use the Java technology application programming interface (API) online documentation

# The Analysis and Design Phase

- Analysis describes *what the system needs to do*:
- Modeling the real-world, including actors and activities, objects, and behaviors
- Design describes *how the system does it*:
- Modeling the relationships and interactions between objects and actors in the system
- Finding useful abstractions to help simplify the problem or solution

# Abstraction

- Functions – Write an algorithm once to be used in many situations
- Objects – Group a related set of attributes and behaviors into a class
- Frameworks and APIs – Large groups of objects that support a complex activity;
- Frameworks can be used *as is or be modified to extend the basic behavior*

# Classes as Blueprints for Objects

- **In manufacturing**, a blueprint describes a device from which many physical devices are constructed.
- **In software**, a class is a description of an object:
  - A class describes the data that each object includes.
  - A class describes the behaviors that each object exhibits.
- In Java technology, classes support three key features OOP
  - Encapsulation
  - Inheritance
  - Polymorphism

# Declaring Java Technology Classes

- Basic syntax of a Java class:

```
<modifier>* class <class_name> {  
  <attribute_declaration>*  
  <constructor_declaration>*  
  <method_declaration>*  
}
```

# Declaring Attributes

- Basic syntax of an attribute:
- ***<modifier>\* <type> <name> [= <initial\_value>];***
- public class Foo {
- private int x;
- private float y = 10000.0F;
- private String name = "Bates Motel";
- }



# Declaring Methods

- Basic syntax of a method:
- ***<modifier>\* <return\_type> <name> ( <argument>\* ) {***
- ***<statement>\****
- ***}***

```
public int getWeight() {  
    return weight;  
}
```

```
public void setWeight(int newWeight) {  
    if ( newWeight > 0 ) {  
        weight = newWeight;  
    }  
}
```

# Accessing Object Members

- The *dot notation* is: **<object>.<member>**
  - used to access object members, including attributes and methods.
- `d.setWeight(42);`
- `d.weight = 42; // only permissible if weight is public`

# Information Hiding

- Client code has direct access to internal data
- (d refers to a MyDate object):
- `d.day = 32;      // invalid day`
- `d.month = 2; d.day = 30;    // plausible but wrong`
- `d.day = d.day + 1;    // no check for wrap around`

MyDate
+day : int
+month : int
+year : int

# Encapsulation

- Hides the implementation details of a class
- Forces the user to use an interface to access data
- Makes the code more maintainable

MyDate
<pre>-day : int -month : int -year : int</pre>
<pre>+getDay() : int +getMonth() : int +getYear() : int +setDay(int) : boolean +setMonth(int) : boolean +setYear(int) : boolean</pre>

Verify days in month

# Objects and Data Abstraction

- Consider the **data**
  - In many applications, data is more complicated than just a simple value
  - An Employee
    - The data here are actually:
      - int empld – an integer of Employee Id
      - double[] phoeNumber – an array of Phone Numbers
      - double salary – the salary of employee
    - Note that individually the data are just int or a double
      - However, together they make up a Employee
    - This is fundamental to object-oriented programming (OOP)

# Objects and Data Abstraction

- Consider the **operations**
  - Now consider operations that an Employee can do
    - Note how that is stated – we are seeing what a Employee CAN DO rather than WHAT CAN BE DONE to it
    - This is another fundamental idea of OOP – objects are **ACTIVE** rather than **PASSIVE**
- Objects enable us to **combine the data and operations** of a type together into a single entity

# Encapsulation and Data Abstraction

- We do not need to know the implementation details of a data type in order to use it
  - This includes the methods AND the actual data representation of the object
- This concept is exemplified through objects
  - We can think of an object as a container with data and operations inside
    - We can see some of the data and some of the operations, but others are kept hidden from us
    - The ones we can see give us the functionality of the objects

# Declaring Constructors

- Basic syntax of a constructor
  - [*<modifier>*] *<class\_name>* ( *<argument>*\* ) {
  - *<statement>*\*
  - }

```
public class Dog {  
    private int weight;  
    public Dog() {  
        weight = 42;  
    }  
}
```



# The Default Constructor

- There is always at least one constructor in every class.
- If the writer does not supply any constructors, the default constructor is present automatically:
- The default constructor takes no arguments
- The default constructor body is empty
- The default enables you to create object instances with `new Xxx()` without having to write a constructor.

# Comments

- Java supports three forms of comments
  - `//` single line comments
  - `/*` multi  
line  
comment  
`*/`
  - `/**` a  
\* Javadoc  
\* comment  
\*/

# Variables and Methods

- A **variable**, which corresponds to an attribute, is a named memory location that can store a certain type of value.
- Variable is a kind of special container that can only hold objects of a certain type.
- Primitive type Variable
  - Basic, built-in types that are part of the Java language
  - Two basic categories
    - boolean
    - Numeric
      - » Integral - byte, short, int, long, char
      - » Floating point - float, double

# Instance Variables and Methods

- Variables and methods can be associated either with objects or their classes
- An **instance variable** and **instance method** belongs to an object.
- They can have any one of the four access levels
  - Three access modifiers – private, public , protected
  - Can be Marked final, transient
- They have a default value
- **A class variable** (or **class method**) is a variable (or method) that is associated with the class itself.

# Example for Variables

```
public class VariableTypes {
```

```
private int inst_empid;
```

**Instance  
Variable**

```
private static String cls_empName
```

**Class  
Variable**

```
public void getData() { }
```

```
public static void getSalary() { }
```

**Parameter  
Variable**

```
public void showData(int a)
```

```
{
```

```
    int localVariable ;
```

**Local  
Variable**

```
}
```

```
}
```

# Identifiers

- Identifiers are used to name **variables, methods, classes and interfaces**
- Identifiers
  - start with an alphabetic character
  - can contain letters, digits, or “\_”
  - are unlimited in length
- Examples
  - *answer, total, last\_total, relativePoint, gridElement, person, place, stack, queue*

# Initialization

- Local variables
  - must be *explicitly* initialized before use
- Parameter variables
  - Pass by value
- Class and instance variables
  - Instance variables Have a Default Value

# Local Variable needs to Be Initialized

```
public class LocalVariable {  
    private String name;  
    public void display()  
    {  
        int age;  
        System.out.println("Age"+age);  
        System.out.println("Name"+name);  
  
    }  
}
```

**Age Should be  
Initialized  
before Use**



# Instance Variable have Default Values

```
class Values
{
    private int a;
    private float b;
    private String c;
    public void display()
    {
        System.out.println("integer"+a);
        System.out.println("float"+b);
        System.out.println("String"+c);
    }
}

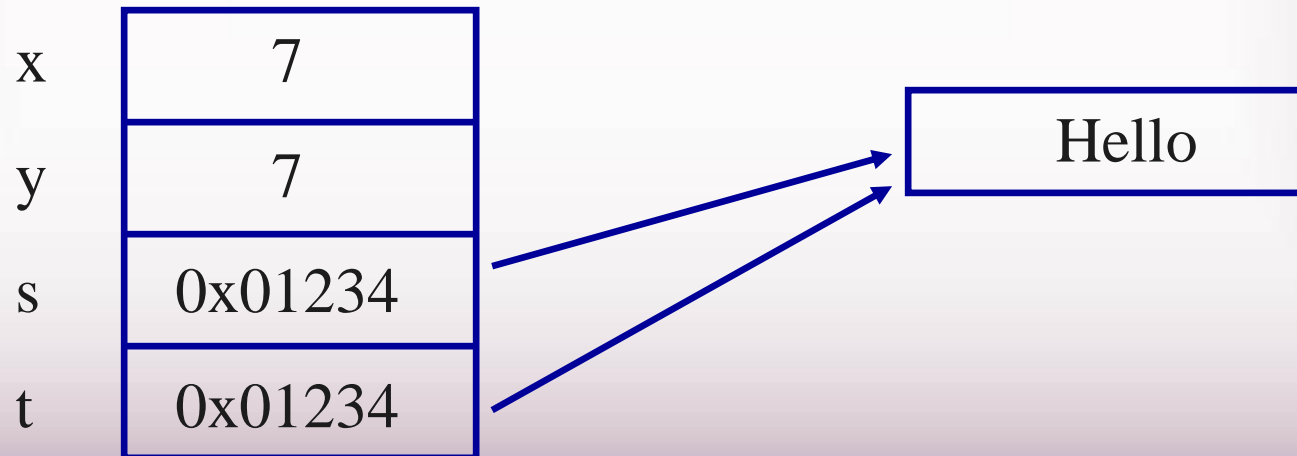
public class DefaultVales {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        Values v = new Values();
        v.display();
    }
}
```

