**Java**

**Java Quickstart**

In Java, every application begins with a class name, and that class must match the filename.

Let's create our first Java file, called Main.java, which can be done in any text editor (like Notepad).

The file should contain a "Hello World" message, which is written with the following code:

Main.java

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

System.out.println("Hello World");

}

}

Don't worry if you don't understand the code above - we will discuss it in detail in later chapters. For now, focus on **how** to run the code above.

Save the code in Notepad as "Main.java". Open Command Prompt (cmd.exe), navigate to the directory where you saved your file, and type "javac Main.java":

C:\Users\*Your Name*>javac Main.java

This will compile your code. If there are no errors in the code, the command prompt will take you to the next line. Now, type "java Main" to run the file:

C:\Users\*Your Name*>java Main

The output should read:

Hello World

Java Syntax

In the previous chapter, we created a Java file called Main.java, and we used the following code to print "Hello World" to the screen:

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

System.out.println("Hello World");

}

}

### **Example explained**

Every line of code that runs in Java must be inside a class. In our example, we named the class **Main**. A class should always start with an uppercase first letter.

**Note:** Java is case-sensitive: "MyClass" and "myclass" has different meaning.

The name of the java file **must match** the class name. When saving the file, save it using the class name and add ".java" to the end of the filename. To run the example above on your computer, make sure that Java is properly installed: Go to the [Get Started Chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_getstarted.asp) for how to install Java. The output should be:

## The main Method

The main() method is required and you will see it in every Java program:

public static void **main**(String[] args)

Any code inside the main() method will be executed. You don't have to understand the keywords before and after main. You will get to know them bit by bit while reading this tutorial.

For now, just remember that every Java program has a class name which must match the filename, and that every program must contain the main() method.

## System.out.println()

Inside the main() method, we can use the println() method to print a line of text to the screen:

public static void main(String[] args) {

**System.out.println("Hello World");**

}

## Java Comments

Comments can be used to explain Java code, and to make it more readable. It can also be used to prevent execution when testing alternative code.

Single-line comments start with two forward slashes (//).

Any text between // and the end of the line is ignored by Java (will not be executed).

This example uses a single-line comment before a line of code:

// This is a comment

System.out.println("Hello World");

This example uses a single-line comment at the end of a line of code:

System.out.println("Hello World"); // This is a comment

## Java Multi-line Comments

Multi-line comments start with /\* and ends with \*/.

Any text between /\* and \*/ will be ignored by Java.

This example uses a multi-line comment (a comment block) to explain the code:

/\* The code below will print the words Hello World

to the screen, and it is amazing \*/

System.out.println("Hello World");

## Java Variables

Variables are containers for storing data values.

In Java, there are different **types** of variables, for example:

* String - stores text, such as "Hello". String values are surrounded by double quotes
* int - stores integers (whole numbers), without decimals, such as 123 or -123
* float - stores floating point numbers, with decimals, such as 19.99 or -19.99
* char - stores single characters, such as 'a' or 'B'. Char values are surrounded by single quotes
* boolean - stores values with two states: true or false

## Declaring (Creating) Variables/objects

To create a variable, you must specify the type and assign it a value:

*type variable = value;*

Where *type* is one of Java's types (such as int or String), and *variable* is the name of the variable (such as **x** or **name**). The **equal sign** is used to assign values to the variable.

To create a variable that should store text, look at the following example:

### **Example**

Create a variable called **name** of type String and assign it the value "**John**":

String name = "John";

System.out.println(name);

To create a variable that should store a number, look at the following example:

### **Example**

Create a variable called **myNum** of type int and assign it the value **15**:

int myNum = 15;

System.out.println(myNum);

You can also declare a variable without assigning the value, and assign the value later:

**Example**

int myNum;

myNum = 15;

System.out.println(myNum);

Note that if you assign a new value to an existing variable, it will overwrite the previous value:

**Example**

Change the value of myNum from 15 to 20:

int myNum = 15;

myNum = 20; // myNum is now 20

System.out.println(myNum);

**Final Variables**

However, you can add the final keyword if you don't want others (or yourself) to overwrite existing values (this will declare the variable as "final" or "constant", which means unchangeable and read-only):

**Example**

final int myNum = 15;

myNum = 20; // will generate an error: cannot assign a value to a final variable

## Other Types

A demonstration of how to declare variables of other types:

**Example**

int myNum = 5;

float myFloatNum = 5.99f;

char myLetter = 'D';

boolean myBool = true;

String myText = "Hello";

## Display Variables

The println() method is often used to display variables.

To combine both text and a variable, use the + character:

**Example**

String name = "John";

System.out.println("Hello " + name);

You can also use the + character to add a variable to another variable:

**Example**

String firstName = "John ";

String lastName = "Doe";

String fullName = firstName + lastName;

System.out.println(fullName);

For numeric values, the + character works as a mathematical operator (notice that we use int (integer) variables here):

### **Example**

int x = 5;

int y = 6;

System.out.println(x + y); // Print the value of x + y

From the example above, you can expect:

* x stores the value 5
* y stores the value 6
* Then we use the println() method to display the value of x + y, which is **11**

## Declare Many Variables

To declare more than one variable of the **same type**, use a comma-separated list:

**Example**

int x = 5, y = 6, z = 50; //heap memory

System.out.println(x + y + z);

**class** TestStudent4{

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

Student s1=**new** Student();  // stack memory

**Anonymous object**

**Anonymous simply means nameless.** An object which has no reference is known as an anonymous object. It can be used at the time of object creation only.If you have to use an object only once, an anonymous object is a good approach. For example:

**new** Calculation(); //anonymous object

**: Calling method through a reference:**

**void** fact(**int**  n){  }

Calculation c=**new** Calculation();

c.fact(5);

**: Calling method through an anonymous object**

**new** Calculation().fact(5); //calling method with anonymous object

**Creating multiple objects by one type only**

**int** a=10, b=20;

Rectangle r1=**new** Rectangle(), r2=**new** Rectangle(); //creating two objects

**Object Cloning in Java**

The **object cloning** is a way to create exact copy of an object. The clone() method of Object class is used to clone an object.

The **clone() method** is defined in the Object class. Syntax of the clone() method is as follows:

**protected** Object clone() **throws** CloneNotSupportedException

### : **Why use clone() method ?**

The **clone() method** saves the extra processing task for creating the exact copy of an object. If we perform it by using the new keyword, it will take a lot of processing time to be performed that is why we use object cloning.

**Student s1=new Student(101,"amit");**

**Student s2=(Student)s1.clone();**

**Java Identifiers**

All Java **variables** must be **identified** with **unique names**.

These unique names are called **identifiers**.

Identifiers can be short names (like x and y) or more descriptive names (age, sum, totalVolume).

**Note:** It is recommended to use descriptive names in order to create understandable and maintainable code:

**Example**

// Good

int minutesPerHour = 60;

// OK, but not so easy to understand what **m** actually is

int m = 60;

The general rules for constructing names for variables (unique identifiers) are:

* Names can contain letters, digits, underscores, and dollar signs
* Names must begin with a letter
* Names should start with a lowercase letter and it cannot contain whitespace
* Names can also begin with $ and \_ (but we will not use it in this tutorial)
* Names are case sensitive ("myVar" and "myvar" are different variables)
* Reserved words (like Java keywords, such as int or boolean) cannot be used as names

## Java Data Types

As explained in the previous chapter, a variable in Java must be a specified data type:

### **Example**

int myNum = 5; // Integer (whole number)

float myFloatNum = 5.99f; // Floating point number

char myLetter = 'D'; // Character

boolean myBool = true; // Boolean

String myText = "Hello"; // String

Data types are divided into two groups:

* Primitive data types - includes byte, short, int, long, float, double, boolean and char
* Non-primitive data types - such as [String](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_strings.asp), [Arrays](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arrays.asp) and [Classes](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_classes.asp) (you will learn more about these in a later chapter)

## Primitive Data Types

A primitive data type specifies the size and type of variable values, and it has no additional methods.

There are eight primitive data types in Java:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Data Type** | **Size** | **Description** |
| byte | 1 byte | Stores whole numbers from -128 to 127 |
| short | 2 bytes | Stores whole numbers from -32,768 to 32,767 |
| int | 4 bytes | Stores whole numbers from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,  483,647 |
| long | 8 bytes | Stores whole numbers from -9,223,372,036,854,  775,808 to 9,223,372,  036,854,775,807 |
| float | 4 bytes | Stores fractional numbers. Sufficient for storing 6 to 7 decimal digits |
| double | 8 bytes | Stores fractional numbers. Sufficient for storing 15 decimal digits |
| boolean | 1 bit | Stores true or false values |
| char | 2 bytes | Stores a single character/letter or ASCII values |

## Numbers

Primitive number types are divided into two groups:

**Integer types** stores whole numbers, positive or negative (such as 123 or -456), without decimals. Valid types are byte, short, int and long. Which type you should use, depends on the numeric value.

**Floating point types** represents numbers with a fractional part, containing one or more decimals. There are two types: float and double.

Even though there are many numeric types in Java, the most used for numbers are int (for whole numbers) and double (for floating point numbers). However, we will describe them all as you continue to read.

**Integer Types.**

**Byte**

The byte data type can store whole numbers from -128 to 127. This can be used instead of int or other integer types to save memory when you are certain that the value will be within -128 and 127:

**Example**

byte myNum = 100;

System.out.println(myNum);

### **Short**

The short data type can store whole numbers from -32768 to 32767:

### **Example**

short myNum = 5000;

System.out.println(myNum);

### **Int**

The int data type can store whole numbers from -2147483648 to 2147483647. In general, and in our tutorial, the int data type is the preferred data type when we create variables with a numeric value.

### **Example**

int myNum = 100000;

System.out.println(myNum);

### **Long**

The long data type can store whole numbers from -9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807. This is used when int is not large enough to store the value. Note that you should end the value with an "L":

### **Example**

long myNum = 15000000000L;

System.out.println(myNum);

## Floating Point Types

You should use a floating point type whenever you need a number with a decimal, such as 9.99 or 3.14515.

### **Float**

The float data type can store fractional numbers from 3.4e−038 to 3.4e+038. Note that you should end the value with an "f":

### **Example**

float myNum = 5.75f;

System.out.println(myNum);

### **Double**

The double data type can store fractional numbers from 1.7e−308 to 1.7e+308. Note that you should end the value with a "d":

### **Example**

double myNum = 19.99d;

System.out.println(myNum);

Use float or double?

The **precision** of a floating point value indicates how many digits the value can have after the decimal point. The precision of float is only six or seven decimal digits, while double variables have a precision of about 15 digits. Therefore it is safer to use double for most calculations.

### **Scientific Numbers**

A floating point number can also be a scientific number with an "e" to indicate the power of 10:

**Example**

float f1 = 35e3f;

double d1 = 12E4d;

System.out.println(f1);

System.out.println(d1);

## Booleans

A boolean data type is declared with the boolean keyword and can only take the values true or false:

**Example**

boolean isJavaFun = true;

boolean isFishTasty = false;

System.out.println(isJavaFun); // Outputs true

System.out.println(isFishTasty); // Outputs false

Boolean values are mostly used for conditional testing, which you will learn more about in a later chapter.

## Characters

The char data type is used to store a **single** character. The character must be surrounded by single quotes, like 'A' or 'c':

### **Example**

char myGrade = 'B';

System.out.println(myGrade);

Alternatively, you can use ASCII values to display certain characters:

### **Example**

char a = 65, b = 66, c = 67;

System.out.println(a);

System.out.println(b);

System.out.println(c);

## Strings

The String data type is used to store a sequence of characters (text). String values must be surrounded by double quotes:

### **Example**

String greeting = "Hello World";

System.out.println(greeting);

The String type is so much used and integrated in Java, that some call it "the special **ninth** type".

A String in Java is actually a **non-primitive** data type, because it refers to an object. The String object has methods that are used to perform certain operations on strings. **Don't worry if you don't understand the term "object" just yet**. We will learn more about strings and objects in a later chapter.

Non-Primitive Data Types

Non-primitive data types are called **reference types** because they refer to objects.

The main difference between **primitive** and **non-primitive** data types are:

* Primitive types are predefined (already defined) in Java. Non-primitive types are created by the programmer and is not defined by Java (except for String).
* Non-primitive types can be used to call methods to perform certain operations, while primitive types cannot.
* A primitive type has always a value, while non-primitive types can be null.
* A primitive type starts with a lowercase letter, while non-primitive types starts with an uppercase letter.
* The size of a primitive type depends on the data type, while non-primitive types have all the same size.

Examples of non-primitive types are [Strings](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_strings.asp), [Arrays](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arrays.asp), [Classes,](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_classes.asp)[Interface](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_interface.asp), etc. You will learn more about these in a later chapter.

Java Type Casting

Type casting is when you assign a value of one primitive data type to another type.

In Java, there are two types of casting:

* **Widening Casting** (automatically) - converting a smaller type to a larger type size  
  byte -> short -> char -> int -> long -> float -> double
* **Narrowing Casting** (manually) - converting a larger type to a smaller size type  
  double -> float -> long -> int -> char -> short -> byte

Widening Casting

Widening casting is done automatically when passing a smaller size type to a larger size type:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

int myInt = 9;

double myDouble = myInt; // Automatic casting: int to double

System.out.println(myInt); // Outputs 9

System.out.println(myDouble); // Outputs 9.0

## Narrowing Casting

Narrowing casting must be done manually by placing the type in parentheses in front of the value:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

double myDouble = 9.78;

int myInt = (int) myDouble; // Manual casting: double to int

System.out.println(myDouble); // Outputs 9.78

System.out.println(myInt); // Outputs 9

}

}

## Java Operators

Operators are used to perform operations on variables and values.

In the example below, we use the + **operator** to add together two values:

### **Example**

int x = 100 + 50;

Although the + operator is often used to add together two values, like in the example above, it can also be used to add together a variable and a value, or a variable and another variable:

### **Example**

int sum1 = 100 + 50; // 150 (100 + 50)

int sum2 = sum1 + 250; // 400 (150 + 250)

int sum3 = sum2 + sum2; // 800 (400 + 400)

Java divides the operators into the following groups:

* Arithmetic operators
* Assignment operators
* Comparison operators
* Logical operators
* Bitwise operators

## Arithmetic Operators

Arithmetic operators are used to perform common mathematical operations.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Operator** | **Name** | **Description** | **Example** | **Try it** |
| + | Addition | Adds together two values | x + y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_add) |
| - | Subtraction | Subtracts one value from another | x - y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_sub) |
| \* | Multiplication | Multiplies two values | x \* y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_mult) |
| / | Division | Divides one value by another | x / y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_div) |
| % | Modulus | Returns the division remainder | x % y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_mod) |
| ++ | Increment | Increases the value of a variable by 1 | ++x | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_inc) |
| -- | Decrement | Decreases the value of a variable by 1 | --x | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_dec) |

## Java Assignment Operators

Assignment operators are used to assign values to variables.

In the example below, we use the **assignment** operator (=) to assign the value **10** to a variable called **x**:

### **Example**

int x = 10;

The **addition assignment** operator (+=) adds a value to a variable:

### **Example**

int x = 10;

x += 5;

A list of all assignment operators:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Operator** | **Example** | **Same As** | **Try it** |
| = | x = 5 | x = 5 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass1) |
| += | x += 3 | x = x + 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass2) |
| -= | x -= 3 | x = x - 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass3) |
| \*= | x \*= 3 | x = x \* 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass4) |
| /= | x /= 3 | x = x / 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass5) |
| %= | x %= 3 | x = x % 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass6) |
| &= | x &= 3 | x = x & 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass7) |
| |= | x |= 3 | x = x | 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass8) |
| ^= | x ^= 3 | x = x ^ 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass9) |
| >>= | x >>= 3 | x = x >> 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass10) |
| <<= | x <<= 3 | x = x << 3 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_ass11) |

## Java Comparison Operators

Comparison operators are used to compare two values:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Operator** | **Name** | **Example** | **Try it** |
| == | Equal to | x == y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare1) |
| != | Not equal | x != y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare2) |
| > | Greater than | x > y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare3) |
| < | Less than | x < y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare4) |
| >= | Greater than or equal to | x >= y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare5) |
| <= | Less than or equal to | x <= y | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_compare6) |

## Java Logical Operators

Logical operators are used to determine the logic between variables or values:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Operator** | **Name** | **Description** | **Example** | **Try it** |
| && | Logical and | Returns true if both statements are true | x < 5 &&  x < 10 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_logical1) |
| || | Logical or | Returns true if one of the statements is true | x < 5 || x < 4 | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_oper_logical2) |
| ! | Logical not | Reverse the result, returns false if the result is true | !(x < 5 && x < 10) |  |

## Java Strings

Strings are used for storing text.

A String variable contains a collection of characters surrounded by double quotes:

### **Example**

Create a variable of type String and assign it a value:

String greeting = "Hello";

**String Length**

A String in Java is actually an object, which contain methods that can perform certain operations on strings. For example, the length of a string can be found with the length() method:

### **Example**

String txt = "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ";

System.out.println("The length of the txt string is: " + txt.length());

## More String Methods

There are many string methods available, for example toUpperCase() and toLowerCase():

### **Example**

String txt = "Hello World";

System.out.println(txt.toUpperCase()); // Outputs "HELLO WORLD"

System.out.println(txt.toLowerCase()); // Outputs "hello world"

## Finding a Character in a String

The indexOf() method returns the **index** (the position) of the first occurrence of a specified text in a string (including whitespace):

**Example**

String txt = "Please locate where 'locate' occurs!";

System.out.println(txt.indexOf("locate")); // Outputs 7

Java counts positions from zero.  
0 is the first position in a string, 1 is the second, 2 is the third ...

String Concatenation

The + operator can be used between strings to combine them. This is called **concatenation**:

**Example**

String firstName = "John";

String lastName = "Doe";

System.out.println(firstName + " " + lastName);

Note that we have added an empty text (" ") to create a space between firstName and lastName on print.

You can also use the concat() method to concatenate two strings:

### **Example**

String firstName = "John ";

String lastName = "Doe";

System.out.println(firstName.concat(lastName));

## Special Characters

Because strings must be written within quotes, Java will misunderstand this string, and generate an error:

String txt = "We are the so-called "Vikings" from the north.";

The solution to avoid this problem, is to use the **backslash escape character**.

