

LEARN KOTLIN EASILY

# KOTLIN FOR BEGINNERS



BY CHEEZYCODE



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# KOTLIN INTRODUCTION



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# WHAT IS KOTLIN?

- New programming language by JetBrains.
- Modern replacement of Java.
- General purpose programming language that targets JVM, Android, Native & JS.
- Powerful language that can be used to target multiple platforms and multiple environments.



# HISTORY OF KOTLIN

- 2011, JetBrains announced Kotlin.
- 2012, Kotlin became Open Source.
- 2016, Kotlin 1.0 launched.
- 2017, Google IO announced Kotlin Android Support.
- 2019 - Android became Kotlin First.



# FEATURES OF KOTLIN

- Statically Typed Language - Type Checking done at compile time.
- Supports Object Oriented and Functional Style Programming
- 100% Interoperable with Java
- Safe Language, Concise, Powerful





# KOTLIN DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT



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# WAYS TO RUN KOTLIN CODE

If you don't want to install any software,  
just go to Kotlin Playground and run your  
Kotlin Code Online.

<https://play.kotlinlang.org/>



## Your Code Editor



Kotlin Play ground is an online sandbox to explore Kotlin programming language. Browse code samples directly in the browser

A screenshot of the Kotlin Play ground interface. It features a dark-themed code editor with white text. The code shown is:

```
/**  
 * You can edit, run, and share this code.  
 * play.kotlinlang.org  
 */  
  
fun main() {  
    println("Hello, world!!!")  
}
```

A large pink arrow points from the text "Your Code Editor" down to the code editor area. Another pink arrow points from the text "Run Your Code By Pressing This" down to the toolbar at the top right of the interface.

The toolbar includes several icons: a blue play button, a menu icon, a bookmark icon, and a settings icon. To the right of the toolbar are five circular buttons with icons: a play button, a hexagon, a share symbol, a question mark, and another play button.

Sample Hello World  
Program in Kotlin

# SETUP LOCAL DEV ENVIRONMENT

- For development, we need -

1. Java (atleast JDK 8)
2. IntelliJ Idea (Community Edition)

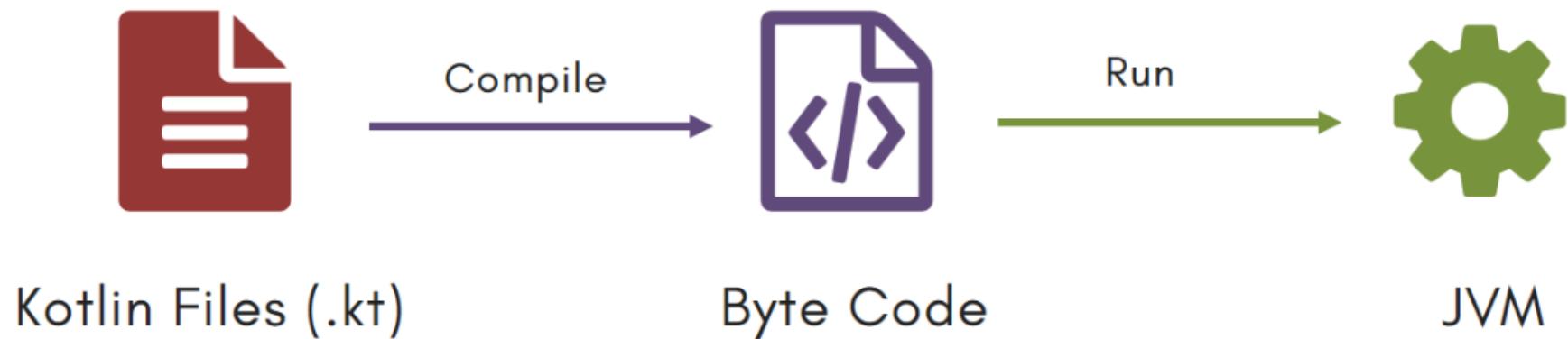


# KOTLIN - JVM LANGUAGE

- Kotlin being a **JVM Language** - runs on JVM i.e. it is compiled down to Bytecode which then runs on JVM.
- JDK includes JVM and other Java Libraries that are required to run Kotlin **if you are targeting JVM**



# KOTLIN WITH JVM



JDK = Java Development Kit

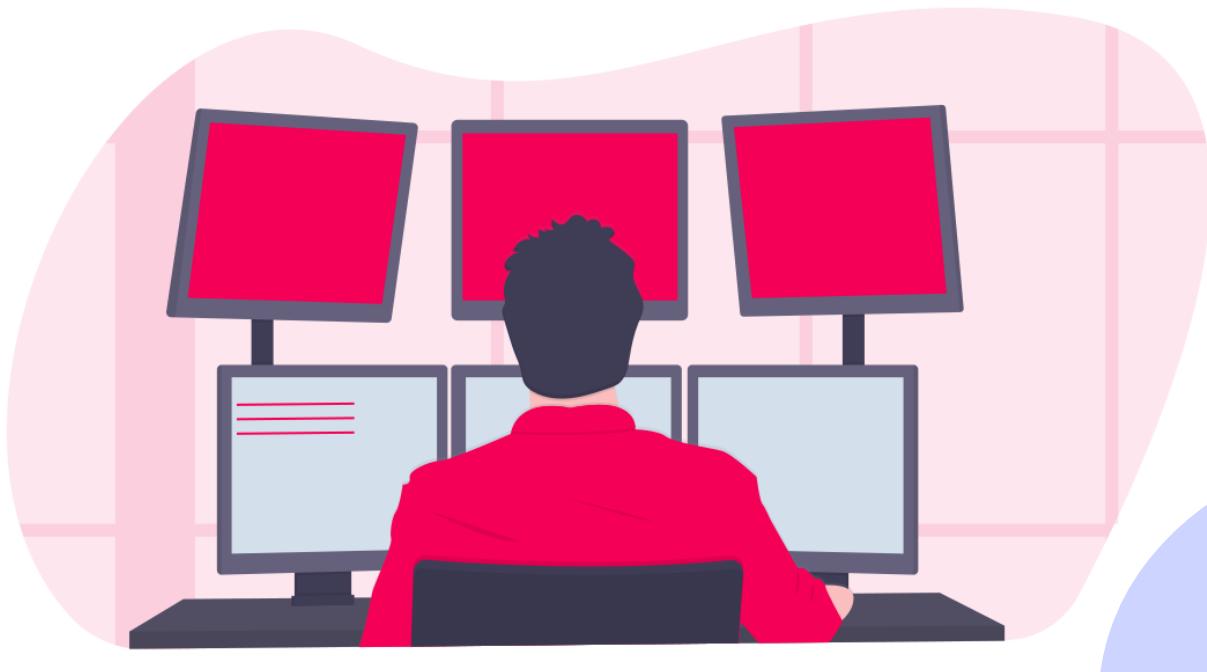
JDK = JVM + Other Libraries and exe

# MOST COMMON IDE USED FOR KOTLIN DEVELOPMENT





# KOTLIN HELLO WORLD PROGRAM & COMPIRATION



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Before writing Hello World program, we need to understand - **What are methods/functions?**

**Function is a set of statements (instructions)**  
**i.e. block of code that perform some task.**

YOU CAN PROVIDE  
INPUTS AS WELL

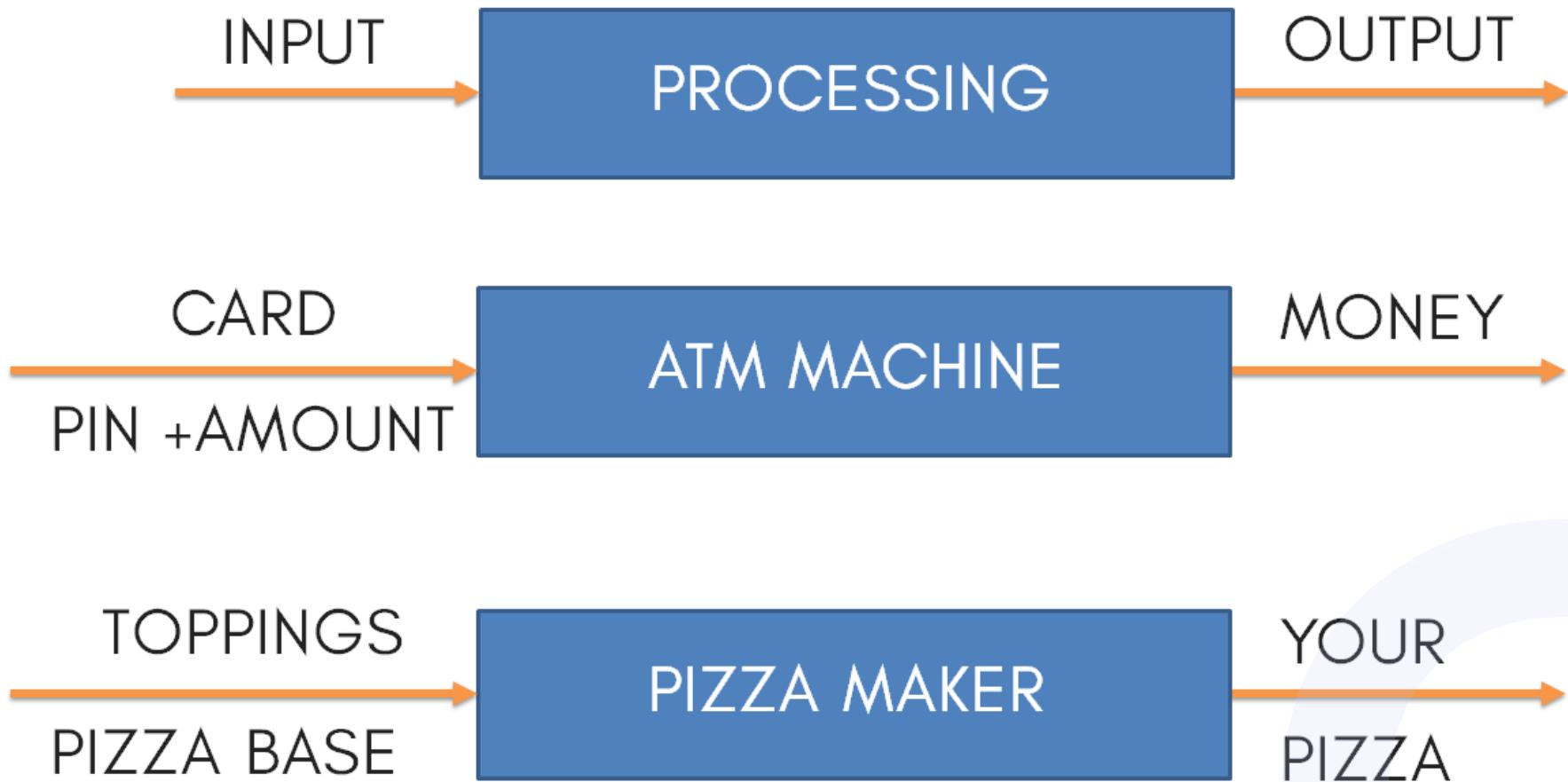


YOU GET OUTPUT  
BASED ON INPUTS



SET OF STATEMENTS  
GROUPED TOGETHER THAT  
PERFORM SPECIFIC TASK

# FUNCTIONS/METHODS



# MAIN FUNCTION/METHOD

- When you run your program, JVM looks for this main method and starts executing this method.  
**Main is the entry point of your program.**
- If you have multiple Kotlin file, **JVM looks for a file where Main method is defined** and executes that method.



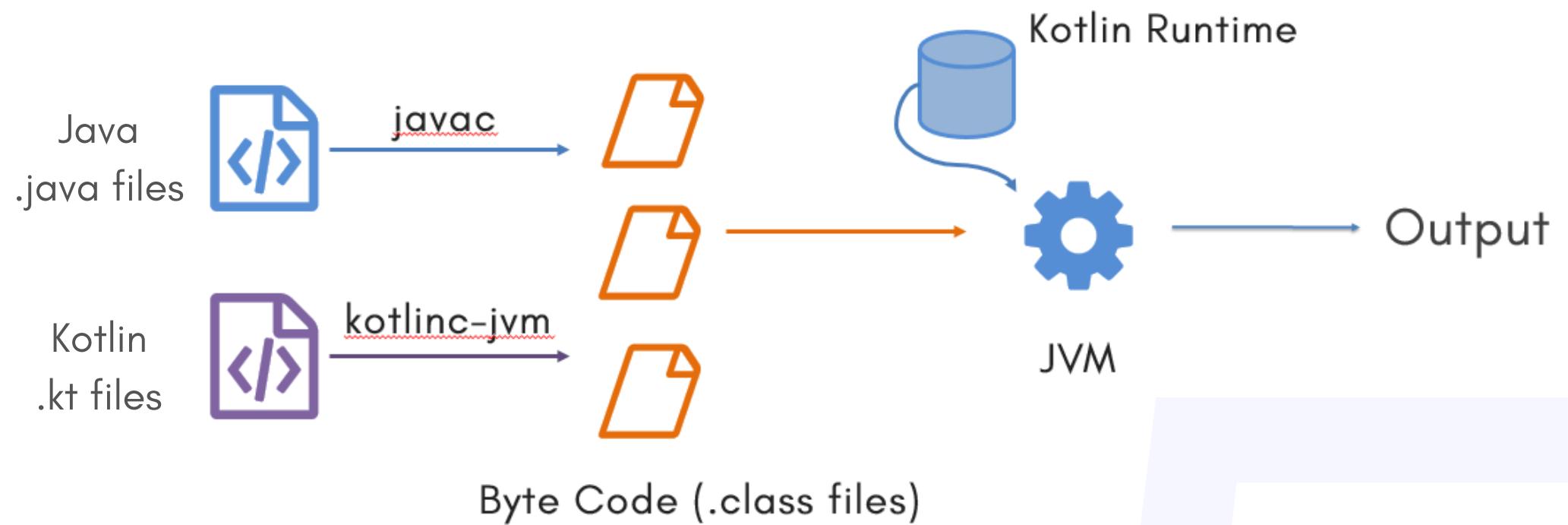
# HELLO CHEEEZYCODE PROGRAM



```
fun main()
{
    println("Welcome To CheezyCode")
}
```

This is main method. Only instruction defined in this main method is to print **Welcome To CheezyCode**. You can write multiple statements inside this main method.

# COMPILATION





# KOTLIN VARIABLES & DATA TYPES



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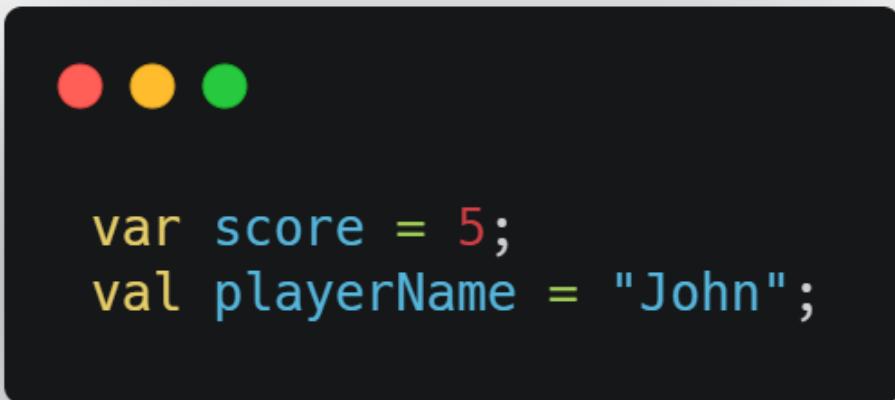
# VARIABLES

Variable is a simple box where you store your data. It has a name by which you can access this data.



# SIMPLE EXAMPLE

- In a game you have a score. When the game progresses your score is updated.
- You take some power, score is incremented by 5, you kill an enemy score is incremented by 10
- This **score is stored as a variable** which keeps on changing as the game progresses.



# SNOWBROS GAME



# VAL & VAR

- In Kotlin, variables are either - **var** and **val**.
- **var** can be re-assigned - i.e. new value can be re-assigned in your program.
- **val** cannot be re-assigned - i.e. once value is assigned to them you cannot change their value.

Example - Player Name will remain same once you start the game, so it should be val. Score keeps changing so it should be defined as var.



# DATA TYPES

As said above, variables are boxes then we need to **define the size** of the box and the **type of data** we will be storing in it - Numbers, Strings, Booleans, Characters etc.

```
• • •  
/*  
    INTEGER (Byte, Short, Int, Long)  
    FLOATING POINT ( Float, Double)  
    BOOLEAN ( True, False)  
    CHARACTER (Char, String)  
*/
```



# OPERATORS IN KOTLIN

%

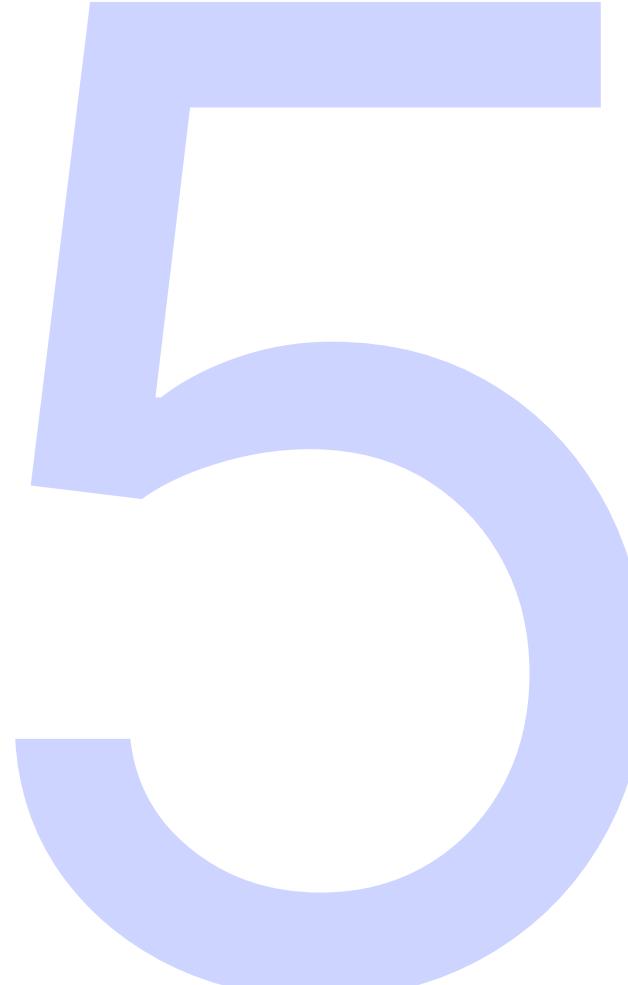
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# OPERATORS

Just like any other programming language, operators are almost similar in Kotlin. Some new operators (`?.`, `!!` etc.) have been added, which will be covered as required.

Arithmetic Operators

Relational Operators

Logical Operators

# ARITHMETIC OPERATORS



```
val i = 13
val j = 2

println( i + j ) // 15
println( i - j ) // 11
println( i * j ) // 26
println( i / j ) // 6 - if both int, result is int
println( i.toFloat() / j ) // 6.5
println( i % j ) // 1 - Remainder
```



# RELATIONAL OPERATORS



```
val i = 13  
val j = 2
```

```
println( i > j ) // 13 > 2 → true  
println( i < j ) // 13 < 2 → false  
println( i ≥ j ) // 13 ≥ 2 → true  
println( i ≤ j ) // 13 ≤ 2 → false  
println( i = j ) // 13 = 2 → false  
println( i ≠ j ) // 13 ≠ 2 → true
```



# LOGICAL OPERATORS

These operators allow a program to make a decision based on multiple conditions. Conditions are combined using **AND** (`&&`) or **OR**( `||` )



```
val condition1 = true  
val condition2 = false  
  
println(condition1 && condition2) // false  
println(condition1 || condition2) // true
```



# AND | OR | NOT

**&& - AND OPERATOR** - If both the conditions are true, then only the result is true.

**|| - OR OPERATOR** - If any of the condition is true, then result is true.

**! - NOT OPERATOR** - If condition is true, result is false & if condition is false, result is true.





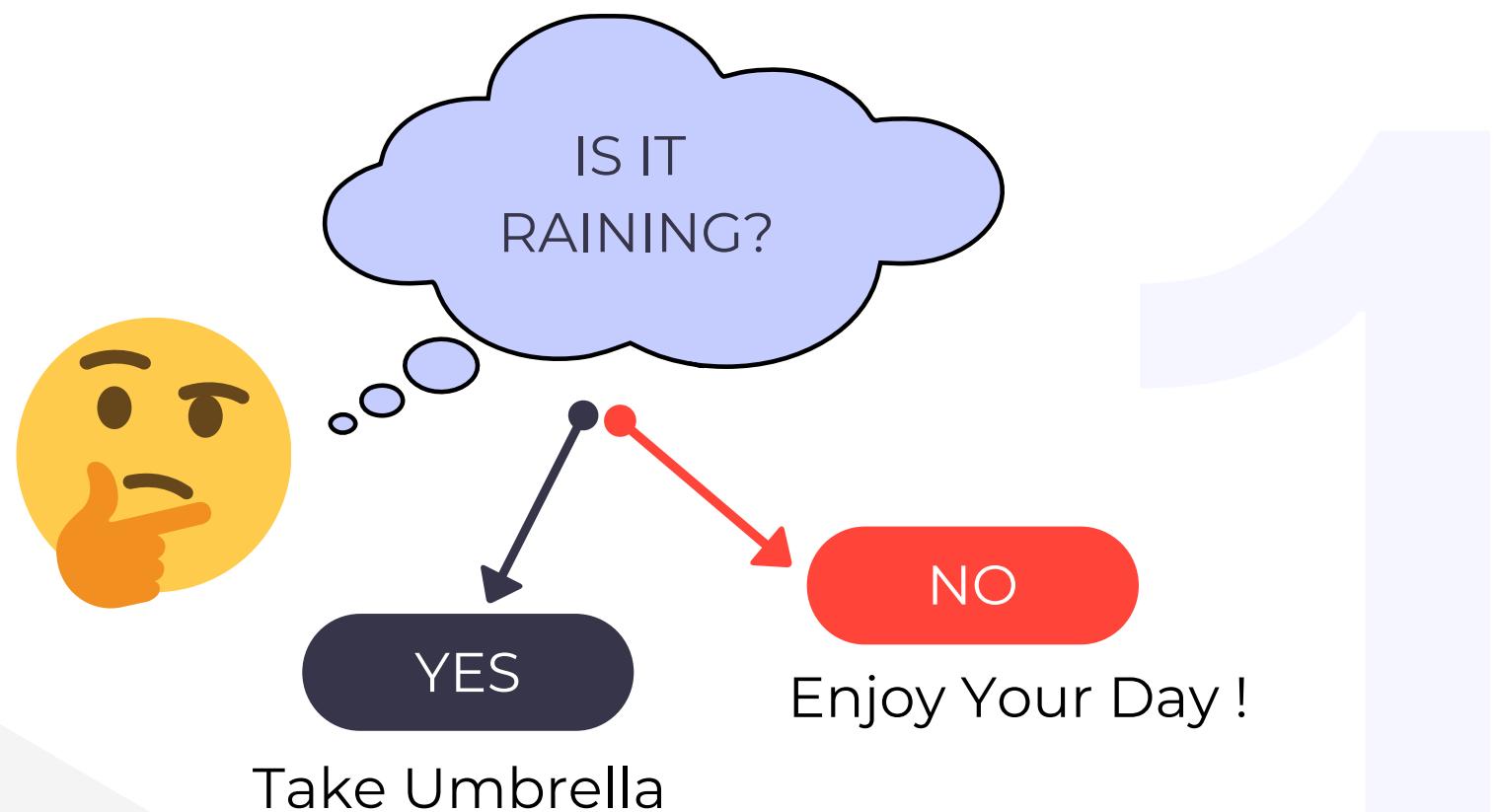
# KOTLIN IF-ELSE STATEMENT & EXPRESSION



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# IF-ELSE

Humans have the power to take decisions. But we want computer to take the decisions for us. Based on the conditions computer decides, what code to execute - this is where **IF-ELSE** comes into picture.



# IF-ELSE IN KOTLIN

```
if(yourCondition)
{
    //code executes if condition is true
}
else
{
    //code executes if condition is false
}
```

This is a Boolean condition - it could be either `true` or `false`

Kotlin has **2 variations of If-Else**. i.e. **if-else as statement** which is shown above and **if-else as an expression**

# EXAMPLE OF IF-ELSE STATEMENT

Simple program to check  
if number is even or odd

```
● ● ●

val num = 3

if(num % 2 == 0)
{
    println("Number is even")
}
else
{
    println("Number is odd")
}
```

# IF-ELSE AS EXPRESSION

Simple program to check  
if number is even or odd

The image shows a code editor window with a dark theme. At the top left are three colored circular icons: red, yellow, and green. The code itself is written in Scala:

```
val num = 3
val result = if(num % 2 == 0)
{
    "Number is even"
}
else
{
    "Number is odd"
}

println(result)
```

A red arrow points from the text "This is how you write if-else as an expression" to the if-expression in the code.

This is how you write  
if-else as an expression

# SHORTER VERSION OF IF-ELSE EXPRESSION



```
val num = 3
val result = if(num % 2 == 0) "Number is even" else "Number is odd"
println(result)
```



Feels like Ternary operator. There is  
No Ternary Operator in Kotlin.