# Assignment of reference variables

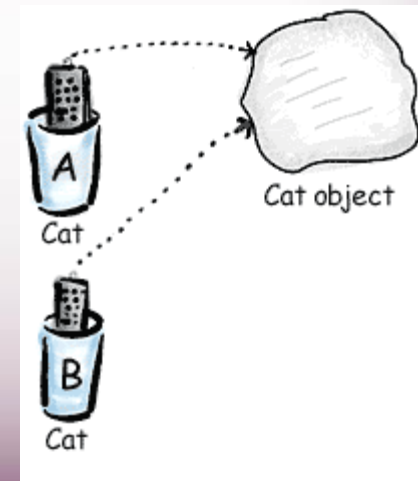
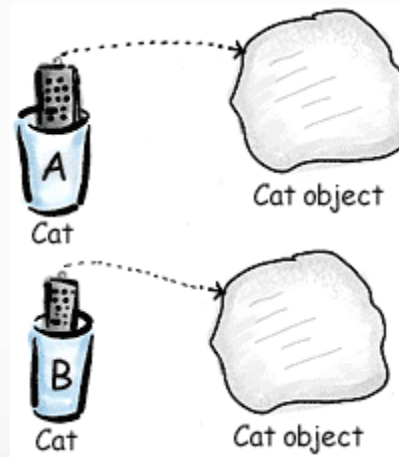
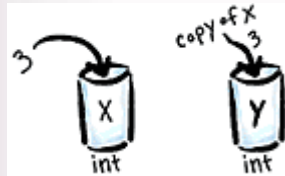
```
int x = 7;  
int y = x;  
String s = "Hello";  
String t = s;
```



# Pass-by-Value

- The Java programming language only passes arguments by value for primitive data types.
- When an object instance is passed as an argument to a method, the value of the argument is a *reference* to the object
- The *contents* of the object can be changed in the called method, but the object reference is never changed
- **For primitives, you pass a copy of the actual value.**
- **For references to objects, you pass a copy of the reference**
- You never pass the object. All objects are stored on the heap.

# Pass By Value



# Casting Primitive Types

- Casting creates a new value and allows it to be treated as a different type than its source
- JVM can implicitly promote from a narrower type to a wider type
- To change to a narrow type explicit casting is required
- Byte -> short -> int -> long -> float -> double

# Casting Primitive Types

```
public class PrimCasting {  
  
    public static void main (String [] args) {  
        int x = 99;  
        double y = 5.77;  
        x = (int)y;    //Casting  
        System.out.println("x = " + x);  
  
        double y1 = x; //No Casting  
  
        int i =42;  
        byte bt;  
        bt= (byte)i;  
  
        System.out.println("The Short number"+ bt);  
    }  
}
```

# Wrapper Classes

- Primitives have no associated methods
- Wrapper Classes are used encapsulate primitives
- They also provide some static utility methods to work on them

Primitive Type	Wrapper class
-boolean	Boolean
-byte	Byte
-char	Character
-double	Double
-float	Float
-int	Integer
-long	Long
short	Short

# Wrapping Primitives

- Wrapping a value
  - `int i = 288`
  - `Integer iwrap = new Integer(i);`
- unWrapping a value
  - `int unwrapped = iwrap.intValue();`
- **Methods In Wrapper Class**
  - `parseXxx()`
  - `xxxValue()`
  - `valueOf()`



# Wrapper Class Method

## Convert String to Numbers

```
public class ParsingStrings
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        int ino=Integer.parseInt(args[0]);
        float fno = Float.parseFloat(args[1]);
        double dno = Double.parseDouble(args[2]);
        Long lno = Long.parseLong(args[3]);

        System.out.println("Integer value" +ino );
        String strIno = Integer.toString(ino);
        System.out.Println("String Value"+strIno);
    }
}
```

# Auto Boxing

- Java 5.0 provided autoboxing

```
Integer n = new Integer(123)
Int m = n.intValue()
m++;
n=new Integer(m);
System.out.println(n);
```

```
Integer n = new Integer(123);
n++;
System.out.println(n);
```

# Auto Boxing

```
public class ABoxing {  
  
    public void show(int a, float b)  
    {  
        System.out.println("Integer"+a*2);  
        System.out.println("Float"+b*2);  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        ABoxing abObj =new  ABoxing ();  
  
        Integer a = 10;  
        Float b =20f;  
        abObj.show(a,b);  
  
    }  
}
```

# Command Line Arguments

```
class CommandLineArgs
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        System.out.println("hello, welcome to the java world  
"+args[0]+" to all "+args[1]);

        System.out.println("it is "+args[2]+" a high level  
language" +args[0]);
    }
}
```

# java.util.Scanner Class

- A simple text scanner which can parse primitive types and strings using regular expressions.
- A Scanner breaks its input into tokens using a delimiter pattern, which by default matches whitespace.
- The resulting tokens may then be converted into values of different types using the various next methods.

```
Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);  
int i = sc.nextInt();
```

# java.util.Scanner Class

```
public void show()  
{  
    Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);  
  
    System.out.println("Enter The Number");  
    int number = sc.nextInt();  
    System.out.println("Enter the Name");  
    String name = sc.next();  
    System.out.println(number + ":" + name);  
}
```

# java.util.Scanner Class

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
    String line="Java,is,in,OOP,Language";  
  
    Scanner sc1 = new Scanner(line);  
  
    sc1.useDelimiter(",");  
  
    while (sc1.hasNext())  
    {  
        System.out.println(sc1.next());  
    }  
  
}
```

# Flow Control



# Objectives

- Decision control structures (if, else, switch)
- Repetition control structures (while, do-while, for)
- Branching statements (break, continue, return)

# Control Structures

- To change the ordering of the statements in a program
- Two types of Control Structures
- **decision control structures** ,
  - allows us to select specific sections of code to be executed
    - **if -- else , if – else if**
    - **switch -- case**
- **repetition control structures**
  - allows us to execute specific sections of the code a number of times
    - **while**
    - **do -- while**
    - **for**

# Decision Control Structures

- Types:
  - if-statement
  - if-else-statement
  - If-else if-statement
- If Specifies that a statement or block of code will be executed if and only if a certain **boolean** statement is true.

```
if( boolean_expression )  
statement;
```

or

```
if( boolean_expression ){  
statement1;  
statement2;  
}
```

- **boolean\_expression** : can be an expression or variable.

# if-else statement

```
if( boolean_exp ){  
Statement(s)  
}  
else {  
Statement(s)  
}
```

```
if(boolean_exp1 )  
statement1;  
else if(boolean_exp2)  
statement2;  
else  
statement3;
```

- ❖ For Comparison **==** used instead =
- ❖ = being an assignment operator
- ❖ **equals** Method Should Be Used for **Objects** comparison

# switch-statement

- Allows branching on multiple outcomes.
- switch expression is an integer ,character expression or variable
- case\_selector1, case\_selector2 and unique integer or character constants.
- If none of the cases are satisfied, the optional default block if present is executed.