The backslash (\) escape character turns special characters into string characters:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Escape character** | **Result** | **Description** |
| \' | ' | Single quote |
| \" | " | Double quote |
| \\ | \ | Backslash |

The sequence \"  inserts a double quote in a string:

### **Example**

String txt = "We are the so-called \"Vikings\" from the north.";

The sequence \'  inserts a single quote in a string:

### **Example**

String txt = "It\'s alright.";

The sequence \\  inserts a single backslash in a string:

### **Example**

String txt = "The character \\ is called backslash.";

Six other escape sequences are valid in Java:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Code** | **Result** | **Try it** |
| \n | New Line | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_strings_newline) |
| \r | Carriage Return (it moves the cursor beginning of the line.) | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_strings_r) |
| \t | Tab | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_strings_tab) |
| \b | Backspace (Insert a backspace in the text at this point.) | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_strings_b) |
| \f | Form Feed |  |

**Java conversion:**

**String to int, long, float, double, boolean, StringBuilder:**

String s="200";

**int** i=Integer.parseInt(s);

**long** l=Long.parseLong(s);

**float** f=Float.parseFloat(s);

**double** d=Double.parseDouble(s);

**String** s="true/false";

**boolean** b1=Boolean.parseBoolean(s);

**StringBuilder** sb=**new** StringBuilder(s); // sb.reverse();  to reverse the values.

**StringBuffer** sb=**new** StringBuffer(s); // sb.reverse();  to reverse the values.

**Object**  obj=s;

**char** c=s.charAt(0); **(will return 2) // String to char**

**char**[ ] carArray=s.toCharArray();  **// String to char[ ] array**

**String** [ ] strArray = s.split("");   **or** s.split(" ");  **// String[ ] array of words**

**int, long, double, float, char to String:**

**int** i=200;

**String** s=String.valueOf(i);

**long** l=9993939399L;

**String** s=String.valueOf(l);

**double** d=12.3;

**String** s=String.valueOf(d);

**float** f=12.3F; //F is the suffix for float

**String** s=String.valueOf(f);

**char** car='S';  **| char[ ]** carArray= {'H', ‘e’, ‘l’, ‘l’, ‘o’} ;

**String** s=String.valueOf(car);

**String** s=String.valueOf(carArray); **// return Hello**

**String** s= **new** String(carArray); **// return Hello**

**boolean** b=**true/false**;

**String** s=String.valueOf(b);

**StringBuilder** sb=**new** StringBuilder("Hello");

**String** s =  String.valueOf(sb);    **or** sb.toString();

Emp obj=**new** Emp();

**String** s=String.valueOf(obj);  **or** obj.toString();

**Int to long:**

**int** i=200;

**long** l=i;

**double** d=i;

**long l** =200;

**int i**=( **int**)l;

**double** d=10.5;

**int** i=(**int**)d;

**Chart to int:**

**char** c='a';  / ‘1’;

**int** i=c;

**Int to char:**

**int** a=6;

**char** c=(**char**)a;

**int number to StringArray:**

int number = 12345;

String[ ] stringArray = String.valueOf(number).split("");

String s = Arrays.toString(stringArray); //just for print StringArray as String

**int[ ] Array to int number:**

**int**[ ] Arr = **new** **int**[ ] {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};

String s = "";

**for**(**int** i=0; i<Arr.length; i++) {

s += String.*valueOf*(Arr[i]);

}

**int** num = Integer.*parseInt*(s); // convert back to int number.

System.***out***.println(num);

**int**[] Arr = **new** **int**[] {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};

**int** j=0;

**for**(**int** i=0; i<Arr.length; i++) {

j = j\*10+Arr[i];

}

System.***out***.println(j); // 123456

**int to charArray:**

**int** number = 12345;

**char**[] digits = String.*valueOf*(number).toCharArray();

System.***out***.println(digits);**//output: 12345 (char is a String type single data)**

**Char Array to integer:**

**char[ ] charArray = {'2', '3', '4', '1'};**

**int number1 = Integer.parseInt(String.valueOf(charArray)); //output: 2341**

**String Array to int Array:**

**String** [ ] strArray = {"123", "345", "437", "894"};

**int** [ ] arr = **new** **int** [strArray.length];

**for**(**int** i=0; i< str.length; i++) {

arr[i] = Integer.parseInt(strArray[i]);

}

**Arrays.to.String(array) : to print string, int, long, float, double, boolean array values.**

String[ ] strArray = new String[ ] {"2","3","1"};

Arrays.sort(strArray); **// sort the array**

Arrays.sort(strArray, Collections.*reverseOrder*()); **// reverse the order of sorted value**

String s = Arrays.*toString*(strArray);

Output :

Java String array to String = [1, 2, 3]

**Array to arrayList :**

we can convert the Array to arrayList using the methods below…

**1) Arrays.asList()**

**2) Collections.addAll()**

**3) Iteration method**

String[ ] array = {"a", "b", "c", "d", "e"};

**//Method 1**

List<String> list = Arrays.asList(array);

**//Method 2**

List<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();

Collections.addAll(list, array);

Collections.addAll(list, ”a", "b", "c", "d", "e");

Set<Integer> set = **new** HashSet<>();

Collections.addAll(set, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5);

Collections.addAll(set, array);

Collections.addAll(set, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5);

Set<Integer> set = new HashSet<Integer>(Arrays.asList(array));

 System.out.println("Collection Value: "+set);

**//Method 3**

List<String> list2 = new ArrayList<String>();

for(String text : array) {

   list2.add(text);

}

System.out.println(list);

System.out.println(list1);

System.out.println(list2);

**ArrayList to Array :**

ArrayList<Integer> arrlist = new ArrayList<Integer>();

arrlist.add(10);

arrlist.add(12);

System.out.println("elements of array1ist : "+ arrlist);

Object array1[ ] = arrlist.toArray(); //convert only to Object type array.

or Integer array2[ ] = new Integer[arrlist.size()];

array2 = arrlist.toArray(array2);

System.out.println("ArrayList as Array: " + Arrays.toString(arr));

**Convert Array 🡨🡪List🡨🡪Set**

Object[ ] array = {"any lane", 123,48212, "My Town"};

Set< Object > set1 = new HashSet<Object>();

ArrayList< Object > list1 = new ArrayList< Object >();

for(Object value : array) { list1.add(value); }

Collections.addAll(set, array); [ doesn’t work for (List, array) ]

set1.addAll(list1);

list1.addAll(set1);

Object[ ] myArray = new Object[set.size()];

list1.toArray(myArray);

//set.toArray(myArray);

int n = 0;

for(Object s : set) {

myArray[n++] = s;

}

**Adding Numbers and Strings**

WARNING!Java uses the + operator for both addition and concatenation.

Numbers are added. Strings are concatenated.

If you add two numbers, the result will be a number:

**Example**

int x = 10;

int y = 20;

int z = x + y; // z will be 30 (an integer/number)

If you add two strings, the result will be a string concatenation:

**Example**

String x = "10";

String y = "20";

String z = x + y; // z will be 1020 (a String)

If you add a number and a string, the result will be a string concatenation:

### **Example**

String x = "10";

int y = 20;

String z = x + y; // z will be 1020 (a String)

**Complete String Reference**

String s1="Hello";

**char** ch=s1.charAt(4); // o

**char**[] ch=s1.toCharArray();

s1.concat("world"); //Hello (immutable, not changed)

s1=s1.concat("world "); //Hello world (changed)

**boolean** isContains = s1.contains("el"); //true

**boolean** isContains = s1.contains("EL"); // false (Case Sensitive)

**int** i =30;

String s1=String.valueOf(i); // 30 (String data)

**char**[]c= {'h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', ' ', 'w', 'o', 'r', 'l', 'd'};

String s2 = String.valueOf(c); //hello world

String s1="Hello world";

s1.endsWith("d"); // true

s1.startsWith("H"); // true

String s2="Hello world";

String s3="hello WORLD";

s1.equals(s2); //true

s1.equals(s3); //false

s1.equalsIgnoreCase(s3); //true

s1.contentEquals(s2); //true

s1.compareTo(s2); // 0 because both are equal

s1.compareTo(s3); // not 0 (return any other number)

s1.compareToIgnoreCase (s3); // 0

**int** index1=s1.indexOf("o"); // 4

**int** index2=s1.indexOf("M"); // -1 (M is not in the s1)

**int** i = s1.lastIndexOf("l"); // 9 (return last occurance)

String s1="";

String s2="Hello world";

s1.isEmpty(); // true

s2.isEmpty(); //false

**int** len = s1.length(); //10

String s1 = "bat ball";

String s2=s1.replace('b', 'c')); // cat call

String s = "&\*%$#$%\*@##$ Hello World 1234";

s = s.replaceAll("[^a-zA-Z0-9]", ""); // XOR symbol (^) for NOT.

// Hello World 1234

String s = "Hello World 1234";

s = s.replaceAll("[0-9]", ""); // Hello World

String text = "Java";

String[] result = text.split(""); // J,a,v,a

String text = "Java is a fun";

String[] result = text.split(" "); // Java, is, a, fun

// last index of string data is length based.

// so every String letter has 2 index, 0 based & length based.

String s1 = "java is fun";

s1.substring(0, 4); // java

String lower=s1.toLowerCase(); //hello world

String upper=s1.toUpperCase(); //HELLO WORLD

String s1 =" hello java string ";

String tr = s1.trim(); // removes space from both side.

The Java Math class has many methods that allows you to perform mathematical tasks on numbers.

## Math.max(x,y)

The Math.max(x,y) method can be used to find the highest value of x and y:

### **Example**

Math.max(5, 10);

## Math.min(x,y)

The Math.min(x,y) method can be used to find the lowest value of x and y:

### **Example**

Math.min(5, 10);

## Math.sqrt(x)

The Math.sqrt(x) method returns the square root of x:

### **Example**

Math.sqrt(64);

## Math.abs(x)

The Math.abs(x) method returns the absolute (positive) value of x:

### **Example**

Math.abs(-4.7);

## Random Numbers

Math.random() returns a random number - 0.0 to 1.0:

### **Example**

Math.random();

To get more control over the random number, e.g. you only want a random number between 0 and 100, you can use the following formula:

### **Example**

int randomNum = (int)(Math.random() \* 101); // 0 to 100

## Complete Math Reference

For a complete reference of Math methods, go to our [Java Math Methods Reference](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_ref_math.asp).

## Java Booleans

Very often, in programming, you will need a data type that can only have one of two values, like:

* YES / NO
* ON / OFF
* TRUE / FALSE

For this, Java has a boolean data type, which can take the values true or false.

## Boolean Values

A boolean type is declared with the boolean keyword and can only take the values true or false:

### **Example**

boolean isJavaFun = true;

boolean isFishTasty = false;

System.out.println(isJavaFun); // Outputs true

System.out.println(isFishTasty); // Outputs false

However, it is more common to return boolean values from boolean expressions, for conditional testing (see below).

**Boolean Expression**

A **Boolean expression** is a Java expression that returns a Boolean value: true or false.

You can use a comparison operator, such as the **greater than** (>) operator to find out if an expression (or a variable) is true:

### **Example**

int x = 10;

int y = 9;

System.out.println(x > y); // returns true, because 10 is higher than 9

Or even easier:

### **Example**

System.out.println(10 > 9); // returns true, because 10 is higher than 9

In the examples below, we use the **equal to** (==) operator to evaluate an expression:

### **Example**

int x = 10;

System.out.println(x == 10); // returns true, because the value of x is equal to 10

### **Example**

System.out.println(10 == 15); // returns false, because 10 is not equal to 15

The Boolean value of an expression is the basis for all Java comparisons and conditions.

You will learn more about conditions in the next chapter.

Java Conditions and If Statements

Java supports the usual logical conditions from mathematics:

* Less than: a < b
* Less than or equal to: a <= b
* Greater than: a > b
* Greater than or equal to: a >= b
* Equal to a == b
* Not Equal to: a != b

You can use these conditions to perform different actions for different decisions.

Java has the following conditional statements:

* Use if to specify a block of code to be executed, if a specified condition is true
* Use else to specify a block of code to be executed, if the same condition is false
* Use else if to specify a new condition to test, if the first condition is false
* Use switch to specify many alternative blocks of code to be executed

The if Statement

Use the if statement to specify a block of Java code to be executed if a condition is true.

### **Syntax**

if (condition) {

// block of code to be executed if the condition is true

}

Note that if is in lowercase letters. Uppercase letters (If or IF) will generate an error.

In the example below, we test two values to find out if 20 is greater than 18. If the condition is true, print some text:

### **Example**

if (20 > 18) {

System.out.println("20 is greater than 18");

}

We can also test variables:

### **Example**

int x = 20;

int y = 18;

if (x > y) {

System.out.println("x is greater than y");

}

#### **Example explained**

In the example above we use two variables, **x** and **y**, to test whether x is greater than y (using the > operator). As x is 20, and y is 18, and we know that 20 is greater than 18, we print to the screen that "x is greater than y".

## The else Statement

Use the else statement to specify a block of code to be executed if the condition is false.

### **Syntax**

if (condition) {

// block of code to be executed if the condition is true

} else {

// block of code to be executed if the condition is false

}

### **Example**

int time = 20;

if (time < 18) {

System.out.println("Good day.");

} else {

System.out.println("Good evening.");

}

// Outputs "Good evening."

#### **Example explained**

In the example above, time (20) is greater than 18, so the condition is false. Because of this, we move on to the else condition and print to the screen "Good evening". If the time was less than 18, the program would print "Good day".

## The else if Statement

Use the else if statement to specify a new condition if the first condition is false.

### **Syntax**

if (condition1) {

// block of code to be executed if condition1 is true

} else if (condition2) {

// block of code to be executed if the condition1 is false and condition2 is true

} else {

// block of code to be executed if the condition1 is false and condition2 is false

}

### **Example**

int time = 22;

if (time < 10) {

System.out.println("Good morning.");

} else if (time < 20) {

System.out.println("Good day.");

} else {

System.out.println("Good evening.");

}

// Outputs "Good evening."

#### **Example explained**

In the example above, time (22) is greater than 10, so the **first condition** is false. The next condition, in the else if statement, is also false, so we move on to the else condition since **condition1** and **condition2** is both false - and print to the screen "Good evening".

However, if the time was 14, our program would print "Good day."

## Short Hand If...Else (Ternary Operator)

There is also a short-hand if else, which is known as the **ternary operator** because it consists of three operands. It can be used to replace multiple lines of code with a single line. It is often used to replace simple if else statements:

**Syntax**

variable *= (*condition*) ?* expressionTrue *:*  expressionFalse*;*

Instead of writing:

**Example**

int time = 20;

if (time < 18) {

System.out.println("Good day.");

} else {

System.out.println("Good evening.");

}

You can simply write:

### **Example**

int time = 20;

String result = (time < 18) ? "Good day." : "Good evening.";

System.out.println(result);

## Java Switch Statements

Use the switch statement to select one of many code blocks to be executed.

### **Syntax**

switch(expression) {

case x:

// code block

break;

case y:

// code block

break;

default:

// code block

}

This is how it works:

* The switch expression is evaluated once.
* The value of the expression is compared with the values of each case.
* If there is a match, the associated block of code is executed.
* The break and default keywords are optional, and will be described later in this chapter

The example below uses the weekday number to calculate the weekday name:

### **Example**

int day = 4;

switch (day) {

case 1:

System.out.println("Monday");

break;

case 2:

System.out.println("Tuesday");

break;

case 3:

System.out.println("Wednesday");

break;

case 4:

System.out.println("Thursday");

break;

case 5:

System.out.println("Friday");

break;

case 6:

System.out.println("Saturday");

break;

case 7:

System.out.println("Sunday");

break;

}

// Outputs "Thursday" (day 4)

int dayNo = 4;

String day = “ ”;

switch (dayNo) {

case 1: day = "Monday"; break;

case 2: day = "Tuesday"; break;

case 3: day = "Wednesday"; break;

case 4: day = "Thursday"; break;

case 5: day = "Friday"; break;

case 6: day = "Saturday"; break;

case 7: day = "Sunday"; break;

}

System.out.println("day");

// Outputs "Thursday" (day 4)

## The break Keyword

When Java reaches a break keyword, it breaks out of the switch block.

This will stop the execution of more code and case testing inside the block.

When a match is found, and the job is done, it's time for a break. There is no need for more testing.

A break can save a lot of execution time because it "ignores" the execution of all the rest of the code in the switch block.

## The default Keyword

The default keyword specifies some code to run if there is no case match:

### **Example**

int day = 4;

switch (day) {

case 6:

System.out.println("Today is Saturday");

break;

case 7:

System.out.println("Today is Sunday");

break;

default:

System.out.println("Looking forward to the Weekend");

}

// Outputs "Looking forward to the Weekend"

## Loops

Loops can execute a block of code as long as a specified condition is reached.

Loops are handy because they save time, reduce errors, and they make code more readable.

## Java While Loop

The while loop loops through a block of code as long as a specified condition is true:

### **Syntax**

while (condition) {

*// code block to be executed*

}

In the example below, the code in the loop will run, over and over again, as long as a variable (i) is less than 5:

### **Example**

int i = 0;

while (i < 5) {

System.out.println(i);

i++;

}

**Note:** Do not forget to increase the variable used in the condition, otherwise the loop will never end!

## The Do/While Loop

The do/while loop is a variant of the while loop. This loop will execute the code block once, before checking if the condition is true, then it will repeat the loop as long as the condition is true.

### **Syntax**

do {

*// code block to be executed*

}

while (condition);

The example below uses a do/while loop. The loop will always be executed at least once, even if the condition is false, because the code block is executed before the condition is tested:

### **Example**

int i = 0;  
do {

System.out.println(i);

i++;

}

while (i < 5);

## Java For Loop

When you know exactly how many times you want to loop through a block of code, use the for loop instead of a while loop:

### **Syntax**

for (*statement 1*; *statement 2*; *statement 3*) {

*// code block to be executed*

}

**Statement 1** is executed (one time) before the execution of the code block.

**Statement 2** defines the condition for executing the code block.

**Statement 3** is executed (every time) after the code block has been executed.

The example below will print the numbers 0 to 4:

### **Example**

for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {

System.out.println(i);

}

#### **Example explained**

Statement 1 sets a variable before the loop starts (int i = 0).

Statement 2 defines the condition for the loop to run (i must be less than 5). If the condition is true, the loop will start over again, if it is false, the loop will end.

Statement 3 increases a value (i++) each time the code block in the loop has been executed.

## Another Example

This example will only print even values between 0 and 10:

### **Example**

for (int i = 0; i <= 10; i = i + 2) {

System.out.println(i);

}

## For-Each Loop

There is also a "**for-each**" loop, which is used exclusively to loop through elements in an **array**:

### **Syntax**

for (type variableName : arrayName) {

*// code block to be executed*

}

The following example outputs all elements in the **cars** array, using a "**for-each**" loop:

### **Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

for (String i : cars) {

System.out.println(i);

}

**Note:** Don't worry if you don't understand the example above. You will learn more about Arrays in the [Java Arrays chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arrays.asp).

## Java Break

You have already seen the break statement used in an earlier chapter of this tutorial. It was used to "jump out" of a switch statement.

The break statement can also be used to jump out of a **loop**.

This example jumps out of the loop when i is equal to 4:

### **Example**

for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {

if (i == 4) {

break;

}

System.out.println(i);

}

## Java Continue

The continue statement breaks one iteration (in the loop), if a specified condition occurs, and continues with the next iteration in the loop.

This example skips the value of 4:

### **Example**

for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {

if (i == 4) {

continue;

}

System.out.println(i);

}

## Break and Continue in While Loop

You can also use break and continue in while loops:

### **Break Example**

int i = 0;

while (i < 10) {

System.out.println(i);

i++;

if (i == 4) {

break;

}

}

### **Continue Example**

int i = 0;

while (i < 10) {

if (i == 4) {

i++;

continue;

}

System.out.println(i);

i++;

}

**Java Methods**

A **method** is a block of code which only runs when it is called.

You can pass data, known as parameters, into a method.

Methods are used to perform certain actions, and they are also known as **functions**.

Why use methods? To reuse code: define the code once, and use it many times.

## Create a Method

A method must be declared within a class. It is defined with the name of the method, followed by parentheses **()**. Java provides some pre-defined methods, such as System.out.println(), but you can also create your own methods to perform certain actions:

### **Example**

Create a method inside Main:

public class Main {

static void myMethod() {

// code to be executed

}

}

#### **Example Explained**

* myMethod() is the name of the method
* static means that the method belongs to the Main class and not an object of the Main class. You will learn more about objects and how to access methods through objects later in this tutorial.
* void means that this method does not have a return value. You will learn more about return values later in this chapter

## Call a Method

To call a method in Java, write the method's name followed by two parentheses **()** and a semicolon**;**

In the following example, myMethod() is used to print a text (the action), when it is called:

### **Example**

Inside main, call the myMethod() method:

public class Main {

static void myMethod() {

System.out.println("I just got executed!");

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

myMethod();

}

}

// Outputs "I just got executed!"

A method can also be called multiple times:

### **Example**

public class Main {

static void myMethod() {

System.out.println("I just got executed!");

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

myMethod();

myMethod();

myMethod();

}

}

// I just got executed!

// I just got executed!

// I just got executed!

In the next chapter, [Method Parameters](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_methods_param.asp), you will learn how to pass data (parameters) into a method.

# **Java Method Parameters**

## Parameters and Arguments

Information can be passed to methods as parameter. Parameters act as variables inside the method.

Parameters are specified after the method name, inside the parentheses. You can add as many parameters as you want, just separate them with a comma.

The following example has a method that takes a String called **fname** as parameter. When the method is called, we pass along a first name, which is used inside the method to print the full name:

### **Example**

public class Main {

static void myMethod(String fname) {

System.out.println(fname + " Refsnes");

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

myMethod("Liam");

myMethod("Jenny");

myMethod("Anja");

}

}

// Liam Refsnes

// Jenny Refsnes

// Anja Refsnes

When a **parameter** is passed to the method, it is called an **argument**. So, from the example above: fname is a **parameter**, while Liam, Jenny and Anja are **arguments**.