# NESTING & ELSE-IF LADDER

You can nest multiple if-else statements i.e. if-else inside if-else block. You can have different conditions using else-if ladder.



```
val rating = 4
if(rating > 3){}
else if(rating = 3){}
else{}
```

Else-If Ladder

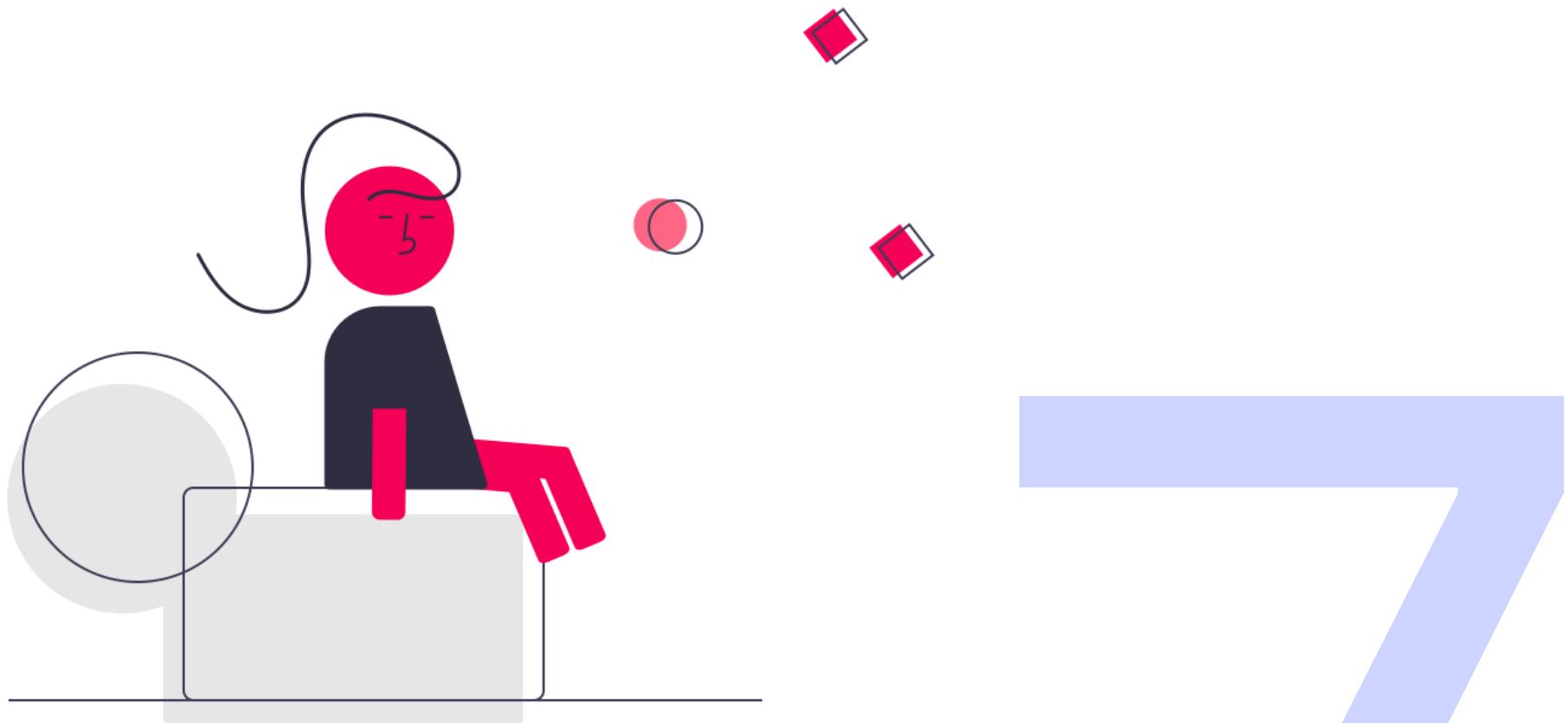


```
val rating = 4
if(rating > 3){
    if(rating = 5){}
    else{}
}
```

Nested If-Else



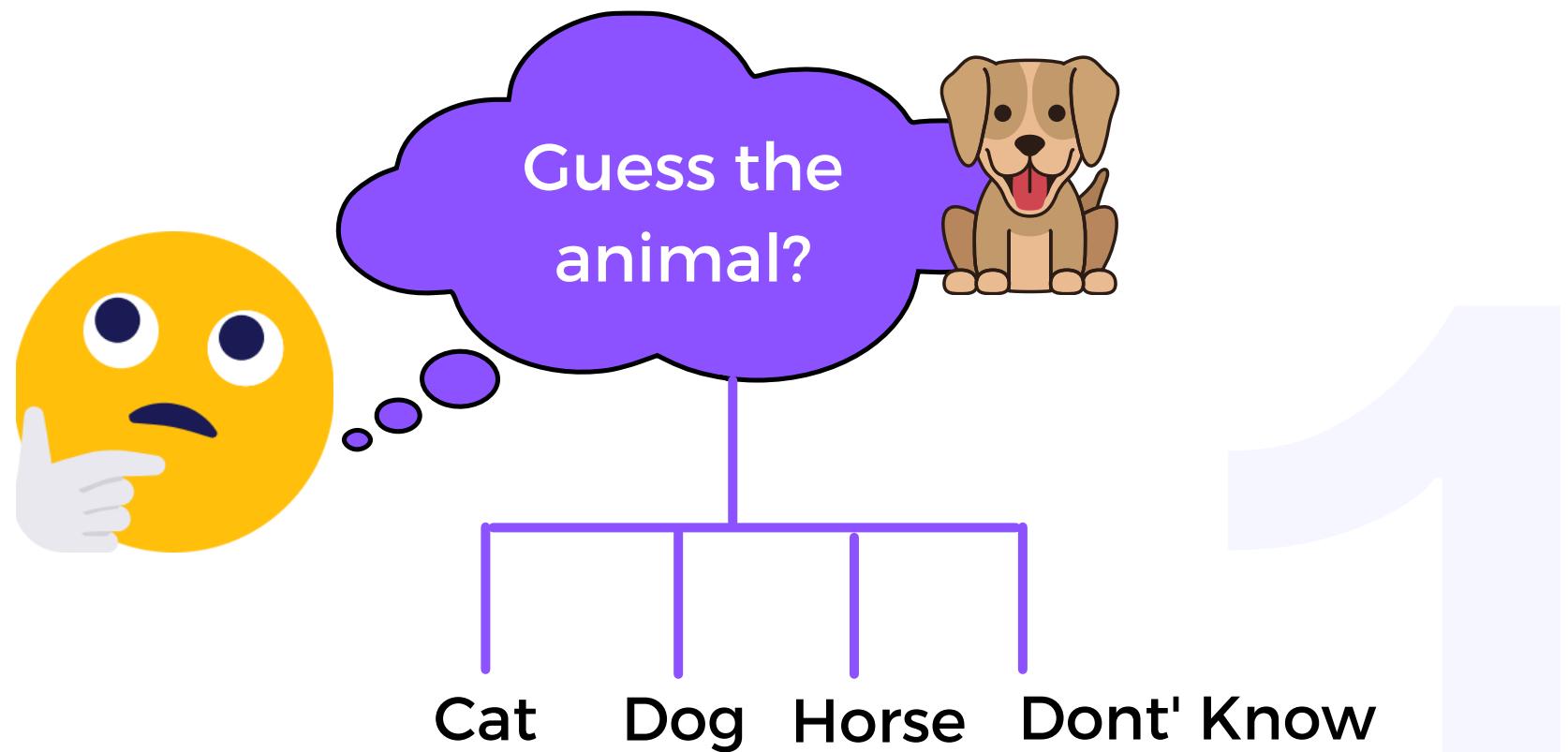
# KOTLIN WHEN STATEMENT & EXPRESSION



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# WHEN

When you have to check multiple conditions, if-else conditions becomes less readable. To improve the readability, **WHEN** is used.



# USING IF-ELSE

```
● ● ●  
val animal = "Dog"  
  
if(animal == "Cat") {  
    println("Animal is Cat")  
}  
else if(animal == "Dog") {  
    println("Animal is Dog")  
}  
else if(animal == "Horse") {  
    println("Animal is Horse")  
}  
else {  
    println("Animal Not Found")  
}
```



Although this code  
works, but readability  
can be improved



# WHEN STATEMENT

Same Program With When Statement

```
● ● ●  
val animal = "Dog"  
  
when(animal)  
{  
    "Cat" → println("Animal is Cat")  
    "Dog" → println("Animal is Dog")  
    "Horse" → println("Animal is Horse")  
    else → println("Animal Not Found")  
}
```



**Lot Cleaner !! Kotlin's  
Statement is more powerful.  
Feels like switch but in Kotlin  
there is no switch case.**

# WHEN EXPRESSION

Same as if-else you can use  
when as an expression as well

```
● ● ●  
val animal = "Dog"
```

Here when is assigned  
to a variable

```
val result = when(animal) { // When Expression  
    "Cat" → "Animal is Cat"  
    "Dog" → "Animal is Dog"  
    "Horse" → "Animal is Horse"  
    else → "Animal Not Found"  
}  
  
println(result)
```



# WHEN WITH RANGE

```
val number = 13
```

```
val result = when(number) {  
    11 → "Eleven"  
    12 → "Twelve"  
    13 .. 19 → "Teen"  
    else → "Not in Range"  
}
```

```
println(result)
```

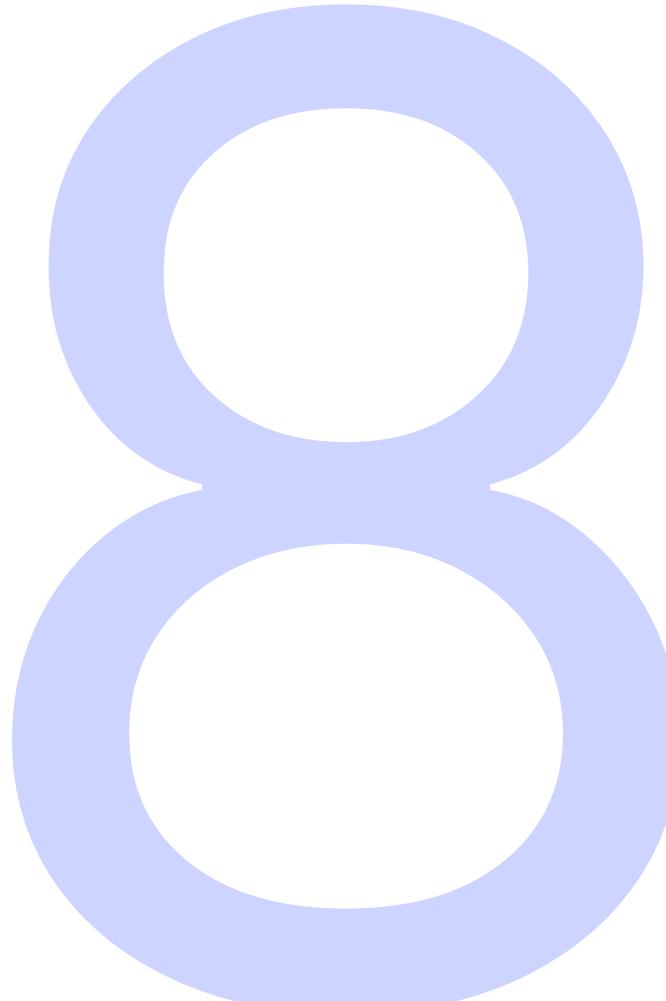
This is **Range** i.e. when will check if the number lies between 13 & 19

**Concept of Range** - In simple words, if the number lies in this **range** i.e. between 13 and 19  
(Both are inclusive)



# KOTLIN LOOPS

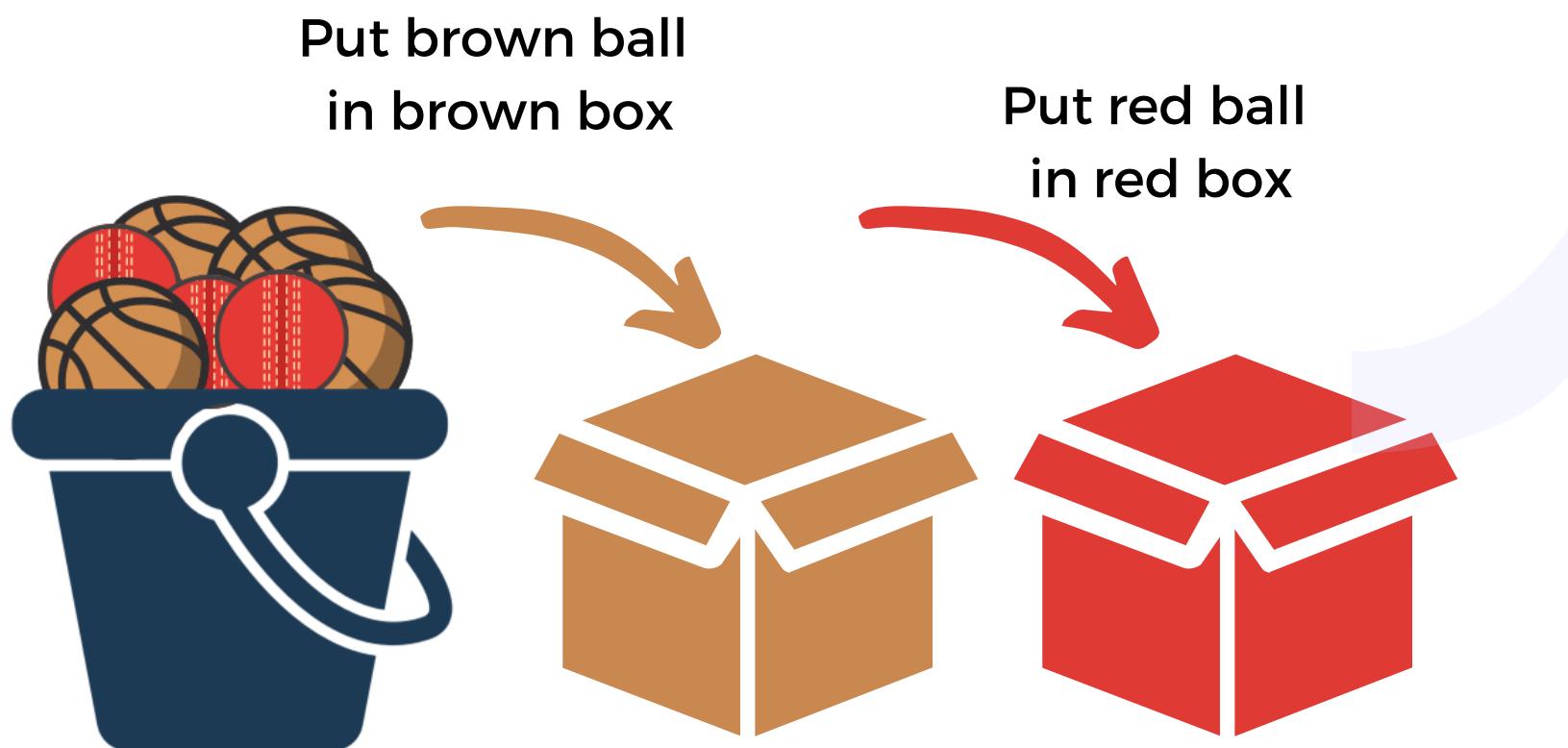
## WHILE & DO-WHILE LOOP



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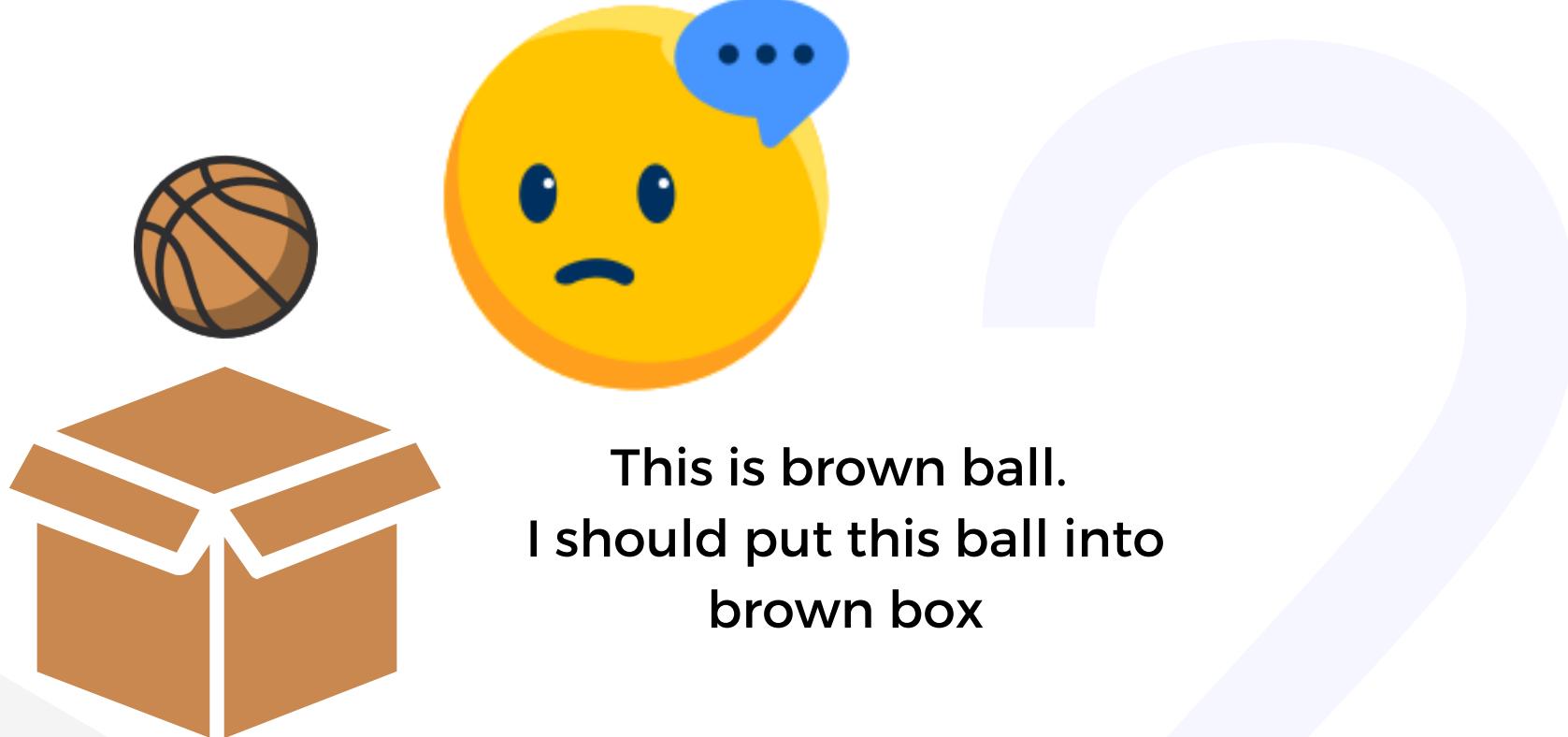
# LOOPS

In real life, we use the concept of loop quite often. Let's take an example - we have a bag of balls - we need to distribute these balls into different boxes based on the color.



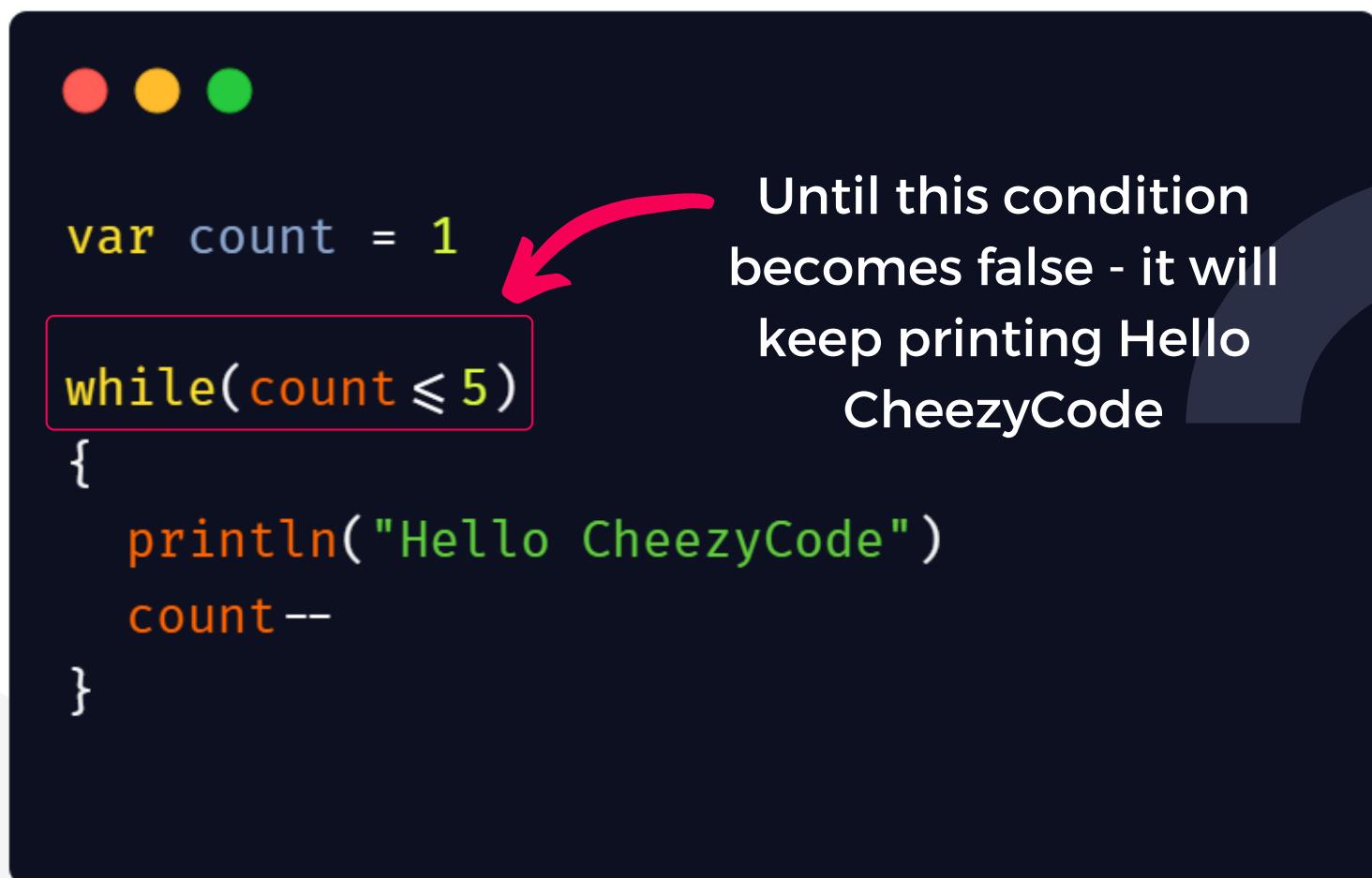
# LOOPS

- We are doing this process using a loop. We pick one ball, check it's color, and put it into the corresponding box.
- We will keep doing this process until all the balls are placed into corresponding boxes.



# WHILE LOOP

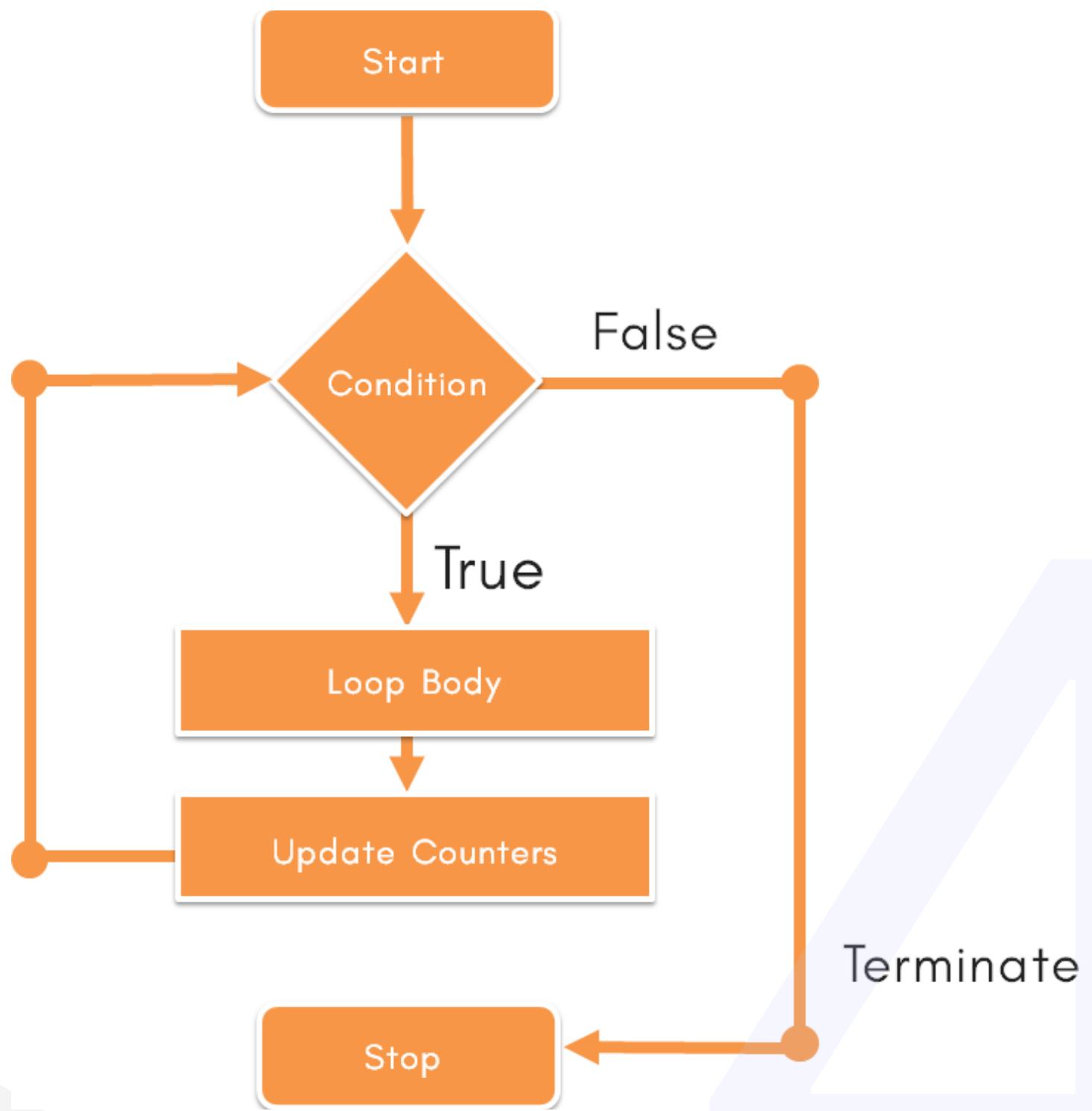
We want computer to do the same - this is where loops come into picture. We keep doing the task until condition evaluates to false. We keep putting the balls until the main box is empty.



```
var count = 1
while(count <= 5)
{
    println("Hello CheezyCode")
    count--
}
```

Until this condition becomes false - it will keep printing Hello CheezyCode

# LOOPS



# DO - WHILE LOOP

In while loop, condition is check before executing the code whereas in do-while loop condition is checked at the end. So loop executes once, no matter what.

```
var count = 1  
do  
{  
    println("Hello CheezyCode")  
}  
while(count > 5)
```

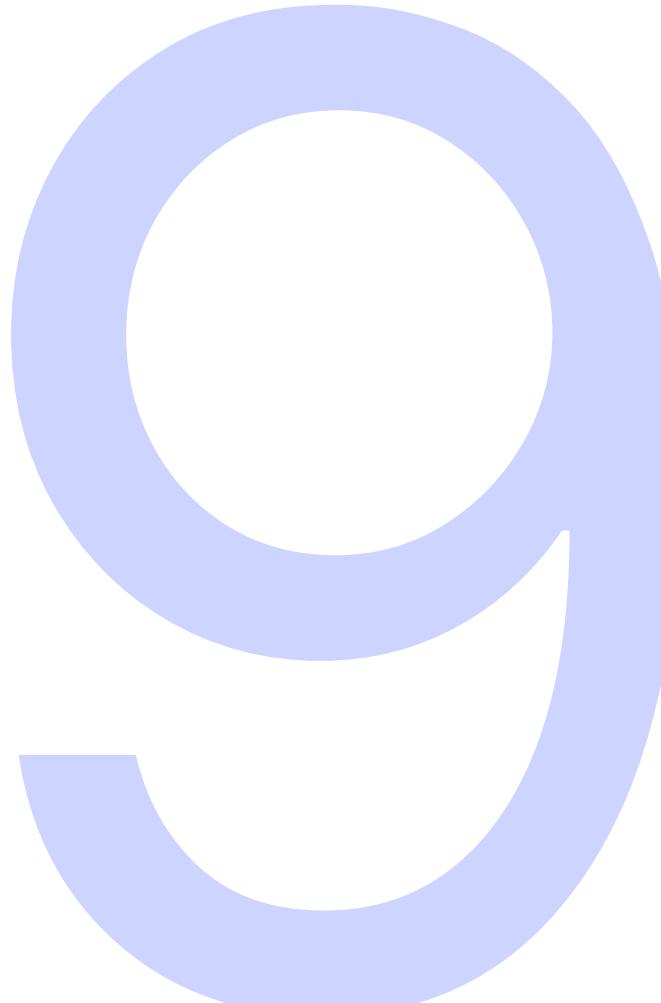
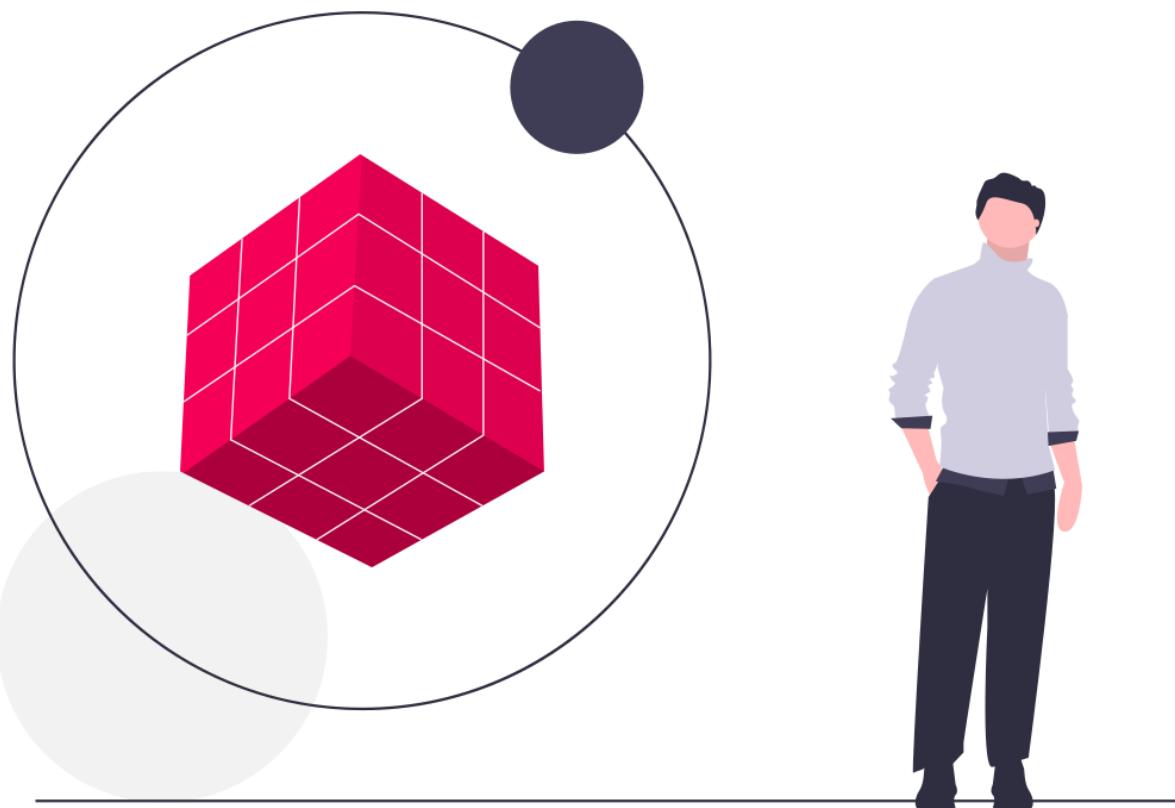
This will print Hello CheezyCode once.