```
switch( switch_expression ){  
  case case_selector1:  
    Statement(s);  
  break;  
  case case_selector2:  
    Statement(s);  
  break;  
  default:  
    statement1;  
}
```

# switch-statement

- When a switch is encountered,
  - evaluates the `switch_expression`,
  - jumps to the case whose selector matches the value of the expression.
  - executes the statements in order from that point on until a `break` statement is encountered
  - `break` statement stops executing statements in the subsequent cases, it will be last statement in a case.
  - Used to make decisions based only on a single integer or character value.
  - The value provided to each case statement must be unique.

# switch-statement

```
public double CalculateDiscount(int pCode)
{
    double discountPercentage=0.0d;

    switch (pCode)
    {
        case 1:
            discountPercentage=0.10d;
            break;
        case 2:
            discountPercentage=0.15d;
            break;
        case 3:
            discountPercentage=0.20d;
            break;
        default:
            discountPercentage=0.0;
    }
    return discountPercentage;
}
```

# Switch-Case in a Method

- Can have Either Return or Break if present inside a Method, but should provide a default Value

```
public String switchExample(int key)    {  
    switch (key) {  
        case 1:  
            return "Good Morning";  
        case 2:  
            return "Good AfterNoon";  
        case 3:  
            return "Good Evening";  
        default:  
            return "Good Night";  
    }
```



# Repetition Control Structures

- **while-loop**

- The statements inside the while loop are executed as long as the Boolean expression evaluates to true

- **do-while loop**

- statements inside a do-while loop are executed several times as long as the condition is satisfied, the statements inside a do-while loop are executed at least once

```
while (boolean_expression) {  
    statement1;  
    statement2;  
}
```

```
do{  
    statement1;  
    statement2;  
}while (boolean_expression) ;
```

**Watch  
this**

# for-loop

- Same code a number of times.
- `for(Initialexpr; LoopCondition; StepExpr) {  
 statement1;  
}`
  - Declaration parts are left out so the `for` loop will act like an endless loop.

```
for( ; ; ) {  
    System.out.println("Inside an endless loop");  
}
```

# Enhanced For Loop

- The enhanced for loop, simplifies looping through an array or a collection.
- Instead of having *three* components, the enhanced for has *two*.
- **declaration**
  - The *newly declared* block variable, of a type compatible with the elements of the array being accessed.
- **expression**
  - This must evaluate to the array you want to loop through. This could be an array variable or a method call that returns an array
- `int [] a = {1,2,3,4};`
- `for(int n : a)`
- `System.out.print(n);`

# Branching Statements

- Branching statements allows to redirect the flow of program execution.
  - break
  - continue
  - return.
- `System.exit()` All program execution stops; the VM shuts down.

# Arrays

# Introduction to Arrays

- Array is one variable is used to store a list of data and manipulate
- This type of variable is called an array.
- It stores multiple data items of the same data type, in a contiguous block of memory, divided into a number of slots.
- The *new* keyword to create an array object.
- Need to tell the compiler how many elements will be stored in it.

size	0	1	2
number:	1	2	3

# Creating Arrays

- There are three steps to creating an array,
- **declaring**
  - `int[] k;`
  - `float[] yt;`
  - `String[] names;`
- **allocating**
  - `k = new int[3];`
  - `yt = new float[7];`
  - `names = new String[50];`
- **initializing**
  - `int[ ] k = {1, 2, 3};`
  - `float[ ] yt = {0.0f, 1.2f, 3.4f, -9.87f, 65.4f, 0.0f, 567.9f};`

# Array Bounds

- All array subscripts begin with 0 and ends with n-1
- In order to get the number of elements in an array, can use the length field of an array.
- The length field of an array returns the size of the array.

```
int list [] = new int[10];
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)  
{  
    System.out.println(list[i]);  
}
```

- There is no array element arr[n]! This will result in an array-index-out-of bounds exception.



# Array of Objects

```
public class Book
{
    private int bookno;
    private String bookname;
    public Book(int bookno,String bookname)
    {
        this.bookno=bookno;
        this.bookname=bookname;
    }
    public int getBookno()
    {
        return this.bookno;
    }
    public String getBookname()
    {
        return this.bookname;
    }
}
```

# Array of Objects

```
public class ArrayofObject {

    public void displaybooks(Book[] bks)
    {
        for(int i=0;i<bks.length;i++)
        {
            System.out.println("Book Number :="+bks[i].getBookno());
            System.out.println("Book Name :="+bks[i].getBookname());
        }
    }

    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        Book[] bk = new Book[2];
        Book b1 = new Book(100,"java");
        Book b2= new Book(101,"j2ee");
        bk[0]=b1;
        bk[1]=b2;
        ArrayofObject ab= new ArrayofObject();
        ab.displaybooks(bk);
    }
}
```

# Classes

# Classes

- The class declaration introduces a new class
  - A class describes the structure and behavior of its instance objects in terms of instance variables and methods
  - Like variables, classes may be declared at different scopes. The scope of a class directly affects certain properties of the class

## *Class declaration syntax*

```
modifier class identifier {  
    constructorDeclarations  
    methodDeclarations  
    staticMemberDeclarations  
    instanceVariableDeclarations  
    staticVariableDeclarations  
}
```

# Classes

Top-level classes can be declared as

- public
  - a public class is globally accessible.
  - a single source file can have only *one* public class or interface
- abstract
  - an abstract class cannot be instantiated
- final
  - a final class cannot be subclassed
- Default
  - With any Modifier
- They can't be declared as protected and private

# Constructors

- Have no return type
- Have the same name as the class
- If we don't put a constructor the compiler puts a default one
  - The default constructor has the *same access modifier as the class*.
  - The default constructor has *no arguments*.
  - The default constructor is *always* a no-arg constructor, but a no-arg constructor is not necessarily the *default* constructor
  - The default constructor includes a *no-arg call to the super constructor* (super()).
- They are not inherited and hence they are not overridden
- It can be Overloaded
- It can have any of the Four Access Modifiers
- It cannot be synchronized
- It can have throws clause

# Instantiation with new

- It is the process by which individual objects are created.
  - **Class objectReference = new Constructor();**
- Declaration
  - Employee empObj;
- Instantiation
  - empObj = new Employee();
- Declaration and Instantiation
  - Employee empObj = new Employee();
  - **new** operator allocates memory for an object.

# Constructor Overloading

- One constructor can call another overloaded constructor of the same class by using **this** keyword.
- this() is used to call a constructor from another overloaded constructor in the same class
- The call to this() can be used only in a constructor ,and must be the first statement in a constructor
- A constructor can call its super class constructor by using the **super** keyword.
- A constructor can have a call to **super() or this() but never both**



# Overloaded Constructor

```
class Time
{
    private int hour,min,sec;

    // Constructor
    Time()
    {
        hour = 0;
        min = 0;
        sec = 0;
    }

    //Overloaded constructor
    Time(int h, int m, int s)
    {
        hour = h;
        min = m;
        sec = s;
    }
}

// Code continues ...
```

Time.java

# *this* keyword

- Is a reference to the object from which the method was invoked

*this* keyword

```
Time(int hour, int min, int sec)
{
    this.hour = hour;
    this.min = min;
    this.sec = sec;
}
```

# Modifiers for declarations

- There are Four Access Level and 3 Modifiers
- Any declaration can be preceded by
  - public
    - a declaration is accessible by any class
  - protected
    - Accessible by any class in the same package as its class, and accessible only by subclasses of its class in other packages.
    - Works just like default , Except it also allows subclasses outside the package to inherit the protected thing.
  - default(no modifier)
    - Only accessible by classes, including subclasses, in the same package as its class(package accessibility).
  - private
    - a declaration is only accessible within the class in which it is declared

# Method Overloading

- If two (or more) methods of a class have the same name but different signatures, then the method name is said to be overloaded.
- The signature of a method consists of the name of the method and the number and types of formal parameters in particular order.
- Method overloading is method name overloading.
- Several methods that implement similar behavior but for different data types.
- They are independent methods of a class and can call each other just like any other method.
- A method *can* be overloaded in the same class or in a subclass.

# Overloading Methods

- Overloaded methods **MUST** change the argument list.
- Overloaded methods **CAN** change the return type.
- Overloaded methods **CAN** change the access modifier.
- Overloaded methods **CAN** declare new or broader checked exceptions.

# Overloading and AutoBoxing

```
public class Overloading {  
  
    public Integer add(Integer a , Integer b)  
    {  
        Integer c = a+b;  
  
        return c+100;  
    }  
  
    public int add(int a , int b)  
    {  
        return a+b;  
    }  
}
```

# Main Method

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
    Overloading olObj = new Overloading();  
  
    System.out.println(olObj.add(45, 55));  
  
}
```