## Multiple Parameters

You can have as many parameters as you like:

### **Example**

public class Main {

static void myMethod(String fname, int age) {

System.out.println(fname + " is " + age);

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

myMethod("Liam", 5);

myMethod("Jenny", 8);

myMethod("Anja", 31);

}

}

// Liam is 5

// Jenny is 8

// Anja is 31

Note that when you are working with multiple parameters, the method call must have the same number of arguments as there are parameters, and the arguments must be passed in the same order.

**There are three places in java where you can perform operations:**

1. method
2. constructor
3. block

**Instance initializer block**

**Instance Initializer block** is used to initialize the instance data member. It run each time when object of the class is created.

**class** Bike7{

**int** speed;

Bike7(){

System.out.println("speed is "+speed);

}

{ speed=100; }

{ System.out.println("instance initializer block is invoked"); }

**What is invoked first, instance initializer block or constructor?**

**class** Bike8{

    Bike8(){

System.out.println("constructor is invoked");

}

{ System.out.println("instance initializer block is invoked"); }  // will be invoked first.

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

    Bike8 b1=**new** Bike8();

    }

}

**Output:**

**instance initializer block is invoked**

**constructor is invoked**

## Return Values

The void keyword, used in the examples above, indicates that the method should not return a value. If you want the method to return a value, you can use a primitive data type (such as int, char, etc.) instead of void, and use the return keyword inside the method:

### **Example**

public class Main {

static int myMethod(int x) {

**return** 5 + x;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

System.out.println(myMethod(3));

}

}

// Outputs 8 (5 + 3)

This example returns the sum of a method's **two parameters**:

### **Example**

public class Main {

static int myMethod(int x, int y) {

return x + y;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

System.out.println(myMethod(5, 3));

}

}

// Outputs 8 (5 + 3)

You can also store the result in a variable (recommended, as it is easier to read and maintain):

### **Example**

public class Main {

static int myMethod(int x, int y) {

return x + y;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

int z = myMethod(5, 3);

System.out.println(z);

}

}

// Outputs 8 (5 + 3)

## A Method with If...Else

It is common to use if...else statements inside methods:

### **Example**

public class Main {

// Create a checkAge() method with an integer variable called **age**

static void checkAge(int age) {

// If age is less than 18, print "access denied"

if (age < 18) {

System.out.println("Access denied - You are not old enough!");

// If age is greater than, or equal to 18, print "access granted"

} else {

System.out.println("Access granted - You are old enough!");

}

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

checkAge(20); // Call the checkAge method and pass along an age of 20

}

}

// Outputs "Access granted - You are old enough!"

## Method Overloading

With**method overloading**, multiple methods can have the same name with different parameters:

### **Example**

int myMethod(int x)

float myMethod(float x)

double myMethod(double x, double y)

Consider the following example, which have two methods that add numbers of different type:

### **Example**

static int plusMethodInt(int x, int y) {

return x + y;

}

static double plusMethodDouble(double x, double y) {

return x + y;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

int myNum1 = plusMethodInt(8, 5);

double myNum2 = plusMethodDouble(4.3, 6.26);

System.out.println("int: " + myNum1);

System.out.println("double: " + myNum2);

}

Instead of defining two methods that should do the same thing, it is better to overload one.

In the example below, we overload the plusMethod method to work for both int and double:

### **Example**

static int plusMethod(int x, int y) {

return x + y;

}

static double plusMethod(double x, double y) {

return x + y;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

int myNum1 = plusMethod(8, 5);

double myNum2 = plusMethod(4.3, 6.26);

System.out.println("int: " + myNum1);

System.out.println("double: " + myNum2);

}

**Java Scope**

In Java, variables are only accessible inside the region they are created. This is called **scope**.

**Method Scope**

Variables declared directly inside a method are available anywhere in the method following the line of code in which they were declared:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Code here CANNOT use x

int x = 100;

// Code here can use x

System.out.println(x);

}

}

## Block Scope

A block of code refers to all of the code between curly braces {}. Variables declared inside blocks of code are only accessible by the code between the curly braces, which follows the line in which the variable was declared:

**Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Code here CANNOT use x

{ // This is a block

// Code here CANNOT use x

int x = 100;

// Code here CAN use x

System.out.println(x);

} // The block ends here

// Code here CANNOT use x

}

}

A block of code may exist on its own or it can belong to an if, while or for statement. In the case of for statements, variables declared in the statement itself are also available inside the block's scope.

## Java Recursion

Recursion is the technique of making a function call itself. This technique provides a way to break complicated problems down into simple problems which are easier to solve.

Recursion may be a bit difficult to understand. The best way to figure out how it works is to experiment with it.

**Recursion Example**

Recursion is call the method it self. Adding two numbers together is easy to do, but adding a range of numbers is more complicated. In the following example, recursion is used to add a range of numbers together by breaking it down into the simple task of adding two numbers:

**Example**

Use recursion to add all of the numbers up to 10.

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

int result = sum(10);

System.out.println(result);

}

public static int sum(int k) {

if (k > 0) {

return k + sum(k - 1);

} else {

return 0;

}

}

}

### **Example Explained**

When the sum() function is called, it adds parameter k to the sum of all numbers smaller than k and returns the result. When k becomes 0, the function just returns 0. When running, the program follows these steps:

10 + sum(9)  
10 + ( 9 + sum(8) )  
10 + ( 9 + ( 8 + sum(7) ) )  
...  
10 + 9 + 8 + 7 + 6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + sum(0)  
10 + 9 + 8 + 7 + 6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 0

Since the function does not call itself when k is 0, the program stops there and returns the result.

**Halting Condition**

Just as loops can run into the problem of infinite looping, recursive functions can run into the problem of infinite recursion. Infinite recursion is when the function never stops calling itself. Every recursive function should have a halting condition, which is the condition where the function stops calling itself. In the previous example, the halting condition is when the parameter k becomes 0.

It is helpful to see a variety of different examples to better understand the concept. In this example, the function adds a range of numbers between a start and an end. The halting condition for this recursive function is when **end** is not greater than **start**:

**Example**

Use recursion to add all of the numbers between 5 to 10.

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

int result = sum(5, 10);

System.out.println(result);

}

public static int sum(int start, int end) {

if (end > start) {

return end + sum(start, end - 1);

} else {

return end;

}

}

}

Java - What is OOP?

OOP stands for **Object-Oriented Programming**.

Procedural programming is about writing procedures or methods that perform operations on the data, while object-oriented programming is about creating objects that contain both data and methods.

Object-oriented programming has several advantages over procedural programming:

* OOP is faster and easier to execute
* OOP provides a clear structure for the programs
* OOP helps to keep the Java code DRY "Don't Repeat Yourself", and makes the code easier to maintain, modify and debug
* OOP makes it possible to create full reusable applications with less code and shorter development time.

**Tip:** The "Don't Repeat Yourself" (DRY) principle is about reducing the repetition of code. You should extract out the codes that are common for the application, and place them at a single place and reuse them instead of repeating it.

Java - What are Classes and Objects?

Classes and objects are the two main aspects of object-oriented programming.

Look at the following illustration to see the difference between class and objects:

class

Fruit

objects

Apple

Banana

Mango

Another example:

class

Car

objects

Volvo

Audi

Toyota

So, a class is a template for objects, and an object is an instance of a class.

When the individual objects are created, they inherit all the variables and methods from the class.

You will learn much more about [classes and objects](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_classes.asp) in the next chapter.

## Java Classes/Objects

Java is an object-oriented programming language.

Everything in Java is associated with classes and objects, along with its attributes and methods. For example: in real life, a car is an object. The car has **attributes**, such as weight and color, and **methods**, such as drive and brake.

A Class is like an object constructor, or a "blueprint" for creating objects.

## Create a Class

To create a class, use the keyword class:

### **Main.java**

Create a class named "Main" with a variable x:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

}

Remember from the [Java Syntax chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_syntax.asp) that a class should always start with an uppercase first letter, and that the name of the java file should match the class name.

## Create an Object

In Java, an object is created from a class. We have already created the class named MyClass, so now we can use this to create objects.

To create an object of MyClass, specify the class name, followed by the object name, and use the keyword new:

### **Example**

Create an object called "myObj" and print the value of x:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main **myObj** = new Main();

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

Dfyk.

**Wrapper classes in Java**

The **wrapper class in Java** provides the mechanism to convert primitive into object and object into primitive.

**Recursion in Java**

Recursion in java is a process in which a method calls itself continuously. A method in java that calls itself is called recursive method.

It makes the code compact but complex to understand.

**returntype methodname()**{

//code to be executed

methodname();//calling same method

}

**Java Recursion Example 1: Infinite times**

**public** **class** RecursionExample1 {

**static** **void** p( ){

System.out.println("hello");

p( );

}

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

p( );

}

}

**Java Recursion Example 2: Finite times**

**public** **class** RecursionExample2 {

**static** **int** count=0;

**static** **void** p( ){

count++;

**if**(count<=5){

System.out.println("hello "+count);

p( );

}

}

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

p( );

}

}

**Call by Value and Call by Reference in Java**

There is only call by value in java, not call by reference. If we call a method passing a value, it is known as call by value. The changes being done in the called method, is not affected in the calling method.

**Example of call by value in java**

In case of call by value original value is not changed. Let's take a simple example:

**class** Operation{

**int** data=50;

**void** change(**int** data){

 data=data+100; //changes will be in the local variable only

 }

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

   Operation op=**new** Operation();

   System.out.println("before change "+op.data);

   op.change(500);

   System.out.println("after change "+op.data);

   }

}

**Output:**

**before change 50**

**after change 50**

**: In case of call by reference original value is changed if we made changes in the called method.**

**class** Operation2{

**int** data=50;

**void** change(Operation2 op){

 op.data=op.data+100; //changes will be in the instance variable

 }

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

   Operation2 op=**new** Operation2();

   System.out.println("before change "+op.data);

   op.change(op);//passing object

   System.out.println("after change "+op.data);

 }

}

**Output:**

**before change 50**

**after change 150**

## Multiple Objects

You can create multiple objects of one class:

### **Example**

Create two objects of Main:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main **myObj1** = new Main(); // Object 1

Main **myObj2** = new Main(); // Object 2

System.out.println(myObj1.x);

System.out.println(myObj2.x);

}

}

## Using Multiple Classes

You can also create an object of a class and access it in another class. This is often used for better organization of classes (one class has all the attributes and methods, while the other class holds the main() method (code to be executed)).

Remember that the name of the java file should match the class name. In this example, we have created two files in the same directory/folder:

* Main.java
* Second.java

#### **Main.java**

public class Main {

int x = 5;

}

#### **Second.java**

class Second {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main **myObj** = new Main();

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

When both files have been compiled:

C:\Users\Your Name>javac Main.java  
C:\Users\Your Name>javac Second.java

Run the Second.java file:

C:\Users\Your Name>java Second

And the output will be:

5

You will learn much more about classes and objects in the next chapters.

## Java Class Attributes

In the previous chapter, we used the term "variable" for x in the example (as shown below). It is actually an **attribute** of the class. Or you could say that class attributes are variables within a class:

### **Example**

Create a class called "Main" with two attributes: x and y:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

int y = 3;

}

Another term for class attributes is **fields**.

## Accessing Attributes

You can access attributes by creating an object of the class, and by using the dot syntax (.):

The following example will create an object of the Main class, with the name myObj. We use the x attribute on the object to print its value:

### **Example**

Create an object called "myObj" and print the value of x:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

## Modify Attributes

You can also modify attribute values:

### **Example**

Set the value of x to 40:

public class Main {

int x;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

myObj.x = 40;

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

Or override existing values:

**Example**

Change the value of x to 25:

public class Main {

int x = 10;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

myObj.x = 25; // x is now 25

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

If you don't want the ability to override existing values, declare the attribute as final:

### **Example**

public class Main {

**final** int x = 10;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

myObj.x = 25; // will generate an error: cannot assign a value to a **final** variable

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

The final keyword is useful when you want a variable to always store the same value, like PI (3.14159...).

The final keyword is called a "modifier". You will learn more about these in the [Java Modifiers Chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_modifiers.asp).

## Multiple Objects

If you create multiple objects of one class, you can change the attribute values in one object, without affecting the attribute values in the other:

**Example**

Change the value of x to 25 in myObj2, and leave x in myObj1 unchanged:

public class Main {

int x = 5;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj1 = new Main(); // Object 1

Main myObj2 = new Main(); // Object 2

myObj2.x = 25;

System.out.println(myObj1.x); // Outputs 5

System.out.println(myObj2.x); // Outputs 25

}

}

## Multiple Attributes

You can specify as many attributes as you want:

### **Example**

public class Main {

String fname = "John";

String lname = "Doe";

int age = 24;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

System.out.println("Name: " + myObj.fname + " " + myObj.lname);

System.out.println("Age: " + myObj.age);

}

}

The next chapter will teach you how to create class methods and how to access them with objects.

## Java Class Methods

You learned from the [Java Methods](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_methods.asp) chapter that methods are declared within a class, and that they are used to perform certain actions:

### **Example**

Create a method named myMethod() in Main:

public class Main {

static void myMethod() {

System.out.println("Hello World!");

}

}

myMethod() prints a text (the action), when it is **called**. To call a method, write the method's name followed by two parentheses **()** and a semicolon**;**

### **Example**

Inside main, call myMethod():

public class Main {

static void myMethod() {

System.out.println("Hello World!");

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

myMethod();

}

}

// Outputs "Hello World!"

**Static vs. Non-Static**

You will often see Java programs that have either static or public attributes and methods.

In the example above, we created a static method, which means that it can be accessed without creating an object of the class, unlike public, which can only be accessed by objects:

### **Example**

An example to demonstrate the differences between static and public **methods**:

public class Main {

// Static method

static void myStaticMethod() {

System.out.println("Static methods can be called without creating objects");

}

// Public method

public void myPublicMethod() {

System.out.println("Public methods must be called by creating objects");

}

// Main method

public static void main(String[] args) {

myStaticMethod(); // Call the static method

// myPublicMethod(); This would compile an error

Main myObj = new Main(); // Create an object of Main

myObj.myPublicMethod(); // Call the public method on the object

}}

**Note:** You will learn more about these keywords (called modifiers) in the [Java Modifiers](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_modifiers.asp) chapter.

## Access Methods With an Object

### **Example**

Create a Car object named myCar. Call the fullThrottle() and speed() methods on the myCar object, and run the program:

// Create a Main class

public class Main {

// Create a fullThrottle() method

public void fullThrottle() {

System.out.println("The car is going as fast as it can!");

}

// Create a speed() method and add a parameter

public void speed(int maxSpeed) {

System.out.println("Max speed is: " + maxSpeed);

}

// Inside main, call the methods on the myCar object

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myCar = new Main(); // Create a myCar object

myCar.fullThrottle(); // Call the fullThrottle() method

myCar.speed(200); // Call the speed() method

}

}

// The car is going as fast as it can!

// Max speed is: 200

### **Example explained**

1) We created a custom Main class with the class keyword.

2) We created the fullThrottle() and speed() methods in the Main class.

3) The fullThrottle() method and the speed() method will print out some text, when they are called.

4) The speed() method accepts an int parameter called maxSpeed - we will use this in **8)**.

5) In order to use the Main class and its methods, we need to create an **object** of the Main Class.

6) Then, go to the main() method, which you know by now is a built-in Java method that runs your program (any code inside main is executed).

7) By using the new keyword we created an object with the name myCar.

8) Then, we call the fullThrottle() and speed() methods on the myCar object, and run the program using the name of the object (myCar), followed by a dot (.), followed by the name of the method (fullThrottle(); and speed(200);). Notice that we add an int parameter of **200** inside the speed() method.

### **Remember that..**

The dot (.) is used to access the object's attributes and methods.

To call a method in Java, write the method name followed by a set of parentheses **()**, followed by a semicolon (;).

A class must have a matching filename (Main and **Main.java**).

**Using Multiple Classes**

Like we specified in the [Classes chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_classes.asp), it is a good practice to create an object of a class and access it in another class.

Remember that the name of the java file should match the class name. In this example, we have created two files in the same directory:

* Main.java
* Second.java

#### **Main.java**

public class Main {

public void fullThrottle() {

System.out.println("The car is going as fast as it can!");

}

public void speed(int maxSpeed) {

System.out.println("Max speed is: " + maxSpeed);

}

}

#### **Second.java**

class Second {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myCar = new Main(); // Create a myCar object

myCar.fullThrottle(); // Call the fullThrottle() method

myCar.speed(200); // Call the speed() method

}

}

When both files have been compiled:

C:\Users\Your Name>javac Main.java  
C:\Users\Your Name>javac Second.java

Run the Second.java file:

C:\Users\Your Name>java Second

And the output will be:

The car is going as fast as it can!  
Max speed is: 200

## Java Constructors

A constructor in Java is a **special method** that is used to initialize objects. The constructor is called when an object of a class is created. It can be used to set initial values for object attributes:

### **Example**

Create a constructor:

// Create a Main class

public class Main {

int x; // Create a class attribute

// Create a **class constructor** for the Main class

public Main() {

x = 5; // Set the initial value for the class attribute x

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main(); // Create an object of class Main (This will **call the constructor**)

System.out.println(myObj.x); // Print the value of x

}

}

// Outputs 5

Note that the constructor name must **match the class name**, and it cannot have a **return type** (like void).

Also note that the constructor is called when the object is created.

All classes have constructors by default: if you do not create a class constructor yourself, Java creates one for you. However, then you are not able to set initial values for object attributes.

## Constructor Parameters

Constructors can also take parameters, which is used to initialize attributes.

The following example adds an int y parameter to the constructor. Inside the constructor we set x to y (x=y). When we call the constructor, we pass a parameter to the constructor (5), which will set the value of x to 5:

### **Example**

public class Main {

int x;

public Main(int y) {

x = y;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main(5);

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

// Outputs 5

You can have as many parameters as you want:

### **Example**

public class Main {

int modelYear;

String modelName;

public Main(int year, String name) {

modelYear = year;

modelName = name;

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myCar = new Main(1969, "Mustang");

System.out.println(myCar.modelYear + " " + myCar.modelName);

}

}

// Outputs 1969 Mustang

## Modifiers

By now, you are quite familiar with the public keyword that appears in almost all of our examples:

**public** class Main

The public keyword is an **access modifier**, meaning that it is used to set the access level for classes, attributes, methods and constructors.