Condition is checked at the end. So no matter what body of the loop is executed once.



# KOTLIN LOOPS

## FOR LOOP & VARIATIONS



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# FOR LOOPS

By using a for loop, we can run one or more statements repeatedly for a certain number of times.



```
for(i in 1..5)
{
    println("Hello CheezyCode")
}
```

A screenshot of a code editor window. The window has three colored dots (red, yellow, green) at the top left. Below them is a pink-bordered box containing the code. The code consists of a for loop with 'i' as the iterator, ranging from 1 to 5. Inside the loop, there is a println statement that outputs "Hello CheezyCode". A red arrow points from the explanatory text above to the 'i' in 'for(i in 1..5)'. Another red arrow points from the explanatory text below to the '1..5' range in the for loop.

for every iteration,  
i is incremented by 1

This loop will run 5 times. 1..5 is  
a range which starts from 1  
and ends at 5 ( 5 is inclusive)

# FOR LOOP WITH STEP

If you want to increment "i" by certain number then you need to use **Step**

```
for(i in 1..5 step 2)
{
    println("Hello CheezyCode ${i}")
}

/*
 * Output -
 * Hello CheezyCode 1
 * Hello CheezyCode 3
 * Hello CheezyCode 5
 */
```

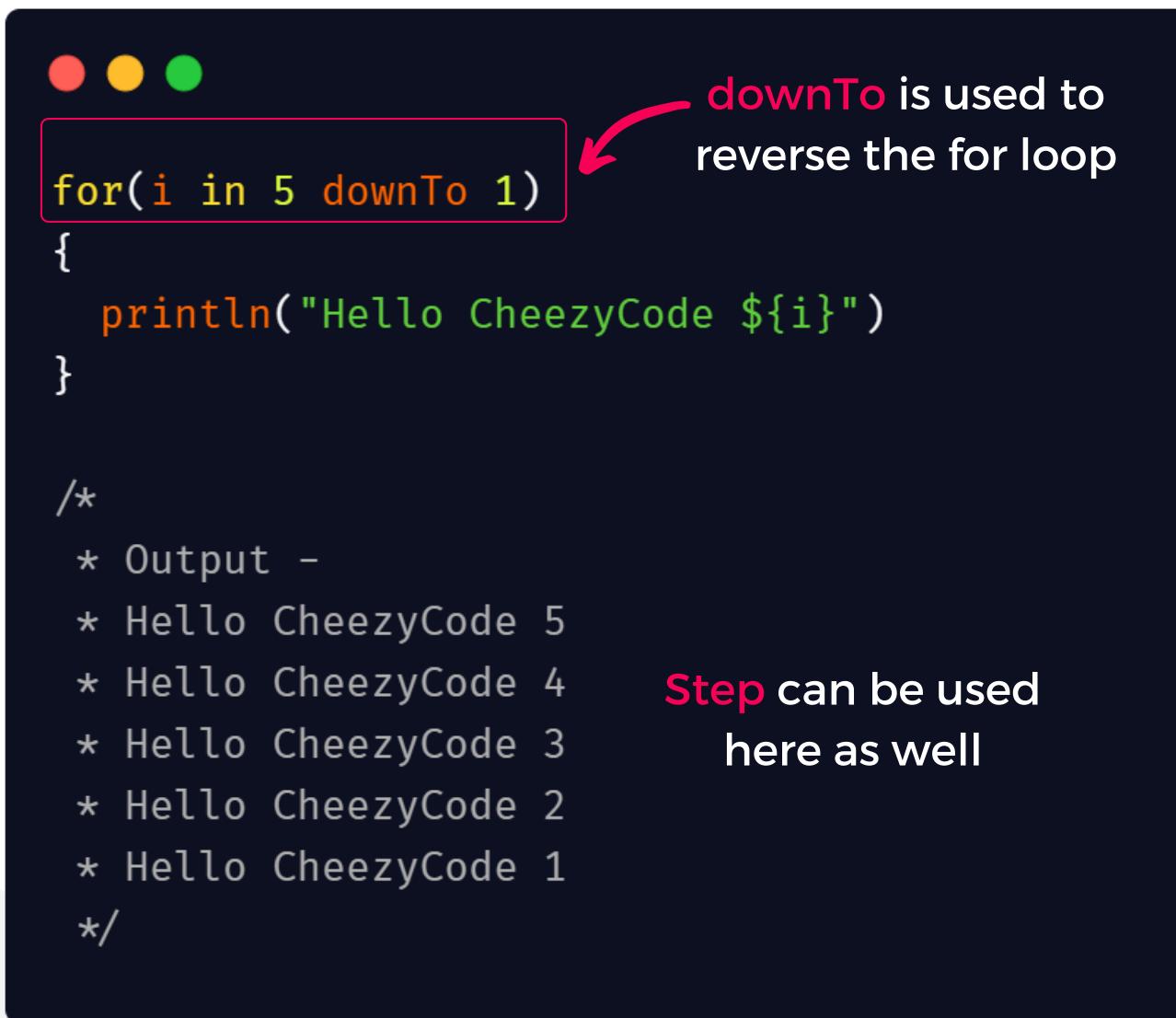
Use of step is to let  
i increment by  
certain number

You can check the  
output here



# REVERSE FOR LOOP

For Loop can be reversed as well i.e. instead of incrementing loop, we can also have decrementing loop. For this - we have **downTo**



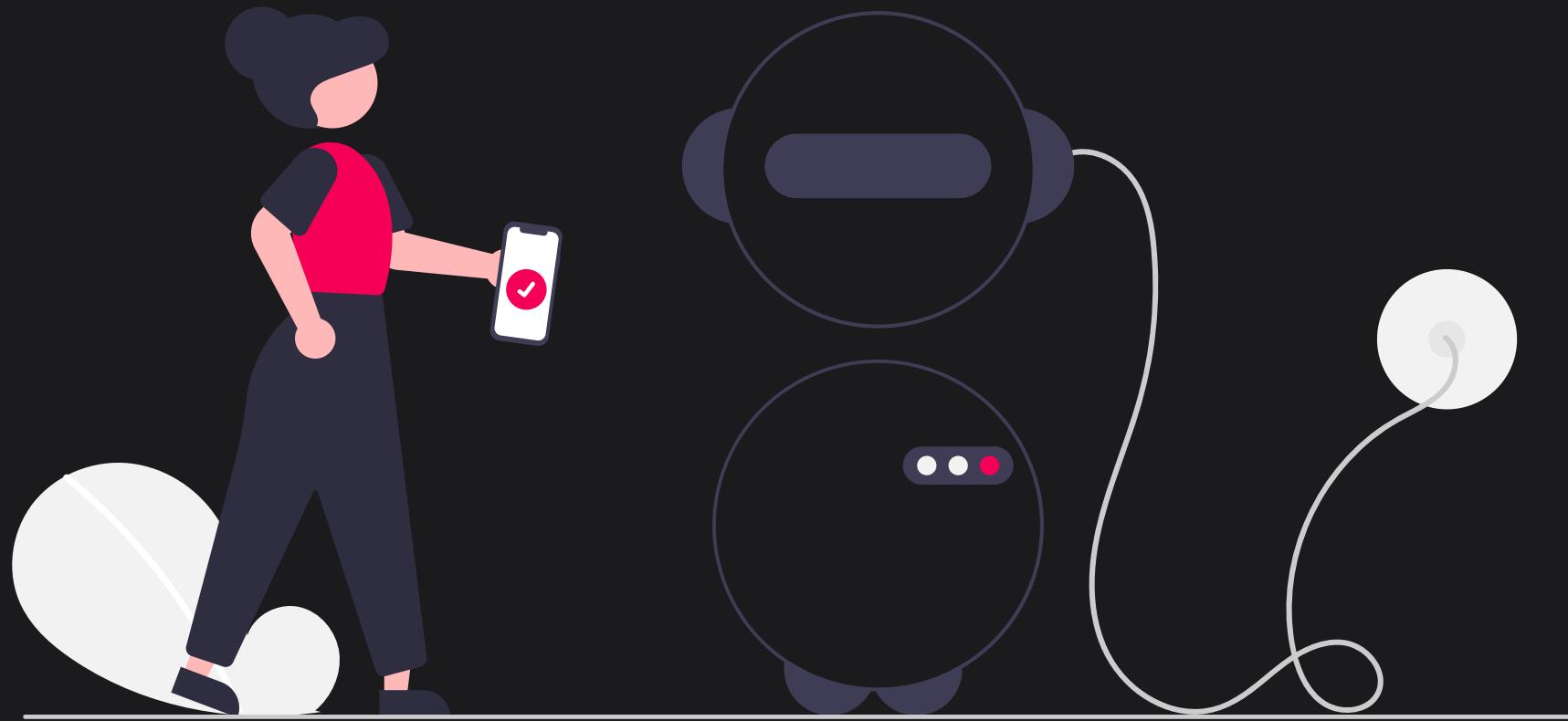
```
● ● ●  
for(i in 5 downTo 1)  
{  
    println("Hello CheezyCode ${i}")  
}  
  
/*  
 * Output -  
 * Hello CheezyCode 5  
 * Hello CheezyCode 4  
 * Hello CheezyCode 3  
 * Hello CheezyCode 2  
 * Hello CheezyCode 1  
 */
```

downTo is used to reverse the for loop

Step can be used here as well



# KOTLIN UNIT TYPE FUNCTION VARIATIONS



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# FUNCTIONS

Block of code that performs a specific task or functionality. You give input to this function, it runs the block of code based on the input and gives you the output.



# KOTLIN FUNCTION



```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int) : Int  
{  
    val total = a + b  
    return total  
}
```

This is the **data type** of output i.e. **return type**

Since this total variable will be integer ( $a+b$ ) will be an integer so return type is defined as **Int**

# SINGLE LINE FUNCTIONS

If you have only single expression in your function you can write like this as well.



```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int) : Int = a + b
```



Due to Type Inferencing, we can also remove the return type here - Kotlin infers from the return value that it is going to be an integer.



```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int) = a + b
```

# UNIT DATA TYPE

When the function does not return any value.

The **return type** for that function is **Unit**

```
● ● ●  
fun add(a: Int, b: Int) : Unit  
{  
    val total = a + b  
    println(total)  
}  
  
Since there is no return  
value, return type is Unit
```

This can be simplified as well - No need to write Unit explicitly. Kotlin can infer on its own.

```
● ● ●  
fun add(a: Int, b: Int)  
{  
    val total = a + b  
    println(total)  
}  
  
No return type
```

# DEFAULT VALUE

You can assign a default value to parameters. For cases where you don't pass a value for this parameter - the default value is used.

```
fun printMessage(count = 1)
```

```
{
```

```
    for(i in 1..count)
```

```
{
```

```
        println("Hello CheezyCode")
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

Default value of  
count is 1

This function can be called like this - **printMessage()**



Since count value is not passed here, count is  
assigned a default value of 1

# SOME FACTS



```
fun main()
{
    val result = add(1,2)  1 & 2 are arguments
}
```

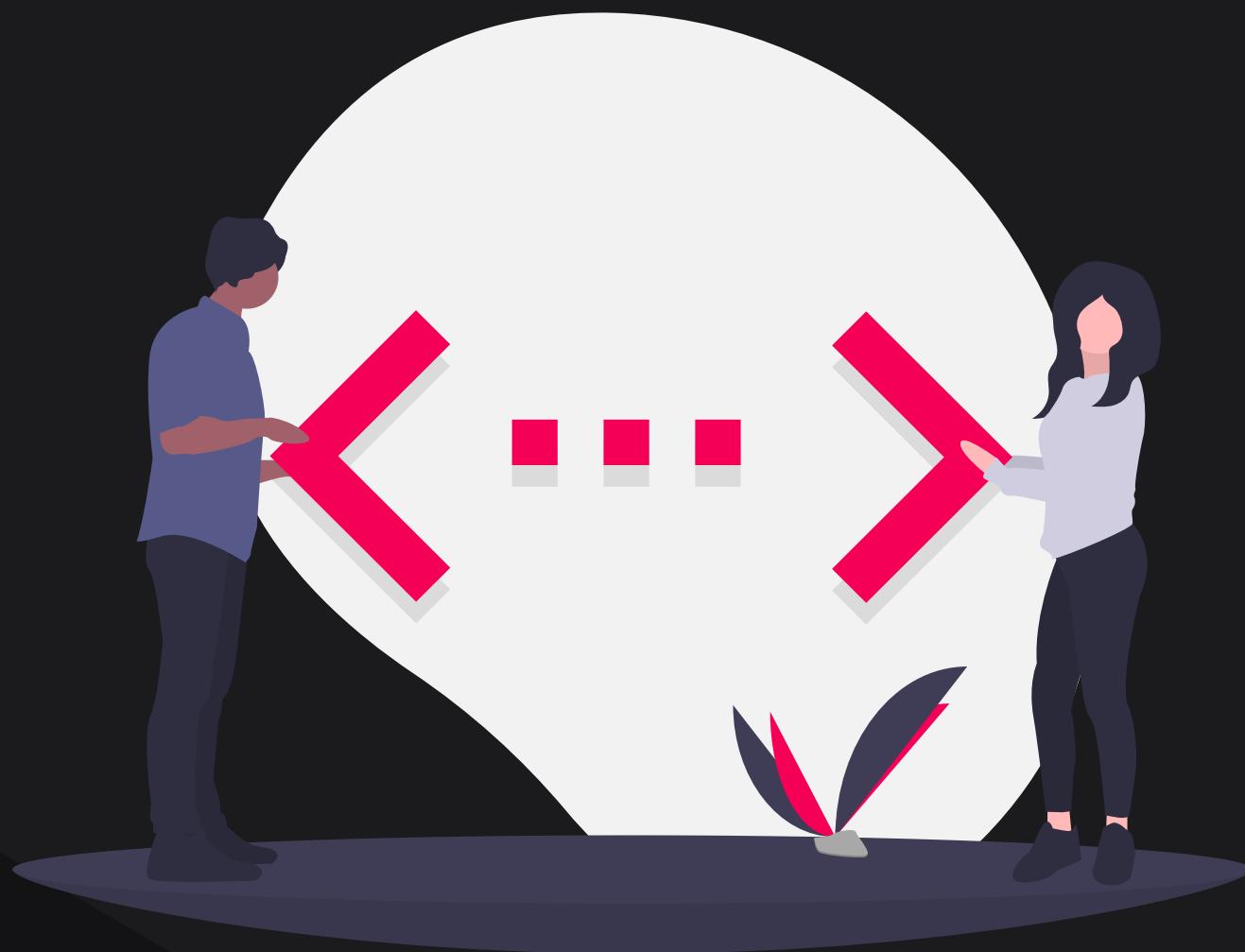
```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int) : Int
{
    return a + b
}
```

a & b are parameters

These parameters (a, b) in Kotlin are VAL  
You cannot change the value of these  
parameters inside this add method.



# KOTLIN FUNCTION OVERLOADING & KOTLIN FUNCTION TYPE



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# FUNCTION OVERLOADING

Multiple methods with the same name  
but different parameters.



```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int
{
    return a + b
}

// Type is different but count is same
fun add(a: Double, b: Double): Double
{
    return a + b
}

// Count is different
fun add(a: Double, b: Double, c: Double): Double
{
    return a + b + c
}
```

Parameter Type  
is different

Parameters Count  
is different

# NAMED ARGUMENTS

When you call a function, you can name the arguments i.e. explicitly defining which argument is for which parameter.

```
fun main()
{
    add(a = 2, b = 2)
}

add(b = 3, a = 1)

fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int
{
    return a + b
}
```

We have specified the arguments name.

You can change the sequence as well.

# FUNCTION REFERENCE OPERATOR

In Kotlin, we can store functions in a variable. Just like we store values like int, double or string, we can also store functions inside a variable.

```
● ● ●  
fun main()  
{  
    val fn = ::add  
    val result = fn(1,2)  
    println(result) //3  
}
```

```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int  
{  
    return a + b  
}
```

Add function is stored in a **variable fn**. Now this add function can be called using **fn** as well.

You can use **Reference Operator (::)** to store function in a variable

# FUNCTION TYPE

If you can store function in a variable then what is the type of that variable? This is where Function Type comes into picture.



```
fun main()
{
    val fn = ::add
    val gn:(a: Int, b: Int) → Int = ::add
}
```

This is how you define a  
function type.

```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int
{
    return a + b
}
```

Type - Function with 2  
Int parameters and  
return type as Int is  
accepted

# FUNCTION TYPE



```
fun main()
{
    var gn:(a: Int, b: Int) → Int = ::add
    gn = ::multiply ← Since the multiply function
    println(gn(2,3)) //6 has the same signature as
}                                the add function, it can be
                                assigned to this variable.

fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int
{
    return a + b
}

fun multiply(a: Int, b: Int): Int
{
    return a * b
}
```



# KOTLIN ARRAY



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# NEED OF ARRAY

If you want to store multiple items of same type then you need an array. Defining a variable to store each item does not make sense.



Defining variables for each to-do item does not make sense.  
Writing code to handle every variable is complex.

```
var note1 : String  
var note2 : String  
var note3 : String  
.....
```

To solve this - we have Array.  
Array is a single object that can store a list of notes....

# ARRAY

Simple Object that can store multiple values  
of **same type** and it has a **fixed size**.



```
val arr = arrayOf("one", "two", "three")
```

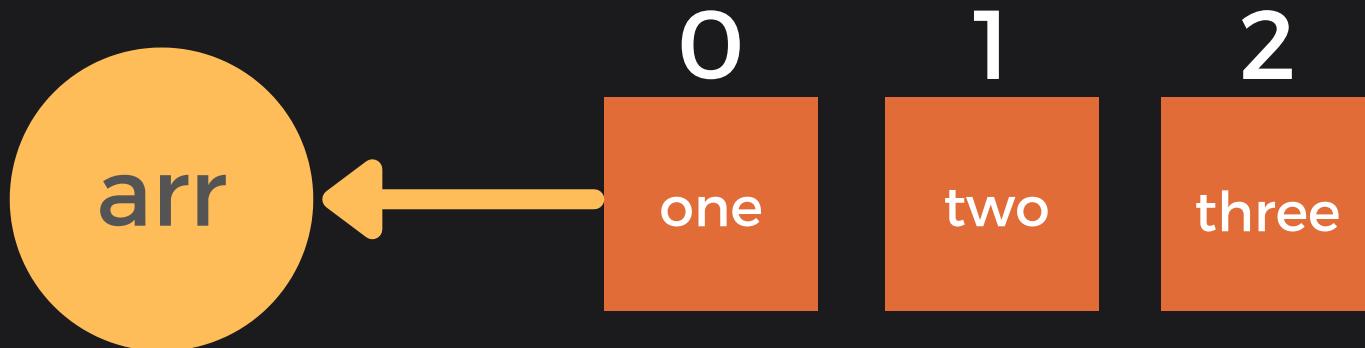
```
println(arr[0]) // one
println(arr[1]) // two
println(arr[2]) // three
```



Elements are stored **starting from index 0** i.e.  
first element is stored at location 0, second  
element is stored at location 1 and so on.

# MEMORY REPRESENTATION

```
val arr = arrayOf ("one", "two", "three")
```



Collection of items stored at contiguous memory locations i.e. elements are stored sequentially with every item being indexed and index starts from 0

# LOOPING THROUGH ARRAY

```
● ● ●  
fun main()  
{  
    val arr = arrayOf("Laptop", "Mouse", "Mic")  
  
    for(el in arr)  
    {  
        println(el)  
    }  
  
    for((i , el) in arr.withIndex())  
    {  
        println(el + " - " + i)  
    }  
}
```

Simple For-In Loop

You can access the index of the element as well using `withIndex()`

# ARRAY OPERATIONS



```
fun main()
{
    val arr = arrayOf("one", "two", "three")

    // Length of the array
    println(arr.size) //----> 3

    // Get First Element
    println(arr.get(0)) //----> one

    // Set First Element
    arr.set(0, "zero") //----> ("zero", "two", "three")

    // Check If Array Contains Particular Element
    println(arr.contains("one")) //----> false

    // Index Of Particular Element
    println(arr.contains("three")) //---->true

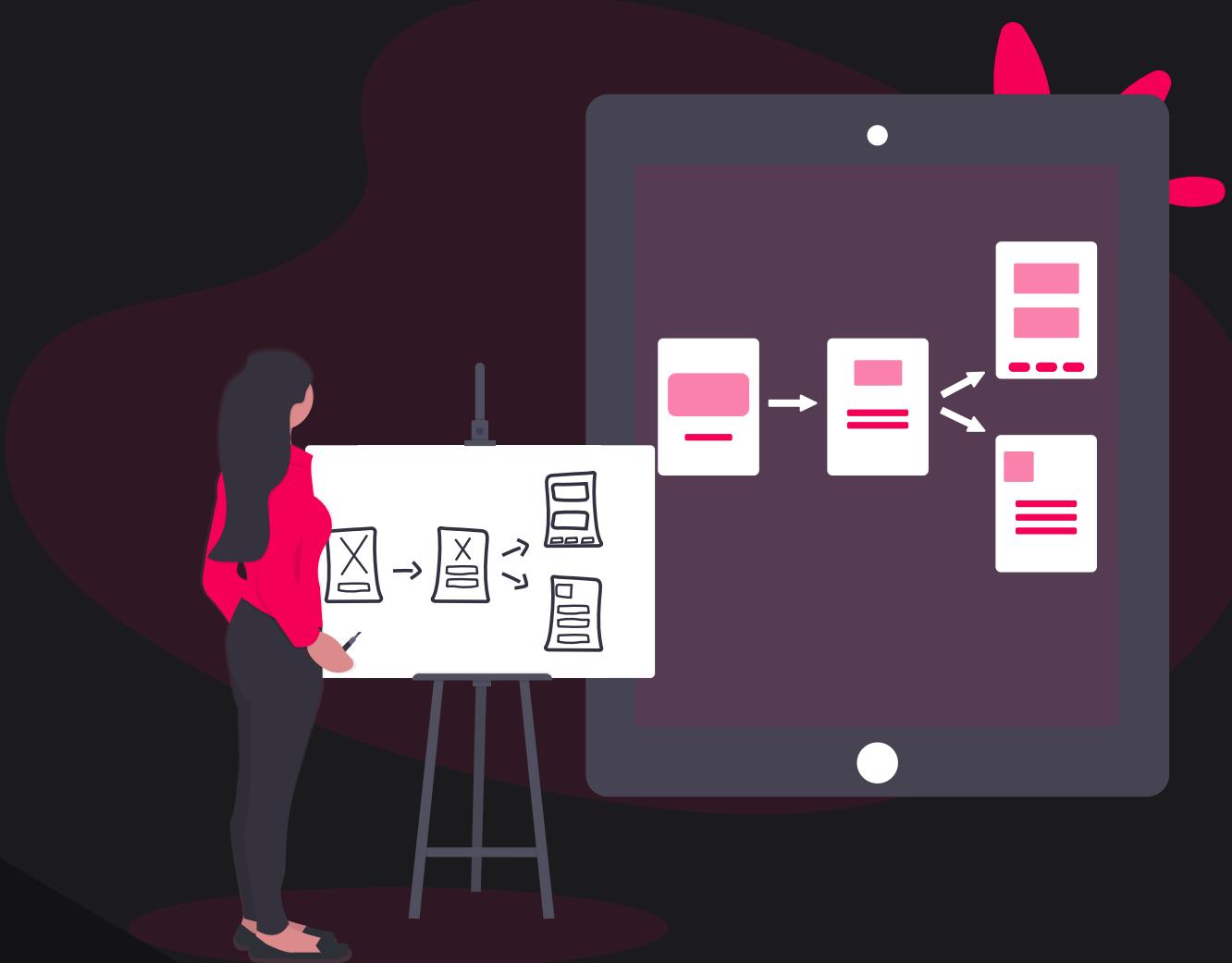
    //If you try to access index that does not exist
    println(arr[10]) //--->java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException

}
```





# KOTLIN CLASS & OBJECTS - OOP

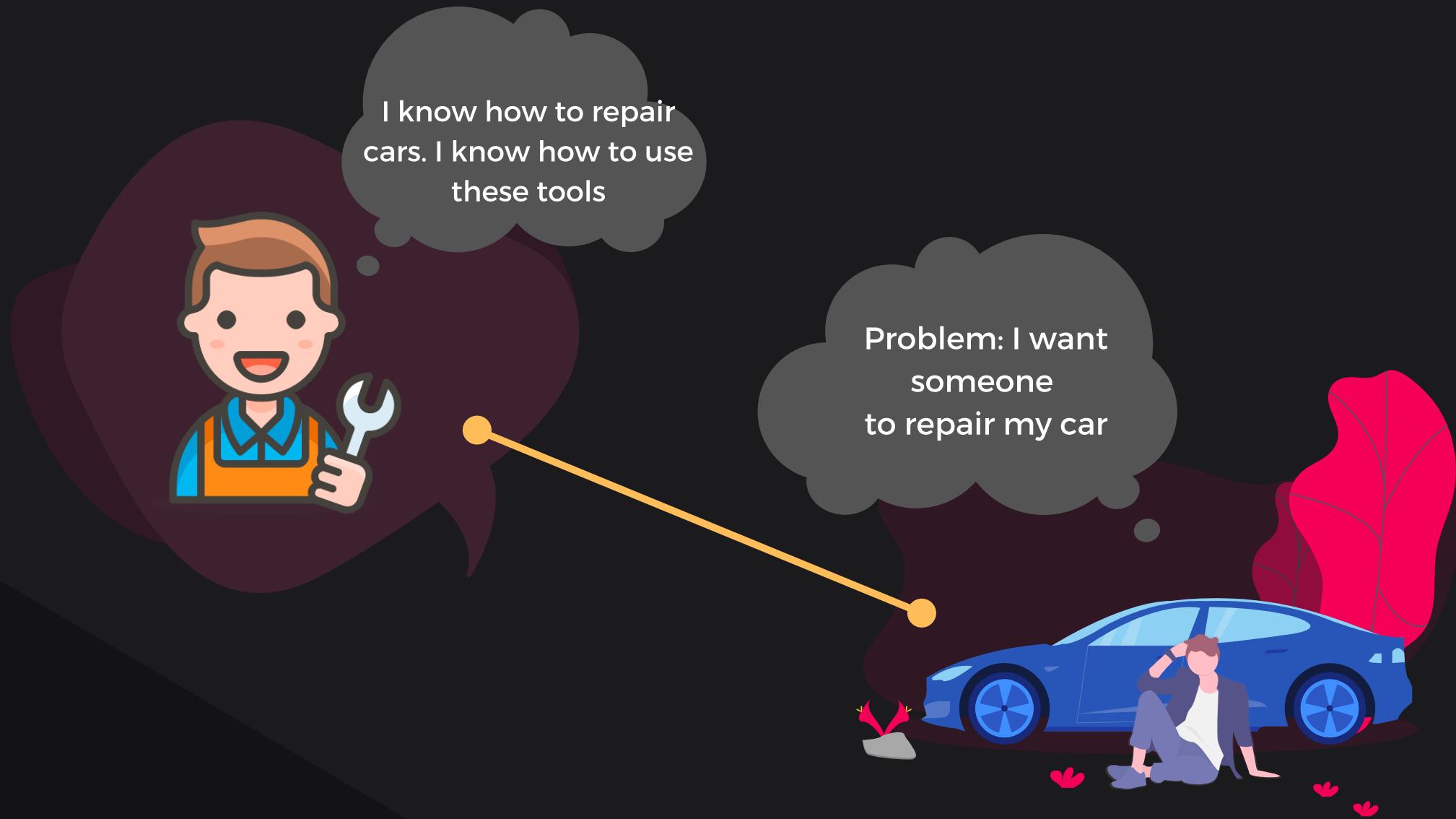


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# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

Object oriented programming is a paradigm to solve problems using objects. Objects interact with each other to solve a problem. This is similar to how we solve problems in real life.



# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

In real life, we do take help from others to solve problems. Here, we have different objects interacting with each other to solve the problem. Objects in this scenario - I am object, Car Mechanic is object, Car is object, Tools are also objects.

- □ ×

Problem - Need to repair Car

Objects -

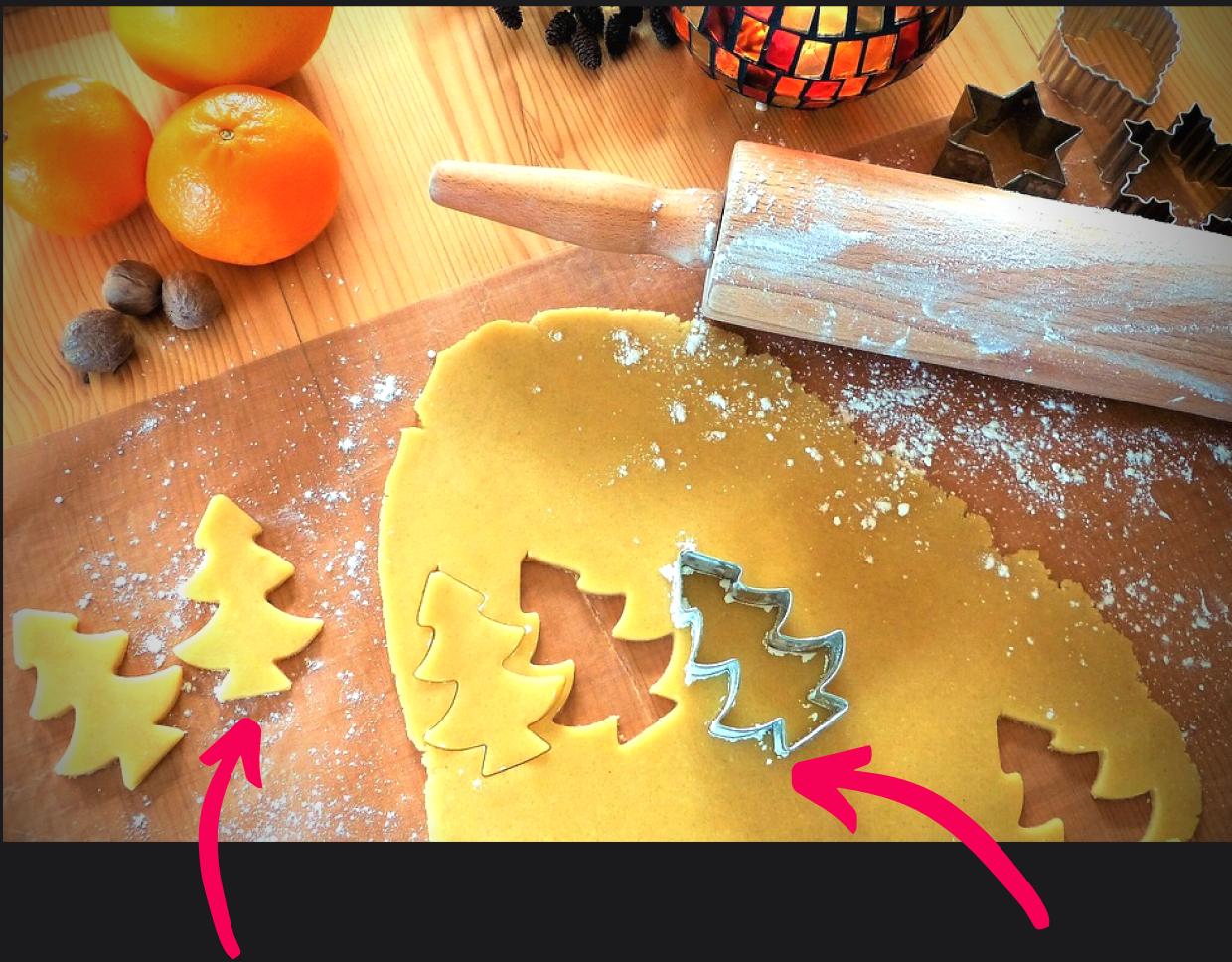
- Car
- Person Object( Me & Car Mechanic )
- Car Repairing Tools



Similarly, in programming, we create objects to solve problems. This is a way of writing programs

# BUT HOW DO WE CREATE OBJECTS?

To create objects, we first need to define a blueprint or template which will define how the objects will look like.

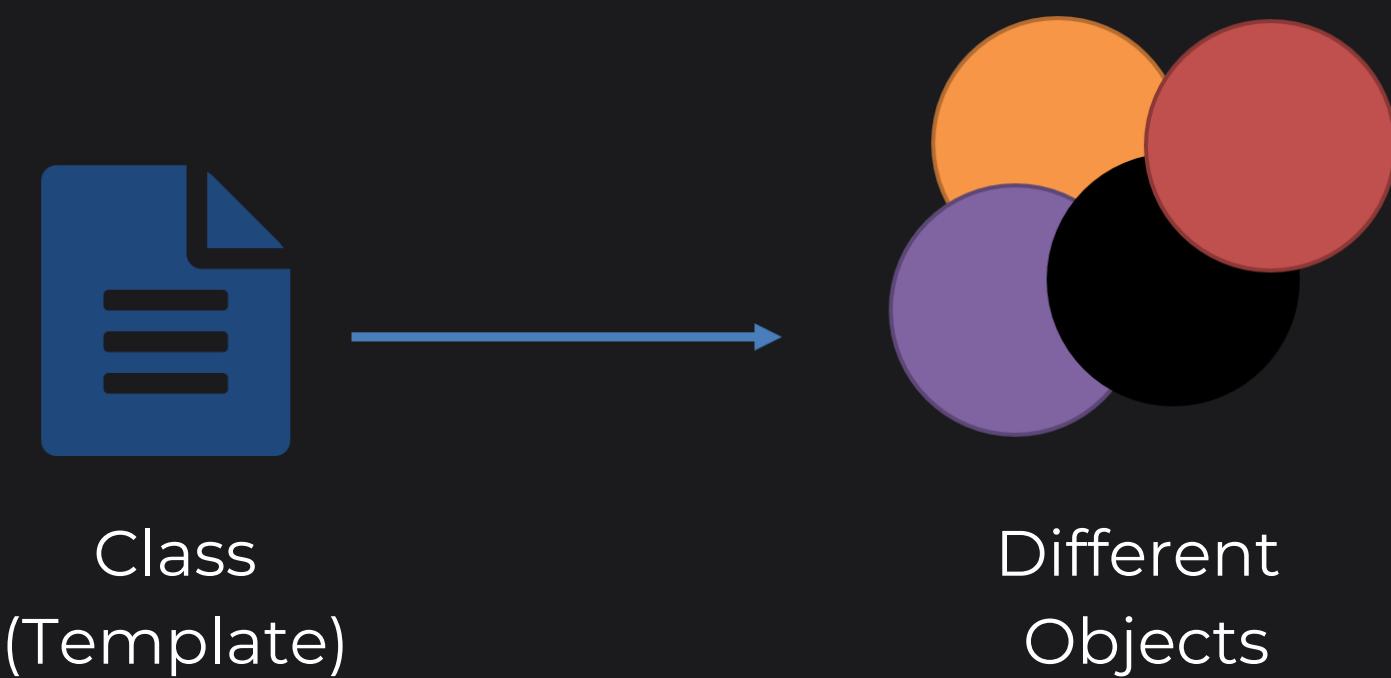


These are the  
actual objects

This defines a template or  
blueprint for the objects  
i.e. cookies

# CLASS & OBJECTS

- Class is a blueprint or template.
- Objects are the real thing.



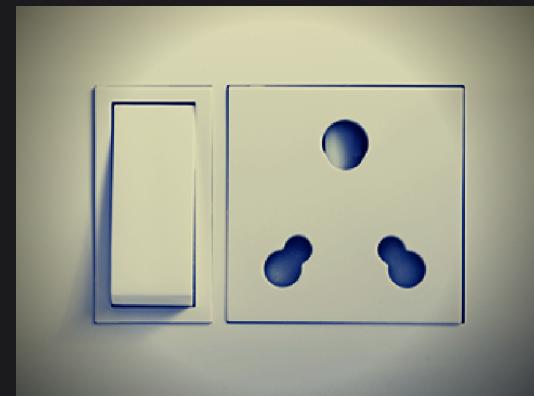
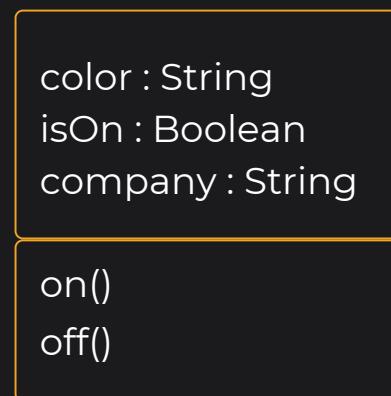
# WHAT ARE OBJECTS?

Now we know that we need objects to solve the problems and class defines the structure of the object. But what does it contains?

---

Object has 2 things - **Properties** and **Methods**

- Properties or Fields (**What Object Knows**)
- Methods (**What Object Does**)



# CLASS & OBJECTS IN KOTLIN



```
class Car (val name: String, val type : String) //properties
{
    fun driveCar(){ //methods
        println("$name Car is driving")
    }

    fun applyBrakes(){
        println("Applied Brakes")
    }
}
```

We can access properties inside the methods. Properties define the state of the object and methods behave according to state.

This defines a template or blueprint of a car. With this, we can create multiple car objects. Each object will have its own name and type.



# CLASS & OBJECTS IN KOTLIN



```
fun main() {  
    val mustang = Car("mustang", "petrol")  
    val beetle = Car("beetle", "diesel")
```

This is how you  
create Car Objects

```
println(mustang.name) //---> mustang  
println(beetle.name) //---> beetle
```

```
mustang.driveCar() // ---> mustang Car is driving  
beetle.driveCar() // --->beetle Car is driving
```

```
}
```



Two Objects in Memory  
will be created. Both are  
separate entities have  
their own properties.



# KOTLIN CLASSES FROM DIFFERENT VIEWPOINT



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# USER DEFINED DATA TYPE

We have data types to store Integers, Floating Points, Strings but what if we want to store Student Information or Car Information. We don't have data types to store these information.

- □ ×

In Kotlin, You Can Create  
User Defined Data Type Using Classes

# USER DEFINED DATA TYPE



```
fun main()  
{  
    val num : Int = 10
```

This is how we store  
Integers Using **Int** This is a  
predefined data type.

```
//If we define a Car Class  
//i.e. User Defined Data Type  
//We can do something like this
```

```
}
```



We can define our own  
data types i.e. **User Defined**  
**Data Type** to store  
information we want.

# EVERY OBJECT HAS A STATE

Once you have a user defined data type, you can create Objects using that type. Every Object is different - each object has its own set of values



123, Avenue  
Street



16th F,  
Casa Homes

- Both are **different objects**
- Both have **different styles**
- Both have **different no. of rooms**
- Both have **different address**



Both objects have different data for its properties. For instance, **House#1 has 3 rooms** whereas **House#2 has 2 rooms**

# METHODS BEHAVIOR IS DEPENDENT ON OBJECT'S STATE



```
class Employee (val name: String, var age: Int, var isHealthy: Boolean)  
{  
    fun calculateProductivity(): Double  
    {  
        val factor = if(isHealthy) 0.9 else 0.6  
        return 75 * factor //random formula  
    }  
}
```

I feel more productive when I am Healthy



I cannot perform well, I am sick



# ANOTHER EXAMPLE



```
fun main() {  
    val mustang = Car("Mustang", 20)  
    mustang.startEngine()  
    val beetle = Car("Beetle", 0)  
    beetle.startEngine()  
}  
  
class Car(val name: String, var fuel: Int)  
{  
    fun startEngine() {  
        if(fuel > 0) {  
            println("$name - Engine Started")  
        }  
        else {  
            println("$name - Re-fill your fuel tank")  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Engine will only  
start if it has fuel

Output

- □ ×  
Output:  
Mustang - Engine Started  
Beetle - Re-fill your fuel tank





# KOTLIN CONSTRUCTORS PRIMARY & SECONDARY



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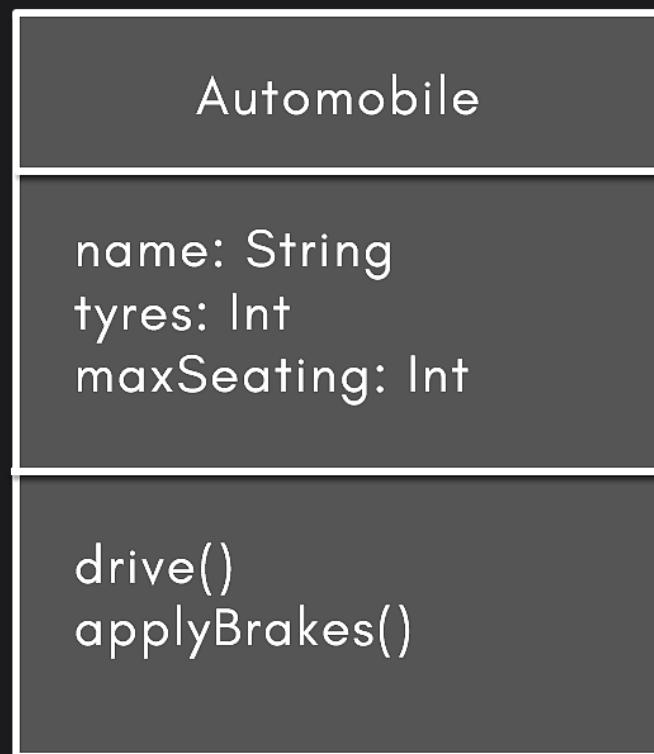
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# CONSTRUCTORS

In objects, we have 2 things -

Properties & Methods

To provide default values to these properties, constructors are used



# PRIMARY CONSTRUCTOR



```
fun main()
{
    var car = Automobile("Car", "Petrol", 2)
    var car2 = Automobile("Car2", "Petrol", 4)
}
```

These values are passed as  
Default Values for the object

```
class Automobile(val name: String, val tyres: Int, val maxSeating: Int)
{
    fun drive(){}
    fun applyBrakes(){}
}
```



This is how we define **Primary Constructor** in **Kotlin**. Values passed during the creation process are used to initialize these properties.

# ANOTHER WAY



```
/*
    Here constructor is empty. We have defined properties
    inside the class
*/
```

```
class Person()
{
    var name: String = ""
    var age: Int = 0      In both of these cases, Person has
}                                only 2 properties - name & age
```

```
.....
/*
    Just like methods, you can define parameters to
    initialize values of the properties
*/
```

```
class Person(nameParam: String, ageParam: Int){
    val name: String = nameParam
    val age: Int = ageParam
}
```



These are simple parameters. If  
you don't use **val** or **var** - they are  
not considered as properties



# WE CAN USE THESE VARIATIONS TOGETHER



```
fun main() {  
    val person1 = Person("John", 20)  
    println(person1.name) //John  
    println(person1.canVote) //true  
}  
  
class Person(val name: String, ageParam : Int)  
{  
    val canVote = ageParam > 18  
}
```



Here we have defined **name** as **val** which is a property whereas **ageParam** is just a parameter. This parameter is used to define another **property canVote**

# INITIALIZER BLOCK

Primary Constructor does not have any code.

To write initialization code, we can use **init** block

```
● ● ●

fun main()
{
    val person1 = Person("John", 20)
}

class Person(val name: String, val age : Int)
{
    init
    {
        println("Object Created - Init Block #1")
    }

    // We can define multiple init blocks
    // They are executed in order
    init
    {
        println("Init Block #2")
    }
}
```



# SECONDARY CONSTRUCTOR

When you want to provide different ways of creating an object - you can use secondary constructor.



```
fun main()
{
    val car1 = Automobile("Car1", "Petrol")      2 ways to create
    val car2 = Automobile("Car2", 2, "Diesel")   Automobile objects
}

class Automobile(val name: String, val seats: Int, val engineType: String)
{
    constructor(nameParam: String, engineParam: String) :
        this(nameParam, 4, engineParam)

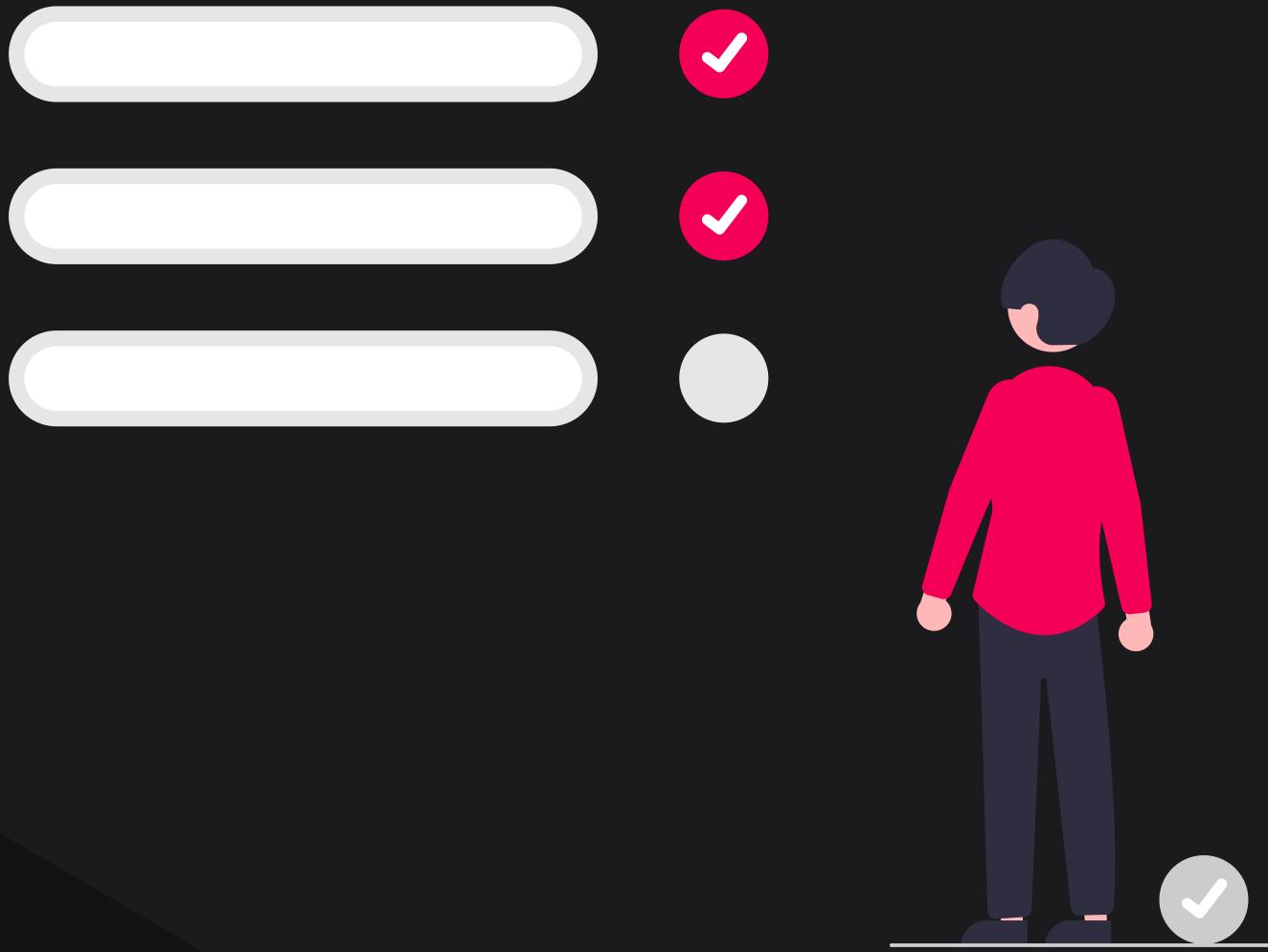
    fun drive(){}
    fun applyBrakes(){}
}
```



This is how you define secondary constructor.  
Make sure to call primary constructor using this



# KOTLIN LATEINIT & GETTERS SETTERS



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# LATEINIT IN KOTLIN

When you don't know the initial value for a variable, you can mark the property as lateinit meaning - Late Initialization.

```
● ● ●  
class Person  
{  
    var gender: String //Error - Property must be initialized or be abstract  
  
    //if you don't know the value at compile time  
    //you can mark the property as lateinit  
  
    lateinit var gender2: String // This will work fine  
}
```



Informing Kotlin that this property will be initialized later. You don't know the value at this point.

# GETTERS & SETTERS

If you want to execute any logic before setting or getting any property value, you can use getters and setters.



```
fun main() {  
    var p1 = Person("John", 21)  
    p1.age = -8  ← Here we can set a negative age as  
}                                well - which is incorrect.  
  
class Person(nameParam: String, ageParam: Int)  
{  
    var name: String = nameParam  
    var age: Int = ageParam  
}
```

# SETTER EXAMPLE

```
fun main() {  
    var p1 = Person("John", 21)  
    p1.age = -8  
}  
  
class Person(nameParam: String, ageParam: Int)  
{  
    var name: String = nameParam  
    var age: Int = ageParam  
    set(value) {  
        if(value > 0)  
        {  
            field = value  
        }  
        else{  
            println("Age can't be negative")  
        }  
    }  
}
```

We can define a setter like this. Before setting the value, this logic will be executed which prevents incorrect values.

# GETTER EXAMPLE



```
fun main() {  
    var p1 = Person("John")  
    println(p1.name) // Output - - > JOHN  
}
```

```
class Person(nameParam: String)  
{  
    var name: String = nameParam  
    get(){  
        return field.toUpperCase()  
    }  
}
```

```
}
```



This is how you can use getter if you want to manipulate values while accessing them.