**Output will be 100 and Not 200**

# Static Variables and Methods

- A static method belongs to a class and not to its instance objects and hence they are shared between Objects
- Static Methods can not be overridden
- They can only call other *static* methods
- They can access only static variables and not instance Variables
- They cannot refer to *this* or *super*
- **Instance variable : 1 per instance** and **Static variable : 1 per class**
- Static final variables are constants
- *main( )* is defined to be a static method so as to be invoked directly



# Static Method access only static

```
public class StatClass {  
  
    private int id;  
    private static String name;  
  
    private void instMethod()  
    {  
        staticMethod();  
        System.out.println(id);  
        System.out.println(name);  
    }  
  
    private static void staticMethod()  
    {  
        System.out.println(id);  
        System.out.println(name);  
        instMethod();  
    }  
}
```

Can Access Static from Instance Method

Cannot Access Instance Variable From Static

Cannot Access Instance Method From Static

# Static block

- Used to initialize static variables
  - Gets executed only once when the class is first loaded

StaticExample.java

```
class StaticExample{  
    static int a,b;  
  
    static{  
        a = 9;  
        b = 5;  
    }  
  
    // Other statements  
}
```

# Static Import

```
import java.util.*;
import static java.lang.System.out;
import static java.lang.System.in;

public class StaticImport {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        Scanner kb = new Scanner(in);
        out.print("Enter an integer ");

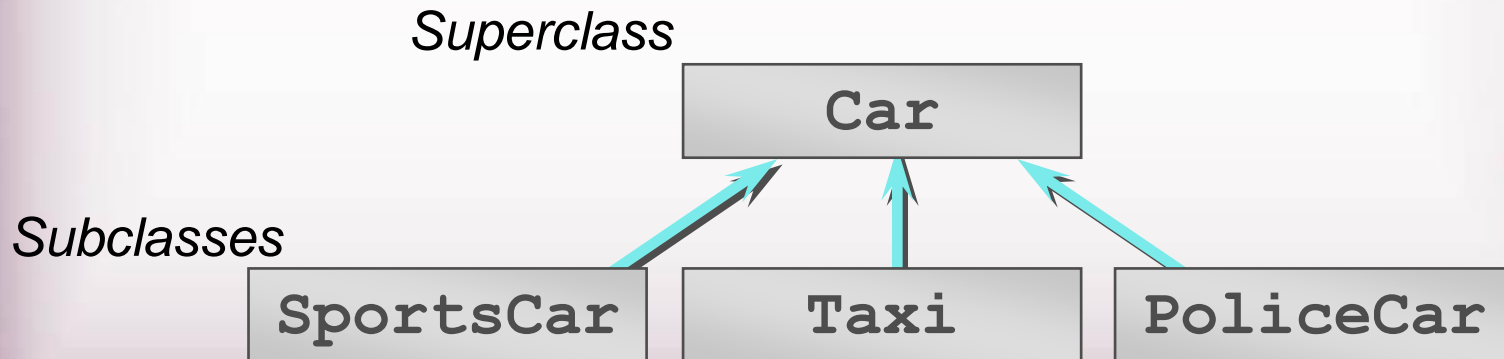
        int x = kb.nextInt();
        out.print("Enter a double ");

        double d = kb.nextDouble();
        out.println("The sum is " + (x+d));
    }
}
```

# INHERITANCE

# Overview

- A class can inherit from another class
  - Original class is the “superclass”
  - New class is called the “subclass”
- Inheritance is a fundamental OO concept

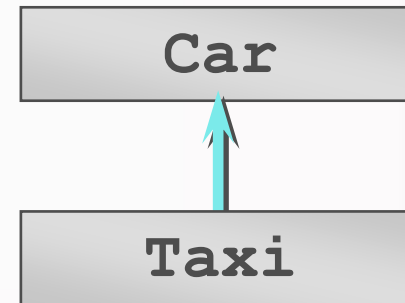


# Example of Inheritance

– The Car class defines certain methods and variables

– Taxi extends Car, and can:

- Add new variables
- Add new methods
- Override methods of the Car class



# Specifying Inheritance in Java

- Inheritance is achieved by specifying which superclass the subclass  
“extends”
- Taxi inherits all the variables and methods of Car

```
public class Car {  
    ...  
}
```

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    ...  
}
```

# Aspects of Inheritance

- Objects
  - What does a subclass object look like?
- Construction
  - How do constructors work now?
- Methods
  - What methods can be called?
  - How can methods be overridden?



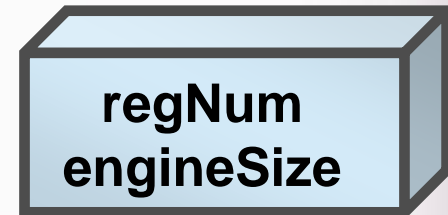
# What Does an Object Look Like?

A subclass inherits all the instance variables of its superclass

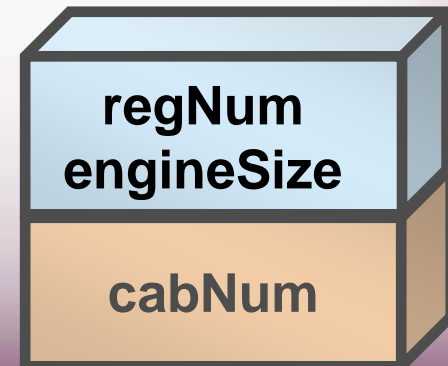
```
public class Car {  
    String regNum;  
    int engineSize; ...  
}
```

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    private int cabNum; ...  
}
```

*Car object*



*Taxi object*



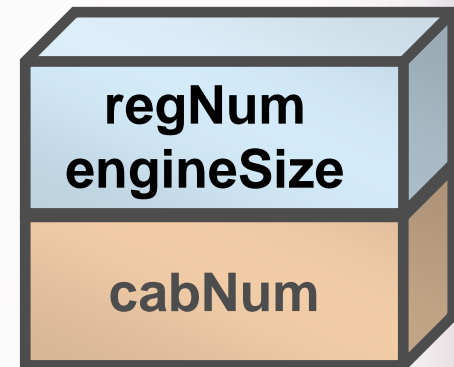
# Default Initialization

- What happens when a subclass object is created?

```
Taxi taxi1 = new Taxi();
```

- If no constructors are defined:
- No-arg constructor is called in superclass
  - No-arg constructor called in subclass

***Taxi object***



# Nondefault Initialization

Specific initialization can be performed as follows:

```
public class Car {  
    Car(String r, int e) {  
        regNum = r;  
        engineSize = e;  
    } ...  
}
```

Use `super()`  
to call  
superclass  
constructor

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    Taxi(String r, int e, int c) {  
        super(r, e);  
        cabNum = c;  
    } ...  
}
```

# Specifying Additional Methods

- The superclass defines methods that are applicable for all kinds of Car
- The subclass can specify additional methods that are specific to Taxis

```
public class Car {  
    public int getReg()...  
    public void changeOwner()...  
    ...  
}
```

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    public void renewCabLicense()...  
    public boolean isBooked()...  
    ...  
}
```

# Overriding Superclass Methods

- A subclass inherits all the methods of its superclass
- The subclass can override a method with a specialized version, if it needs to:

```
public class Car {  
    public String details() {  
        return "Reg:" + getReg();  
    }  
}
```

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    public String details() {  
        return "Reg:" + getReg() + cabNum;  
    }  
}
```

# Overriding

- When a sub-class defines a
  - “method with ***same method name, argument types, argument order and return type as a method in its super class***, its called method overriding. “
- Methods declared as **final, static and private** cannot be overridden.
- An overriding method can be declared as final
- The method can't be less accessible
  - **Public => only public**
  - **Protected => Both Public and Protected**
  - **Default => default, public and protected**

# Overriding

```
class Base
{
    protected int a;
    base()
    {
        a = 20;
    }
    void display()
    {
        System.out.print("a = "+a);
    }
}
class Derived extends Base
{
    private int b;
    derived()
    {
        b = 25;
    }
    void display()
    {
        System.out.print("b = "+b);
    }
}
```

*extends* keyword

# Overriding with Compatible Return type

- Arguments must be same and return type must be compatible

```
class Base
{
    private int i = 5;

    public Number    getNumber()
    {
        return i;
    }
}
```

```
class Derived extends Base
{
    @Override
    public Integer getNumber()
    {
        return new Integer(10);
    }
}
```



# Invoking Superclass Methods

- If a subclass overrides a method, it can still call the original superclass method
- Use `super.method()` to call a superclass method from the subclass
- Though keyword `super` is used to refer super class, method call `super.super.method()` is invalid.