We divide modifiers into two groups:

* **Access Modifiers** - controls the access level
* **Non-Access Modifiers** - do not control access level, but provides other functionality

## Access Modifiers

For **classes**, you can use either public or default:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Modifier** | **Description** | **Try it** |
| public | The class is accessible by any other class | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_mod_public) |
| default | The class is only accessible by classes in the same package. This is used when you don't specify a modifier. You will learn more about packages in the [Packages chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp) |  |

For **attributes, methods and constructors**, you can use the one of the following:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Modifier** | **Description** | **Try it** |
| public | The code is accessible for all classes | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava_multi.asp?filename=demo_mod_public2&multi=demo_mod_public2_multi) |
| private | The code is only accessible within the declared class | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_access_mod) |
| default | The code is only accessible in the same package. This is used when you don't specify a modifier. You will learn more  about packages in the [Packages chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp) | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_mod_default2) |
| protected | The code is accessible in the same package and **subclasses**.  Code can be accessible from outside of the package but must be inheritted. | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_mod_protected) |

## Non-Access Modifiers

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| For **classes**, you can use either final or abstract:**Modifier** | **Description** | **Try it** |
| final | The class cannot be inherited by other classes. But can be an object. | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_inherit_final) |
| abstract | The class cannot be used to create objects (To access an abstract class, it must be inherited from  another class. | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava_multi.asp?filename=demo_mod_abstract&multi=demo_mod_abstract_multi) |

For **attributes and methods**, you can use the one of the following:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Modifier** | **Description** |
| final | Attributes and methods cannot be overridden/modified |
| static | Attributes and methods belongs to the class, rather than an object |
| abstract | Can only be used in an abstract class, and can only be used on methods. The method does not have a body,  for example **abstract void run();**. The body is provided by the subclass (inherited from). |
| transient | Attributes and methods are skipped when serializing the object containing them |
| synchronized | Methods can only be accessed by one thread at a time |
| volatile | The value of an attribute is not cached thread-locally, and is always read from the "main memory" |

## Final

If you don't want the ability to override existing attribute values, declare attributes as final:

### **Example**

public class Main {

**final** int x = 10;

**final** double PI = 3.14;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main myObj = new Main();

myObj.x = 50; // will generate an error: cannot assign a value to a **final** variable

myObj.PI = 25; // will generate an error: cannot assign a value to a **final** variable

System.out.println(myObj.x);

}

}

## Static

A static method means that it can be accessed without creating an object of the class, unlike public:

### **Example**

An example to demonstrate the differences between static and public methods:

public class Main {

// Static method

static void myStaticMethod() {

System.out.println("Static methods can be called without creating objects");

}

// Public method

public void myPublicMethod() {

System.out.println("Public methods must be called by creating objects");

}

// Main method

public static void main(String[ ] args) {

myStaticMethod(); // Call the static method

// myPublicMethod(); This would output an error

Main myObj = new Main(); // Create an object of Main

myObj.myPublicMethod(); // Call the public method

}

}

## Abstract

An abstract method belongs to an abstract class, and it does not have a body. The body is provided by the subclass:

### **Example**

// Code from filename: Main.java

// abstract class  
abstract class Main{

public String fname = "John";

public int age = 24;

public **abstract** void study(); // abstract method

}

// Subclass (inherit from Main)

class Student extends Main {

public int graduationYear = 2018;

public void study() { // the body of the abstract method is provided here

System.out.println("Studying all day long");

}

}

// End code from filename: Main.java

// Code from filename: Second.java

class Second {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// create an object of the Student class (which inherits attributes and methods from Main)

Student myObj = new Student();

System.out.println("Name: " + myObj.fname);

System.out.println("Age: " + myObj.age);

System.out.println("Graduation Year: " + myObj.graduationYear);

myObj.study(); // call abstract method  
 }

}

## Encapsulation

The meaning of **Encapsulation**, is to make sure that "sensitive" data is hidden from users. To achieve this, you must:

* declare class variables/attributes as private
* provide public **get** and **set** methods to access and update the value of a private variable

## Get and Set

You learned from the previous chapter that private variables can only be accessed within the same class (an outside class has no access to it). However, it is possible to access them if we provide public **get** and **set** methods.

The get method returns the variable value, and the set method sets the value.

Syntax for both is that they start with either get or set, followed by the name of the variable, with the first letter in upper case:

**Example**

public class Person {

private String name; // private = restricted access

// Getter

public String getName() {

return name;

}

// Setter

public void setName(String newName) {

this.name = newName;

}

}

#### **Example explained**

The get method returns the value of the variable name.

The set method takes a parameter (newName) and assigns it to the name variable. The this keyword is used to refer to the current object.

However, as the name variable is declared as private, we **cannot** access it from outside this class:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Person p = new Person();

p.name = "John"; // error

System.out.println(p.name); // error

}

}

If the variable was declared as public, we would expect the following output:

John

However, as we try to access a private variable, we get an error:

MyClass.java:4: error: name has private access in Person  
    myObj.name = "John";  
         ^  
MyClass.java:5: error: name has private access in Person  
    System.out.println(myObj.name);  
                  ^  
2 errors

Instead, we use the getName() and setName() methods to access and update the variable:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Person p = new Person();

p.setName("John"); // Set the value of the name variable to "John"

System.out.println(p.getName());

}

}

// Outputs "John"

## Why Encapsulation?

* Better control of class attributes and methods
* Class attributes can be made **read-only** (if you only use the get method), or **write-only** (if you only use the set method)
* Flexible: the programmer can change one part of the code without affecting other parts
* Increased security of data

## Java Packages & API

A package in Java is used to group related classes. Think of it as **a folder in a file directory**. We use packages to avoid name conflicts, and to write a better maintainable code. Packages are divided into two categories:

* Built-in Packages (packages from the Java API)
* User-defined Packages (create your own packages)

## Built-in Packages

The Java API is a library of prewritten classes, that are free to use, included in the Java Development Environment.

The library contains components for managing input, database programming, and much much more. The complete list can be found at Oracles website: <https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/api/>.

The library is divided into **packages** and **classes**. Meaning you can either import a single class (along with its methods and attributes), or a whole package that contain all the classes that belong to the specified package.

To use a class or a package from the library, you need to use the import keyword:

### **Syntax**

import package.name.Class; // Import a single class

import package.name.\*; // Import the whole package

## Import a Class

If you find a class you want to use, for example, the Scanner class, **which is used to get user input**, write the following code:

### **Example**

import java.util.Scanner;

In the example above, java.util is a package, while Scanner is a class of the java.util package.

To use the Scanner class, create an object of the class and use any of the available methods found in the Scanner class documentation. In our example, we will use the nextLine() method, which is used to read a complete line:

### **Example**

Using the Scanner class to get user input:

import java.util.Scanner;

class MyClass {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);

System.out.println("Enter username");

String userName = myObj.nextLine();

System.out.println("Username is: " + userName);

}

}

## Import a Package

There are many packages to choose from. In the previous example, we used the Scanner class from the java.util package. This package also contains date and time facilities, random-number generator and other utility classes.

To import a whole package, end the sentence with an asterisk sign (\*). The following example will import ALL the classes in the java.util package:

### **Example**

import java.util.\*;

## User-defined Packages

To create your own package, you need to understand that Java uses a file system directory to store them. Just like folders on your computer:

### **Example**

└── root

└── mypack

└── MyPackageClass.java

To create a package, use the package keyword:

### **MyPackageClass.java**

package mypack;

class MyPackageClass {

public static void main(String[] args) {

System.out.println("This is my package!");

}

}

Save the file as **MyPackageClass.java**, and compile it:

C:\Users\Your Name>javac MyPackageClass.java

Then compile the package:

C:\Users\Your Name>javac -d . MyPackageClass.java

This forces the compiler to create the "mypack" package.

The -d keyword specifies the destination for where to save the class file. You can use any directory name, like c:/user (windows), or, if you want to keep the package within the same directory, you can use the dot sign ".", like in the example above.

**Note:** The package name should be written in lower case to avoid conflict with class names.

When we compiled the package in the example above, a new folder was created, called "mypack".

To run the **MyPackageClass.java** file, write the following:

C:\Users\Your Name>java mypack.MyPackageClass

The output will be:

This is my package!

## Java Inheritance (Subclass and Superclass)

In Java, it is possible to inherit attributes and methods from one class to another. We group the "inheritance concept" into two categories:

* **subclass** (child) - the class that inherits from another class
* **superclass** (parent) - the class being inherited from

To inherit from a class, use the extends keyword.

In the example below, the Car class (subclass) inherits the attributes and methods from the Vehicle class (superclass):

### **Example**

class Vehicle {

protected String brand = "Ford"; // Vehicle attribute

public void honk() { // Vehicle method

System.out.println("Tuut, tuut!");

}

}

class Car extends Vehicle {

private String modelName = "Mustang"; // Car attribute

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Create a myCar object

Car myCar = new Car();

// Call the honk() method (from the Vehicle class) on the myCar object

myCar.honk();

// Display the value of the brand attribute (from the Vehicle class) and the value of the modelName from the Car class

System.out.println(myCar.brand + " " + myCar.modelName);

}

}

Did you notice the protected modifier in Vehicle?

We set the **brand** attribute in **Vehicle** to a protected [access modifier](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_modifiers.asp). If it was set to private, the Car class would not be able to access it.

**Why And When To Use "Inheritance"?**

- It is useful for code reusability: reuse attributes and methods of an existing class when you create a new class.

**Tip:** Also take a look at the next chapter, [Polymorphism](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_polymorphism.asp), which uses inherited methods to perform different tasks.

**The final Keyword**

If you don't want other classes to inherit from a class, use the final keyword:

If you try to access a final class, Java will generate an error:

final class Vehicle {

...

}

class Car extends Vehicle {

...

}

The output will be something like this:

Main.java:9: error: cannot inherit from final Vehicle  
class Main extends Vehicle {  
                  ^  
1 error)

## Java Polymorphism

Polymorphism means "many forms", and it occurs when we have many classes that are related to each other by inheritance.

Like we specified in the previous chapter; [**Inheritance**](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_inheritance.asp) lets us inherit attributes and methods from another class. **Polymorphism** uses those methods to perform different tasks. This allows us to perform a single action in different ways.

For example, think of a superclass called Animal that has a method called animalSound(). Subclasses of Animals could be Pigs, Cats, Dogs, Birds - And they also have their own implementation of an animal sound (the pig oinks, and the cat meows, etc.):

Remember from the [Inheritance chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_inheritance.asp) that we use the extends keyword to inherit from a class.

Now we can create Pig and Dog objects and call the animalSound() method on both of them:

### **Example**

class Animal {

public void animalSound() {

System.out.println("The animal makes a sound");

}

}

class Pig extends Animal {

public void animalSound() {

System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");

}

}

class Dog extends Animal {

public void animalSound() {

System.out.println("The dog says: bow wow");

}

}

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Animal myAnimal = new Animal(); // Create a Animal object

Animal myPig = new Pig(); // Create a Pig object

Animal myDog = new Dog(); // Create a Dog object

myAnimal.animalSound();

myPig.animalSound();

myDog.animalSound();

}

}

#### **Why And When To Use "Inheritance" and "Polymorphism"?**

- It is useful for code reusability: reuse attributes and methods of an existing class when you create a new class.

## Java Inner Classes

In Java, it is also possible to nest classes (a class within a class). The purpose of nested classes is to group classes that belong together, which makes your code more readable and maintainable.

To access the inner class, create an object of the outer class, and then create an object of the inner class:

**Example**

class OuterClass {

int x = 10;

class InnerClass {

int y = 5;

}

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();

OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();

System.out.println(myInner.y + myOuter.x);

}

}

// Outputs 15 (5 + 10)

## Private Inner Class

Unlike a "regular" class, an inner class can be private or protected. If you don't want outside objects to access the inner class, declare the class as private:

**Example**

class OuterClass {

int x = 10;

**private** class InnerClass {

int y = 5;

}

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();

OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();

System.out.println(myInner.y + myOuter.x);

}

}

If you try to access a private inner class from an outside class (MyMainClass), an error occurs:

Main.java:13: error: OuterClass.InnerClass has private access in OuterClass  
    OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();  
              ^

## Static Inner Class

An inner class can also be static, which means that you can access it without creating an object of the outer class:

### **Example**

class OuterClass {

int x = 10;

static class InnerClass {

int y = 5;

}

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = new OuterClass.InnerClass();

System.out.println(myInner.y);

}

}

// Outputs 5

**Note:** just like static attributes and methods, a static inner class does not have access to members of the outer class.

## Access Outer Class From Inner Class

One advantage of inner classes, is that they can access attributes and methods of the outer class:

### **Example**

class OuterClass {

int x = 10;

class InnerClass {

public int myInnerMethod() {

return x;

}

}

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();

OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();

System.out.println(myInner.myInnerMethod());

}

}

// Outputs 10

.

**Java Abstraction**

**Abstract Classes and Methods**

Data **abstraction** is the process of hiding certain details and showing only essential information to the user.  
Abstraction can be achieved with either **abstract classes** or [**interfaces**](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_interface.asp) (which you will learn more about in the next chapter).

The abstract keyword is a non-access modifier, used for classes and methods:

* **Abstract class:** is a restricted class that cannot be used to create objects (to access it, it must be inherited from another class).
* **Abstract method:** can only be used in an abstract class, and it does not have a body. The body is provided by the subclass (inherited from).

An abstract class can have both abstract and regular methods:

abstract class Animal {

public abstract void animalSound();

public void sleep() {

System.out.println("Zzz");

}

}

From the example above, it is not possible to create an object of the Animal class:

Animal myObj = new Animal(); // will generate an error

To access the abstract class, it must be inherited from another class. Let's convert the Animal class we used in the [Polymorphism](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_polymorphism.asp) chapter to an abstract class:

Remember from the [Inheritance chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_inheritance.asp) that we use the extends keyword to inherit from a class.

**Example**

// Abstract class

abstract class Animal {

// Abstract method (does not have a body)

public abstract void animalSound();

// Regular method

public void sleep() {

System.out.println("Zzz");

}

}

// Subclass (inherit from Animal)

class Pig extends Animal {

public void animalSound() {

// The body of animalSound() is provided here

System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");

}

}

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Pig myPig = new Pig(); // Create a Pig object

myPig.animalSound();

myPig.sleep();

}

}

#### **Why And When To Use Abstract Classes and Methods?**

To achieve security - hide certain details and only show the important details of an object.

**Note:** Abstraction can also be achieved with [Interfaces](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_interface.asp), which you will learn more about in the next chapter.

## Interfaces

Another way to achieve [abstraction](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_abstract.asp) in Java, is with interfaces.

An interface is a completely "**abstract class**" that is used to group related methods with empty bodies:

### **Example**

// interface

interface Animal {

public void animalSound(); // interface method (does not have a body)

public void run(); // interface method (does not have a body)

}

To access the interface methods, the interface must be "implemented" (kinda like inherited) by another class with the implements keyword (instead of extends). The body of the interface method is provided by the "implement" class:

### **Example**

// Interface

interface Animal {

public void animalSound(); // interface method (does not have a body)

public void sleep(); // interface method (does not have a body)

}

// Pig "implements" the Animal interface

class Pig implements Animal {

public void animalSound() {

// The body of animalSound() is provided here

System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");

}

public void sleep() {

// The body of sleep() is provided here

System.out.println("Zzz");

}

}

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Pig myPig = new Pig(); // Create a Pig object

myPig.animalSound();

myPig.sleep();

}

}

#### **Notes on Interfaces:**

* Like **abstract classes**, interfaces **cannot** be used to create objects (in the example above, it is not possible to create an "Animal" object in the MyMainClass)
* Interface methods do not have a body - the body is provided by the "implement" class
* On implementation of an interface, you must override all of its methods
* Interface methods are by default  public and  abstract
* Interface attributes are by default public, static and final
* An interface cannot contain a constructor (as it cannot be used to create objects)

#### **Why And When To Use Interfaces?**

1) To achieve security - hide certain details and only show the important details of an object (interface).

2) Java does not support "multiple inheritance" (a class can only inherit from one superclass). However, it can be achieved with interfaces, because the class can **implement** multiple interfaces. **Note:** To implement multiple interfaces, separate them with a comma (see example below).

## Multiple Interfaces

To implement multiple interfaces, separate them with a comma:

### **Example**

interface FirstInterface {

public void myMethod(); // interface method

}

interface SecondInterface {

public void myOtherMethod(); // interface method

}

class DemoClass implements FirstInterface, SecondInterface {

public void myMethod() {

System.out.println("Some text..");

}

public void myOtherMethod() {

System.out.println("Some other text...");

}

}

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

DemoClass myObj = new DemoClass();

myObj.myMethod();

myObj.myOtherMethod();

}

}

## Enums

An enum is a special "class" that represents a group of **constants** (unchangeable variables, like final variables).

To create an enum, use the enum keyword (instead of class or interface), and separate the constants with a comma. Note that they should be in uppercase letters:

### **Example**

enum Level {

LOW,

MEDIUM,

HIGH

}

You can access enum constants with the **dot** syntax:

Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;

**Enum** is short for "enumerations", which means "specifically listed".

## Enum inside a Class

You can also have an enum inside a class:

### **Example**

public class Main {

enum Level {

LOW,

MEDIUM,

HIGH

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;

System.out.println(myVar);

}

}

The output will be:

MEDIUM

## Enum in a Switch Statement

Enums are often used in switch statements to check for corresponding values:

### **Example**

enum Level {

LOW,

MEDIUM,

HIGH

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;

switch(myVar) {

case LOW:

System.out.println("Low level");

break;

case MEDIUM:

System.out.println("Medium level");

break;

case HIGH:

System.out.println("High level");

break;

}

}

}

The output will be:

Medium level

## Loop Through an Enum

The enum type has a values() method, which returns an array of all enum constants. This method is useful when you want to loop through the constants of an enum:

### **Example**

for (Level myVar : Level.values()) {

System.out.println(myVar);

}

The output will be:

LOW  
MEDIUM  
HIGH

#### **Difference between Enums and Classes**

An enum can, just like a class, have attributes and methods. The only difference is that enum constants are public, static and final (unchangeable - cannot be overridden).

An enum cannot be used to create objects, and it cannot extend other classes (but it can implement interfaces).

#### **Why And When To Use Enums?**

Use enums when you have values that you know aren't going to change, like month days, days, colors, deck of cards, etc.

## Java User Input

The Scanner class is used to get user input, and it is found in the java.util package.

To use the Scanner class, create an object of the class and use any of the available methods found in the Scanner class documentation. In our example, we will use the nextLine() method, which is used to read Strings:

### **Example**

import java.util.Scanner; // Import the Scanner class

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in); // Create a Scanner object

System.out.println("Enter username");

String userName = myObj.nextLine(); // Read user input

System.out.println("Username is: " + userName); // Output user input

}

}

If you don't know what a package is, read our [Java Packages Tutorial](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp).

## Input Types

In the example above, we used the nextLine() method, which is used to read Strings. To read other types, look at the table below:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Description** |
| nextBoolean() | Reads a boolean value from the user |
| nextByte() | Reads a byte value from the user |
| nextDouble() | Reads a double value from the user |
| nextFloat() | Reads a float value from the user |
| nextInt() | Reads a int value from the user |
| nextLine() | Reads a String value from the user |
| nextLong() | Reads a long value from the user |
| nextShort() | Reads a short value from the user |

In the example below, we use different methods to read data of various types:

**Example**

import java.util.Scanner;

class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);

System.out.println("Enter name, age and salary:");

// String input

String name = myObj.nextLine();

// Numerical input

int age = myObj.nextInt();

double salary = myObj.nextDouble();

// Output input by user

System.out.println("Name: " + name);

System.out.println("Age: " + age);

System.out.println("Salary: " + salary);

}

}

**Note:** If you enter wrong input (e.g. text in a numerical input), you will get an exception/error message (like "InputMismatchException").

You can read more about exceptions and how to handle errors in the [Exceptions chapter](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_try_catch.asp).

# **Java Date and Time**

## Java Dates

Java does not have a built-in Date class, but we can import the java.time package to work with the date and time API. The package includes many date and time classes. For example:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Class** | **Description** |
| LocalDate | Represents a date (year, month, day (yyyy-MM-dd)) |
| LocalTime | Represents a time (hour, minute, second and nanoseconds (HH-mm-ss-ns)) |
| LocalDateTime | Represents both a date and a time (yyyy-MM-dd-HH-mm-ss-ns) |
| DateTimeFormatter | Formatter for displaying and parsing date-time objects |

If you don't know what a package is, read our [Java Packages Tutorial](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp).

## Display Current Date

To display the current date, import the java.time.LocalDate class, and use its now() method:

### **Example**

import java.time.LocalDate; // import the LocalDate class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

LocalDate myObj = LocalDate.now(); // Create a date object

System.out.println(myObj); // Display the current date

}

}

The output will be:

2021-04-15

## Display Current Time

To display the current time (hour, minute, second, and nanoseconds), import the java.time.LocalTime class, and use its now() method:

### **Example**

import java.time.LocalTime; // import the LocalTime class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

LocalTime myObj = LocalTime.now();

System.out.println(myObj);

}

}

The output will be:

17:34:00.467105

## Display Current Date and Time

To display the current date and time, import the java.time.LocalDateTime class, and use its now() method:

### **Example**

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // import the LocalDateTime class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

LocalDateTime myObj = LocalDateTime.now();

System.out.println(myObj);

}

}

The output will be:

2021-04-15T17:34:00.496717

## Formatting Date and Time

The "T" in the example above is used to separate the date from the time. You can use the DateTimeFormatter class with the ofPattern() method in the same package to format or parse date-time objects. The following example will remove both the "T" and nanoseconds from the date-time:

### **Example**

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class

import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();

System.out.println("Before formatting: " + myDateObj);

DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("dd-MM-yyyy HH:mm:ss");

String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj);

System.out.println("After formatting: " + formattedDate);

}

}

The output will be:

Before Formatting: 2021-04-15T17:34:00.496146  
After Formatting: 15-04-2021 17:34:00

The ofPattern() method accepts all sorts of values, if you want to display the date and time in a different format. For example:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Value** | **Example** | **Tryit** |
| *yyyy-MM-dd* | "1988-09-29" | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_date_format) |
| *dd/MM/yyyy* | "29/09/1988" | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_date_formatter1) |
| *dd-MMM-yyyy* | "29-Sep-1988" | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_date_formatter2) |
| *E, MMM dd yyyy* | "Thu, Sep 29 1988" |  |

## Java ArrayList

The ArrayList class is a resizable [array](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arrays.asp), which can be found in the java.util package.