# KOTLIN INHERITANCE



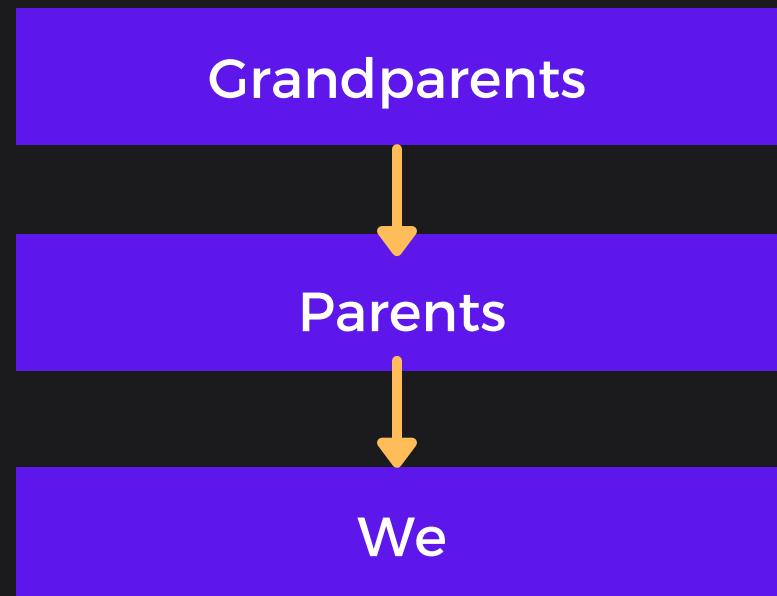
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# WHAT IS INHERITANCE

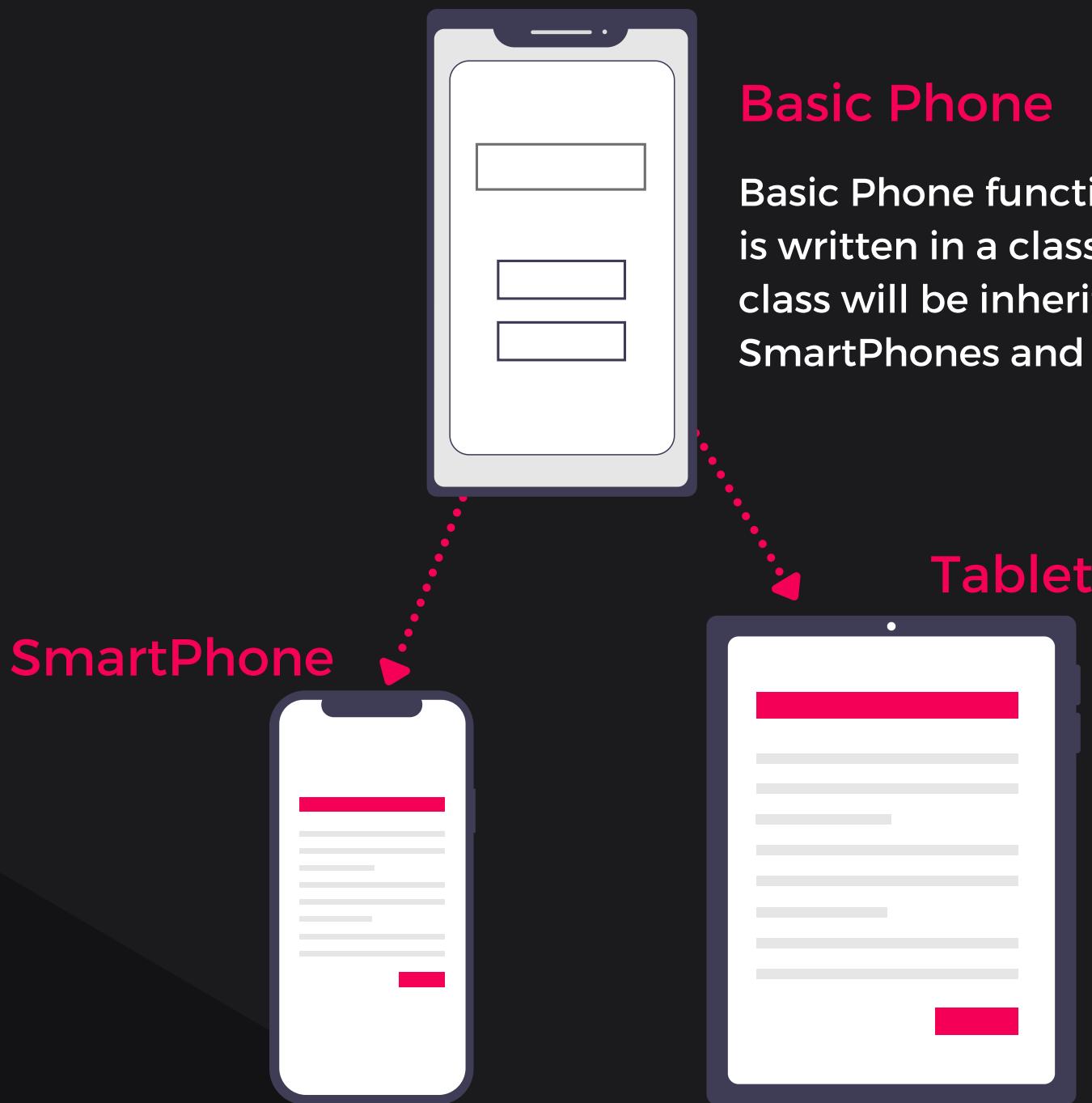
We inherit features and characteristics  
from our parents and grandparents

**We can apply this same logic  
in our classes as well.**



# EXAMPLE OF INHERITANCE

REUSING EXISTING CLASSES TO PREVENT CODE DUPLICATION



## Basic Phone

Basic Phone functionality is written in a class. This class will be inherited by SmartPhones and Tablets.

SmartPhone

Tablet

# IS-A RELATIONSHIP

Inheritance is also known as IS-A Relationship.  
For e.g. Car **is a** Vehicle, Truck **is a** Vehicle then  
Vehicle can be defined as a parent class.

- □ ×

Circle **is a** Shape, Triangle **is a** Shape  
Cat **is an** Animal, Dog **is an** Animal  
Full Time Employee, Part-Time Employee



Whenever you can argue that you can  
have **IS-A Relationship** - You can try to go  
with Inheritance to structure your classes

# INHERITANCE IN KOTLIN



You need to mark class as  
OPEN for Inheritance

```
open class Parent
{
    var parentProperty: String = "Parent"
    fun parentFn(){
        println("Parent Function Is Called")
    }
}
```

This is how you inherit from  
parent class

```
class Child : Parent()
{
    var childProperty: String = "Child"
    fun childFn(){
        println("Child Function Is Called")
    }
}
```

# INHERITANCE IN KOTLIN



```
fun main()
{
    val child = Child()           You can access the properties
                                of parent class - just like your
                                own properties
    println(child.parentProperty) // ---> Parent Property

    child.parentFn() // ---> Parent Function Is Called

    child.childFn() // ---> Child Function Is Called
}

open class Parent {}

class Child : Parent() {}
```



# SOME FACTS

— □ ×

- Parent's Constructor is called before Child's constructor.
- You can only inherit from a single class.
- Mark your classes open if you want to inherit them.





# KOTLIN OVERRIDING & ANY CLASS



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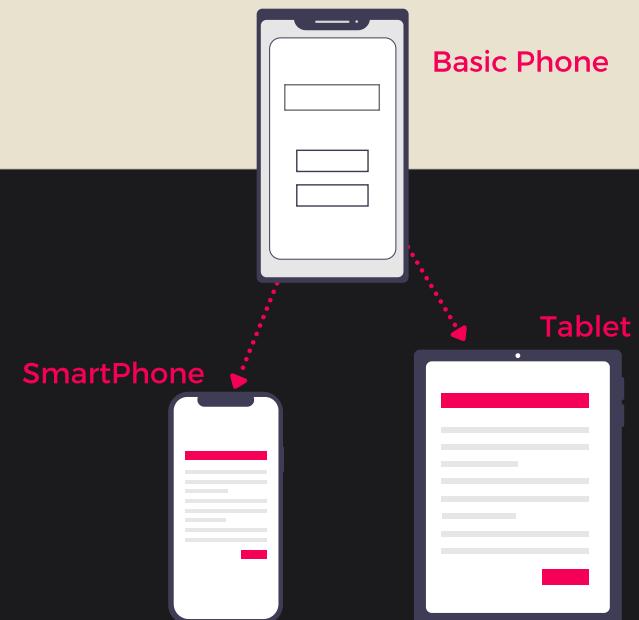
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# OVERRIDING

We can override the properties and behaviors we get from our parent class.



- Child class wants to define its own behavior.
- Don't want to use parent's behavior and properties.
- Mobiles have different displays than Tablets.
- Mobile & Tablet should override the display behavior.



# OVERRIDING EXAMPLE



```
fun main()
{
    val square = Square()
    square.display() //→ Square is displayed
}
```

Method or Property should be marked as **open** if you want them to be overridden.

```
open class Shape
{
    open fun display()
    {
        println("Shape is displayed")
    }
}

class Square : Shape()
{
    override fun display() //→
    {
        println("Square is displayed")
    }
}
```

To override method or property in the child class, we need to use **Override Keyword**

# SUPER KEYWORD

You can still call the parent's method from the child class if you want to - using **super**

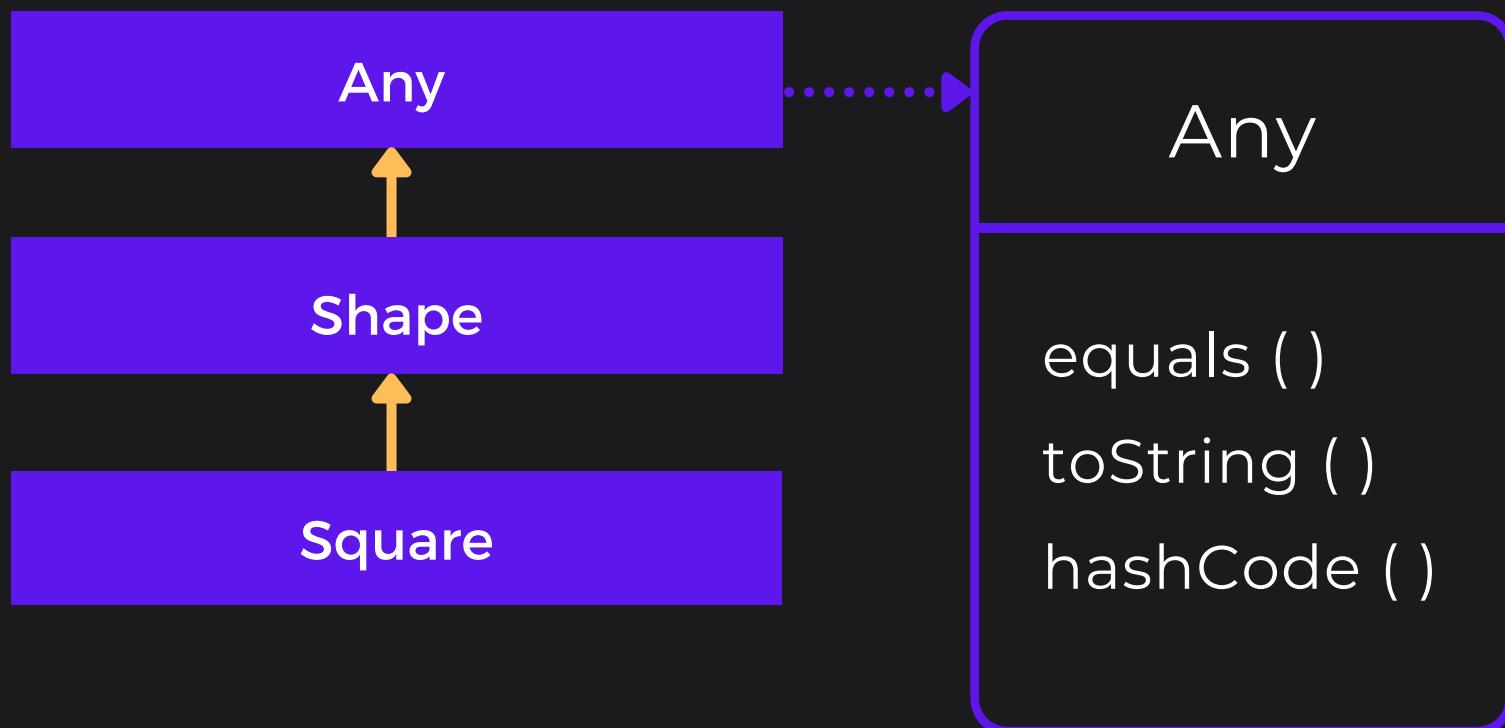
```
● ● ●  
open class Shape  
{  
    open fun display()  
    {  
        println("Shape is displayed")  
    }  
  
}  
  
class Square : Shape()  To call the Shape class's display  
{  
    override fun display()  
    {  
        super.display()  
        println("Square is displayed")  
    }  
}
```

To call the Shape class's display method, **super** is used.



# ANY CLASS

Every Kotlin class has **Any** as a superclass.



# TOSTRING( ) METHOD



```
fun main()
{
    val shape = Shape()
    println(shape.toString())
    println(shape) // behind the scene - it calls toString
}
```

```
open class Shape
{
    open fun display()
    {
        println("Shape is displayed")
    }

    override fun toString() : String
    {
        return "I am toString from Shape"
    }
}
```

We can override this method - used for printing the string representation of the object



I am toString from Shape  
I am toString from Shape



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# KOTLIN POLYMORPHISM



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# POLYMORPHISM

- Poly means Many & Morph means Forms
- In computer science, it is defined as – same method name but it will behave differently based on the object.



Same Guy Behaves  
Differently At Different Places  
**Polymorphic Behavior**

# POLYMORPHISM EXAMPLE

```
● ● ●

open class Shape{
    open fun area(): Double{
        return 0.0
    }
}

class Circle(val radius: Double) : Shape(){
    override fun area(): Double {
        return Math.PI * radius * radius
    }
}

class Square(val side: Double) : Shape(){
    override fun area(): Double {
        return side * side
    }
}

fun calculateAreas(shapes: Array<Shape>){
    for(shape in shapes){
        println(shape.area())
    }
}
```

Area Method here behaves  
Polymorphically. Based on the shape  
object, area will be calculated



# INHERITANCE & POLYMORPHISM

- Inheritance & Polymorphism go hand in hand. Here Shape is a parent class and we have different child classes - Circle, Square.
- Later if a new shape comes into the picture - say triangle - calculate Area method needs no change.



```
fun calculateAreas(shapes: Array<Shape>){  
    for(shape in shapes){  
        println(shape.area())  
    }  
}
```



# SIMPLY PUT

A parent can hold a reference to its child and can call methods which are provided by the Parent Class.



```
fun main()
{
    val circle : Shape = Circle(4.0)
    val square : Shape = Square(4.0)

    circle.area()
    square.area()
}
```

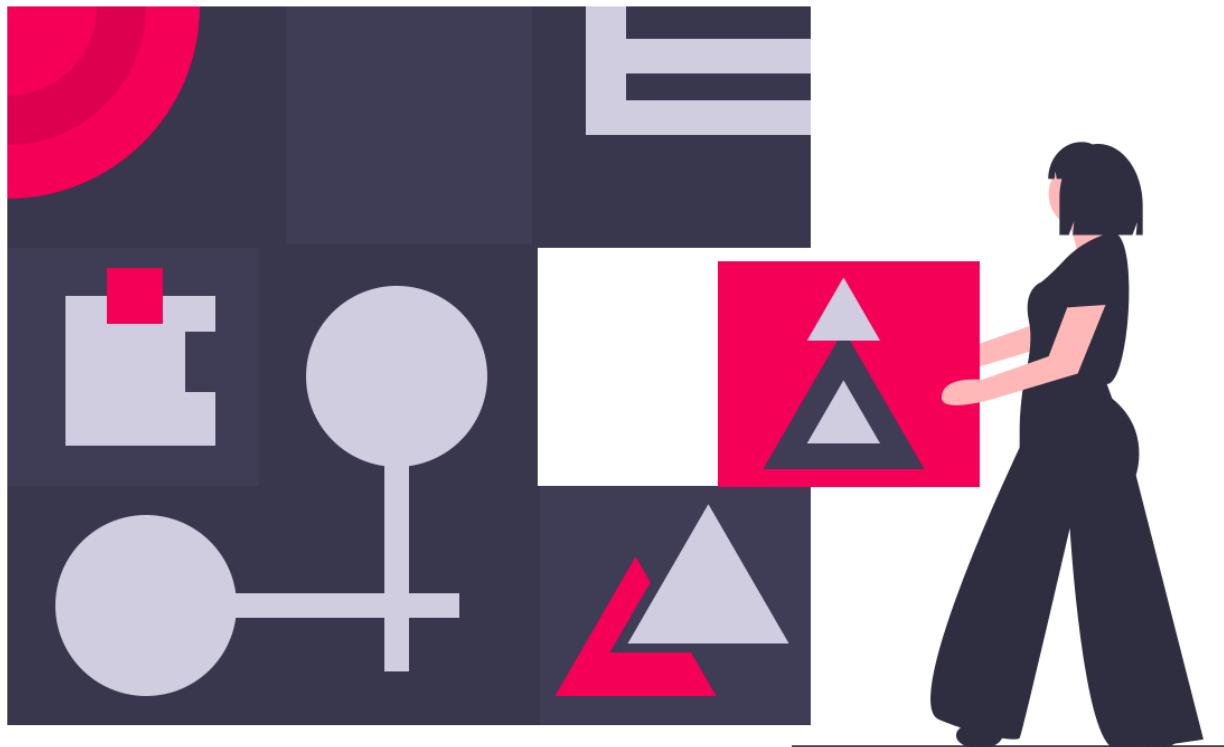
Shape being a parent can hold objects of any of its child classes

Being a reference of a Parent Class - Shape - it can only call area method

```
open class Shape{
    open fun area() :Double{
        return 0.0
    }
}
```



# KOTLIN ABSTRACT CLASS ABSTRACT METHODS



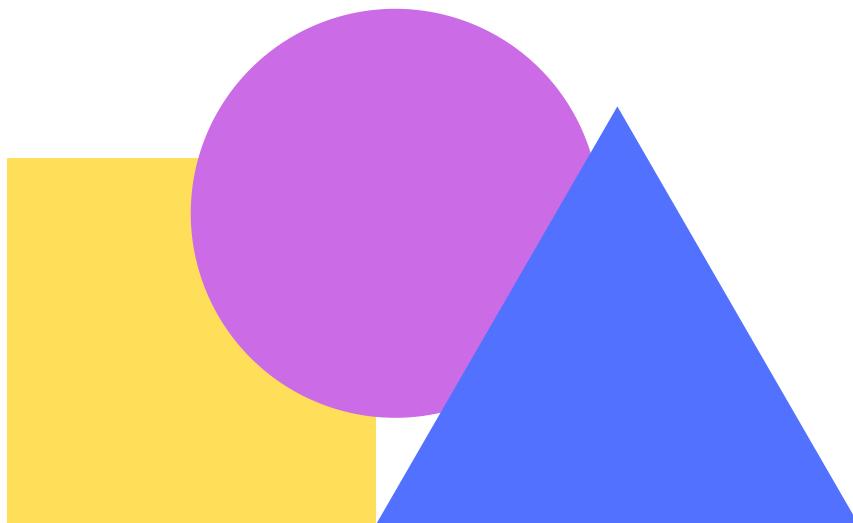
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# ABSTRACT CLASS

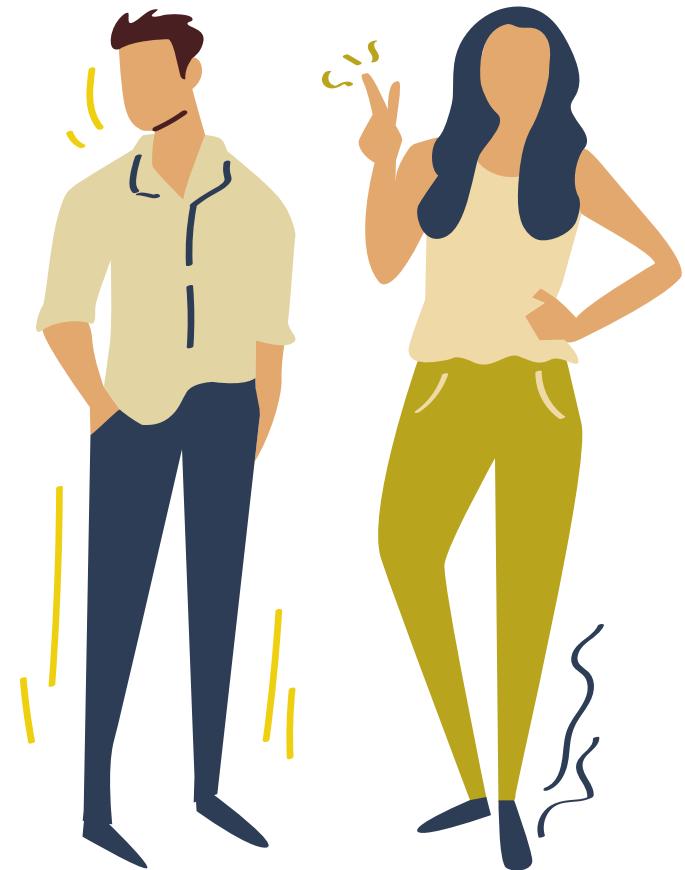
What comes to your mind when I say Shape?

What comes to your mind when I say Person?



## Shapes

We either think of a particular shape  
i.e. either Square or Circle.

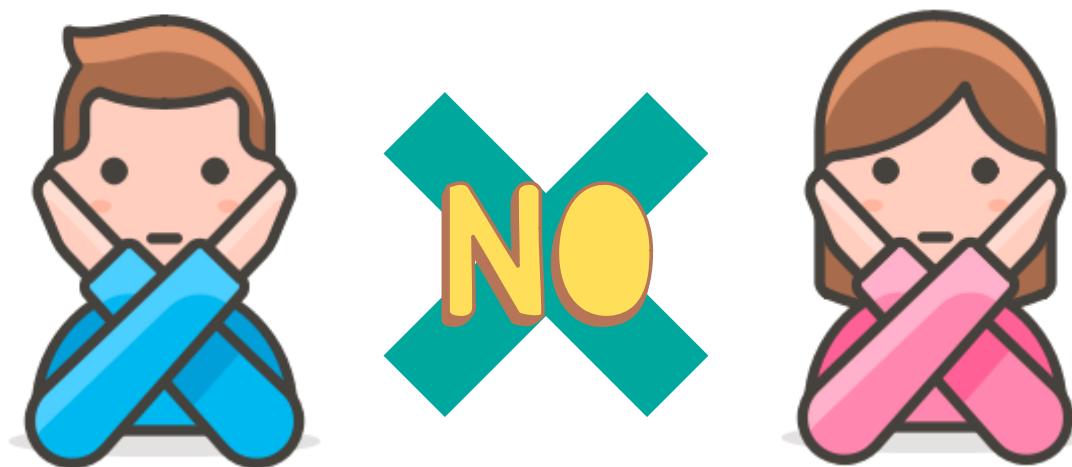


## Men or Women

Similarly, for a person - we think  
about a particular person.

# ABSTRACT CLASS

Shape or Person is just a concept, we always think about the actual objects. So is it a good idea to implement a Shape instance or Person Instance?



# ABSTRACT CLASS

Another way to think about this is - Let's say I want you to calculate the area of a shape. Until you don't know the actual shape, you can't calculate its area.



Abstract Class lets you prevent this in your code. They won't let you create instances of classes for which it does not make sense.



# ABSTRACT CLASS

But when you can't create an instance of a class,

What's the point of creating a class then?

Child classes should follow a protocol. When you say Circle is a Shape - there is a picture that comes to your mind. That Hey! It's a Shape - there must be a way to calculate its area.

There must be some way to display it as well.



This protocol is defined using Abstract Class. These classes are good candidates for being a parent class or base class.

# WHAT ARE ABSTRACT METHODS?

Protocol is fine but being a Parent Class, I don't know how to calculate my child shape classes' area. Even I don't know how to display them as well.

**Abstract Methods come to rescue**

When you don't want to define the body of the functions in the parent class (either you don't know the exact behavior or it does not make sense to have a body in parent class -

**You Mark That Method As Abstract Method.**



# ENOUGH THEORY



```
fun main()
{
    val circle = Circle(4.0)
    println(circle.area())
    circle.display()
}

abstract class Shape
{
    abstract fun area(): Double
    abstract fun display()
}

class Circle(val radius: Double) : Shape()
{
    override fun area(): Double = Math.PI * radius * radius
    override fun display()
    {
        println("Circle is getting displayed")
    }
}
```

This is how we define an abstract class with abstract methods.

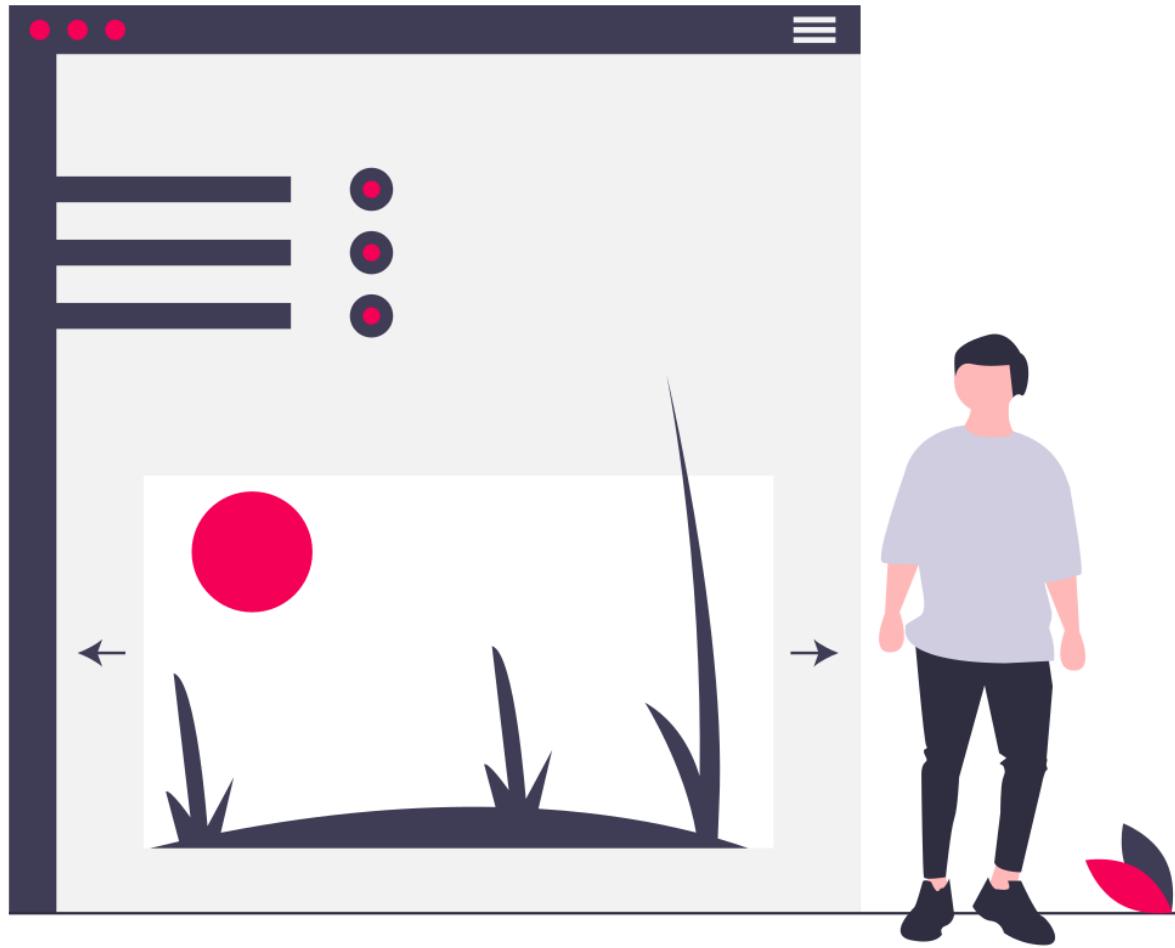


# SOME FACTS

1. Abstract Methods are those methods that do not have any implementation.
2. A class that has an abstract method must be marked abstract.
3. Abstract classes can be defined without any abstract method as well.
4. Abstract classes are meant to be inherited - they are by default open and the same applies to Abstract Method as well. They are meant to be overridden.



# KOTLIN INTERFACES



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# INTERFACE

Grouping of classes can be done in 2 ways

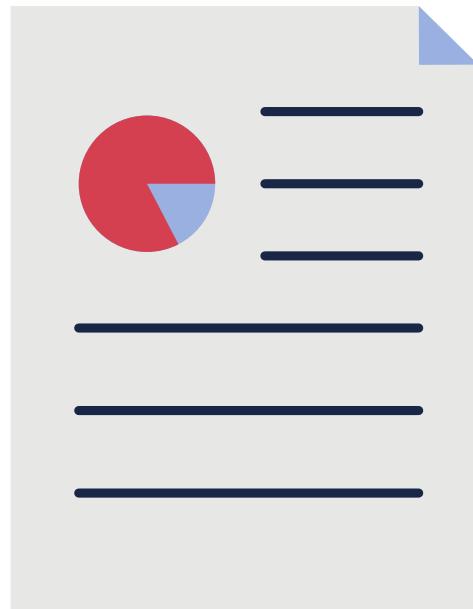
- Based on the Hierarchy i.e. What They Are
- Based on the Work i.e. What They Do



- Classes grouped based on the hierarchy is known as **Inheritance**.
- Classes can also be grouped based on the work they do - that is done with the help of **Interfaces**.