```
public class Car {  
    public String details() {  
        return "Reg:" + getReg();  
    }  
}
```

```
public class Taxi extends Car {  
    public String details() {  
        return super.details() + cabNum;  
    }  
}
```

# *super* keyword

- The keyword *super* refers to the base class
  - *super()*
    - invokes the base class constructor
    - base class constructors are automatically invoked
  - *super.method()*
    - invokes the specified method in the base class
  - *super.variable*
    - to access the specified variable in the base class
- *super* must be the first statement in a constructor

# Overriding –When Method Has Exceptions

- Any exceptions declared in overriding method must be of the same type as those thrown by the super class, or a subclass of that type.

```
class MyBase {  
  
    public void method1 () throws Exception  
        { }  
    public void method2 () throws RuntimeException  
        { }  
}  
class Sub extends MyBase  
{  
    public void method1 () throws Throwable {  
        }  
    public void method2 () throws  
        ArithmeticException  
    }  
}
```

This is compile  
Time Exception

This is Allowed

# Hiding-Fields and Static Members

- A Sub Class can hide the fields but cannot override that of the super class, its done by defining fields with the same name as in the super class.
- Code in the subclass can use the keyword super to access such members
- A static method can hide a static method from the Super Class
- A hidden super class static method is not inherited., will result in compile time Exception

# Hiding-Fields and Static Members

## Variable Hiding

```
class MyBase
{
    int var1=100 ;

    public static void method1()
    {
        System.out.println("Super
Class          Method1");
    }

    public void method2()
    {
        System.out.println("Super
Class method2 ");
    }
}
```

```
class Mysub extends MyBase
```

```
{
    int var1 =200;

    public static void method1()
    {
        System.out.println("Sub Class
Method1");
    }

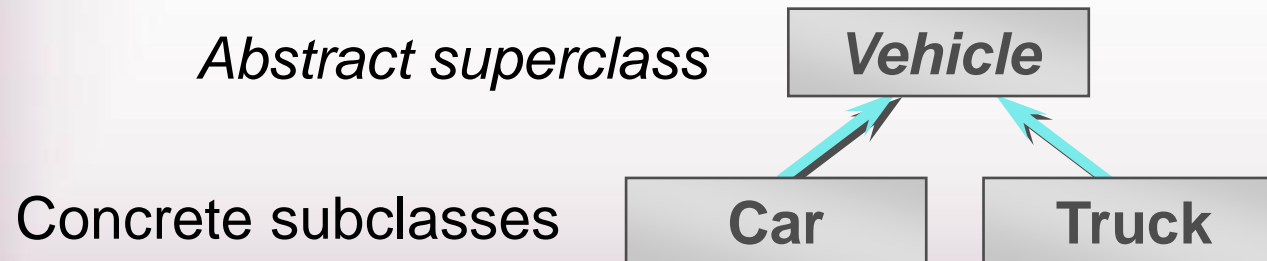
    public void method2()
    {
        System.out.println("Sub Class
Method2");

        System.out.println("Var"+var1
        +"superclass
Var"+super.var1);
    } }
```

## Method Hiding

# Abstract Class

- An abstract class is a shared superclass
  - Provides a high-level partial implementation of some concept
  - Cannot be instantiated
- Use the abstract keyword to declare a class as abstract



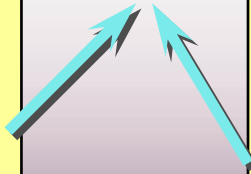
# Defining Abstract Classes in Java

- Use the `abstract` keyword to declare a method as abstract
  - Only provide the method signature
  - Class must also be abstract
- Must be implemented by a concrete subclass
  - Each concrete subclass can implement the method differently

```
public abstract class Vehicle {  
    private String regNum;  
    public String getRegNum()...  
    public abstract boolean  
        isRoadWorthy();  
}
```

```
public class Car  
    extends Vehicle{  
    private int numSeats;  
    public void fitRack()...
```

```
public class Truck  
    extends Vehicle{  
    private int axles;  
    public void setLoad()...
```



# The Abstract Class-Super Class

**Note  
this**

```
public abstract class BankAccount {  
  
    public abstract void deposit(float amount);  
  
    public abstract void withdraw(float amount);  
  
    public void sayHello() {  
  
        System.out.println("Thanks-Come Again");  
    }  
  
}
```



# Child Class –Its alsoAbstract

```
public abstract class Savingaccount extends BankAccount  
{  
  
    public abstract void getClientdetails();  
}
```

# The Concrete Class

```
public class Supersavings extends Savingaccount {  
    float balance, amount ;  
    String custname;  
    int accno;  
        public void deposit(float amt)  
        {  
            balance+=amt;  
        }  
    public void withdraw(float amt)  
    {  
        balance-=amt;  
    }  
    public void getClientdetails()  
    {  
        System.out.println(custname);  
        System.out.println(accno);  
        System.out.println(amount);  
        System.out.println(balance);  
    }  
}
```

# Interfaces & Polymorphism

# Interfaces

- An interface is like a fully abstract class
  - All of its methods are public and abstract
  - No instance variables if present they are public static final
- An interface defines a set of methods that other classes can implement
  - A class can *implement* many interfaces, but can *extend* only one class
- Can extend other interfaces and extend multiple interfaces
- Extends another sub interface inherits everything from super interface

# Interface

- Interfaces define types in an abstract form
  - An interface declaration allows the specification of a reference type without providing an implementation
  - The class that implements the interface decides how to implement

```
// the interface
interface Sort
{
    void do_sort();
}
```

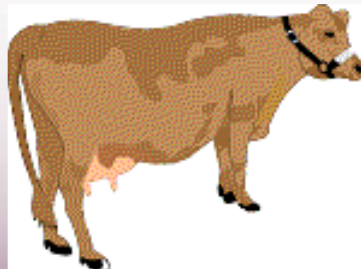
```
// the implementor
class BubbleSort implements Sort
{
    public void do_sort()
    {
        // The sorting method implementation
    }
}
```

*implements* keyword

# Example of Interfaces

- Interfaces describe an aspect of behavior that different classes can support
- For example, any class that supports the “Steerable” interface can be steered:

***Steerable***



***Not Steerable***



# Defining an Interface in Java

- Use `interface` keyword instead of `class`

```
public interface Steerable {  
  
    int maxTurn = 135;  
    void turnLeft(int deg);  
    void turnRight(int deg);  
}
```

# Implementing an Interface

```
public interface Steerable {  
    int maxTurn = 135;  
    void turnLeft(int deg);  
    void turnRight(int deg);  
}
```

```
public class Car  
    extends Vehicle  
    implements Steerable {  
  
    public void turnLeft(int deg)  
    {...}  
  
    public void turnRight(int deg)  
    {...}
```



# Partial Implementation of an Interface

- Declare the class as abstract if the class does not implement all the methods of an interface

```
Public abstract class Car
    extends Vehicle
    implements Steerable {

    public void turnLeft(int deg)
    {...}

}
```

# Interface

- A single class can implement many interfaces

```
interface Sort{  
    void doSort();  
}  
  
interface List{  
    void createList();  
}  
  
class DataUtility implements Sort, List{  
    public void doSort(){  
        // Statements  
    }  
  
    public void createList(){  
        // Statements  
    }  
}
```

*implements* keyword

# Using instanceof with Interfaces

- The `instanceof` operator can be used to check if an object implements an interface
- Downcasting can be used if necessary, to call methods defined in the interface

```
public void aMethod(Object obj) {  
    ...  
    if (obj instanceof Steerable)  
        ((Steerable)obj).turnLeft();  
}
```

# Extending an Interface

- One Interface can extend another Interface

```
public interface Steerable {  
    int maxTurn = 135;  
    void turnLeft(int deg);  
    void turnRight(int deg);  
}
```