The difference between a built-in array and an ArrayList in Java, is that the size of an array cannot be modified (if you want to add or remove elements to/from an array, you have to create a new one). While elements can be added and removed from an ArrayList whenever you want. The syntax is also slightly different:

**Example**

Create an ArrayList object called **cars** that will store strings:

import java.util.ArrayList; // import the ArrayList class

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>(); // Create an ArrayList object

If you don't know what a package is, read our [Java Packages Tutorial](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp).

## Add Items

The ArrayList class has many useful methods. For example, to add elements to the ArrayList, use the add() method:

### **Example**

import java.util.ArrayList;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

System.out.println(cars);

}

}

## Access an Item

To access an element in the ArrayList, use the get() method and refer to the index number:

### **Example**

cars.get(0);

**Remember:** Array indexes start with 0: [0] is the first element. [1] is the second element, etc.

## Change an Item

To modify an element, use the set() method and refer to the index number:

### **Example**

cars.set(0, "Opel");

## Remove an Item

To remove an element, use the remove() method and refer to the index number:

### **Example**

cars.remove(0);

To remove all the elements in the ArrayList, use the clear() method:

### **Example**

cars.clear();

## ArrayList Size

To find out how many elements an ArrayList have, use the size method:

### **Example**

cars.size();

## Loop Through an ArrayList

Loop through the elements of an ArrayList with a for loop, and use the size() method to specify how many times the loop should run:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

for (int i = 0; i < cars.size(); i++) {

System.out.println(cars.get(i));

}

}

}

You can also loop through an ArrayList with the **for-each** loop:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

for (String i : cars) {

System.out.println(i);

}

}

}

## Other Types

Elements in an ArrayList are actually objects. In the examples above, we created elements (objects) of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent [wrapper class](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_wrapper_classes.asp): Integer. For other primitive types, use: Boolean for boolean, Character for char, Double for double, etc:

### **Example**

Create an ArrayList to store numbers (add elements of type Integer):

import java.util.ArrayList;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();

myNumbers.add(10);

myNumbers.add(15);

myNumbers.add(20);

myNumbers.add(25);

for (int i : myNumbers) {

System.out.println(i);

}

}

}

## Sort an ArrayList

Another useful class in the java.util package is the Collections class, which include the sort() method for sorting lists alphabetically or numerically:

### **Example**

Sort an ArrayList of Strings:

import java.util.ArrayList;

import java.util.Collections; // Import the Collections class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

Collections.sort(cars); // Sort cars

for (String i : cars) {

System.out.println(i);

}

}

}

### **Example**

Sort an ArrayList of Integers:

import java.util.ArrayList;

import java.util.Collections; // Import the Collections class

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();

myNumbers.add(33);

myNumbers.add(15);

myNumbers.add(20);

myNumbers.add(34);

myNumbers.add(8);

myNumbers.add(12);

Collections.sort(myNumbers); // Sort myNumbers

for (int i : myNumbers) {

System.out.println(i);

}

}

}

: how to create a copy of an Array and ArrayList ?

Any change in original will effect copy array, but change in copy will not effect original.

**int**[] array = {23, 43, 55, 12};

**int**[] copyArray = array.clone();

String[] array1 = {"jawad", "karim"};

String[] copy = array1.clone();

ArrayList<String> list1 = **new** ArrayList<String>();

list1.add("1");

list1.add("2");

ArrayList<String> copy = (ArrayList<String>) list1.clone();

System.***out***.println(copy.toString());

//join two arrayList in one

ArrayList<String> merge = **new** ArrayList<String>();

merge.addAll(list1);

merge.addAll(list2);

**Java LinkedList**

In the previous chapter, you learned about the [ArrayList](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arraylist.asp) class. The LinkedList class is almost identical to the ArrayList:

### **Example**

// Import the LinkedList class

import java.util.LinkedList;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

System.out.println(cars);

}

}

## ArrayList vs. LinkedList

The LinkedList class is a collection which can contain many objects of the same type, just like the ArrayList.

The LinkedList class has all of the same methods as the ArrayList class because they both implement the List interface. This means that you can add items, change items, remove items and clear the list in the same way.

However, while the ArrayList class and the LinkedList class can be used in the same way, they are built very differently.

**How the ArrayList works**

The ArrayList class has a regular array inside it. When an element is added, it is placed into the array. If the array is not big enough, a new, larger array is created to replace the old one and the old one is removed.

**How the LinkedList works**

The LinkedList stores its items in "containers." The list has a link to the first container and each container has a link to the next container in the list. To add an element to the list, the element is placed into a new container and that container is linked to one of the other containers in the list.

**When To Use**

It is best to use an ArrayList when:

* You want to access random items frequently
* You only need to add or remove elements at the end of the list

It is best to use a LinkedList when:

* You only use the list by looping through it instead of accessing random items.
* You frequently need to add and remove items from the beginning, middle or end of the list.

## LinkedList Methods

For many cases, the ArrayList is more efficient as it is common to need access to random items in the list, but the LinkedList provides several methods to do certain operations more efficiently:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Description** | **Try it** |
| addFirst() | Adds an item to the beginning of the list. | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_linkedlist_addfirst) |
| addLast() | Add an item to the end of the list | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_linkedlist_addlast) |
| removeFirst() | Remove an item from the beginning of the list. | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_linkedlist_removefirst) |
| removeLast() | Remove an item from the end of the list | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_linkedlist_removelast) |
| getFirst() | Get the item at the beginning of the list | [Try it »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/tryjava.asp?filename=demo_linkedlist_getfirst) |
| getLast() | Get the item at the end of the list |  |

## Java HashMap

In the [ArrayList](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arraylist.asp) chapter, you learned that Arrays store items as an ordered collection, and you have to access them with an index number (int type). A HashMap however, store items in "**key**/**value**" pairs, and you can access them by an index of another type (e.g. a String).

One object is used as a key (index) to another object (value). It can store different types: String keys and Integer values, or the same type, like: String keys and String values:

**Example**

Create a HashMap object called **capitalCities** that will store String **keys** and String **values**:

import java.util.HashMap; // import the HashMap class

HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();

## Add Items

The HashMap class has many useful methods. For example, to add items to it, use the put() method:

### **Example**

// Import the HashMap class

import java.util.HashMap;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Create a HashMap object called capitalCities

HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();

// Add keys and values (Country, City)

capitalCities.put("Bangladesh", "dhaka");

capitalCities.put("Finland", "Helsinki");

capitalCities.put("Australia", "Sidney");

capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");

System.out.println(capitalCities);

}

}

## Access an Item

To access a value in the HashMap, use the get() method and refer to its key:

**Example**

capitalCities.get("England");

## Remove an Item

To remove an item, use the remove() method and refer to the key:

**Example**

capitalCities.remove("England");

To remove all items, use the clear() method:

**Example**

capitalCities.clear();

## HashMap Size

To find out how many items there are, use the size() method:

**Example**

capitalCities.size();

## Loop Through a HashMap

Loop through the items of a HashMap with a **for-each** loop.

**Note:** Use the keySet() method if you only want the keys, and use the values() method if you only want the values:

### **Example**

// Print keys

for (String i : capitalCities.keySet()) {

System.out.println(i);

}

### **Example**

// Print values

for (String i : capitalCities.values()) {

System.out.println(i);

}

### **Example**

// Print keys and values

for (String i : capitalCities.keySet()) {

System.out.println("key: " + i + " value: " + capitalCities.get(i));

}

## Other Types

Keys and values in a HashMap are actually objects. In the examples above, we used objects of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent [wrapper class](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_wrapper_classes.asp): Integer. For other primitive types, use: Boolean for boolean, Character for char, Double for double, etc:

### **Example**

Create a HashMap object called **people** that will store String **keys** and Integer **values**:

// Import the HashMap class

import java.util.HashMap;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Create a HashMap object called people

HashMap<String, Integer> people = new HashMap<String, Integer>();

// Add keys and values (Name, Age)

people.put("John", 32);

people.put("Steve", 30);

people.put("Angie", 33);

for (String i : people.keySet()) {

System.out.println("key: " + i + " value: " + people.get(i));

}

}

}

**Java HashSet**

A HashSet is a collection of items where every item is unique, and it is found in the java.util package:

**Example**

Create a HashSet object called **cars** that will store strings:

import java.util.HashSet; // Import the HashSet class

HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();

**Add Items**

The HashSet class has many useful methods. For example, to add items to it, use the add() method:

**Example**

// Import the HashSet class

import java.util.HashSet;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Mazda");

System.out.println(cars);

}

}

**Note:** In the example above, even though BMW is added twice it only appears once in the set because every item in a set has to be unique.

**Check If an Item Exists**

To check whether an item exists in a HashSet, use the contains() method:

**Example**

cars.contains("Mazda");

**Remove an Item**

To remove an item, use the remove() method:

**Example**

cars.remove("Volvo");

To remove all items, use the clear() method:

### **Example**

cars.clear();

## HashSet Size

To find out how many items there are, use the size method:

**Example**

cars.size();

## Loop Through a HashSet

Loop through the items of an HashSet with a **for-each** loop:

### **Example**

for (String i : cars) {

System.out.println(i);

}

## Other Types

Items in an HashSet are actually objects. In the examples above, we created items (objects) of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent [wrapper class](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_wrapper_classes.asp): Integer. For other primitive types, use: Boolean for boolean, Character for char, Double for double, etc:

**Example**

Use a HashSet that stores Integer objects:

import java.util.HashSet;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Create a HashSet object called numbers

HashSet<Integer> numbers = new HashSet<Integer>();

// Add values to the set

numbers.add(4);

numbers.add(7);

numbers.add(8);

// Show which numbers between 1 and 10 are in the set

for(int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {

if(numbers.contains(i)) {

System.out.println(i + " was found in the set.");

} else {

System.out.println(i + " was not found in the set.");

}

}

}

}

## Java Iterator

An Iterator is an object that can be used to loop through collections, like [ArrayList](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_arraylist.asp) and [HashSet](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_hashset.asp). It is called an "iterator" because "iterating" is the technical term for looping.

To use an Iterator, you must import it from the java.util package.

## Getting an Iterator

The iterator() method can be used to get an Iterator for any collection:

**Example**

// Import the ArrayList class and the Iterator class

import java.util.ArrayList;

import java.util.Iterator;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

// Make a collection

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();

cars.add("Volvo");

cars.add("BMW");

cars.add("Ford");

cars.add("Mazda");

// Get the iterator

Iterator<String> it = cars.iterator();

// Print the first item

System.out.println(it.next());

}

}

## Looping Through a Collection

To loop through a collection, use the hasNext() and next() methods of the Iterator:

**Example**

while(it.hasNext()) {

System.out.println(it.next());

}

## Removing Items from a Collection

Iterators are designed to easily change the collections that they loop through. The remove() method can remove items from a collection while looping.

### **Example**

Use an iterator to remove numbers less than 10 from a collection:

import java.util.ArrayList;

import java.util.Iterator;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();

numbers.add(12);

numbers.add(8);

numbers.add(2);

numbers.add(23);

Iterator<Integer> it = numbers.iterator();

while(it.hasNext()) {

Integer i = it.next();

if(i < 10) {

it.remove();

}

}

System.out.println(numbers);

}

}

**Note:** Trying to remove items using a **for loop** or a **for-each loop** would not work correctly because the collection is changing size at the same time that the code is trying to loop.

**Java Wrapper Classes**

Wrapper classes provide a way to use primitive data types (int, boolean, etc..) as objects.

The table below shows the primitive type and the equivalent wrapper class:

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

Sometimes you must use wrapper classes, for example when working with Collection objects, such as ArrayList, where primitive types cannot be used (the list can only store objects):

**Example**

ArrayList<int> myNumbers = new ArrayList<int>(); // Invalid

ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>(); // Valid

**Creating Wrapper Objects**

To create a wrapper object, use the wrapper class instead of the primitive type. To get the value, you can just print the object:

**Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Integer myInt = 5;

Double myDouble = 5.99;

Character myChar = 'A';

System.out.println(myInt);

System.out.println(myDouble);

System.out.println(myChar);

}

}

Since you're now working with objects, you can use certain methods to get information about the specific object.

For example, the following methods are used to get the value associated with the corresponding wrapper object: intValue(), byteValue(), shortValue(), longValue(), floatValue(), doubleValue(), charValue(), booleanValue().

This example will output the same result as the example above:

**Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Integer myInt = 5;

Double myDouble = 5.99;

Character myChar = 'A';

System.out.println(myInt.intValue());

System.out.println(myDouble.doubleValue());

System.out.println(myChar.charValue());

}

}

Another useful method is the toString() method, which is used to convert wrapper objects to strings.

In the following example, we convert an Integer to a String, and use the length() method of the String class to output the length of the "string":

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Integer myInt = 100;

String myString = myInt.toString();

System.out.println(myString.length());

}

}

## Java Exceptions

When executing Java code, different errors can occur: coding errors made by the programmer, errors due to wrong input, or other unforeseeable things.

When an error occurs, Java will normally stop and generate an error message. The technical term for this is: Java will throw an **exception** (throw an error).

## Java try and catch

The try statement allows you to define a block of code to be tested for errors while it is being executed.

The catch statement allows you to define a block of code to be executed, if an error occurs in the try block.

The try and catch keywords come in pairs:

**Syntax**

try {

// *Block of code to try*

}

catch(Exception e) {

// *Block of code to handle errors*

}

Consider the following example:

This will generate an error, because **myNumbers[10]** does not exist.

public class Main {

public static void main(String[ ] args) {

int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};

System.out.println(myNumbers[10]); // error!

}

}

The output will be something like this:

Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException: 10  
        at Main.main(Main.java:4)

If an error occurs, we can use try...catch to catch the error and execute some code to handle it:

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[ ] args) {

try {

int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};

System.out.println(myNumbers[10]);

} catch (Exception e) {

System.out.println("Something went wrong.");

}

}

}

The output will be:

Something went wrong.

## Finally

The finally statement lets you execute code, after try...catch, regardless of the result:

**Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

try {

int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};

System.out.println(myNumbers[10]);

} catch (Exception e) {

System.out.println("Something went wrong.");

} finally {

System.out.println("The 'try catch' is finished.");

}

}

}

The output will be:

Something went wrong.  
The 'try catch' is finished.

## The throw keyword

The throw statement allows you to create a custom error.

The throw statement is used together with an **exception type**. There are many exception types available in Java: ArithmeticException, FileNotFoundException, ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException, SecurityException, etc:

**Example**

Throw an exception if **age** is below 18 (print "Access denied"). If age is 18 or older, print "Access granted":

public class Main {

static void checkAge(int age) {

if (age < 18) {

throw new ArithmeticException("Access denied - You must be at least 18 years old.");

}

else {

System.out.println("Access granted - You are old enough!");

}

}

public static void main(String[] args) {

checkAge(15); // Set age to 15 (which is below 18...)

}

}

The output will be:

Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException: Access denied - You must be at least 18 years old.  
        at Main.checkAge(Main.java:4)  
        at Main.main(Main.java:12)

## What is a Regular Expression?

A regular expression is a sequence of characters that forms a search pattern. When you search for data in a text, you can use this search pattern to describe what you are searching for.

A regular expression can be a single character, or a more complicated pattern.

Regular expressions can be used to perform all types of **text search** and **text replace** operations.

Java does not have a built-in Regular Expression class, but we can import the java.util.regex package to work with regular expressions. The package includes the following classes:

* Pattern Class - Defines a pattern (to be used in a search)
* Matcher Class - Used to search for the pattern
* PatternSyntaxException Class - Indicates syntax error in a regular expression pattern

### **Example**

Find out if there are any occurrences of the word "w3schools" in a sentence:

import java.util.regex.Matcher;

import java.util.regex.Pattern;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Pattern pattern = Pattern.compile("w3schools", Pattern.CASE\_INSENSITIVE);

Matcher matcher = pattern.matcher("Visit W3Schools!");

boolean matchFound = matcher.find();

if(matchFound) {

System.out.println("Match found");

} else {

System.out.println("Match not found");

}

}

}

// Outputs Match found

### **Example Explained**

In this example, The word "w3schools" is being searched for in a sentence.

First, the pattern is created using the Pattern.compile() method. The first parameter indicates which pattern is being searched for and the second parameter has a flag to indicates that the search should be case-insensitive. The second parameter is optional.

The matcher() method is used to search for the pattern in a string. It returns a Matcher object which contains information about the search that was performed.

The find() method returns true if the pattern was found in the string and false if it was not found.

## Flags

Flags in the compile() method change how the search is performed. Here are a few of them:

* Pattern.CASE\_INSENSITIVE - The case of letters will be ignored when performing a search.
* Pattern.LITERAL - Special characters in the pattern will not have any special meaning and will be treated as ordinary characters when performing a search.
* Pattern.UNICODE\_CASE - Use it together with the CASE\_INSENSITIVE flag to also ignore the case of letters outside of the English alphabet

## Regular Expression Patterns

The first parameter of the Pattern.compile() method is the pattern. It describes what is being searched for.

Brackets are used to find a range of characters:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Expression** | **Description** |
| [abc] | Find one character from the options between the brackets |
| [^abc] | Find one character NOT between the brackets |
| [0-9] | Find one character from the range 0 to 9 |

## Metacharacters

Metacharacters are characters with a special meaning:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Metacharacter** | **Description** |
| | (pipe symble) | Find a match for any one of the patterns separated by | as in: cat|dog|fish |
| . (dot symble) | Find just one instance of any character |
| ^ (of symble) | Finds a match as the beginning of a string as in: ^Hello |
| $ (dollat symble) | Finds a match at the end of the string as in: World$ |
| \d | Find a digit |
| \s | Find a whitespace character |
| \b | Find a match at the beginning of a word like this: \bWORD, or at the end of a word like this: WORD\b |
| \uxxxx | Find the Unicode character specified by the hexadecimal number xxxx |

## Quantifiers

Quantifiers define quantities:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Quantifier** | **Description** |
| n+ | Matches any string that contains at least one n |
| n\* | Matches any string that contains zero or more occurrences of n |
| n? | Matches any string that contains zero or one occurrences of n |
| n{x} | Matches any string that contains a sequence of *X* *n*'s |
| n{x,y} | Matches any string that contains a sequence of X to Y *n*'s |
| n{x,} | Matches any string that contains a sequence of at least X *n*'s |

**Note:** If your expression needs to search for one of the special characters you can use a backslash ( \ ) to escape them. In Java, backslashes in strings need to be escaped themselves, so two backslashes are needed to escape special characters. For example, to search for one or more question marks you can use the following expression: "\\?"

## Java Threads

Threads allows a program to operate more efficiently by doing multiple things at the same time.

Threads can be used to perform complicated tasks in the background without interrupting the main program.

## Creating a Thread

There are two ways to create a thread.