# INTERFACE

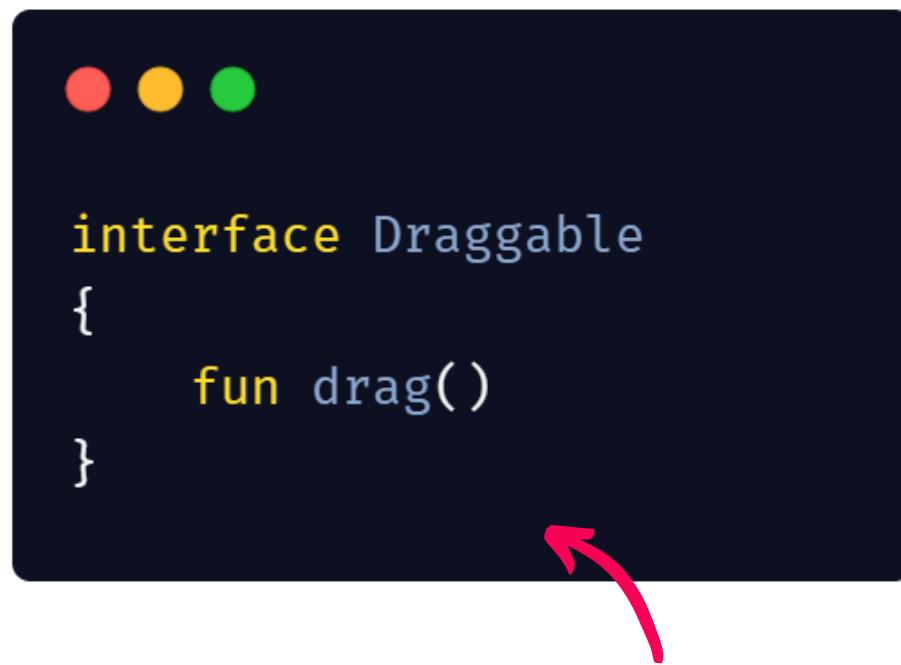
When you want your class to play a certain role or exhibit certain behavior irrespective of the class hierarchy - **Use Interface**



I am Interface. I just define a set of **abstract methods**. I make sure that if somebody implements me, it should provide the behavior that I commit.

# INTERFACE

Interface just declares what should be implemented but how it should be implemented is left to its child classes



Whoever implements this interface, provides the body for this drag method because different objects are dragged differently. So it is up to the child class how they want to implement this behavior

# POLYMORPHISM ❤ INTERFACES

Polymorphism can be achieved using Abstract classes as well but the Abstract class belongs to a particular inheritance tree. In the case of Interfaces, anyone can implement that interface and helps achieve polymorphism.

```
fun dragObjects(objects: Array<Draggable>)
{
    for(obj in objects)
    {
        obj.drag()
    }
}
```

Any object which implements Draggable can be passed in this array.



```
fun main() {  
    dragObjects(arrayOf(Circle(4.0), Player("Smiley")))  
}
```

```
fun dragObjects(objects: Array<Draggable>){  
    for(obj in objects){  
        obj.drag()  
    }  
}
```

```
interface Draggable{  
    fun drag()  
}
```

Polymorphic behavior is  
achieved using Interface.  
No need to change this  
code for future classes as  
well.

This is how you  
implement Interface

```
abstract class Shape : Draggable{  
    abstract fun area(): Double  
}
```

```
class Circle(val radius: Double) : Shape(){  
    override fun area(): Double = Math.PI * radius * radius  
    override fun drag() = println("Circle is dragging")  
}
```

```
class Player(val name: String) : Draggable{  
    override fun drag() = println("$name is dragging")  
}
```

Person is from  
different hierarchy



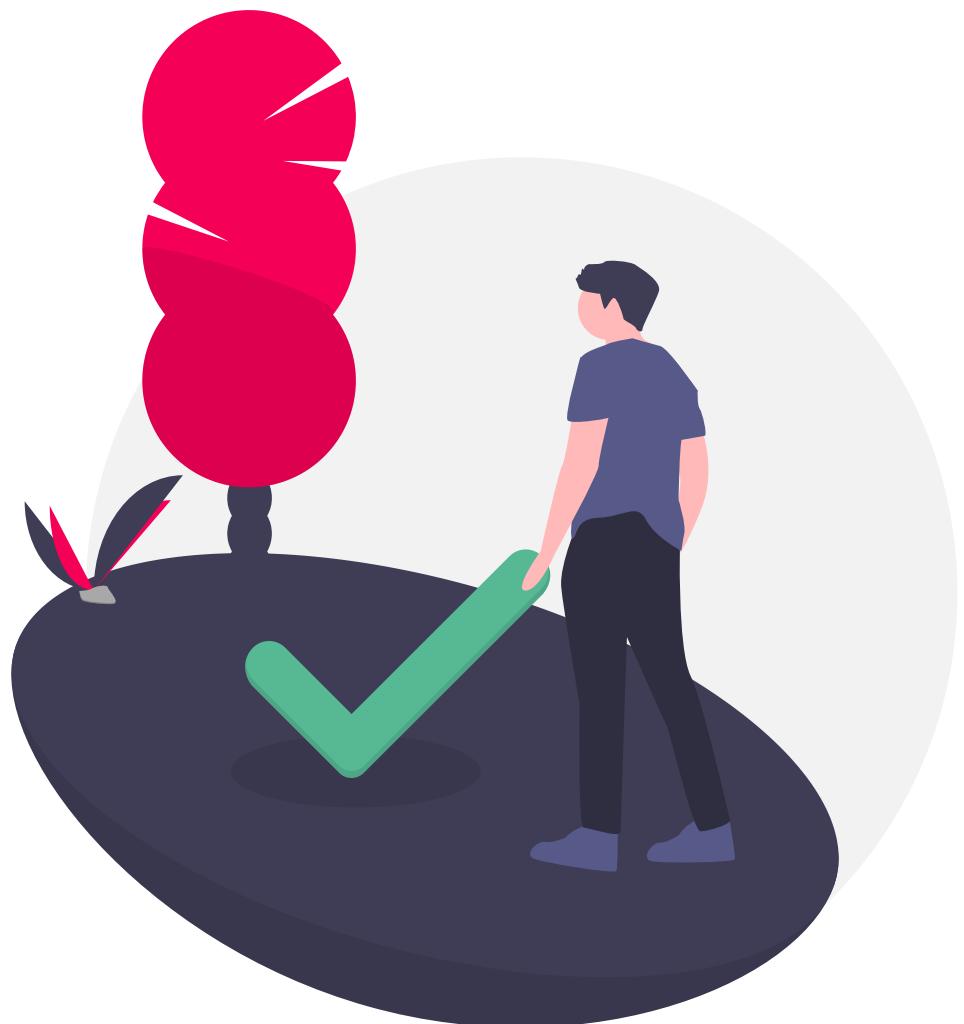
# SOME FACTS

1. Interfaces cannot contain state i.e. you cannot define any property.
2. Interfaces are considered 100% abstract but in Kotlin you can define a function with a body that does not depend on the state.
3. A class can implement multiple interfaces but can only inherit from one parent class.





# KOTLIN TYPE CHECKING & SMART CASTING



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# TYPE CHECKING

There are scenarios in which we need to check the type of the objects. For this, we need type checking.



```
val shapesArr: Array<Shape> = arrayOf(Circle(5), Square(4))
```

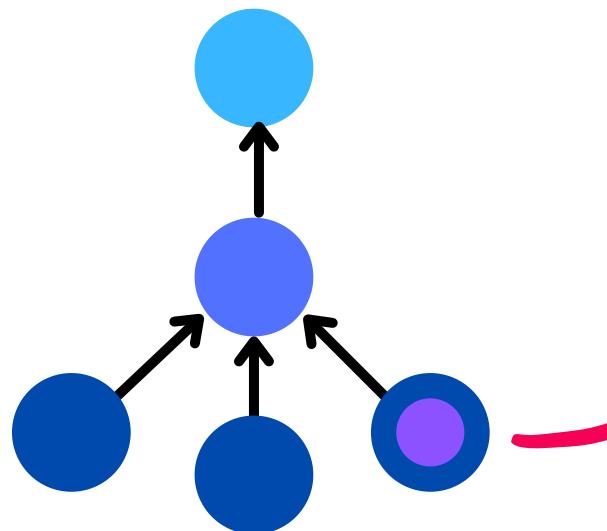
```
for(obj in shapesArr)
{
    if(obj is Circle)
    {
        println(obj.area())
    }
}
```

We are checking if the  
type of the object is Circle.  
is operator

# TYPE CHECKING

To take full advantage of Polymorphism - we generally use Parent Class's Reference and objects could be of any subtype.

**Program to an interface, not an implementation**



What is the type?

We might check if the object is of a particular type, then only we will call its method.

# SMART CASTING

Kotlin is very smart - we don't have to do explicitly casting. **is operator** does casting for us automatically.

```
● ● ●  
if(obj is Circle)  
{  
    println(obj.area())  
}  
  
//Another Example  
  
if (x !is String) return  
println(x.length)
```

In this if block - obj acts like it is a Circle object. **We don't need to do explicit casting in this case.** All the properties of the Circle object are accessible - This is smart casting.

Here compiler knows that it is a string object because if it is not a string - return would have been executed

# MAKE SURE YOU KNOW WHAT YOU ARE DOING

```
● ● ●  
  
if(obj is Circle)  
{  
    println(obj.area())  
}  
else  
{  
    (obj as Player).sayName()  
}
```



This is **explicit casting**. Using **as operator**.

Since we are not checking the type before and

if obj is not the object of Player class

- You will get a **ClassCastException**.



# KOTLIN VISIBILITY MODIFIERS & ENCAPSULATION



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# VISIBILITY MODIFIERS

Let's understand this by example

```
fun main()
{
    val p1 = Person("John", 22)
    p1.age = -10
}

class Person(val name: String, var age: Int)
```



Here you can assign a negative value to the age property. There is no way to prevent this because the age field is publicly accessible i.e. anyone can access this property and change its value.

# VISIBILITY MODIFIERS

There are certain things that need to be public and certain things that need to be private.

## Visibility Modifiers To Rescue

You can define the visibility of the fields and methods so that they are only accessible where you want them to be accessible. Kotlin has 4 types of visibility modifiers -

Public, Internal, Private, Protected



# TOP LEVEL DECLARATIONS

These are top-level declarations defined directly inside a package.

**Default visibility is Public** (if you don't use any modifier)

```
● ● ●

fun main() { }

class A

var b = 20

fun gn() { }

interface Drag { }
```



# VISIBILITY MODIFIERS

You define the visibility of the variables, methods, classes, interfaces, objects, etc by using these 4 modifiers.

```
class A {  
    private val a = 1  
    protected open val b = 2  
    internal val c = 3  
    public val d = 4  
  
}  
  
private var b = 20  
  
internal fun gn() { }  
  
interface Drag { }
```



Protected can't be used with  
top-level declarations.

# VISIBILITY MODIFIERS

<b>Modifiers</b>	<b>Top Level Declarations</b>	<b>Class Members</b>
public	Everywhere	Everywhere
internal	With in a module	With in a module
private	With in file	With in class
protected	N/A	Subclasses



# ENCAPSULATION

- Bundling data and methods that work on that data within one unit is Encapsulation. You mark some fields or methods as private because you don't want others to look into the private matter of the class.
- The benefit of doing this, we can change the implementation or internal representation without breaking the public interface of the class.



THIS IS ALSO CALLED  
INFORMATION HIDING



# KOTLIN OBJECT KEYWORD & SINGLETONS



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# OBJECT DECLARATION

- In Kotlin, you can create objects directly without a class i.e. you don't need to define a class to create objects.
- Object keyword is used to create objects directly. A single instance of that custom type is created for you.



```
object Logger {  
    val loggerURL = "https://api.logger.com"  
    fun log(type: String, message: String)  
    {  
    }  
}
```

A screenshot of a code editor window showing a single-line object declaration. The code defines an object named 'Logger' with a single property 'loggerURL' set to the value 'https://api.logger.com'. It also contains a single function 'log' that takes two parameters: 'type' and 'message'. A pink arrow points from the top right towards the word 'Logger' in the code.

Single Logger Object is created. It acts like a normal object but here only a single instance of this type is created in the application.



# SINGLETONS

- You cannot define a constructor but you can define an init block inside this object.
- You can inherit this object from a class or interface.
- Since a single instance will be created - you can implement [Singleton Pattern](#) using Object Keyword.

“ Singleton pattern restricts the instantiation of a class to one "single" instance

# OBJECT EXPRESSION

- You can create an anonymous object using an object keyword and assign it to a variable.
- Object expressions are useful when you want to do a slight change in the class which is already defined. You just inherit the class and change the method using Object Keyword.

```
● ● ●  
  
open class Test {  
    open fun method1() = println("I am original")  
}  
  
fun main() {  
    val mod = object : Test() {  
        override fun method1() = println("I am modified")  
    }  
    mod.method1()  
}
```

Anonymous Object  
inheriting Test class



# OBJECT EXPRESSION

You can implement the interface right away, no need to create a class and then implement the interface.

```
● ● ●

interface Cloneable
{
    fun clone()
}

fun main()
{
    var obj = object:Cloneable {
        override fun clone() {
            println("I am cloned")
        }
    }
}
```



# ENCAPSULATION

- Bundling data and methods that work on that data within one unit is Encapsulation. You mark some fields or methods as private because you don't want others to look into the private matter of the class.
- The benefit of doing this, we can change the implementation or internal representation without breaking the public interface of the class.



THIS IS ALSO CALLED  
INFORMATION HIDING



# KOTLIN COMPANION OBJECT & JVM STATIC



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# SINGLETON INSIDE CLASS

- You can create objects using object keyword inside a class as well.  
This object will be a singleton.
- You can create multiple instances of this class but this singleton will be associated with your class i.e. only one object will be created.

Here MyObject is associated with the class not with a particular instance of a class

```
fun main()
{
    MyClass.MyObject.f()
}

class MyClass
{
    object MyObject
    {
        fun f() = println("I am F from MyObj")
    }
}
```

# SINGLETONS INSIDE CLASS

You can create multiple objects inside a class. When you want to associate some functionality with the class - you can use these objects.

```
● ● ●

fun main()
{
    MyClass.MyObject.f()
    MyClass.AnotherObject.g()
}

class MyClass
{
    object MyObject {
        fun f() = println("I am F from MyObj")
    }

    object AnotherObject {
        fun g() = println("I am G from Another")
    }
}
```



# COMPANION OBJECT

Companion means - a friend with whom you share everything. S/he is a friend - you use each other stuff without asking for permissions.

**We can mark any one of these objects as a companion & can use its functionality without the object reference**

~~MyClass.MyObject.f()~~



MyObject is marked as Companion - no need to use its reference - MyClass and MyObject are friends

MyClass.f()

# COMPANION OBJECT

```
● ● ●

fun main()
{
    MyClass.MyObject.f()

    MyClass.f() // companion object call
}

class MyClass
{
    companion object MyObject {
        fun f() = println("I am F from MyObj")
    }

    object AnotherObject {
        fun g() = println("I am G from Another")
    }
}
```



# JVM STATIC

- If you know Java, we can call only static methods with the class name. In Kotlin, companion object methods give the same feel but behind the scenes implementation is different.
- If you want static methods like Java - i.e. if you want to consume this code in Java & treat these companion object methods as static - you need to annotate them as `@JvmStatic`

```
fun main()
{
    MyClass.f() // this is static in Java
}

class MyClass
{
    companion object MyObject {
        @JvmStatic
        fun f() = println("I am F from MyObj")
    }
}
```



# FACTORY PATTERN USING COMPANION



```
//Example of Factory Pattern Using Companion
class Pizza private constructor(val type: String, val toppings: String)
{
    companion object Factory
    {
        fun create(pizzaType: String): Pizza
        {
            return when (pizzaType) {
                "Tomato" → // Pizza( ... )
                "Peppy Paneer" → // Pizza( ... )
                else → // Pizza( ... )
            }
        }
    }
}
```





# KOTLIN DATA CLASSES



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# DATA CLASS

In any application, we create classes that are used to store data. Classes for UI Layer, DB Layer, and so on - sole purpose is to store data.

In other programming languages - we create these classes manually - by defining getters/setters, different methods for comparing the objects, and so on.

TOO MUCH BOILERPLATE CODE



# DATA CLASS

Kotlin loves Developers.

No need to write boilerplate code.

“

Kotlin Has Data Classes

```
data class Person(val id: Int, val name: String)
```



Primary constructor must have at least one parameter and must be marked as either val or var.



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# DATA CLASS

When you define a data class - compiler automatically generates the following methods for you behind the scenes

- equals() - to check equality of objects
- hashCode() - hash code value for the object
- toString() - String representation of object



Two objects having the same data must be equal for data classes. If two objects are equal, they must return same hashCode

# DATA CLASS PROVIDES MORE

Along with overriding methods for you, Data Class provides copy method and ComponentN functions as well.

```
data class Person(val id: Int, val name: String)

fun main()
{
    val p1 = Person(1, "John")
    val p2 = Person(1, "John")

    println(p1 == p2)
    println(p1) // calls p1.toString()
    println(p1.hashCode())
    println(p2.hashCode())

    val p3 = p1.copy()
    println(p3)

    println(p1.component1()) // component 1 is id
    println(p1.component2()) // component 2 is name
}
```

Output

```
true
Person(id=1, name=John)
2314570
2314570
Person(id=1, name=John)
1
John
```





# KOTLIN ENUM CLASSES & SEALED CLASSES



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# ENUM CLASS

When you want to explicitly define the set of values a variable can take - we define Enums

```
fun main() {  
    val day: DAY = DAY.MONDAY  
    val day2: DAY = "Hello" //*** ERROR //***  
}  
  
enum class DAY  
{  
    SUNDAY,  
    MONDAY,  
    TUESDAY,  
    WEDNESDAY,  
    THURSDAY,  
    FRIDAY,  
    SATURDAY  
}
```

DAY variable can take values from this particular set only. You cannot assign any random values.



# ENUM CLASS

Every value inside an Enum class is an object.

You can even initialize the value of these objects.



```
enum class DAY
{
    SUNDAY, ...
    MONDAY,
    TUESDAY,
    WEDNESDAY,
    THURSDAY,
    FRIDAY,
    SATURDAY
}
```



```
enum class DAY(val num: Int)
{
    SUNDAY(0),
    MONDAY(1),           Constructor
    TUESDAY(2),
    WEDNESDAY(3),
    THURSDAY(4),
    FRIDAY(5),
    SATURDAY(6)
}
```

7 objects of  
Day class.

Objects can be initialized  
with a value as well



# SEALED CLASS

Enum class restricts the values,

Sealed class restricts the type of classes.



- To implement this game, we can see that there are 4 types of Tiles - Red, Blue, White, and Yellow.
- Red Tiles might have a different state as well. (Red Mushroom or Fire).

Enum class can't be used here because objects defined in Enum are restricted to only a single instance and those instances have a fixed state.

# SEALED CLASS

In simple words, we are restricting the value to be one of the types from a limited set, but cannot have any other type



```
sealed class Tile
```

```
class Red(val type: String, val points: Int) : Tile()
class Blue(val points: Int): Tile()
class Yellow(val type: String, val points: Int): Tile()
class White(val points: Int): Tile()
```



You can create 'n' number of objects of any subclass and can have different states of the objects as well. Not like Enum where you define constant objects.

Type is restricted to these subclasses

# SEALED CLASS & WHEN

Since the types are restricted  
we don't need else block inside when



```
fun main() {  
    val tile: Tile = Red("Mushroom", 25)  
    val points = when(tile)  
    {  
        is Red → tile.points * 2  
        is Blue → tile.points * 5  
    }  
    println(points)  
}
```

No need to write **else** block here, tile can be either Red or Blue

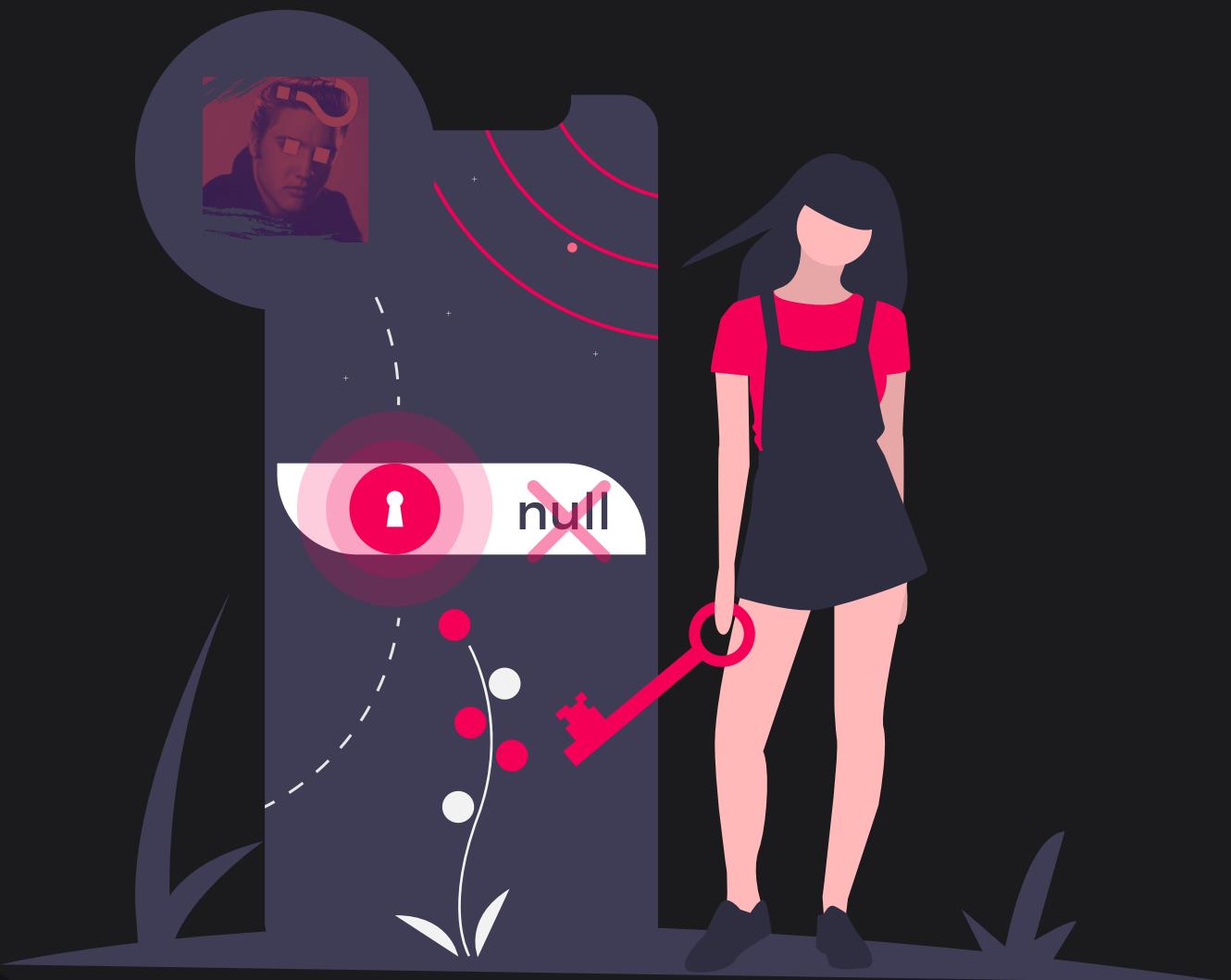
```
sealed class Tile  
class Red(val type: String, val points: Int) : Tile()  
class Blue(val points: Int): Tile()
```





# KOTLIN NULLABLE TYPES

## SAFE CALL & ELVIS



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# NULLABLE TYPES

There are scenarios where you don't  
set the initial value for a variable.

Suppose in a registration application,  
gender is not marked as a required field.  
User submits the application - What should  
be the value of Gender in this case?



You need something that will indicate  
the absence of value

# NULLABLE TYPES

To indicate the absence of value - **NULL** is used

Kotlin being a **Safe Language** does not allow you to store Null Values inside your normal data types. You need to explicitly define that - Hey Kotlin! I am aware that this variable can have null values - allow me to store nulls as well

```
● ● ●  
var gender : String = "Male"  
  
var gender2 : String = null // --- ERROR ---  
  
var gender3 : String? = null
```



Having **Question Mark (?)** at the end indicates that it could accept null values i.e. **Nullable Type**

# NULL SAFETY

If you mark the data type as Nullable, Kotlin gives you an error if you call any method of that type



```
var gender : String? = null  
  
gender.toUpperCase() // --- ERROR ---
```



Since Gender could be null, to prevent this - Kotlin gives you the error.

Hey! You need to check for null value otherwise your program will crash

# NULL SAFETY

## Ways to Handle Nulls



```
var gender2: String? = null
```

```
//1st Way  
if (gender != null) {  
    println(gender.toUpperCase())  
}
```



? is a safe call operator

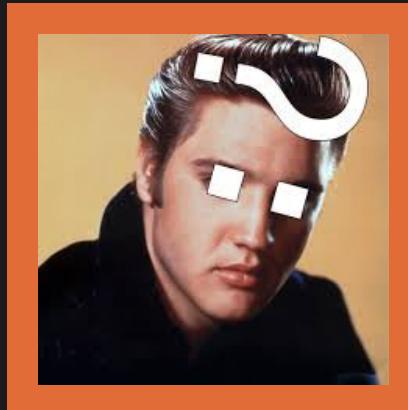
```
//2nd Way  
println(gender?.toUpperCase())
```

```
//3rd Way  
gender?.let {  
    println("Line 1")  
    println("Line 2 $gender")  
    println("Line 3 $it")  
}
```



You can use **safe call with let** to execute multiple statements & you can access gender as **it** inside this let block.

# ELVIS OPERATOR



```
var gender: String? = null  
  
val selectedValue = gender ?: "Not Defined"
```



If the value of gender is null then Not Defined is assigned otherwise the value of gender is assigned to the variable.

# NON NULL ASSERTED OPERATOR

When you are sure that the variable is not going to be null - you assert that it is not null by using !! operator



```
fun main() {  
    var gender : String? = "male"  
    println(gender !! .toUpperCase())  
    gender = null  
    println(gender !! .toUpperCase())  
}
```



Output

```
MALE  
Exception in thread "main" kotlin.NullPointerException
```

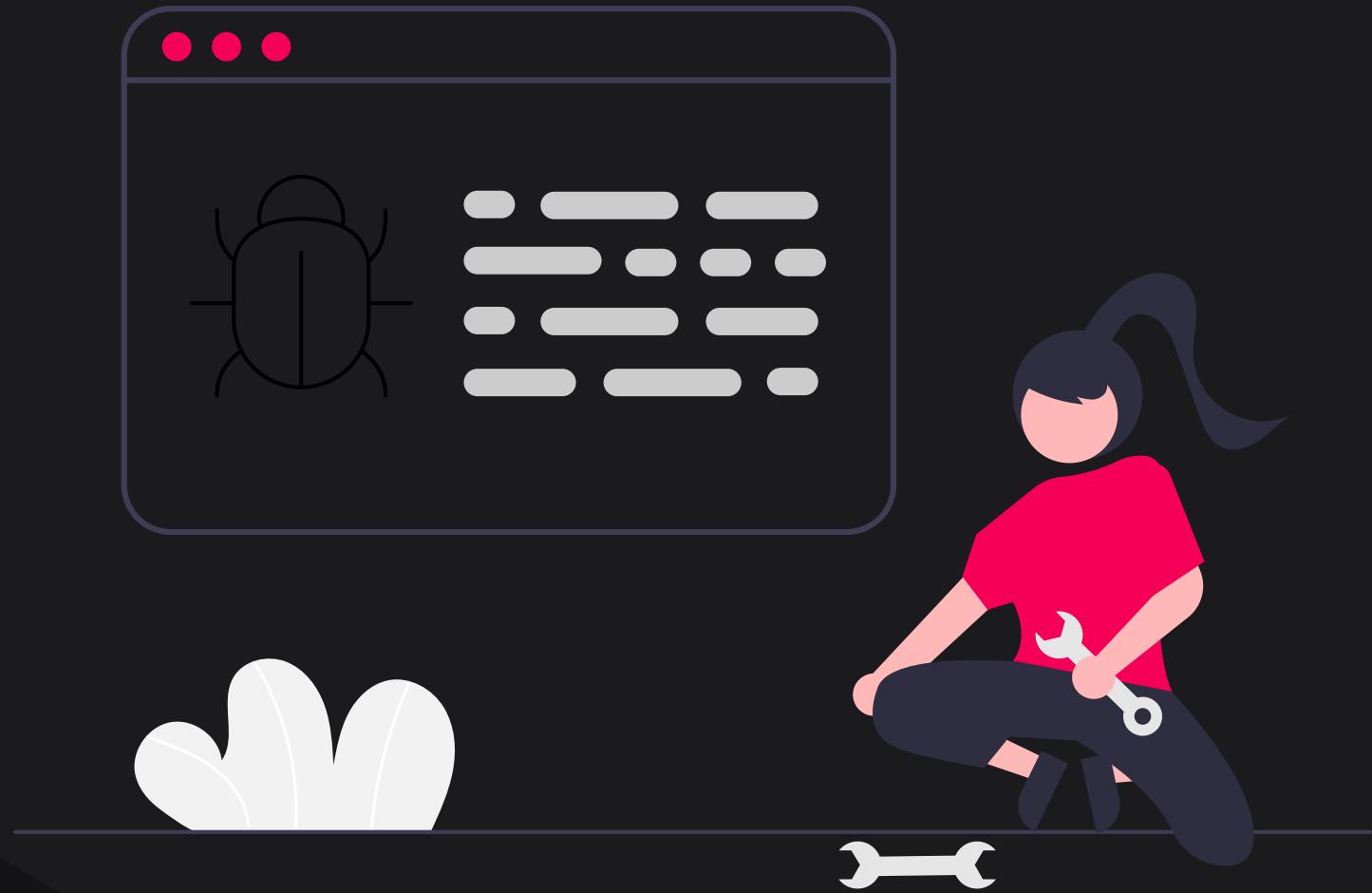
Non-null operator converts any value to a non-null type and throws an exception if the value is null.