```
public interface Navigator  
    extends Steerable {  
    void calcSpeed(int distance);  
}
```

# Polymorphism

- This OO Principle allows the programmer to program abstractly
- Objects of a subclass can be treated as objects of its superclass
- The base class of a hierarchy is usually an abstract class or an Interface
  - They define the common behavior (functionality)
- Classes and Subclasses inherit this behavior and extend it according to their own properties by overriding the methods of the super class
- **Subclass objects can be treated as super class objects through references,**
  - But, **super class objects are not subclass objects**

# Polymorphism

- Allows for hierarchies to be highly extensible
- New classes can be introduced and can still be processed without changing other parts of the program
- Same method can do different things, depending on the class that implements it.
- Method invoked is associated with OBJECT and not with reference.
- Types of Polymorphism -
  - Method Overloading.
  - Method Overriding.

# Polymorphism

```
class SuperClass
{
    int value = 100;

    void callMe()
    {
        System.out.println("I am in Super Class");
    }
}

class SubClass extends SuperClass
{
    int value = 10;

    void callMe()
    {
        System.out.println("I am in Sub Class");
    }
}
```

# Polymorphism

```
public class TestDMD
{
    public static void main(String s[])
    {

        SuperClass objSuperClass = new SubClass();

        objSuperClass.callMe();

        System.out.println(objSuperClass.value);

    }

}
```

This Object Reference is  
polymorphic

- This means object variables are polymorphic , A variable of type Super Class can refer to an object of type Super class as well as subclass.



# Substitution of Object References in Method Calls

- A subclass object can be passed into any method that expects a superclass object
- The method that got invoked, is the version that's present in the object type and NOT the reference type.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    Taxi t = new Taxi("ABC123", 2000, 79);  
    displayDetails(t);  
  
public static void displayDetails(Car c) {  
    System.out.println(c.details());  
}
```

# Dynamic Method Dispatch

- **Related Through Inheritance**
- *superclass = subclass*
  - always valid
- *subclass=(subclass)superclass*
  - valid at compile time, checked at runtime. if is invalid then the exception `ClassCastException` is thrown.
- *subclass = superclass*
  - not valid at compile time, needs a cast
- **Unrelated Classes – Not Allowed**
- *someClass = someUnrelatedClass*
  - not valid, won't compile
- *somcClass = (someClass)someUnrelatedClass*
  - not valid, won't compile

# Dynamic Method Dispatch

```
class First
{
    public void show()
    {
        System.out.println("ShowFirst");
    }
}
```

```
class Second extends First
{
    public void show()
    {
        System.out.println("Show Second");
    }
}
```

```
First fst = new Second();
```

```
Second sec = (Second)fst;
```

```
sec.show();
```

```
First fst2 = new First();
```

```
Second sec2 = (Second)fst2;
```

```
sec2.show();
```

**subclass=**  
**(subclass)sup**  
**erclass**

**Valid at both**  
**Compile**  
**,RunTime**

**subclass=**  
**(subclass**  
**erclass**

**Valid at**  
**Compile**  
**exception**  
**,RunTime**

# Packages

- Packages are containers of classes
- An organized collection of classes that are logically related
- Mechanism for partitioning the class name space
- Helps Distributed Computing
- Some of Packages in Java are
  - java.lang
  - java.io
  - java.util
  - java.net
- User defined classes can also be organized into packages

# Package

- In the following example, the class *class1* is part of the package *pack1*
- Use the *javac -d* option to compile

*package* keyword

```
package utility;  
// indicates that class Sort is part of Utility package  
  
class Sort  
{  
    public void do_sort()  
    {  
        // Statements  
    }  
}
```

# Package

- Use the *import* keyword to access the classes in a package

*import* keyword

```
import utility.*;

class Test
{
    public static void main(String args[]){

        Sort obj1;

        // Code continues ...
    }
}
```

# toString( )

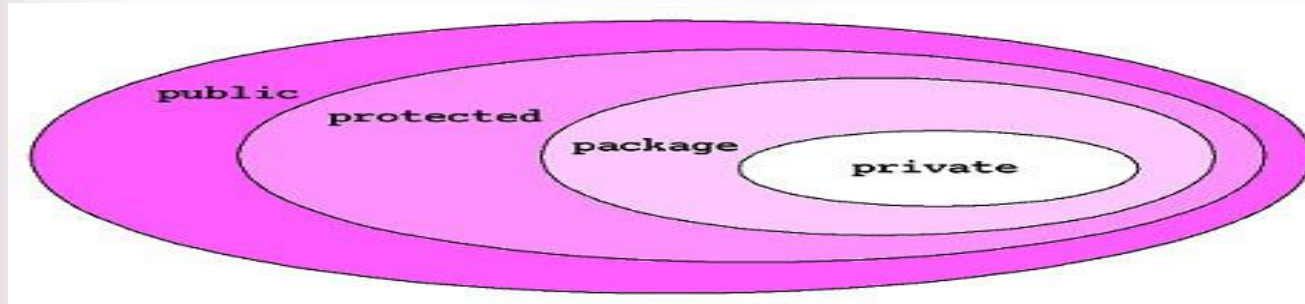
- The objectS can be passed to
  - System.out.println( )
  - Methods
  - Or Can be used string concatenation,
- Java automatically calls its toString( ) method.
- The toString() just prints the class name, an @ sign, and the object's memory address -hashCode) value
- toString( ) implementation prints the state of the object which will result in formatting control in println( ) and anywhere objects get referred to in a String context.

# CLASSPATH

- Is an environment variable which specifies the location of the class files
- For compiling the *Sort.java* (listed earlier)
  - `javac -d c:\packages Sort.java`
  - this would create a sub-directory *Utility* under `c:\packages` and store *Sort.class* over there
- While compiling *test.java* (listed earlier), set
  - `CLASSPATH = . ; c:\packages`
- Any package can be included in the working package
- Include all packages in CLASSPATH
  - `import package_name.class_name;`
  - `import package_name.subpackage_name.class_name;`
  - `import package_name.*;`



# Package - Access modifiers



	<i>Private</i>	<i>No modifier</i>	<i>Protected</i>	<i>Public</i>
<i>Same class</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Same package - subclass</i>	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Same package - nonsubclass</i>	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Different package - subclass</i>	No	No	Yes	Yes
<i>Different package - nonsubclass</i>	No	No	No	Yes

# *final* keyword

- A final method or class is Java's way of prohibiting inheritance and/or overriding
- Final methods cannot be overridden by subclasses
- All private methods are implicitly final
- Final classes Cannot be extended and their methods are implicitly final
- Can be applied to variables too
  - The value of a *final* variable cannot be altered
  - *final int max\_limit = 23*
  - *final void method( )*
  - *final class last\_class*

# Interface vs Abstract Class

- A class may implement several interface
- An interface cannot provide any code at all
- Interfaces are often used to describe the peripheral abilities of a class, not its central identity,
- A class may extend only one class
- An abstract class can provide complete or partial code
- An **abstract** class defines the core identity of its descendants.