It can be created by extending the Thread class and overriding its run() method:

### **Extend Syntax**

public class Main extends Thread {

public void run() {

System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");

}

}

Another way to create a thread is to implement the Runnable interface:

**Implement Syntax**

public class Main implements Runnable {

public void run() {

System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");

}

}

## Running Threads

If the class extends the Thread class, the thread can be run by creating an instance of the class and call its start() method:

### **Extend Example**

public class Main extends Thread {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main thread = new Main();

thread.start();

System.out.println("This code is outside of the thread");

}

public void run() {

System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");

}

}

If the class implements the Runnable interface, the thread can be run by passing an instance of the class to a Thread object's constructor and then calling the thread's start() method:

### **Implement Example**

public class Main implements Runnable {

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main obj = new Main();

Thread thread = new Thread(obj);

thread.start();

System.out.println("This code is outside of the thread");

}

public void run() {

System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");

}

}

**Differences between "extending" and "implementing" Threads**

The major difference is that when a class extends the Thread class, you cannot extend any other class, but by implementing the Runnable interface, it is possible to extend from another class as well, like: class MyClass extends OtherClass implements Runnable.

## Concurrency Problems

Because threads run at the same time as other parts of the program, there is no way to know in which order the code will run. When the threads and main program are reading and writing the same variables, the values are unpredictable. The problems that result from this are called concurrency problems.

### **Example**

A code example where the value of the variable **amount** is unpredictable:

public class Main extends Thread {

public static int amount = 0;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main thread = new Main();

thread.start();

System.out.println(amount);

amount++;

System.out.println(amount);

}

public void run() {

amount++;

}

}

To avoid concurrency problems, it is best to share as few attributes between threads as possible. If attributes need to be shared, one possible solution is to use the isAlive() method of the thread to check whether the thread has finished running before using any attributes that the thread can change.

### **Example**

Use isAlive() to prevent concurrency problems:

public class Main extends Thread {

public static int amount = 0;

public static void main(String[] args) {

Main thread = new Main();

thread.start();

// Wait for the thread to finish

while(thread.isAlive()) {

System.out.println("Waiting...");

}

// Update amount and print its value

System.out.println("Main: " + amount);

amount++;

System.out.println("Main: " + amount);

}

public void run() {

amount++;

}

}

## Java Lambda Expressions

Lambda Expressions were added in Java 8.

A lambda expression is a short block of code which takes in parameters and returns a value. Lambda expressions are similar to methods, but they do not need a name and they can be implemented right in the body of a method.

## Syntax

The simplest lambda expression contains a single parameter and an expression:

parameter -> expression

To use more than one parameter, wrap them in parentheses:

*(*parameter1*,* parameter2*)* -> expression

Expressions are limited. They have to immediately return a value, and they cannot contain variables, assignments or statements such as if or for. In order to do more complex operations, a code block can be used with curly braces. If the lambda expression needs to return a value, then the code block should have a return statement.

*(*parameter1*,* parameter2*)* -> { code block }

## Using Lambda Expressions

Lambda expressions are usually passed as parameters to a function:

### **Example**

Use a lamba expression in the ArrayList's forEach() method to print every item in the list:

import java.util.ArrayList;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();

numbers.add(5);

numbers.add(9);

numbers.add(8);

numbers.add(1);

numbers.forEach( (n) -> { System.out.println(n); } );

}

}

Lambda expressions can be stored in variables if the variable's type is an interface which has only one method. The lambda expression should have the same number of parameters and the same return type as that method. Java has many of these kinds of interfaces built in, such as the Consumer interface (found in the java.util package) used by lists.

### **Example**

Use Java's Consumer interface to store a lambda expression in a variable:

import java.util.ArrayList;

import java.util.function.Consumer;

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();

numbers.add(5);

numbers.add(9);

numbers.add(8);

numbers.add(1);

Consumer<Integer> method = (n) -> { System.out.println(n); };

numbers.forEach( method );

}

}

To use a lambda expression in a method, the method should have a parameter with a single-method interface as its type. Calling the interface's method will run the lambda expression:

### **Example**

Create a method which takes a lambda expression as a parameter:

interface StringFunction {

String run(String str);

}

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

StringFunction exclaim = (s) -> s + "!";

StringFunction ask = (s) -> s + "?";

printFormatted("Hello", exclaim);

printFormatted("Hello", ask);

}

public static void printFormatted(String str, StringFunction format) {

String result = format.run(str);

System.out.println(result);

}

}

# **Java Files**

File handling is an important part of any application.

Java has several methods for creating, reading, updating, and deleting files.

## Java File Handling

The File class from the java.io package, allows us to work with files.

To use the File class, create an object of the class, and specify the filename or directory name:

### **Example**

import java.io.File; // Import the File class

File myObj = new File("filename.txt"); // Specify the filename

If you don't know what a package is, read our [Java Packages Tutorial](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_packages.asp).

The File class has many useful methods for creating and getting information about files. For example:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Type** | **Description** |
| canRead() | Boolean | Tests whether the file is readable or not |
| canWrite() | Boolean | Tests whether the file is writable or not |
| createNewFile() | Boolean | Creates an empty file |
| delete() | Boolean | Deletes a file |
| exists() | Boolean | Tests whether the file exists |
| getName() | String | Returns the name of the file |
| getAbsolutePath() | String | Returns the absolute pathname of the file |
| length() | Long | Returns the size of the file in bytes |
| list() | String[] | Returns an array of the files in the directory |
| mkdir() | Boolean | Creates a directory |

You will learn how to create, write, read and delete files in the next chapters:

[Create/Write Files »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_files_create.asp)[Read Files »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_files_read.asp)[Delete Files »](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_files_delete.asp)

## Create a File

To create a file in Java, you can use the createNewFile() method. This method returns a boolean value: true if the file was successfully created, and false if the file already exists. Note that the method is enclosed in a try...catch block. This is necessary because it throws an IOException if an error occurs (if the file cannot be created for some reason):

### **Example**

import java.io.File; // Import the File class

import java.io.IOException; // Import the IOException class to handle errors

public class CreateFile {

public static void main(String[] args) {

try {

File myObj = new File("filename.txt");

if (myObj.createNewFile()) {

System.out.println("File created: " + myObj.getName());

} else {

System.out.println("File already exists.");

}

} catch (IOException e) {

System.out.println("An error occurred.");

e.printStackTrace();

}

}

}

The output will be:

File created: filename.txt

To create a file in a specific directory (requires permission), specify the path of the file and use double backslashes to escape the "\" character (for Windows). On Mac and Linux you can just write the path, like: /Users/name/filename.txt

### **Example**

File myObj = new File("C:\\Users\\MyName\\filename.txt");

## Write To a File

In the following example, we use the FileWriter class together with its write() method to write some text to the file we created in the example above. Note that when you are done writing to the file, you should close it with the close() method:

### **Example**

import java.io.FileWriter; // Import the FileWriter class

import java.io.IOException; // Import the IOException class to handle errors

public class WriteToFile {

public static void main(String[] args) {

try {

FileWriter myWriter = new FileWriter("filename.txt");

myWriter.write("Files in Java might be tricky, but it is fun enough!");

myWriter.close();

System.out.println("Successfully wrote to the file.");

} catch (IOException e) {

System.out.println("An error occurred.");

e.printStackTrace();

}

}

}

The output will be:

Successfully wrote to the file.

## Read a File

In the previous chapter, you learned how to create and write to a file.

In the following example, we use the Scanner class to read the contents of the text file we created in the previous chapter:

### **Example**

import java.io.File; // Import the File class

import java.io.FileNotFoundException; // Import this class to handle errors

import java.util.Scanner; // Import the Scanner class to read text files

public class ReadFile {

public static void main(String[] args) {

try {

File file = new File("filename.txt");

Scanner sc = new Scanner(file);

while (sc.hasNextLine()) {

String data = sc.nextLine();

System.out.println(data);

}

myReader.close();

} catch (FileNotFoundException e) {

System.out.println("An error occurred.");

e.printStackTrace();

}

}

}

The output will be:

Files in Java might be tricky, but it is fun enough!

## Get File Information

To get more information about a file, use any of the File methods:

### **Example**

import java.io.File; // Import the File class

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

File myObj = new File("filename.txt");

if (myObj.exists()) {

System.out.println("File name: " + myObj.getName());

System.out.println("Absolute path: " + myObj.getAbsolutePath());

System.out.println("Writeable: " + myObj.canWrite());

System.out.println("Readable " + myObj.canRead());

System.out.println("File size in bytes " + myObj.length());

} else {

System.out.println("The file does not exist.");

}

}

}

The output will be:

File name: filename.txt  
Absolute path: C:\Users\MyName\filename.txt  
Writeable: true  
Readable: true  
File size in bytes: 0

**Note:** There are many available classes in the Java API that can be used to read and write files in Java: FileReader, BufferedReader, Files, Scanner, FileInputStream, FileWriter, BufferedWriter, FileOutputStream, etc. Which one to use depends on the Java version you're working with and whether you need to read bytes or characters, and the size of the file/lines etc.

**Tip:** To delete a file, read out [Java Delete Files](https://www.w3schools.com/java/java_files_delete.asp) chapter.

## Delete a File

To delete a file in Java, use the delete() method:

### **Example**

import java.io.File; // Import the File class

public class DeleteFile {

public static void main(String[] args) {

File myObj = new File("filename.txt");

if (myObj.delete()) {

System.out.println("Deleted the file: " + myObj.getName());

} else {

System.out.println("Failed to delete the file.");

}

}

}

The output will be:

Deleted the file: filename.txt

## Delete a Folder

You can also delete a folder. However, it must be empty:

### **Example**

import java.io.File;

public class DeleteFolder {

public static void main(String[] args) {

File myObj = new File("C:\\Users\\MyName\\Test");

if (myObj.delete()) {

System.out.println("Deleted the folder: " + myObj.getName());

} else {

System.out.println("Failed to delete the folder.");

}

}

}

The output will be:

Deleted the folder: Test

# **Java How To Add Two Numbers**

## Add Two Numbers

Learn how to add two numbers in Java:

### **Example**

int x = 5;

int y = 6;

int sum = x + y;

System.out.println(sum); // Print the sum of x + y

## Add Two Numbers with User Input

Learn how to add two numbers with user input:

### **Example**

import java.util.Scanner; // Import the Scanner class

class MyClass {

public static void main(String[] args) {

int x, y, sum;

Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in); // Create a Scanner object

System.out.println("Type a number:");

x = myObj.nextInt(); // Read user input

System.out.println("Type another number:");

y = myObj.nextInt(); // Read user input

sum = x + y; // Calculate the sum of x + y

System.out.println("Sum is: " + sum); // Print the sum

}

}

# **Java Keywords.**

# **Java Reserved Keywords**

Java has a set of keywords that are reserved words that cannot be used as variables, methods, classes, or any other identifiers:

ascii values: letter upper case- 65-90. Lower case 97-122.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Keyword** | **Description** |
| [abstract](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_abstract.asp) | A non-access modifier. Used for classes and methods: An abstract class  cannot be used to create objects (to access it, it must be inherited from  another class). An abstract method can only be used in an abstract class,  and it does not have a body. The body is provided by the subclass (inherited from) |
| assert | For debugging |
| [boolean](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_boolean.asp) | A data type that can only store true and false values |
| [break](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_break.asp) | Breaks out of a loop or a switch block |
| [byte](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_byte.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers from -128 and 127 |
| [case](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_case.asp) | Marks a block of code in switch statements |
| [catch](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_catch.asp) | Catches exceptions generated by try statements |
| [char](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_char.asp) | A data type that is used to store a single character |
| [class](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_class.asp) | Defines a class |
| [continue](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_break.asp) | Continues to the next iteration of a loop |
| const | Defines a constant. Not in use - use [final](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_final.asp) instead |
| [default](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_default.asp) | Specifies the default block of code in a switch statement |
| [do](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_do.asp) | Used together with while to create a do-while loop |
| [double](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_double.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers from 1.7e−308 to 1.7e+308 |
| [else](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_else.asp) | Used in conditional statements |
| [enum](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_enum.asp) | Declares an enumerated (unchangeable) type |
| exports | Exports a package with a module. New in Java 9 |
| [extends](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_extends.asp) | Extends a class (indicates that a class is inherited from another class) |
| [final](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_final.asp) | A non-access modifier used for classes, attributes and methods,  which makes them non-changeable (impossible to inherit or override) |
| [finally](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_finally.asp) | Used with exceptions, a block of code that will be executed no matter  if there is an exception or not |
| [float](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_float.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers from 3.4e−038 to 3.4e+038 |
| [for](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_for.asp) | Create a for loop |
| goto | Not in use, and has no function |
| [if](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_if.asp) | Makes a conditional statement |
| [implements](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_implements.asp) | Implements an interface |
| [import](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_import.asp) | Used to import a package, class or interface |
| [instanceof](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_instanceof.asp) | Checks whether an object is an instance of a specific class or an interface |
| [int](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_int.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers  from -2147483648 to 2147483647 |
| [interface](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_interface.asp) | Used to declare a special type of class that only contains abstract methods |
| [long](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_long.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers  from -9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775808 |
| module | Declares a module. New in Java 9 |
| native | Specifies that a method is not implemented in the same Java  source file (but in another language) |
| [new](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_new.asp) | Creates new objects |
| [package](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_package.asp) | Declares a package |
| [private](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_private.asp) | An access modifier used for attributes, methods and constructors,  making them only accessible within the declared class |
| [protected](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_protected.asp) | An access modifier used for attributes, methods and constructors,  making them accessible in the same package and subclasses |
| [public](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_public.asp) | An access modifier used for classes, attributes, methods and constructors,  making them accessible by any other class |
| requires | Specifies required libraries inside a module. New in Java 9 |
| [return](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_return.asp) | Finished the execution of a method, and can be used to return a value  from a method |
| [short](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_short.asp) | A data type that can store whole numbers from -32768 to 32767 |
| [static](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_static.asp) | A non-access modifier used for methods and attributes.  Static methods/attributes can be accessed without creating an object  of a class |
| strictfp | Restrict the precision and rounding of floating point calculations |
| [super](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_super.asp) | Refers to superclass (parent) objects |
| [switch](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_switch.asp) | Selects one of many code blocks to be executed |
| synchronized | A non-access modifier, which specifies that methods can only be accessed  by one thread at a time |
| [this](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_this.asp) | Refers to the current object in a method or constructor |
| [throw](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_throw.asp) | Creates a custom error |
| [throws](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_throws.asp) | Indicates what exceptions may be thrown by a method |
| transient | A non-accesss modifier, which specifies that an attribute is not part of an  object's persistent state |
| [try](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_try.asp) | Creates a try...catch statement |
| var | Declares a variable. New in Java 10 |
| [void](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_void.asp) | Specifies that a method should not have a return value |
| volatile | Indicates that an attribute is not cached thread-locally, and is always  read from the "main memory" |
| [while](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_keyword_while.asp) | Creates a while loop |

**Note:** true, false, and null are not keywords, but they are literals and reserved words that cannot be used as identifiers.

# **Java String Methods**

## All String Methods

The String class has a set of built-in methods that you can use on strings.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Description** | **Return Type** |
| [charAt()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_charat.asp) | Returns the character at the specified index (position) | char |
| [codePointAt()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_codepointat.asp) | Returns the Unicode of the character at the specified index | int |
| [codePointBefore()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_codepointbefore.asp) | Returns the Unicode of the character before the specified index | int |
| [codePointCount()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_codepointcount.asp) | Returns the Unicode in the specified text range of this String | int |
| [compareTo()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_compareto.asp) | Compares two strings lexicographically | int |
| [compareToIgnoreCase()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_comparetoignorecase.asp) | Compares two strings lexicographically, ignoring case differences | int |
| [concat()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_concat.asp) | Appends a string to the end of another string | String |
| [contains()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_contains.asp) | Checks whether a string contains a sequence of characters | boolean |
| [contentEquals()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_contentequals.asp) | Checks whether a string contains the exact same sequence of characters of the specified CharSequence or StringBuffer | boolean |
| [copyValueOf()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_copyvalueof.asp) | Returns a String that represents the characters of the character array | String |
| [endsWith()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_endswith.asp) | Checks whether a string ends with the specified character(s) | boolean |
| [equals()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_equals.asp) | Compares two strings. Returns true if the strings are equal, and false if not | boolean |
| [equalsIgnoreCase()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_equalsignorecase.asp) | Compares two strings, ignoring case considerations | boolean |
| format() | Returns a formatted string using the specified locale, format string, and arguments | String |
| getBytes() | Encodes this String into a sequence of bytes using the named charset, storing the result into a new byte array | byte[] |
| getChars() | Copies characters from a string to an array of chars | void |
| [hashCode()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_hashcode.asp) | Returns the hash code of a string | int |
| [indexOf()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_indexof.asp) | Returns the position of the first found occurrence of specified characters in a string | int |
| intern() | Returns the canonical representation for the string object | String |
| [isEmpty()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_isempty.asp) | Checks whether a string is empty or not | boolean |
| [lastIndexOf()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_lastindexof.asp) | Returns the position of the last found occurrence of specified characters in a string | int |
| [length()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_length.asp) | Returns the length of a specified string | int |
| matches() | Searches a string for a match against a regular expression, and returns the matches | boolean |
| offsetByCodePoints() | Returns the index within this String that is offset from the given index by codePointOffset code points | int |
| regionMatches() | Tests if two string regions are equal | boolean |
| [replace()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_replace.asp) | Searches a string for a specified value, and returns a new string where the specified values are replaced | String |
| replaceFirst() | Replaces the first occurrence of a substring that matches the given regular expression with the given replacement | String |
| replaceAll() | Replaces each substring of this string that matches the given regular expression with the given replacement | String |
| split() | Splits a string into an array of substrings | String[] |
| [startsWith()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_startswith.asp) | Checks whether a string starts with specified characters | boolean |
| subSequence() | Returns a new character sequence that is a subsequence of this sequence | CharSequence |
| substring() | Extracts the characters from a string, beginning at a specified start position, and through the specified number of character | String |
| toCharArray() | Converts this string to a new character array | char[] |
|  |  |  |
| [toLowerCase()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_tolowercase.asp) | Converts a string to lower case letters | String |
| toString() | Returns the value of a String object | String |
| [toUpperCase()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_touppercase.asp) | Converts a string to upper case letters | String |
| [trim()](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_string_trim.asp) | Removes whitespace from both ends of a string | String |
| valueOf() | Returns the string representation of the specified value | String |

# **Java Math Methods**

The Java Math class has many methods that allows you to perform mathematical tasks on numbers.

## All Math Methods

A list of all Math methods can be found in the table below:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Description** | **Return Type** |
| [abs(x)](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_math_abs.asp) | Returns the absolute value of x | double|float|int|long |
| [acos(x)](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_math_acos.asp) | Returns the arccosine of x, in radians | double |
| [asin(x)](https://www.w3schools.com/java/ref_math_asin.asp) | Returns the arcsine of x, in radians | double |
| atan(x) | Returns the arctangent of x as a numeric value between -PI/2 and PI/2 radians | double |
| atan2(y,x) | Returns the angle theta from the conversion of rectangular coordinates (x, y) to polar coordinates (r, theta). | double |
| cbrt(x) | Returns the cube root of x | double |
| ceil(x) | Returns the value of x rounded up to its nearest integer | double |
| copySign(x, y) | Returns the first floating point x with the sign of the second floating point y | double |
| cos(x) | Returns the cosine of x (x is in radians) | double |
| cosh(x) | Returns the hyperbolic cosine of a double value | double |
| exp(x) | Returns the value of Ex | double |
| expm1(x) | Returns ex -1 | double |
| floor(x) | Returns the value of x rounded down to its nearest integer | double |
| getExponent(x) | Returns the unbiased exponent used in x | int |
| hypot(x, y) | Returns sqrt(x2 +y2) without intermediate overflow or underflow | double |
| IEEEremainder(x, y) | Computes the remainder operation on x and y as prescribed by the IEEE 754 standard | double |
| log(x) | Returns the natural logarithm (base E) of x | double |
| log10(x) | Returns the base 10 logarithm of x | double |
| log1p(x) | Returns the natural logarithm (base E) of the sum of x and 1 | double |
| max(x, y) | Returns the number with the highest value | double|float|int|long |
| min(x, y) | Returns the number with the lowest value | double|float|int|long |
| nextAfter(x, y) | Returns the floating point number adjacent to x in the direction of y | double|float |
| nextUp(x) | Returns the floating point value adjacent to x in the direction of positive infinity | double|float |
| pow(x, y) | Returns the value of x to the power of y | double |
| random() | Returns a random number between 0 and 1 | double |
| round(x) | Returns the value of x rounded to its nearest integer | int |
| rint() | Returns the double value that is closest to x and equal to a mathematical integer | double |
| signum(x) | Returns the sign of x | double |
| sin(x) | Returns the sine of x (x is in radians) | double |
| sinh(x) | Returns the hyperbolic sine of a double value | double |
| sqrt(x) | Returns the square root of x | double |
| tan(x) | Returns the tangent of an angle | double |
| tanh(x) | Returns the hyperbolic tangent of a double value | double |
| toDegrees(x) | Converts an angle measured in radians to an approx. equivalent angle measured in degrees | double |
| toRadians(x) | Converts an angle measured in degrees to an approx. angle measured in radians | double |
| ulp(x) | Returns the size of the unit of least precision (ulp) of x | double|float |

**Note:** All Math methods are static.

\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*

**Java Arrays**

Arrays are used to store multiple values in a single variable, instead of declaring separate variables for each value.