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# KOTLIN EXCEPTION HANDLING



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# EXCEPTION HANDLING

During the execution of the program, when something erroneous happens - we say that an Exception has occurred.

- Expecting a number input but the user entered a string
- While printing a document, the printer runs out of paper
- Download interrupted, not enough space in memory
- Tried accessing the item that does not exist & so on ...



Common scenarios that causes exceptions

# TRY-CATCH

Try Catch is a way to gracefully handle exceptions that can occur in a program.

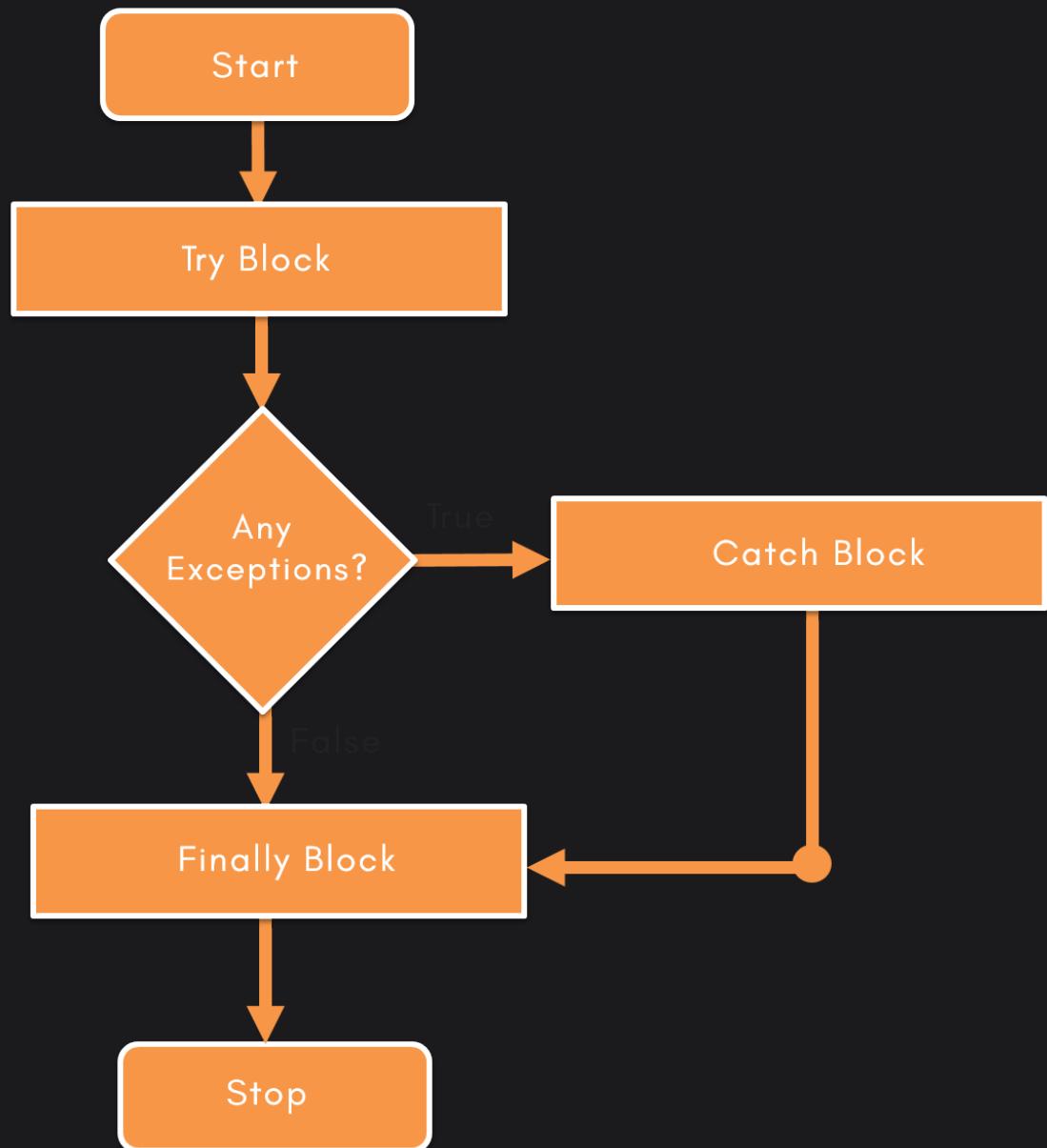
Try running this block of code - if any exception comes up in executing this code, catch is there to help you.

I am here to help you. Trust me I got the ability to handle any exception.



# FINALLY

This block of code is executed - whether you have any exceptions in your code or not.



# TRY CATCH FINALLY



```
try
{
    //code
}
catch(e: Exception)
{
    //showing proper message to the user
}
finally
{
    //code to free any resource
}
```



# EXCEPTION HANDLING



```
fun main()
{
    val arr = arrayOf(1,2,3)

    try {
        println(arr[5]) ← Index is out of the
    }                                bounds of array
    catch(e: Exception) {
        println("Element does not exists")
    }
    finally {
        println("No matter what! I will be executed")
    }
}
```



Output

Element does not exists  
No matter what! I will be executed

# THROW KEYWORD

When you do not want to handle the error,  
you throw an Exception.



```
fun main() {  
    createUserList(5)  
    createUserList(-2)  
}  
  
fun createUserList(count: Int)  
{  
    if(count<0)  
    {  
        // Raise Exception  
        throw IllegalArgumentException("Count must be greater than 0")  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        println("User list created containing $count users")  
    }  
}
```

You don't want to handle this scenario, you throw an **IllegalArgumentException**



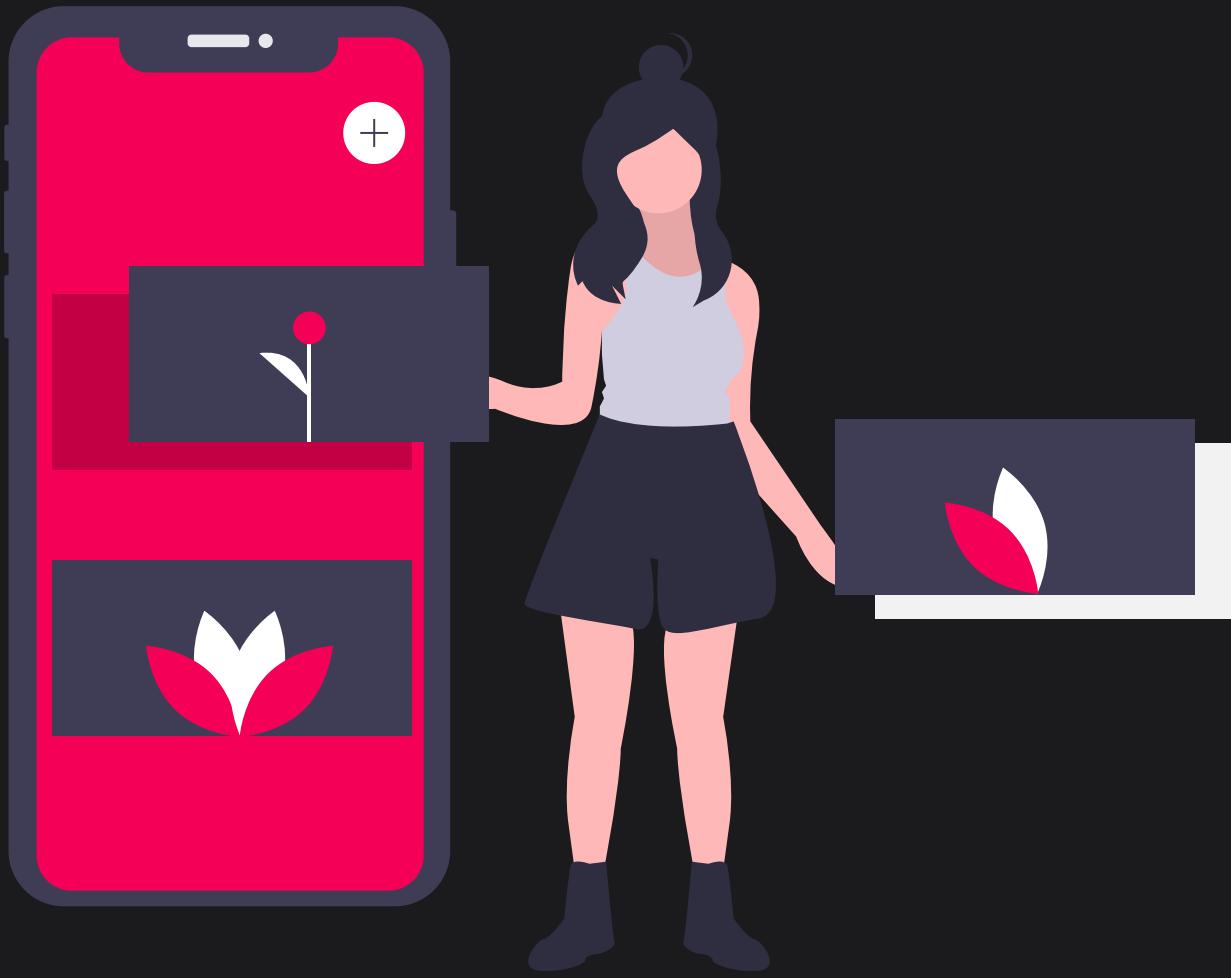
# COMMON FACTS

- You can have multiple catch blocks.
- Order of the catch blocks matter, the most specific one should come first, and then your general Exception class.
- You cannot have a try block without a catch or finally.  
Either define catch or finally or both.



# KOTLIN COLLECTIONS

## LIST AND MAP



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# ARRAYS REVISITED

Array is a collection of objects but there are few downsides with it -

- Fixed Size - You cannot change its size
- Mutable - You can change the values inside it.



We need collections that are **dynamic** in nature & based on the scenario - we want collections to be **mutable** and **immutable**.

# KOTLIN COLLECTIONS

To overcome these problems, Kotlin has Collections API that provides collections for different needs.

List - Collection of objects (Dynamic array)

Map - Collection of key-value pairs

Set - Collection with no duplicates



All these collections are **dynamic** and come in both flavors - **mutable** and **immutable**

# BUILT-IN METHODS

Just like the `arrayOf` method, we have different methods in Kotlin to create collections.

## LIST

`listOf`

`mutableListOf`

## MAP

`mapOf`

`mutableMapOf`

## SET

`setOf`

`mutableSetOf`



# LIST COLLECTION



```
fun main()
{
    val list = listOf(1,2,3)
    list[0] = 2 // → Error Immutable List ←

    val list2 = mutableListOf(1,2,3) // MutableList
    //Element can be added
    list2.add(4) // -- [1, 2, 3, 4]

    //Element can be added at particular index
    list2.add(0, 0) // -- [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]

    //Particular element to be removed
    list2.remove(2) // -- [0, 1, 3, 4]

    //Element at particular index to be removed
    list2.removeAt(0) // -- [1, 3, 4]
}
```



# MAP COLLECTION



```
fun main()
{
    val map = mapOf( 1 to "One", 2 to "Two", 3 to "Three")
    map[1] = "CheezyCode" // ---> Error - Immutable Map<---

    val map2 = mutableMapOf( 1 to "One", 2 to "Two", 3 to "Three")

    //Element can be added
    map2.put(4, "Four")
    map2[5] = "Five"
    println(map2)

    //Element can be removed
    map2.remove(5)
    println(map2)

    //Looping Elements
    for (entry in map2)
    {
        println(entry.key.toString() + " " + entry.value)
    }
}
```



Output

```
{1=One, 2=Two, 3=Three, 4=Four, 5=Five}
{1=One, 2=Two, 3=Three, 4=Four}
1 One
2 Two
3 Three
4 Four
```



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# KOTLIN HIGHER ORDER FUNCTIONS & LAMBDA



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# FIRST CLASS FUNCTIONS

Functions in Kotlin are treated as values just like Integers or Strings i.e. functions are treated as First-Class Citizens.

You can store functions in a variable

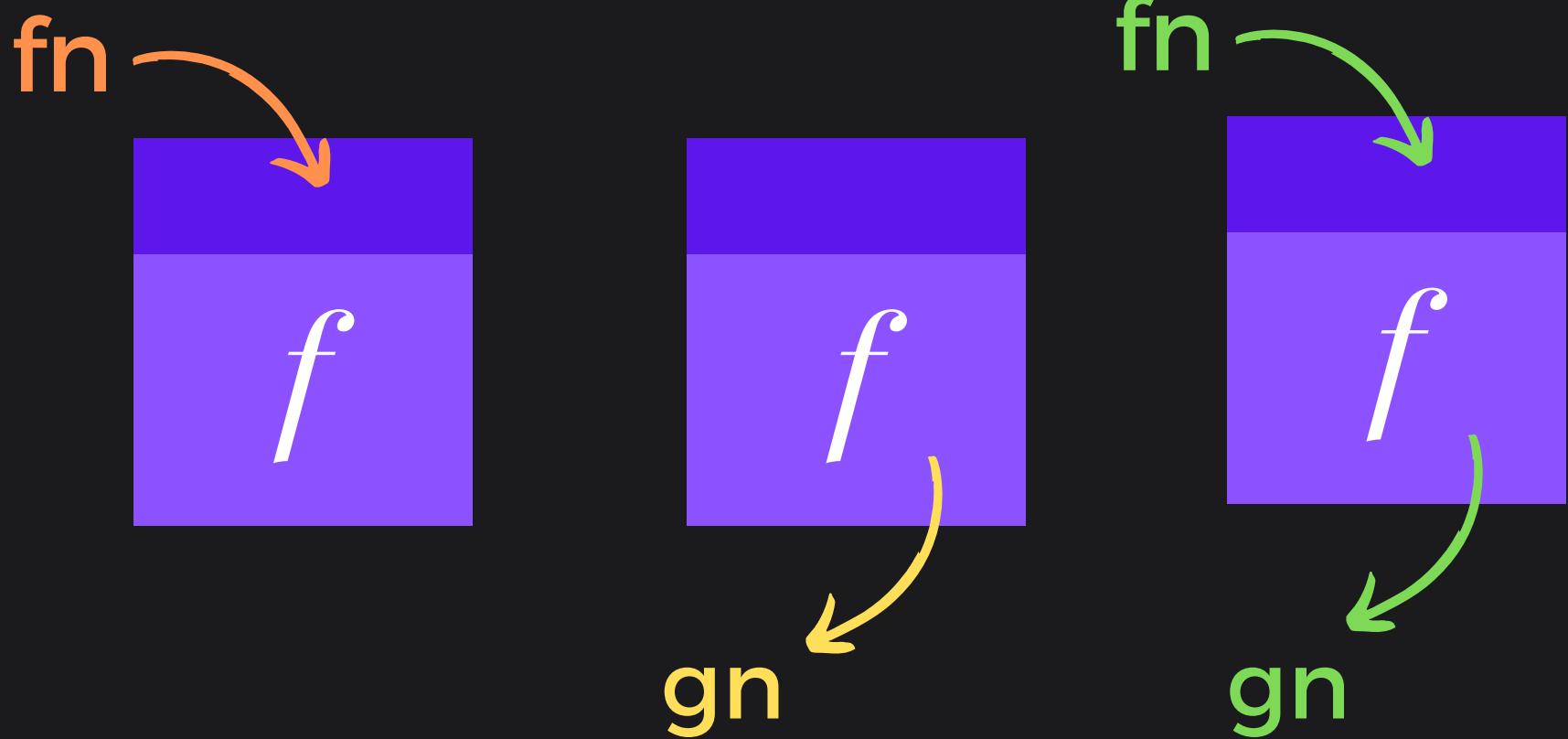
You can pass functions as arguments

You can return functions from functions



# HIGHER ORDER FUNCTIONS

Functions that accept functions as input or return a function as output or both are known as Higher-Order Functions



# EXAMPLE



```
fun main() {  
    calculator(2,4, ::sum)  
    calculator(2,4, ::mul)  
}
```

```
fun sum(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a + b  
fun mul(a: Int, b: Int): Int = a * b
```

Function Type  
must match

```
fun calculator(a: Int, b: Int, op: (Int, Int) → Int) {  
    val result = op(a, b)  
    println(result)  
}
```



Calculator is a Higher Order Function -  
it takes a function as an input (op)

# LAMBDA EXPRESSION

Lambdas are functions without any name  
i.e. Anonymous Function.



Function Literals that do not need  
any declaration - these are used as an  
expression that can be assigned to a  
variable or pass as arguments.

# LAMBDA EXPRESSION

```
fun add (a : Int, b : Int) : Int = a + b
```



Converted  
to Lambda

```
val add = { a: Int, b: Int -> a + b }
```

As you can see, before the arrow (`->`) you have your arguments i.e. `a & b` and after arrow you have your function body.

# LAMBDA EXPRESSION

```
{ Arguments -> Body }
```

```
{ a: Int, b: Int -> a + b }
```

Data type of the last expression is the return type of the Lambda. So in this case it will be an Integer

## Variations

```
val singleParamLambda = { x: Int -> x * x }
```

```
val noParamLambda = { println("Hello CheezyCode") }
```

# LAMBDAS VARIATIONS



```
fun main()
{
    //Single Parameter Lambda
    val singleParamLambda = { x: Int → x * x }

    // Above lambda can be simplified - Using it
    val simplified: (Int) → Int = { it * it }

    // When you have Lambda as last parameter, you can write it like this
    calculator(1, 2) { a, b → a + b }
}

fun calculator(a: Int, b: Int, op: (Int, Int) → Int) = op(a, b)
```

No need to name the argument here, you can use `it`

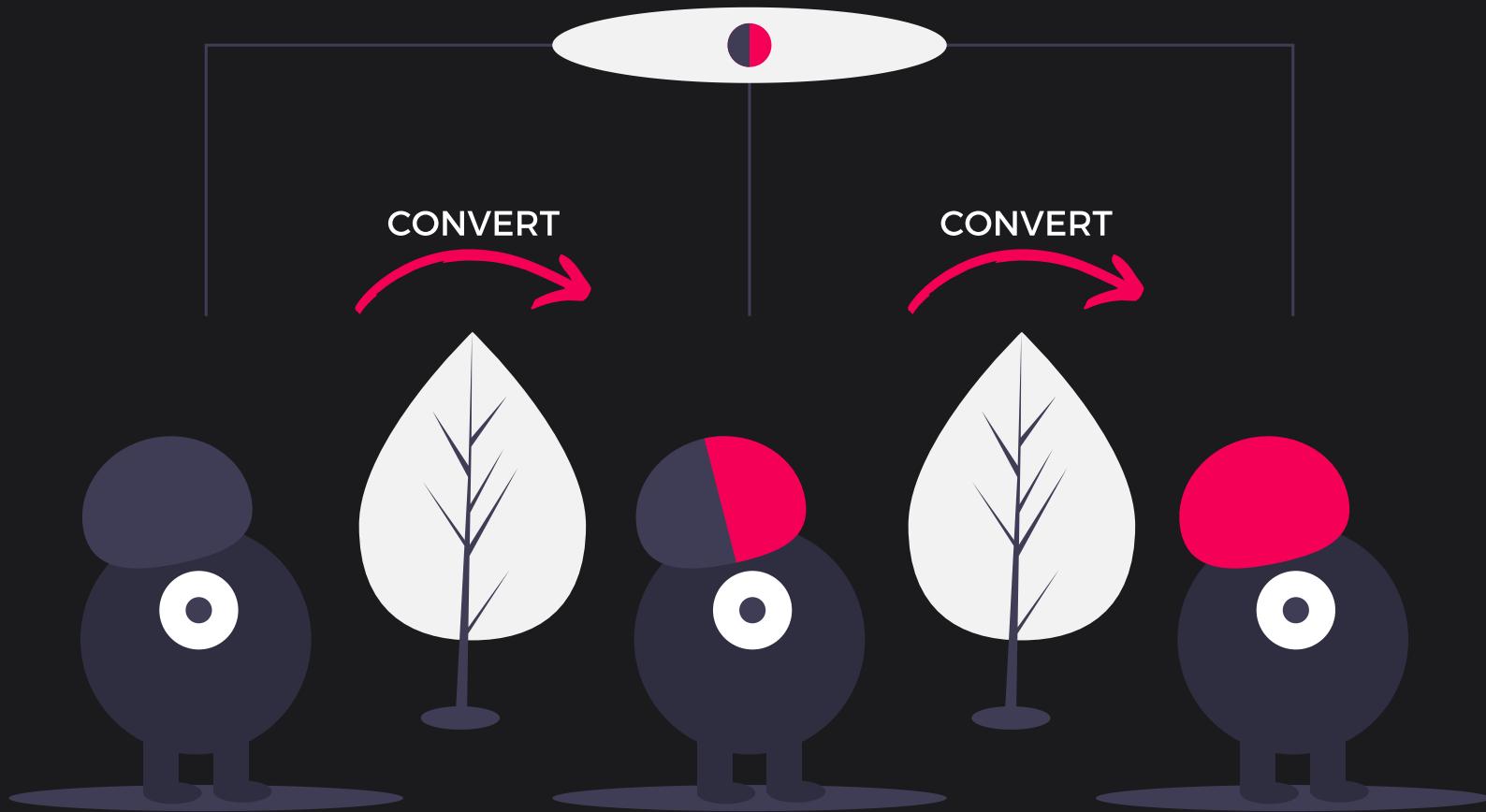


When you have Lambda as the last parameter of the function, you can write the lambda outside the brackets. This is a concept of DSL.





# KOTLIN COLLECTIONS - FILTER, MAP & FOREACH

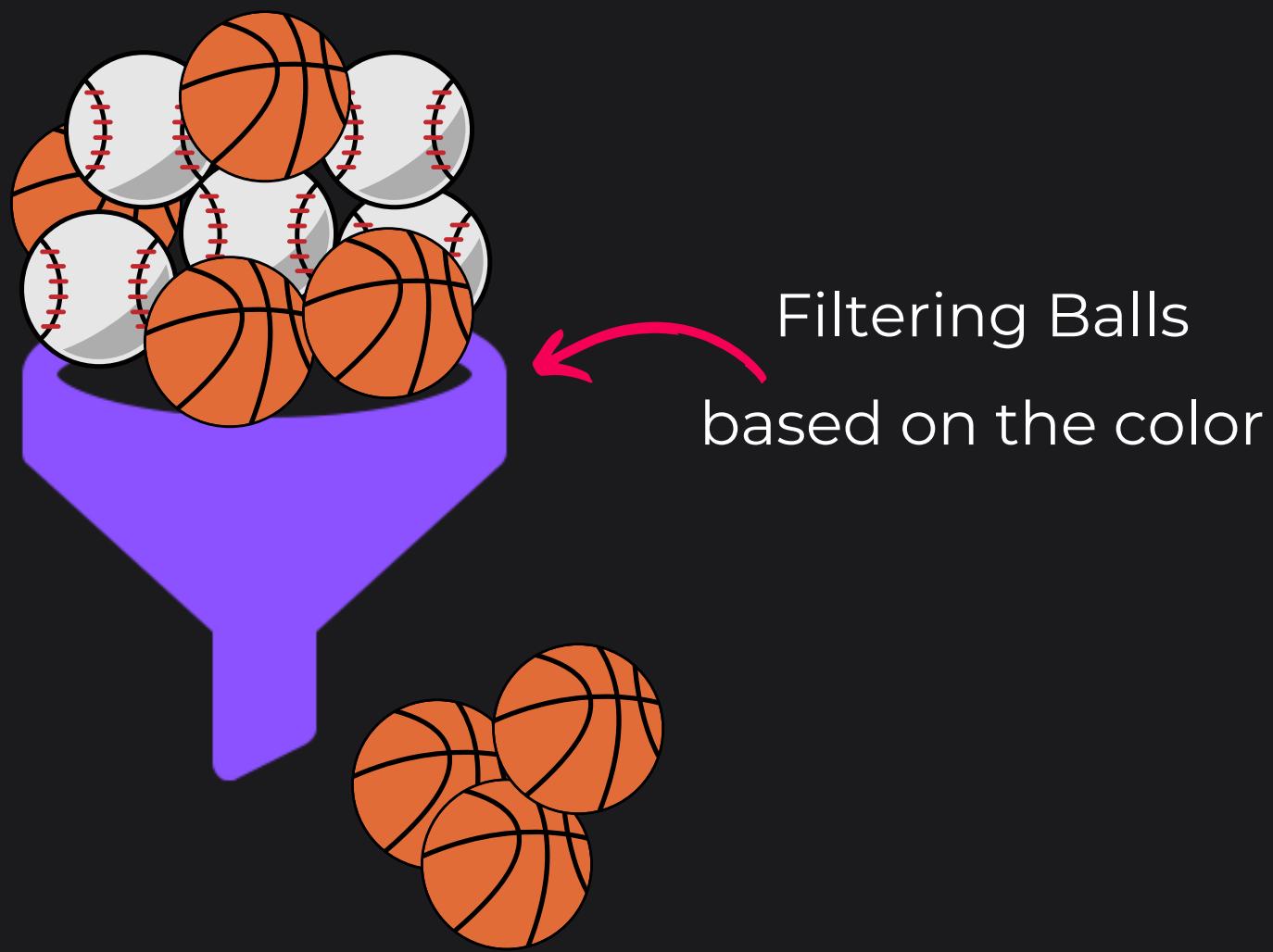


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# FILTER FUNCTION

Filtering a list based on some condition is a common task. You provide the criteria by which you want to filter a list.