# Interface, Abstract Class, Subclass, Class

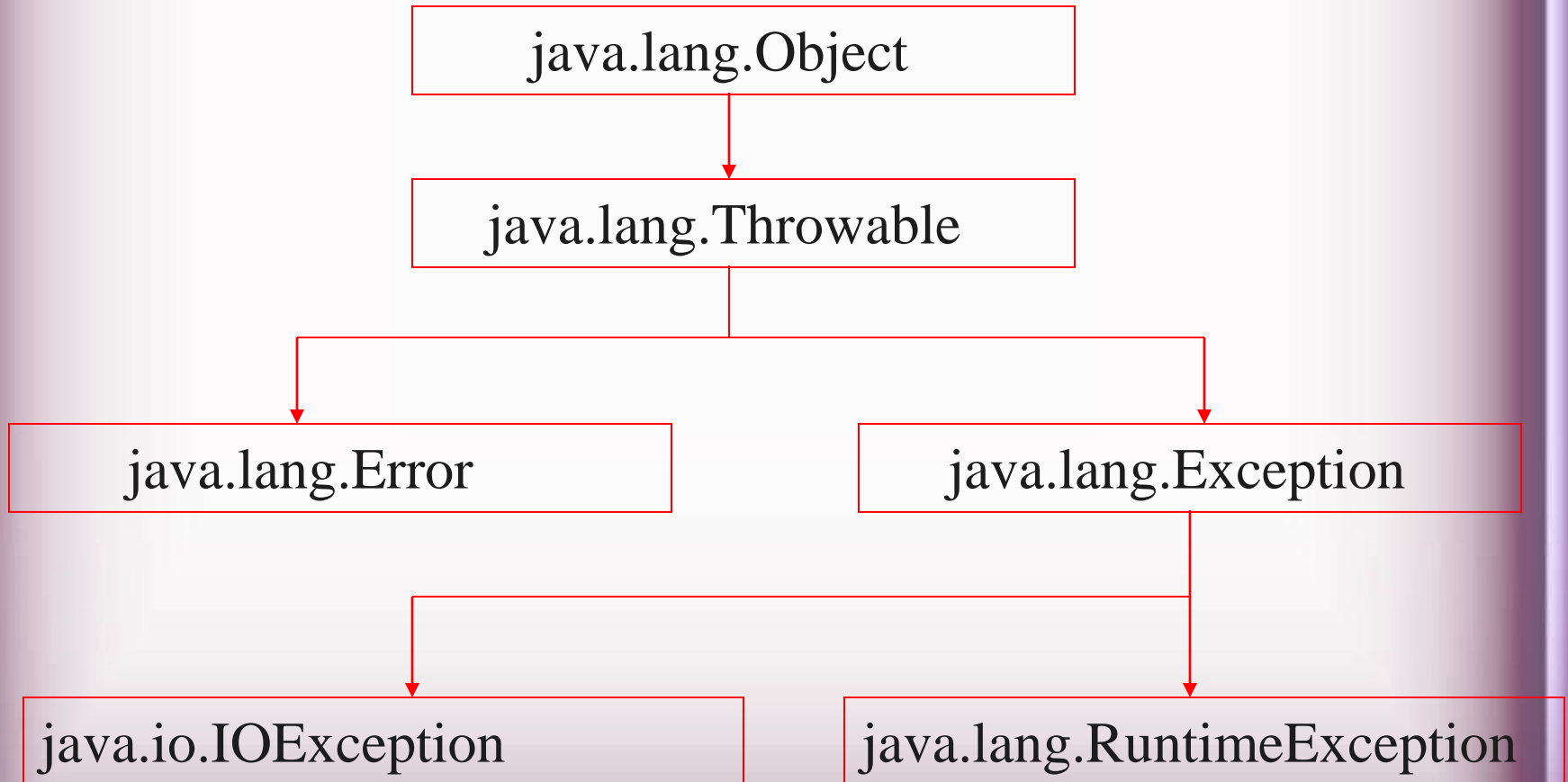
- A **plain class** is designed when it doesn't pass the “is-a” test.
- A Plain class is designed when it's not extending any other class other than object class
- Make a **subclass** , when it needs to extend a super class
- Make a subclass, when it needs to override or add new behaviors
- Make an **abstract class** , when there is a requirement for a kind of “template” for a group of subclasses, and there are some implementation in the class which the subclass can use .
- Make an abstract class , to guarantee that nobody can make objects of that type.
- Design an **interface** , to define a role that other classes can play, regardless of the inheritance tree,

# Exception handling

# Topics

- Define exceptions
- Use try, catch, and finally statements
- Describe exception categories
- Identify common exceptions
- Develop programs to handle your own exceptions
- Use assertions
- Distinguish appropriate and inappropriate uses of assertions
- Enable assertions at runtime

# Exception Handling



# Exceptions

- Conditions that can readily occur in a correct program are *checked exceptions*.
- These are represented by the Exception class.
- Problems that reflect program bugs are *unchecked exceptions*.
- Fatal situations are represented by the Error class.
- Probable bugs are represented by the RuntimeException class.
- The API documentation shows checked exceptions that can be thrown from a method



# Handle or Declare Rule

- Handle the exception by using the try-catch-finally block.
- Declare that the code causes an exception by using the throws clause.
- `void trouble() throws IOException { ... }`
- `void trouble() throws IOException, MyException { ... }`
- Other Principles
- You do not need to declare runtime exceptions or errors.
- You can choose to handle runtime exceptions

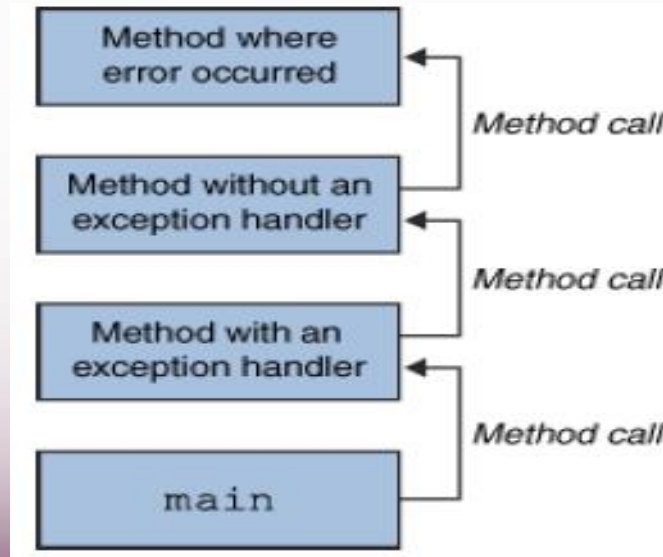
# Example of Exception

```
public class ExceptionDemo    {  
    public static void main(String [] args) {  
  
        System.out.println(3/0);  
        System.out.println("Hi");  
  
    }  
}
```

- Default exception handler
  - Provided by Java runtime ,Prints out exception description
  - Prints the stack trace
- Hierarchy of methods where the exception occurred
  - Causes the program to terminate

# What Happens When an Exception Occurs

- When an exception occurs within a method,
  - the method creates an exception object and hands it off to the runtime system - “throwing an exception”
  - These Exception object contains information about the error, including its type and the state of the program when the error occurred
  - The runtime system searches the call stack for a method that contains an exception handler



# What Happens When an Exception Occurs

- When an appropriate handler is found, the runtime system passes the exception to the handler
  - An exception handler is considered appropriate if the type of the exception object thrown matches the type that can be handled by the handler
  - The exception handler chosen is said to catch the exception.
- If appropriate exception handler is not found by the runtime system the application terminates and uses the default exception handler

# Checked and Unchecked

- Checked exceptions include all subtypes of Exception, *excluding* classes that extend Runtime Exception.
- Checked exceptions are subject to the *handle or declare* rule; any method that *might* throw a checked exception
  - must either declare the exception using the throws keyword, or handle the exception with an appropriate *try/catch*.
- Subtypes of Error or Runtime Exception are unchecked, so the compiler doesn't enforce the handle or declare rule.

# Catching Exceptions

```
class DivByZero {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            System.out.println(3/0);  
            System.out.println("Please print me.");  
        } catch (ArithmeticException exc) {  
            //Division by zero is an ArithmeticException  
            System.out.println(exc);  
        }  
        System.out.println("After exception.");  
    }  
}
```

# Method Overriding and Exceptions

- **The overriding method can throw:**
  - No exceptions
  - One or more of the exceptions thrown by the overridden method
  - One or more subclasses of the exceptions thrown by the overridden method
- **The overriding method cannot throw:**
  - Additional exceptions not thrown by the overridden method
  - Superclasses of the exceptions thrown by the overridden method

# Catching Exception –Multiple Catch

```
class MultipleCatch {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            int den = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);  
            System.out.println(3/den);  
        }  
        catch (ArithmeticException exc)  
        {  
            System.out.println("Divisor was 0.");  
        }  
        catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException exc2)  
        {  
            System.out.println("Missing argument.");  
        }  
        System.out.println("After exception.");  
    }  
}
```



# Catching Exception –Nested Try's

```
public static void main(String args[]){  
    try {  
        int a = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);  
        try {  
            int b = Integer.parseInt(args[1]);  
            System.out.println(a/b);  
        }  
        catch (ArithmeticException e1)  
        {  
            System.out.println("Div by zero error!");  
        }  
    }  
    catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e2)  
    {  
        System.out.println("Need 2 parameters!");  
    }  
}  
}
```