To declare an array, define the variable type with **square brackets**:

**int**[ ] array = **new** **int**[5];

array[1] = 10;

array[2] = 20;

array[3] = 30;

array[4] = 40;

array[5] = 50;

We have now declared a variable that holds an array of strings. To insert values to it, we can use an array literal - place the values in a comma-separated list, inside curly braces:

String[] cars;

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

**int** [ ] numbers;

numbers = **new** **int**[ ]{22,33,44,55,66};

**Returning Array from the Method**

**class** TestReturnArray{

//creating method which returns an array

**static** **int**[ ] get(){

**return** **new** **int**[ ]{10,30,50,90,60};

}

To create an array of integers, you could write:

int[] myNum = {10, 20, 30, 40};

Arrays.sort(myNum); // to sort the array

Arrays.toString(myNum); // first convert to String then can print.

//array to arrayList

ArrayList<String>list=new ArrayList<String>(Arrays.asList(myNum));

//arrayList to array

String[] my\_array = new String[list.size()];

list.toArray(my\_array);

for(int i=0; i<my\_array.length; i++){

System.out.println("Element at the index "+i+" is ::"+my\_array[i]);

**Access the Elements of an Array**

You access an array element by referring to the index number.

This statement accesses the value of the first element in cars:

**Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

System.out.println(cars[0]);

// Outputs Volvo

**Note:** Array indexes start with 0: [0] is the first element. [1] is the second element, etc.

**Change/override an Array Element**

To change the value of a specific element, refer to the index number:

### **Example**

cars[0] = "Opel";

### **Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

cars[0] = "Opel";

System.out.println(cars[0]);

// Now outputs Opel instead of Volvo

**Array Length**

To find out how many elements an array has, use the length property:

**Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

System.out.println(cars.length);

// Outputs 4

## Loop Through an Array

You can loop through the array elements with the for loop, and use the length property to specify how many times the loop should run.

The following example outputs all elements in the **cars** array:

### **Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

for (int i = 0; i < cars.length; i++) {

System.out.println(cars[i]);

}

## Loop Through an Array with For-Each

There is also a "**for-each**" loop, which is used exclusively to loop through elements in arrays:

### **Syntax**

for (type variable : arrayname) {

...

}

The following example outputs all elements in the **cars** array, using a "**for-each**" loop:

### **Example**

String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

for (String i : cars) {

System.out.println(i);

}

The example above can be read like this: **for each** String element (called **i** - as in **i**ndex) in **cars**, print out the value of**i**.

If you compare the for loop and **for-each** loop, you will see that the **for-each** method is easier to write, it does not require a counter (using the length property), and it is more readable.

## Multidimensional Arrays

A multidimensional array is an array containing one or more arrays.

To create a two-dimensional array, add each array within its own set of **curly braces**:

### **Example**

int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };

**myNumbers** is now an array with two arrays as its elements.

To access the elements of the **myNumbers** array, specify two indexes: one for the array, and one for the element inside that array. This example accesses the third element (2) in the second array (1) of myNumbers:

### **Example**

int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };

int x = myNumbers[1][2];

System.out.println(x); // Outputs 7

We can also use a for loop inside another for loop to get the elements of a two-dimensional array (we still have to point to the two indexes):

### **Example**

public class Main {

public static void main(String[] args) {

int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };

for (int i = 0; i < myNumbers.length; ++i) {

for(int j = 0; j < myNumbers[i].length; ++j) {

System.out.println(myNumbers[i][j]);

}  
 }

}

**\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\***

**Java collection framework by Pavan**

**\* Homogeneous means the same type. Heterogeneous means diverse types.**

**What is collection and collections framework ?**

**Collection(interface)** is a group of Objects.

**Collections framework** is a group of Java classes and interfaces by which we can represent the group of objects in a single entity.

In Java there are three child Interface of collection Interface.

i) List

ii) Set

iii) Queue

**Why we need collection framework ?**

When we want to store multiple objects then we need a collections framework.

For example: if we want to store a single value then we can store like..

int a = 10;

but here we can store only one value.

int [] a = new int [3];

a[0] = 10;

a[1] = 20;

a[2] = 30;

but here we can store only same kind data.

Object [] myArray = { "any lane", 123,48212, "My Town"};

System.***out***.println(Arrays.*toString*(myArray));

**Output:**

[any lane, 123, 48212, My Town]

we can store multi type of data but still fixed length. We can not add or remove data from the array. How about if we want to add more data ?

so, to over come that situation collections framework comes to the picture.

Collections frameworks are : List, ArrayList, LinkedList, Set, HashSet, LinkedHashSet, HashMap, HashTable, StackTree etc…

**Collections**(predefined class) provides certain methods to perform operations in **Collection** interface.

**Method Description**

**add()** It is used to insert an element in this collection.

**addAll()** It is used to insert the specified collection elements in the invoking collection.

**remove()** It is used to delete an element from the collection.

**removeAll()** It is used to delete all the elements of the specified collection from the invoking collection.

**retainAll()** It is used to delete all the elements of invoking collection except the specified collection.

**size()** It returns the total number of elements in the collection.

**clear()** It removes the total number of elements from the collection.

**contains(Object element)** It is used to search an element.

**containsAll()** It is used to search the specified collection in the collection.

**isEmpty()** It checks if collection is empty.

**equals(Object element)** It matches two collections.

**hashCode()** It returns the hash code number of the collection.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Collection interface** | | |
| **List** interface | **Set** interface | **Queue** interface |
| : List interface stores Homogenious data in insertion order.  1. ArrayList stores data in dynamic array concept using index. Retrieve faster.  2. LinkedList stores data in linked node concept. No index. Insertioin & deletion faster.  3) it is not synchronized. | : Set interface stores uniqe & heterogenious data, also NULL as Hash table. No index.  1. HashSet stores data in random order.  2. LinkedHashSet stores data in insertion order, linked node concept.  3)Set is not synchronized | 1. prior to processing. Means first in – first out. |
| 1. ArrayList:  .add(“value”),  .get(0),  .set(0, “value”) for .change,    .remove(0),  .clear(),  .contains(0),  .size()  .Object[ ] a=list.toArray(myArray);  Collections.sort(arrayName) for sorting.  2. LinkedList: has more  .addFirst()  .addLast()  .removeFirst()  .removeLast().  .getFirst()  .getLast() | 1. HashSet  .add(“value”),  .remove(0),  .clear(),  .contains(0),  2. LinkedHashSet | 1. Priority Queue. |

Notes For My Reference:

**1) List (Interface)**

List is a child interface of Collection interface. List is an ordered collection, It stores null and duplicate values and in insertion order. We have complete control over where an item will be placed in the List. List interface is implemented by ArrayList, LinkedList, vector, Stack class.

**when to use:**

1) when order is necesarry , the insertion order should be preserved.

2) Duplicated elements are allowed.

3) it is not synchronized.

**Classes which has impletemented List:**

**ArrayList** : arrayList is class that implements the List interface. It stores the list of element in dynamic array concept thru index. It is not synchronized.

**when to use:**

when we want to insert or delete value in arrayList, value-index will be shifted, so it takes more time.

So we should not prefer ArrayList for inserton/deletion,

we can prefer when we have more retrieving operation. It retrieves faster because it directly goes to index and retrieve data.

**LinkedList** : LinkedList is a class that implements the List Interface. It stores the list of element in node concept and nodes are linked with each-other as previous node & next node.

**When to use:**

When we have more insertion & deletion we can prefer linkedList because data will be inserted/deleted as just previous or next value, all indexs will not be shifted, so it will be faster.

But when we want to retrieve data it will search one by one node from the first node, so it will take more time to retrieve.

**Vector:**

**Stack:** list of element will be stored as stack-up, so will be First In First Out.

**2) Set (Interface)**

Set is a child interface of Collection interface. It stores unique & heterogenios data. And implemented by HashSet and LinkedHashSet class. If we store duplicate value it will be filter out. Set does not support index.

**Classes which has impletemented List:**

**HashSet:** HashSet is a class that implements the Set interface. It stores the unique value in random order as HashSet Code. Initial size is 16.

**When to use:**

When we want to store unique & heterogenios data (different types data) and NULL in random order. it searches data faster. NULL also be unique.

**LinkedHashSet:** LinkedHashSet is a class that implements the Set interface. It stores the unique value in insertion order as hashSet code. Initial size is 16.

**When to use:**

When we want to store heterogenios data (different types data) and NULL in insertion order. it searches data faster.

**3) Queue (Interface):** Qeue is a child interface of Collection interface.

**Queue** is a child of Collection

First In First Out Concept is used

**\* Map Interface:** MAP is a Independent Interface (not a child interface of collection).

Map interface stores data in key-value pairs and is implemented by HashMap and HashTable class.

: Key and value are objects.

: the keys cannot be duplicated.

: the values can be duplicated.

: NULL key allowed only once.

: NULL value allowed multiple.

**Classes:**

**HashMap:**

HashMap stores the data in key-value pairs in random order. Under laying data structure is a HashTable. HashMap is faster because multiple threads are allowed at a time.

1) inserton order not guarantee.

2) HashMap is not synchronized/not thread safe.

3) HashMap allowes NULL key and value.

**When to use:**

When we want to store value as key value pair and search data faster.

**LinkedHashMap:** LinkedHashMap stores values in order, implements Map interface

1) LinkedHashMap supports insertion order.

2) LinkedHashMap is not synchronized/ not thread safe.

3) LinkedHashMap allowes NULL key and value.

**TreeMap:** TreeMap is a class that implements Map interface.

1) TreeMap does not allow NULL key but allow multiple null values. not Synchronized

2) TreeMap allows Homogeneous value as key because sorting.

**HashTable:** HashTable is class that implements a hashTable.

HashTable stores the data in key-value pair in random order. Under laying data structure is also a HashTable. HashTable is slower because only one thread is allowed at a time.

1) HahTable is synchronized/thread safe.

2) HashTable doesn’t allow NULL key or value.

|  |
| --- |
| **\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\***  **List** interface: List is used to store group of objects as a list concept, it allows to store null and duplicate values and in insertion order. Usually it stores Homogeneuos data.  1)List supports insertion order.  2) **ArrayList** stores data in dynamic array concept, use index. Retrieve faster.  3) **LinkedList** stores data in linked node concept. Insertioin & deletion faster.  **ArrayList** : arrayList is a class that implements the List interface. It stores the list of element in dynamic array concept thru index. It is not synchronized.  **LinkedList** : LinkedList is a class that implements the List Interface. It stores the list of element in node concept and nodes are linked with each-other as previous node & next node.  **Methods of List**  add() - adds an element to a list  addAll() - adds all elements of one list to another  get() - helps to randomly access elements from lists  set() - changes elements of lists  remove() - removes an element from the list  removeAll() - removes all the elements from the list  clear() - removes all the elements from the list (more efficient than removeAll())  size() - returns the length of lists  toArray() - converts a list into an array  contains() - returns true if a list contains specified element  isEmpty() - It checks if collection is empty.  equals(Object element) - It matches two collections. |
|  |
| **Set** interface: Set is used to store group of objects as a set concept  1). it stores uniqe & heterogenious data, also NULL. No index.  2) HashSet stores data in random order.  3) LinkedHashSet stores data in insertion order.  **Java Set Methods**  add() - adds the specified element to the set  addAll() - adds all the elements of the specified collection to the set  iterator() - returns an iterator that can be used to access elements of the set sequentially  remove() - removes the specified element from the set  removeAll() - removes all the elements from the set that is present in another specified set  clear() - removes all the elements from the set  size() - returns the length (number of elements) of the set  toArray() - returns an array containing all the elements of the set  contains() - returns true if the set contains the specified element  containsAll() - returns true if the set contains all the elements of the specified collection  isEmpty() – retures true if empty.  hashCode() - returns a hash code value, its an integer value (address of the element in the set) |
| **HashSet:** HashSet is a class that implements the Set interface. It stores the **heterogenious** unique value in random order as HashSet Code. Initial size is 16.  1. HashSet uses HashMap internally to store it’s elements.  2. HashSet doesn’t maintain any order of elements.  3. HashSet allows maximum one null element.  4. HashSet uses equals() and hashCode() methods to compare the elements.  5. Use HashSet if you don’t want to maintain any order of elements.  **LinkedHashSet:** LinkedHashSet is a class that implements the Set interface. It stores the unique value in insertion order as hashSet code. Initial size is 16.  1. LinkedHashSet uses  LinkedHashMap internally to store it’s elements.  2. LinkedHashSet maintains insertion order of elements.  3. LinkedHashSet allows maximum one null element.  4. LinkedHashSet uses equals() and hashCode() methods to compare the elements.  5. Use LinkedHashSet if you want to maintain insertion order of elements.  **TreeSet**  Java TreeSet class implements the Set interface which is used to store **homogenious** **data. It does not allow null value.** Like HashSet, TreeSet also contains unique elements. However, the access and retrieval time of TreeSet is slower. **The elements in TreeSet are stored automatically in ascending order**.  1. TreeSet uses TreeMap internally to store it’s elements.  2. elements will be placed in their natural ascending order.  3. TreeSet doesn’t allow any null element.  4. TreeSet uses compare() or compareTo() methods to compare the elements  5. Use TreeSet if you want to sort the elements according to some Comparator.  //add elements to set  Set<String> vowelsSet = new HashSet<>();  vowelsSet.add("a");  //appending set elements to letters  vowels.addAll(vowelsSet);  //convert Array to Set  String[ ] vowels = {"a","e","i","o","u"};  Set<String> vowelsSet = new HashSet<>(Arrays.asList(vowels));  System.out.println(vowelsSet);  Set<String> vowelsSet = new HashSet<>();  Collections.addAll(vowelsSet, vowels);  System.out.println(vowelsSet);  //convert Set to Array  String[ ] myArray = new String[set.size()];  set.toArray(myArray);  String strArray[] = vowelsSet.toArray(new String[vowelsSet.size()]);  // sort the elements of vowelSet  Set<Integer> sortedSet = new TreeSet<>(vowelSet);  System.out.println("Sorted Set: " + sortedSet);  **\* Map Interface:** MAP is a Independent Interface (not a child interface of collection).  Map interface stores data in key-value pairs and is implemented by HashMap, LinkedHashMap, TreeMap and HashTable class.  : Key and value are objects.  : the keys cannot be duplicated.  : the values can be duplicated.  : NULL key allowed only once.  : NULL value allowed multiple.  **HashMap:**  HashMap stores heterogenous data in key-value pairs in random order. Under laying data structure is a HashTable. HashMap is faster because multiple threads are allowed at a time.  1) insertion order not guarantee.  **LinkedHashMap:** LinkedHashMap stores heterogenous data in order, implements Map interface  1) LinkedHashMap supports insertion order.  **TreeMap:** TreeMap is a class that implements Map interface. TreeMap is the implementation of Map and SortedMap. It maintains ascending order.  1) TreeMap does not allow NULL key but allow multiple null values.  2) TreeMap allows Homogeneous value as key because of sorting.  **HashTable:** HashTable is class that implements a hashTable.  HashTable stores the data in key-value pair in random order. Under laying data structure is also a HashTable. HashTable is slower because only one thread is allowed at a time.  1) HashTable doesn’t follow insertion order.  1) HahTable is synchronized/thread safe.  2) HashTable doesn’t allow NULL key or value.  **Note :** only vector, stack and HashTable are synchronized.  **Methods of Map**  The Map interface includes all the methods of the (super)Collection interface.  Map interface also includes the following methods:  **put(K, V)** - Inserts the association of a key K and a value V into the map. If the key is already present, the new value replaces the old value.  **putAll()** - Inserts all the entries from the specified map to this map.  **replace(K, V)** - Replace the value of the key K with the new specified value V.  **get(K)** - Returns the value associated with the specified key K. If the key is not found, it returns null.  **remove(K)** - Removes the entry from the map represented by the key K.  **remove(K, V)** - Removes the entry from the map that has key K associated with value V.  **clear();-** clear all elements from the map.  **containsKey(K)** - Checks if the specified key K is present in the map or not.  **containsValue(V)** - Checks if the specified value V is present in the map or not.  **keySet()** - Returns a set of all the keys present in a map.  **values()** - Returns a set of all the values present in a map.  **entrySet()** - Returns a set of all the key/value mapping present in a map. |

**Map interface** : we can store value in key-valu pairs.

HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();

capitalCities.put("England", "London");

capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");

capitalCities.get("England");

capitalCities.remove("England");

capitalCities.clear();

capitalCities.size();

HashMap<String, Integer> people = new HashMap<String, Integer>();

// Add keys and values (Name, Age)

people.put("John", 32);

people.put("Steve", 30);

people.put("Angie", 33);

for (String i : people.keySet()) {

System.out.println("key: " + i + " value: " + people.get(i)); }

**Vector**

Vector uses a dynamic array to store the data elements. It is similar to ArrayList. However, It is synchronized and contains many methods that are not the part of Collection framework.

**Method Description**

**add()** It is used to append the specified element in the given vector.

**get()** It is used to get an element at the specified position in the vector.

**clear()**  It is used to delete all of the elements from this vector.

**contains()** It returns true if the vector contains the specified element.

**equals()** It is used to compare the specified object with the vector for equality.

**isEmpty()** It is used to check if this vector has no components.

**remove()** It is used to remove the specified element from the vector. If the vector does not contain the element, it is unchanged.

**size()** It is used to get the number of components in the given vector.

**sort()** It is used to sort the list according to the order induced by the specified Comparator.

**toArray()** It is used to convert vector to an array.

**toString()** It is used to get a string representation of the vector.

**trimToSize()** It is used to trim the capacity of the vector to the vector's current size.

**public** **class** TestJavaCollection3{

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

Vector<String> v=**new** Vector<String>();

v.add("Ayush");

v.add("Amit");

v.add("Ashish");

v.add("Garima");

Iterator<String> itr=v.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

}  **Output:**

Ayush

Amit

Ashish

Garima

**: convert vector to an array.**

Vector<Integer> vec = **new** Vector<Integer>(5);

Integer[ ] myArray = **new** Integer[vec.size()];

vec.add(1);

vec.add(2);

vec.toArray(myArray);

**Stack**

The stack is the subclass of Vector. It implements the last-in-first-out data structure, i.e., Stack. The stack contains all of the methods of Vector class and also provides its methods like boolean push(), boolean peek(), boolean push(object o), which defines its properties.

**Methods of the Stack Class**

**push(E item)** The method pushes (insert) an element onto the top of the stack.

**pop()** The method returns & removes an element from the top of the stack.

**peek()** The method looks at the top element of the stack without removing it.

**empty()** The method checks the stack is empty or not.

**search(Object o)** The method searches the specified object and returns the position of the object.

**public** **class** TestJavaCollection4{

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

Stack<String> stack = **new** Stack<String>();

stack.push("Ayush");

stack.push("Garvit");

stack.pop();

// Removing elements using pop() method

System.out.println("Popped element: " +stack.pop());

Iterator<String> itr=stack.iterator();

// Displaying the Stack after pop operation

System.out.println("Stack after pop operation "+ stack);

// Access element from the top of the stack

String person = stack.peek();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

}

**Output:**

Ayush

Garvit

**Queue Interface**

Queue interface maintains the first-in-first-out order. It can be defined as an ordered list that is used to hold the elements which are about to be processed. There are various classes like PriorityQueue, Deque, and ArrayDeque which implements the Queue interface.