# FILTER FUNCTION



```
fun main()
{
    val numList = listOf(1,2,3,4,5)

    // Function Reference Operator
    numList.filter( ::isEven )

    // Anonymous Function
    numList.filter( fun(a: Int) : Boolean { return a % 2 == 0 } )

    // Lambda Expression
    numList.filter( { a: Int → a % 2 == 0 } )

    // Lambda Expression Using It
    numList.filter( { it % 2 == 0 } )

    // Lambda Expression - DSL
    numList.filter { it % 2 == 0 }

}

fun isEven(a: Int) = a % 2 == 0
```

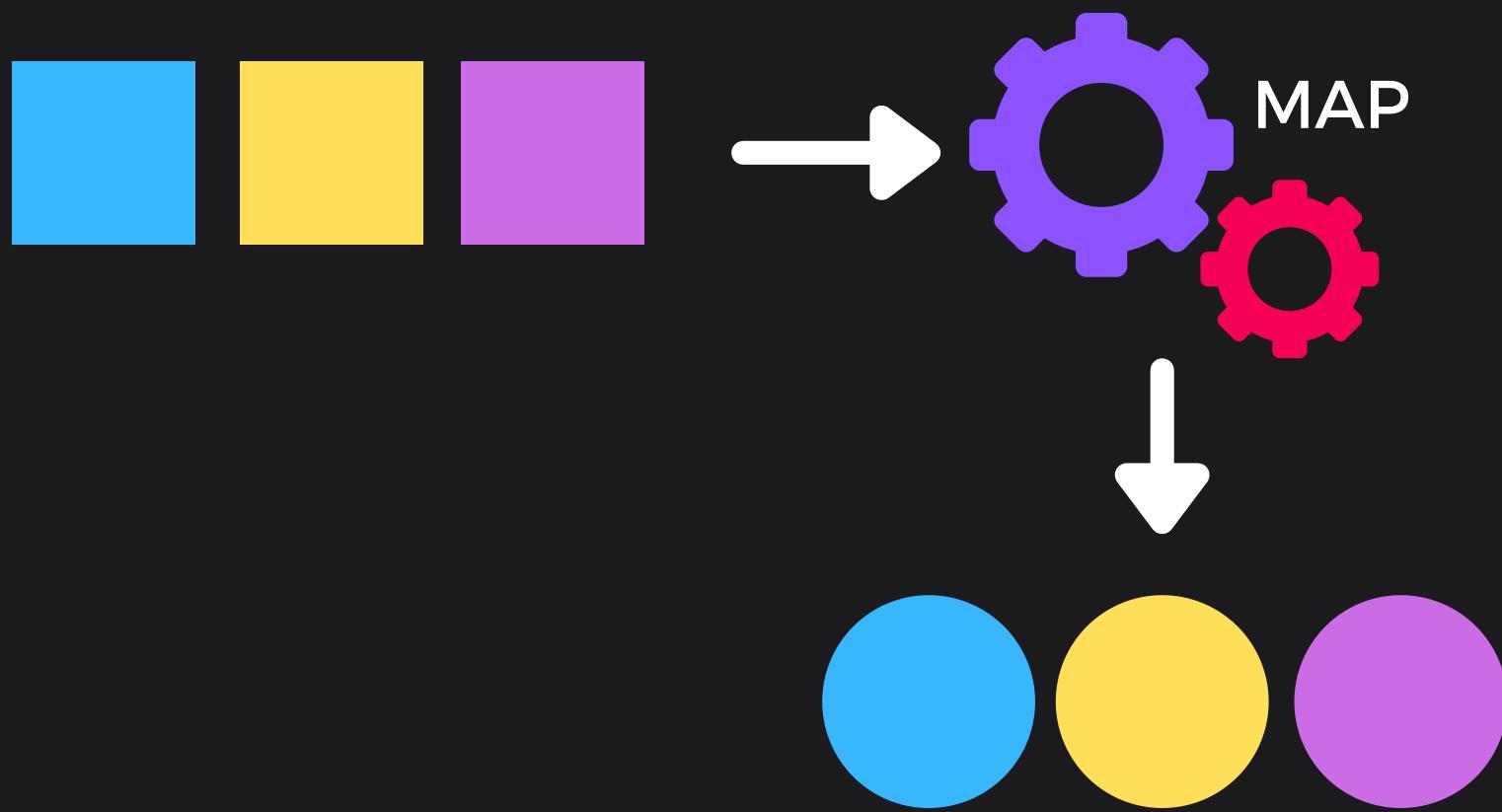


Function passed is evaluated for every item in the list. Item is excluded if function evaluates to false.



# MAP FUNCTION

Mapping of objects from one form to another form. You pass a transformation function that transforms every object in the list



# MAP FUNCTION



```
fun main()
{
    val numList = listOf(1,2,3,4,5)
    val squareList = numList.map { it * 2 }
    println(squareList)

    val personList = listOf ( Person("John", 22), Person("Jason", 17) )
    val modifiedList = personList.map {
        ModifiedPerson(it.name, it.age, it.age > 18)
    }
    println(modifiedList)
}

data class Person(val name: String, val age: Int)
data class ModifiedPerson(val name: String, val age: Int, val canVote: Boolean)
```



# FOR EACH

To loop through each item in the list



```
fun main()
{
    val numList = listOf(1,2,3,4,5)

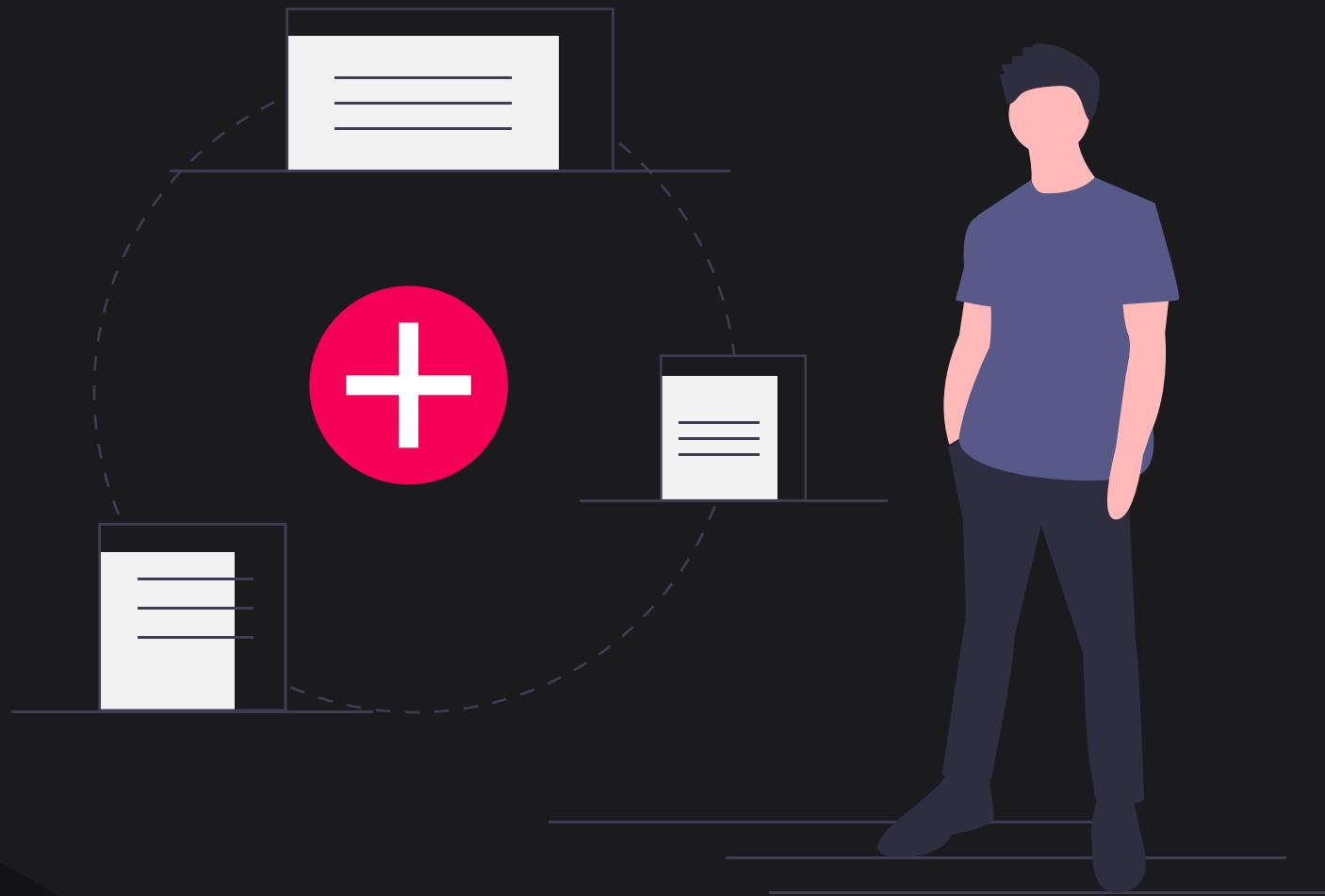
    numList.forEach{
        println("Number is $it")
        println("Square of the number is ${it * it}")
    }
}
```



No need to write separate  
for loop - you can use List's  
collection forEach function



# KOTLIN EXTENSION & INLINE FUNCTIONS

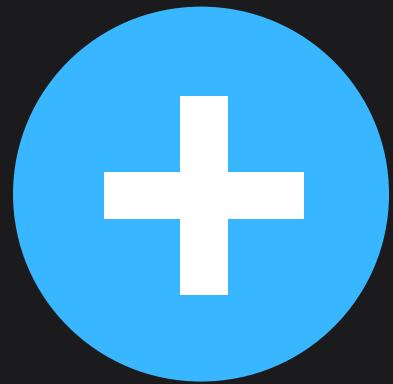


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# EXTENSION FUNCTION

If you want to add additional functionality to a class, you need to first derive that class and then you can add new functionality.



In Kotlin, you can add functionality to a class without defining a new class. You can just extend that class using Extension functions.

# EXTENSION FUNCTION



```
fun main() {  
    println("Hello CheezyCode".formattedString())  
}
```

We call this extension function just like other string methods.

```
fun String.formattedString(): String{  
    return "*****\n$this\n*****"  
}
```

Here we have added a new function to the String class where we just do custom formatting of the message.

# INLINE FUNCTION

- For each Lambda function - Kotlin generates a class for you behind the scenes.
- If you define multiple lambda functions, this will increase memory usage and impact performance.
- To solve this, you can instruct the compiler to just replace the calling of a lambda with the lines of code written inside the lambda.



```
fun main()
{
    lambda(1,2)
    lambda(2,4)
    lambda(3,6)
}

inline fun lambda(a: Int, b: Int) = println(a + b)
```



This is just for demonstration.  
Using inline with a function  
just replaces the call with the  
body of the inline function.



```
fun main()
{
    val a1: Int = 1
    val b1: Int = 2
    println(a + b)

    val a2: Int = 2
    val b2: Int = 4
    println(a + b)

    val a3: Int = 3
    val b3: Int = 6
    println(a + b)
}
```

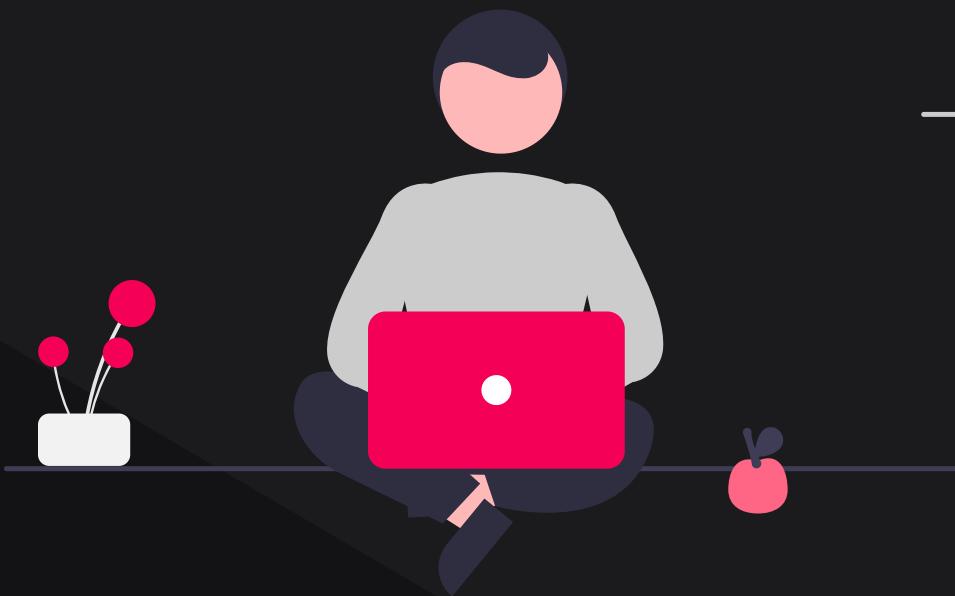
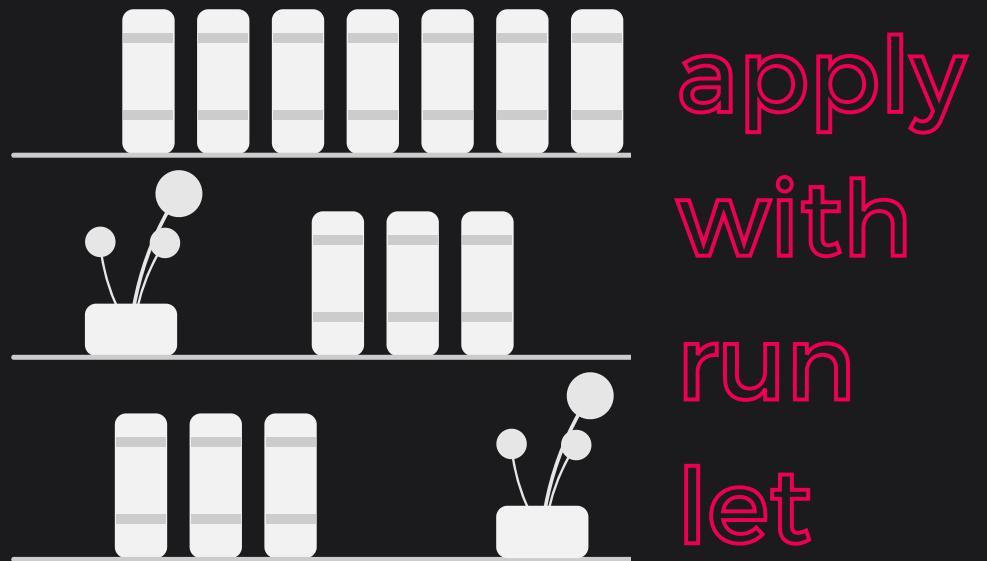


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# KOTLIN SCOPE FUNCTIONS

## APPLY, LET, WITH, RUN



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# UTILITY FUNCTIONS

Kotlin has different utility functions that are useful in writing concise code.

apply	let	with	run
this	it	this	this
			
returns this	returns lambda Result	returns lambda Result	returns lambda Result

# APPLY FUNCTION

When you have to set multiple properties, you can use apply function. No need to type `object.property` every time.

```
● ● ●  
fun main() {  
    val emp: Employee = Employee()  
    emp.age = 20  
    emp.name = "John"  
  
    //Apply Function  
    emp.apply {  
        age = 20 ← this Reference is available  
        name = "John"  
    }  
  
    data class Employee (  
        var name: String = "",  
        var age: Int = 18  
    )
```

# LET FUNCTION

Another way to set the properties of an object using the let function. Properties are accessed using it. Commonly used with Safe call operator ?.

```
fun main() {  
    val emp: Employee = Employee()  
    emp.age = 20  
    emp.name = "John"
```

```
//let Function  
emp.let {  
    it.age = 20  
    it.name = "John"  
}
```

```
data class Employee (  
    var name: String = "",  
    var age: Int = 18  
)
```

it is used inside this lambda to access the properties.

# WITH FUNCTION

Not an extension function, context is passed i.e. object is passed as an argument

```
● ● ●  
fun main() {  
    val emp: Employee = Employee()  
    emp.age = 20  
    emp.name = "John"  
  
    //with Function  
    with(emp){  
        age = 30  
        name = "XYZ"  
    }  
}  
  
data class Employee (  
    var name: String = "",  
    var age: Int = 18  
)
```



this Reference is available  
inside this function

# RUN FUNCTION

Extension function on the context object. Similar to with but called as let function.

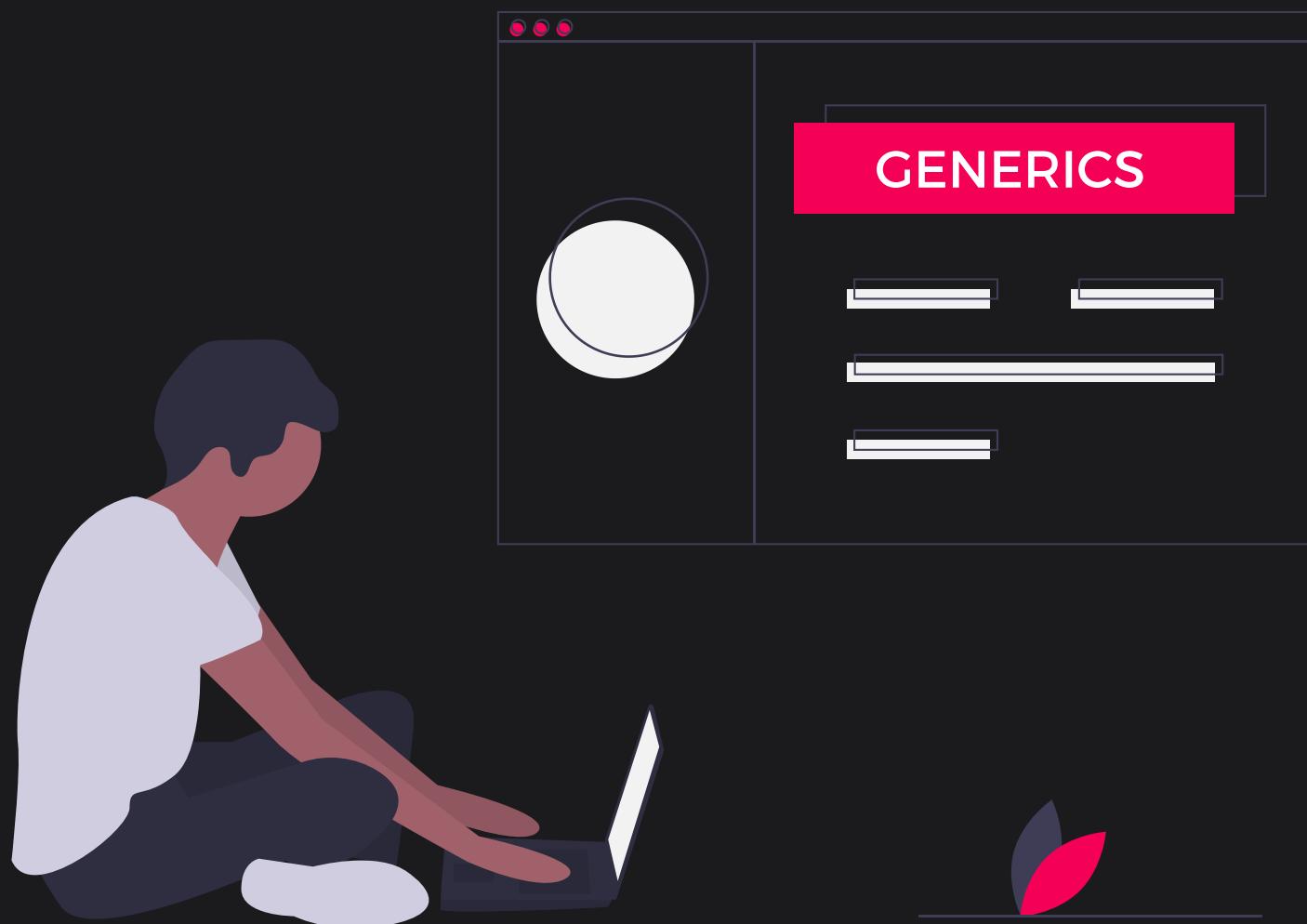
```
● ● ●  
fun main() {  
    val emp: Employee = Employee()  
    emp.age = 20  
    emp.name = "John"  
  
    //run Function  
    emp.run{  
        age = 35  
        name = "PQR"  
    }  
}  
  
data class Employee (  
    var name: String = "",  
    var age: Int = 18  
)
```



this Reference is available  
inside this function



# KOTLIN GENERICS

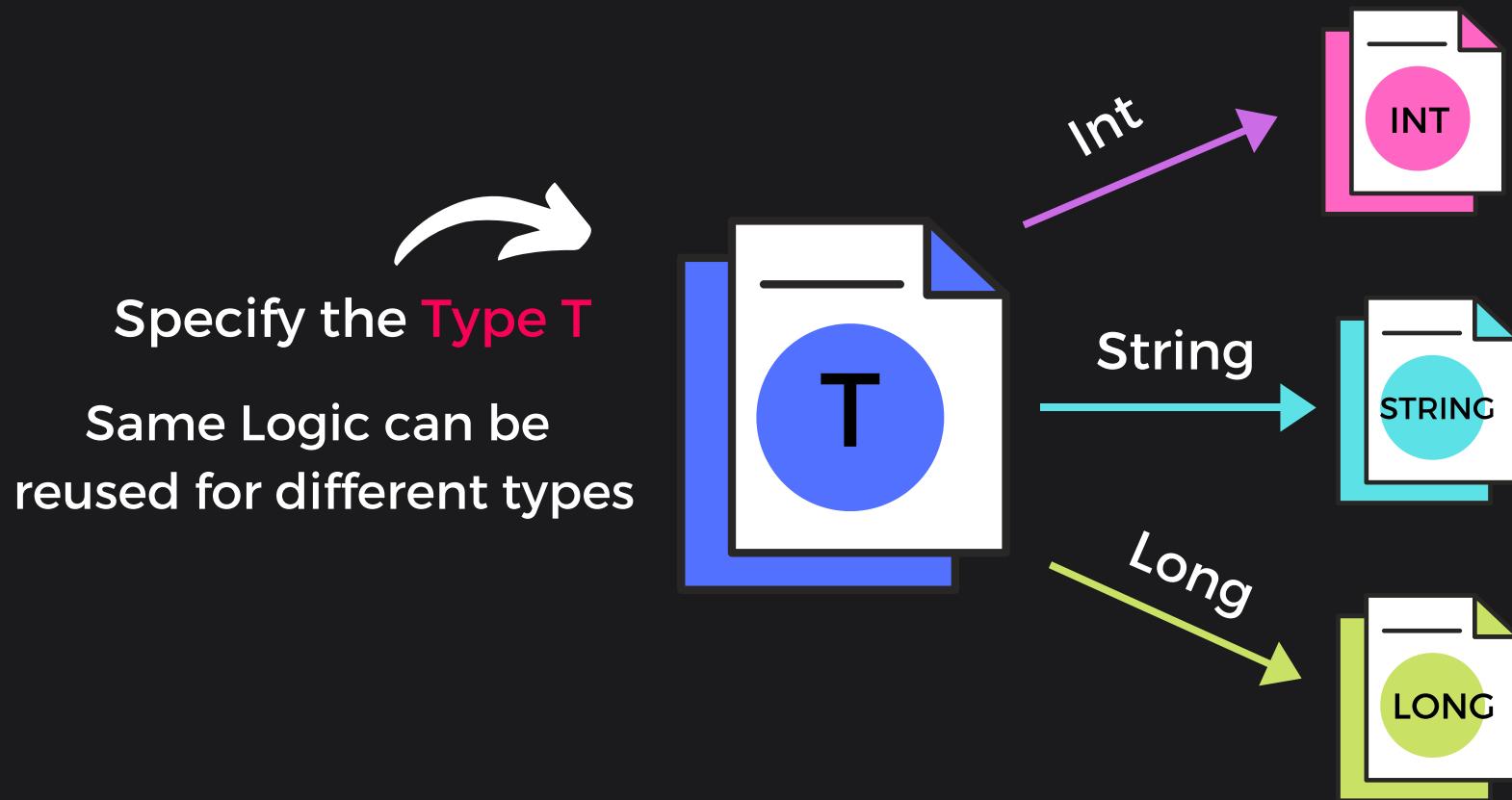


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# GENERICCS

- Writing General Logic which is not dependent on the type i.e. type can be specified later.
- Type is passed later as a parameter when that logic is needed for the specific type.



# EXAMPLE

Suppose, you need this same logic for different types. Duplicating the same logic is not a good idea. We can use Generics here.



```
class IntContainer(var data: Int)
{
    fun setValue(value : Int) {
        data = value
    }
    fun getValue(): Int
    {
        return data
    }
}
```



```
class StringContainer(var data: String)
{
    fun setValue(value : String) {
        data = value
    }
    fun getValue(): String
    {
        return data
    }
}
```

# EXAMPLE



```
class Container<T>(var data: T)
{
    fun setValue(value : T)
    {
        data = value
    }
    fun getValue(): T
    {
        return data
    }
}
```



All the logic is written using a **placeholder Type T**, you pass this **type T** when you use this class

# GENERICS

- You can use this for methods, classes, & properties.
- You don't need to explicitly typecast Objects.
- Compile Time Checking and Type Safety adds up to the advantage while using Generics



```
public interface MutableMap<K, V> : Map<K, V>  
public fun <T> emptyList(): List<T> = EmptyList
```



# KOTLIN NESTED INNER CLASS



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# NESTED CLASS

You can define classes inside another class  
i.e. classes can be nested in other classes

```
● ● ●  
class Outer  
{  
    var i = 0  
  
    class Nested  
    {  
        fun test()  
        {  
            println("I am in nested class")  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# WHAT'S THE USE

- When two classes are closely tied to each other - it makes sense to nest them.
- Encapsulation - Nested class defines the implementation details of the main class. The outer class wants to keep that functionality as a separate type and private
- Naming Collision - Not defining it as a nested class will pollute the namespace.

# EXAMPLE OF NESTED CLASS

```
● ● ●  
class LinkedList  
{  
    class Node { //// }  
}
```



Node for Linked List is different from Node for a Graph or Tree. It makes sense to have LinkedList's Node be a nested class

# INNER CLASS

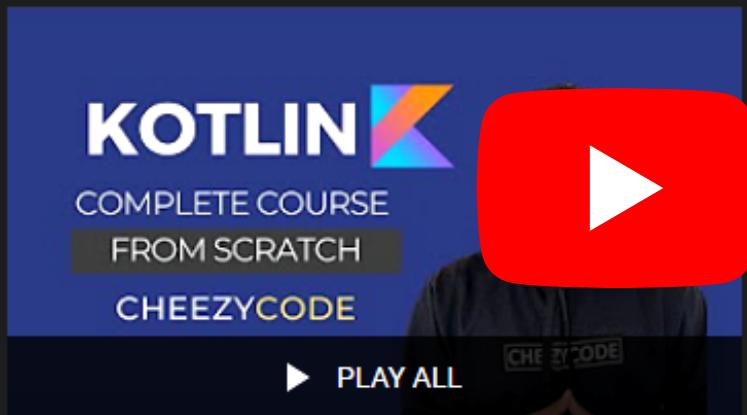
A nested class marked as inner can access the members of its outer class.

```
● ● ●  
fun main()  
{  
    val inner = Outer().Nested()  
    inner.test()  
}  
  
class Outer  
{  
    var i = 0  
    inner class Nested  
    {  
        fun test()  
        {  
            println("I am in nested class $i")  
        }  
    }  
}  
}
```

Inner class holds a reference of Outer Class Object.

Note - You cannot access Inner Class directly





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