# Finally block

- Its optional and will always be invoked,
  - whether an exception in the corresponding *try* is thrown or not,
  - whether a thrown exception is caught or not.
- *finally*-will-always-be-called except if the JVM shuts down. When the *try* or *catch* blocks may call `System.exit()`;
- Block of code is always executed despite of different scenarios:
  - Forced exit occurs using a *return*, a *continue* or a *break* statement
  - Normal completion
  - Caught exception thrown
  - Exception was thrown and caught in the method
  - Uncaught exception thrown
  - Exception thrown was not specified in any catch block in the method

# Throwing Exceptions

- The *throw* Keyword
- Java allows you to throw exceptions (generate exceptions)
  - **throw <exception object>**
- An exception you throw is an object
  - You have to create an exception object in the same way you create any other object
- Example:
  - **throw new ArithmeticException("testing...");**

# Throws Clause

- A method is required to either catch or list all exceptions it might throw
  - Except for *Error* or *RuntimeException*, or their subclasses
- If a method may cause an exception to occur but does not catch it, then it must say so using the *throws* keyword
- Applies to checked exceptions only

```
<type> <methodName> (<parameterList>) throws <exceptionList>
{
    <methodBody>
}
```

# Uncaught Exception

- Uncaught exceptions propagate back through the call stack,
- Starting from the method where the exception is thrown and ending with either the first method that has a corresponding catch for that exception type or a JVM shutdown

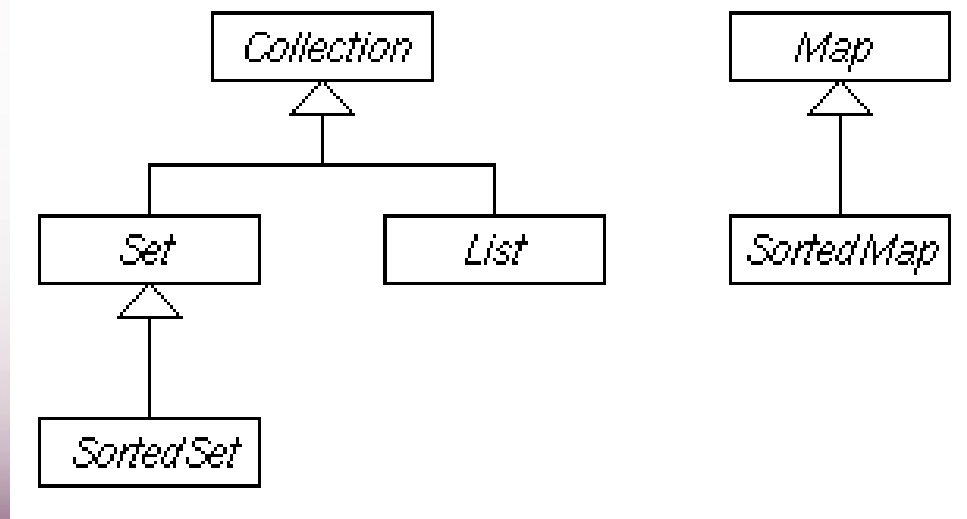
# Effective Exception Hierarchy

- The exception classes are arranged in a hierarchy.
- Catches for specific exceptions should always be written prior to the generic handler.
- FileNotFoundException is a child of IOException, a catch for FileNotFoundException should occur before the one for IOException.
- A generic handler for Exception would cover any missing situation.

# Java Collections Framework

# Java Collection Framework

- Provides tools to maintain data container of object
- Is an alternative to the creation of custom data structures
- Consists of interfaces and classes that implement interfaces within the java.util package
- Collection is the root interface for most of the Java collections hierarchy





# Collection categories

- **Ordered Collection**

- The objects within the collection are maintained in a particular order or not
- When an object is added or removed from an ordered collection , the order is automatically maintained

- **Duplicate Elements**

- Whether or not the collection allows duplicate objects
- Collection will automatically reject an attempt to add an object

- **Mapping of Key & Value**

- Whether or not the collection maps a key to a particular object .
- This provides a means of quickly locating the object.
- Such collections do not allow duplicate objects

# Collection Interface

- The root interface in the *collection hierarchy*.
- Represents a group of objects, known as its *elements*.
- There is no *direct* implementation the more specific sub-interfaces are Set and List.
- This interface is typically used to pass collections around and manipulate them

# List Interface

- can contain only Objects
- An ordered collection
- Elements can be accessed by their integer index (position in the list)
- Lists typically allow duplicate and null elements.
- Iterating over the elements in a list is typically preferable to indexing

# Methods in List Interface

- void **add**(object o)
- void **addAll**(Collection c)
- void **clear**()
- boolean **contains**(object)
- Object **get**(int index)
- int **indexOf**(object o)
- ListIterator **listIterator**()
- Object **set** (int index, Object element)

# List Implementations

- Array List
  - a resizable-array implementation like Vector
    - unsynchronized
- Linked List
  - a doubly-linked list implementation
  - if elements frequently inserted/deleted within the List
    - May provide better performance than ArrayList
  - For queues and double-ended queues (deques)
- Vector
  - a synchronized resizable-array implementation of a List with additional "legacy" methods.

# Class ArrayList

- Resizable-array implementation of the List interface.
- permits all elements, including null.
- Each ArrayList instance has a *capacity*. The capacity is the size of the array used to store the elements in the list. , its capacity grows automatically.

# Class ArrayList

- **ArrayList()**  
Constructs an empty list with an initial capacity of ten.
- **ArrayList(Collection c)**  
Constructs a list containing the elements of the specified collection, in the order they are returned by the collection's iterator.
- **ArrayList(int initialCapacity)**  
Constructs an empty list with the specified initial capacity.

# Generics

- Introduced in Java 5.0
- Can put **any** Object in to Collections, because they hold Just Objects
- Type-safe Collections are created ,ensuring type-safety at compile time rather than run-time
- Creating an Instance of Classes of Generic Type
  - `new ArrayList<Employee>`
  - `ArrayList<Employee> mylist = new ArrayList<Employee>();`



# ArrayList – Creating ArrayList

```
ArrayList<Employee> alist=new ArrayList<Employee>();
```

```
Employee e1 = new Employee(101,"Ramesh");
```

```
alist.add(e1);
```

# Two Schemes of Traversing Collections

- **for-each**
  - The for-each construct allows you to concisely traverse a collection or array using a for loop
- **for (Object o: collection)**
  - `System.out.println(o);`
- **Iterator**
  - An Iterator is an object that enables you to traverse through a collection and to remove elements from the collection selectively, if desired

# ArrayList – Enhanced For Loop

```
public void ehForLoop()  
{  
    for(Employee e :alist)  
    {  
        System.out.println(e.getEmpname());  
        System.out.println(e.getEmpno());  
    }  
}
```

# The Iterator Interface

- Provides for the one-way traversal of a Set or SortedSet collection (forward only)
- Has several required methods but the most frequently used are:

Method	Usage
<code>hasNext()</code>	Returns <code>true</code> if the iteration has more elements
<code>next()</code>	Returns the next element in the iteration (as a generic <code>Object</code> )

# Array List –with Iterator

```
public void dispalyArrayList()  
{  
    Iterator<Employee> itr = alist.iterator();  
    while(itr.hasNext())  
    {  
        Employee empObj = itr.next();  
        System.out.println(empObj.getEmpname());  
        System.out.println(empObj.getEmpno());  
    }  
}
```

# The ListIterator Interface

- Extends the [Iterator](#) interface to provide for the two-way traversal of a [List](#) collection (forward and backward)
- The most frequently used are:

Method	Usage
hasNext()	Returns <a href="#">true</a> if this list iterator has more elements when traversing the list in the forward direction
hasPrevious()	Returns <a href="#">true</a> if this list iterator has more elements when traversing the list in the backward direction
next()	Returns the next element in the list (as a generic <a href="#">Object</a> )
previous()	Returns the previous element in the list (as a generic <a href="#">Object</a> )