Queue<String> q1 = **new** PriorityQueue();

Queue<String> q2 = **new** ArrayDeque();

**add(object)** It is used to insert the specified element into this queue and return true upon success.

**offer(object)** It is used to insert the specified element into this queue. return true upon success.

**remove()** It is used to retrieves and removes the head of this queue.

**poll()** It is used to retrieves and removes the head of this queue, or returns null if this queue is empty.

**Object element()** It is used to retrieves, but does not remove, the head of this queue.

**Object peek()** It is used to retrieves, but does not remove, the head of this queue, or returns null if this queue is empty.

**size()** Returns the size or number of elements in the queue.

**PriorityQueue**

The PriorityQueue class implements the Queue interface. It holds the elements or objects which are to be processed by their priorities. PriorityQueue doesn't allow null values to be stored in the queue.

**public** **class** TestJavaCollection5{

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

PriorityQueue<String> queue=**new** PriorityQueue<String>();

queue.add("Amit Sharma");

queue.add("Vijay Raj");

queue.add("JaiShankar");

queue.add("Raj");

System.out.println("head:"+queue.element());

System.out.println("head:"+queue.peek());

System.out.println("iterating the queue elements:");

Iterator itr=queue.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

}

queue.remove();

queue.poll();

System.out.println("after removing two elements:");

Iterator<String> itr2=queue.iterator();

**while**(itr2.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr2.next());

}

**Output:**

**head:Amit Sharma**

**head:Amit Sharma**

**iterating the queue elements:**

**Amit Sharma**

**Raj**

**JaiShankar**

**Vijay Raj**

**after removing two elements:**

**Raj**

**Vijay Raj**

**Deque Interface**

Deque interface extends the Queue interface. In Deque, we can remove and add the elements from both the side. Deque stands for a double-ended queue which enables us to perform the operations at both the ends.

Deque d = **new** ArrayDeque();

**Methods of Java Deque Interface**

**add(object)** It is used to insert the specified element into this deque and return true upon success.

**offer(object)** It is used to insert the specified element into this deque.

**remove()** It is used to retrieve and removes the head of this deque.

**poll()** It is used to retrieve and removes the head of this deque, or returns null if this deque is empty.

**element()** It is used to retrieve, but does not remove, the head of this deque.

**peek()** It is used to retrieve, but does not remove, the head of this deque, or returns null if this deque is empty.

**peekLast()** The method returns the last element of the deque. The method does not remove any element from the deque. Null is returned by this method, when the deque is empty.

**offerFirst(e)** Inserts the element e at the front of the queue. If the insertion is successful, true is returned; otherwise, false.

**offerLast(e)** Inserts the element e at the tail of the queue. If the insertion is successful, true is returned; otherwise, false.

**ArrayDeque**

ArrayDeque class implements the Deque interface. It facilitates us to use the Deque. Unlike queue, we can add or delete the elements from both the ends.

ArrayDeque is faster than ArrayList and Stack and has no capacity restrictions.

**public** **class** TestJavaCollection6{

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

//Creating Deque and adding elements

Deque<String> deque = **new** ArrayDeque<String>();

deque.add("Gautam");

deque.add("Karan");

deque.add("Ajay");

//Traversing elements

**for** (String str : deque) {

System.out.println(str);

}

**Output:**

Gautam

Karan

Ajay

**TreeSet**

Java TreeSet class implements the Set interface which is used to store **homogenious** data. **It does not allow null value.** Like HashSet, TreeSet also contains unique elements. However, the access and retrieval time of TreeSet is slower. **The elements in TreeSet stored in ascending order**.

**The methods declared by Set are summarized bellow…**

**add( )** Adds an object to the collection.

**clear( )** Removes all objects from the collection.

**contains( )** Returns true if a specified object is an element within the collection.

**isEmpty( )** Returns true if the collection has no elements.

**iterator( )** Returns an Iterator object for the collection, which may be used to retrieve an object.

**remove( )** Removes a specified object from the collection.

**size( )** Returns the number of elements in the collection.

**public** **class** TestJavaCollection9{

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

//Creating and adding elements

TreeSet<String> set=**new** TreeSet<String>();

set.add("Ravi");

set.add("Vijay");

set.add("Ravi");

set.add("Ajay");

//traversing elements

Iterator<String> itr=set.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

}

**Output:**

Ajay

Ravi

Vijay

**Sorting in Collection**

We can sort the elements of:

1. String objects
2. Wrapper class objects
3. User-defined class objects

**Collections** class provides static methods for sorting the elements of a collection. If collection elements are of a Set type, we can use TreeSet. However, the elements of List not sorted. Collections class provides

**methods for sorting the elements of List type elements.**

**class** TestSort1{

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

ArrayList<String> al=**new** ArrayList<String>();

al.add("Viru");

al.add("Saurav");

al.add("Mukesh");

al.add("Tahir");

Collections.sort(al);

Iterator itr=al.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

 }

**: Output**

**Mukesh**

**Saurav**

**Tahir**

**Viru**

**sort string objects in reverse order**

**class** TestSort2{

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

ArrayList<String> al=**new** ArrayList<String>();

        al.add("Viru");

        al.add("Saurav");

        al.add("Mukesh");

       al.add("Tahir");

        Collections.sort(al,Collections.reverseOrder());

        Iterator i=al.iterator();

**while**(i.hasNext())

        {

            System.out.println(i.next());

        }

**: Output**

**Viru**

**Tahir**

**Saurav**

**Mukesh**

**sort Wrapper class objects**

**class** TestSort2{

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

ArrayList<String> al=**new** ArrayList<String>();

        al.add("Viru");

        al.add("Saurav");

        al.add("Mukesh");

        al.add("Tahir");

        Collections.sort(al,Collections.reverseOrder());

        Iterator i=al.iterator();

**while**(i.hasNext())

        {

            System.out.println(i.next());

        }

**: output**

**Viru**

**Tahir**

**Saurav**

**Mukesh**

**sort Wrapper class objects**

**class** TestSort3{

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

ArrayList al=**new** ArrayList();

al.add(Integer.valueOf(201));

al.add(Integer.valueOf(101));

al.add(230);//internally will be converted into objects as Integer.valueOf(230)

Collections.sort(al);

Iterator itr=al.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()){

System.out.println(itr.next());

 }

**: output**

**101**

**201**

**230**

**sort user-defined class objects**

**class** Student **implements** Comparable<Student> {

**public** String name;

**public** Student(String name) {

**this**.name = name;

  }

**public** **int** compareTo(Student person) {

**return** name.compareTo(person.name);

  }

}

**public** **class** TestSort4 {

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

      ArrayList<Student> al=**new** ArrayList<Student>();

      al.add(**new** Student("Viru"));

      al.add(**new** Student("Saurav"));

      al.add(**new** Student("Mukesh"));

      al.add(**new** Student("Tahir"));

    Collections.sort(al);

**for** (Student s : al) {

      System.out.println(s.name);

    }

**: output**

**Mukesh**

**Saurav**

**Tahir**

**Viru**

**Java Comparable interface**

Java Comparable interface is used to order the objects of the user-defined class. It provides a single sorting sequence only, i.e., you can sort the elements on the basis of single data member only. For example, it may be rollno, name, age or anything else.

**It contains only one method named**

**compareTo(Object)**

**We can sort the elements of:**

1. String objects
2. Wrapper class objects
3. User-defined class objects

**Comparable interface that sorts the list elements on the basis of age.**

**class** Student **implements** Comparable<Student>{

**int** rollno;

String name;

**int** age;

Student(**int** rollno,String name,**int** age){

**this**.rollno=rollno;

**this**.name=name;

**this**.age=age;

}

**public** **int** compareTo(Student st){

**if**(age==st.age)

**return** 0;

**else** **if**(age>st.age)

**return** 1;

**else**

**return** -1;

}

**--------------------------------------**

**public** **class** TestSort1{

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

ArrayList<Student> al=**new** ArrayList<Student>();

al.add(**new** Student(101,"Vijay",23));

al.add(**new** Student(106,"Ajay",27));

al.add(**new** Student(105,"Jai",21));

Collections.sort(al);

**for**(Student st : al){

System.out.println(st.rollno+" "+st.name+" "+st.age);

}

**Output:**

**105 Jai 21**

**101 Vijay 23**

**106 Ajay 27**

**--------------------------------------**

**Comparable interface that sorts the list elements on the basis of age in reverse order.**

**class** Student **implements** Comparable<Student>{

**int** rollno;

 String name;

**int** age;

 Student(**int** rollno,String name,**int** age){

**this**.rollno=rollno;

**this**.name=name;

**this**.age=age;

 }

**public** **int** compareTo(Student st){

**if**(age==st.age)

**return** 0;

**else** **if**(age<st.age)

**return** 1;

**else**

**return** -1;

 }

**--------------------------------------**

**public** **class** TestSort2{

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

ArrayList<Student> al=**new** ArrayList<Student>();

al.add(**new** Student(101,"Vijay",23));

al.add(**new** Student(106,"Ajay",27));

al.add(**new** Student(105,"Jai",21));

Collections.sort(al);

**for**(Student st:al){

System.out.println(st.rollno+" "+st.name+" "+st.age);

**Output:**

**106 Ajay 27**

**101 Vijay 23**

**105 Jai 21**

**Java Comparator interface**

**Java Comparator interface** is used to order the objects of a user-defined class.

This interface is found in java.util package and contains 2 methods compare(Object obj1,Object obj2) and equals(Object element).

It provides multiple sorting sequences, i.e., you can sort the elements on the basis of any data member, for example, rollno, name, age or anything else.

**Methods of Java Comparator Interface**

**compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)** - It compares the first object with the second object. (int object).

**equals(Object obj)** - It is used to compare the current object with the specified object.

**equals(Object obj)** - It is used to compare the current object with the specified object.

**Java Comparator Example (Generic)**

**class** Student{

**int** rollno;

String name;

**int** age;

Student(**int** rollno,String name,**int** age){

**this**.rollno=rollno;

**this**.name=name;

**this**.age=age;

}

**------------------------**

**class** AgeComparator **implements** Comparator<Student>{

**public** **int** compare(Student s1,Student s2){

**if**(s1.age==s2.age)

**return** 0;

**else** **if**(s1.age>s2.age)

**return** 1;

**else**

**return** -1;

}

**------------------------------**

**class** NameComparator **implements** Comparator<Student>{

**public** **int** compare(Student s1,Student s2){

**return** s1.name.compareTo(s2.name);

}

**---------------------------------**

**class** Simple{

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

ArrayList<Student> al=**new** ArrayList<Student>();

al.add(**new** Student(101,"Vijay",23));

al.add(**new** Student(106,"Ajay",27));

al.add(**new** Student(105,"Jai",21));

System.out.println("Sorting by Name");

Collections.sort(al,**new** NameComparator());

**for**(Student st: al){

System.out.println(st.rollno+" "+st.name+" "+st.age);

}

System.out.println("Sorting by age");

Collections.sort(al,**new** AgeComparator());

**for**(Student st: al){

System.out.println(st.rollno+" "+st.name+" "+st.age);

}

**Output:**

**Sorting by Name**

**106 Ajay 27**

**105 Jai 21**

**101 Vijay 23**

**Sorting by age**

**105 Jai 21**

**101 Vijay 23**

**106 Ajay 27**

**Iterator interface**

Iterator interface provides the facility of iterating the elements in a forward direction only.

**Methods of Iterator interface**

There are only three methods in the Iterator interface. They are:

**hasNext()** It returns true if the iterator has more elements otherwise it returns false.

**next()** It returns the element and moves the cursor pointer to the next element.

**remove()** It removes the last elements returned by the iterator. It is less used.

**What is Singleton pattern Class ?**

Ans: Singleton Pattern **"defines a class that has only one instance and provides a global of access point to it for other classes".**

In other words, a class must ensure that only single instance should be created and single object can be used by all other classes.

There are two forms of singleton design pattern

* **Early Instantiation:** creation of instance at load time.
* **Lazy Instantiation:** creation of instance when required.

**Advantage of Singleton design pattern**

* Saves memory because object is not created at each request. Only single instance is reused again and again.

**Usage of Singleton design pattern**

* Singleton pattern is mostly used in multi-threaded and database applications. It is used in logging, caching, thread pools, configuration settings etc.

**How to create Singleton design pattern?**

To create the singleton class, we need to have private constructor, static instance of the class, and static factory method.

* **Private constructor:** It will prevent to instantiate the Singleton class from outside the class.
* **Static instance of class:** It gets memory only once because of static, it contains the instance of the Singleton class.
* **public Static factory method:** This provides the global point of access to the Singleton object and returns the instance to the caller.

### **Understanding early Instantiation of Singleton Pattern**

In such case, we create the instance of the class at the time of declaring the static data member, so instance of the class is created at the time of classloading.

**class** A{

**private** **static** A obj=**new** A(); //Early, instance will be created at load time

**private** A() { //constructon to restrict the object creation from outside the class.

}

**public** **static** A getA() {   //static method for global access to singleton class A

**return** obj;

 }

**public** **void** doSomething(){

 System.out.println(“this is my code”);

 }

}

------------------------------------------------------------

Lazy instantiation….

**class** A{

**private** **static** A obj;  //lazy, instance will not be created at load time

**private** A() { }  //constructor to restrict the object creation from outside the class.

**public** **static** A getA() {

**If** (obj == **null**) {

obj =**new** A(); // instance will be created here.

**return** obj;

 }

**public** **void** doSomething(){

 System.out.println(“this is my code”);

 }

public class Execute\_A {

public static void main(String[] args) {

A a = A.getA( );

a.doSomething( );

}

}

//output: this is my code

}

**What is Data Structure ?**

Ans: Data Structure is a way/structure/format to store and organize data so that it can be used efficiently.



* **Linear data structure:** Data structure in which data elements are arranged sequentially or linearly, where each element is attached to its previous and next adjacent elements, is called a linear data structure.

*Examples of linear data structures are array, stack, queue, linked list, etc.*

* **Static data structure:**Static data structure has a fixed memory size. It is easier to access the elements in a static data structure.   
  *An example of this data structure is an array.*
* **Dynamic data structure:**In dynamic data structure, the size is not fixed. It can be randomly updated during the runtime which may be considered efficient concerning the memory (space) complexity of the code.   
  *Examples of this data structure are queue, stack, etc.*
* **Non-linear data structure:**Data structures where data elements are not placed sequentially or linearly are called non-linear data structures. In a non-linear data structure, we can’t traverse all the elements in a single run only.   
  *Examples of non-linear data structures are trees and graphs.*

**Here is the list of some of the common types of data structures in Java:**

* Array - An [array](https://www.mygreatlearning.com/blog/what-is-an-array-learn-more-in-one-read/) is the simplest data structure where a collection of similar data elements takes place and each data element can be accessed directly by only using its index number.. single dimensional array and multi dimensional array.
* **Linked List** - Linked list data structure helps the required objects to be arranged in a linear order.
* **Methods**:
* **add()** – adds element to LinkedList.
* **Get(index)** – retreives element from index position.
* **peek()** – retreives first element from LinkedList, return null if empty.
* **peekFirst()**
* **peekLast()**
* **element()** – retreives head element from LinkedList, return null if empey.
* **remove()** – retreives and removes head element of the LinkedList.
* **removeFirst()**
* **removeLast()**
* **poll()** – reteives and removes the head element of the LinkedList
* **pollFirst()**
* **pollLast()**

**public** **class** LinkedListClass {

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

LinkedList<Integer> intList = **new** LinkedList<Integer>(Arrays.*asList*(10,20,30,40,50));

LinkedList<String> colorsList = **new** LinkedList<String>();

colorsList.add("Red");

colorsList.add("Green");

colorsList.add("Blue");

colorsList.add("Cyan");

colorsList.add("Magenta");

// print the LinkedList

System.***out***.println("\nContents of second LinkedList: " + colorsList);

// Using for loop,print the contents of the LinkedList

System.***out***.println("LinkedList elements using for loop:");

**for**(**int** i=0; i<colorsList.size(); i++) {

System.***out***.println(colorsList.get(i)+" ");

}

}

}

**Stack** - Stack in Java usually means a class from Collection Framework that implements the List interface. It works on the principle of the Stack data structure, which is used to organize one of the types of memory. Concept is First In Last Out.

**stack Methods**

* **push()** Method. To add an element to the top of the stack, we use the push() method. ...
* **pop()** Method. To remove an element from the top of the stack, we use the pop() method. ...
* **peek()** Method. The peek() method returns an object from the top of the stack.
* **search()** Method. To search an element in the stack, we use the search() method. It returns the position of the element from the top of the stack.
* **empty()** Method. To check whether a stack is empty or not, we use empty() method.

**public** **class** Stack\_class {

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

Stack<Integer> stack = **new** Stack<Integer>();

//push method to add data

stack.push(10);

stack.push(20);

stack.push(30);

System.***out***.println(stack);

//pop method will retreive & remove data from last inserted.

System.***out***.println("pop data : "+ stack.pop());

// peek method will show/print data from last

System.***out***.println("peek data : "+ stack.peek());

}

}

**Queue** - Queue in Java is an interface, it is a linear data structure where you can handle an ordered collection of elements. Concept is First In First Out. Queue is implemented by LinkedList and PriorityQueue.

* **Methods**:
* **add()** – adds element to Queue
* **peek()** – retreives but does not remove head element from queue, return null if empey.
* **element()** – retreives but does not remove head element from queue, return null if empty.
* **remove()** – retreives and removes head element of the queue.
* **poll()** – reteives and removes the head element of the queue
* **offer()** – inserts the specified element to queue
* **size()** – get the size of the queue.

**#1) Enqueue:** An operation to insert an element in the queue is Enqueue (function queueEnqueue in the program). For inserting an element at the rear end, we need to first check if the queue is full. If it is full, then we cannot insert the element. If rear < n, then we insert the element in the queue.

**#2) Dequeue:** The operation to delete an element from the queue is Dequeue (function queueDequeue in the program). First, we check whether the queue is empty. For dequeue operation to work, there has to be at least one element in the queue.

**public** **class** Qeue\_class {

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

Queue<Integer> qe = **new** LinkedList <Integer>();

qe.add(10);

qe.add(20);

qe.add(30);

qe.add(40);

System.***out***.println(qe);

Iterator<Integer> itr = qe.iterator();

**while**(itr.hasNext()) {

**int** num = (Integer) itr.next();

System.***out***.print(num + " ");

}

System.***out***.println();

**for**(**int** num : qe) {

System.***out***.print(num+ " ");

}

}

}

**Output:**

[10, 20, 30, 40]

10 20 30 40

10 20 30 40

* [Binary Tree](https://www.mygreatlearning.com/academy/learn-for-free/courses/binary-trees?gl_blog_id=17069)
* Binary Search Tree
* Heap
* Hashing
* Graph

**What is Algorithm ?**

Ans: Algorithm is a step by step procedure or a set of instructions that must be executed in a specific order to acheive the expected result / to search and sort anything fast and in an efficient way.

**Why do we need Algorithm ?**

Ans: to search and sort anything fast and in an efficient way… let say an example\_ when we search for an item in amazon then the application search and find the item efficiently according to our key data.

**What is types of algorithm in Java?**

Ans: The basic algorithms that are widely used are **linear search, binary search, merge sort, quick sort, insertion sort, bubble sort and selection sort**.

1) **linear search** is to search or find an item from a list OR an Array.

**How:** It search for item by checking the index from 0 of the array. When it finds the item then stops seaching.

**: linear search flow chart… means working flow of the code.**

**Step 1 : start**

**Step 2 : searchItem = 16**

**Step 3 : index = 0**

**Step 4 : if (i < index) then go to step 8**

**Step 5 : if array[i] == searchItem then go to step 8**

**Step 6 : i++**

**Step 7 : go to step 4**

**Step 8 : print item found at index I then go to step 10**

**Step 9 : print item not found then go to step 10**

**Step 10 : stop**

: Example

**public** **class** Algorithm\_linearSearch {

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

**int**[] numbers = {29, 32, 4, 8, 16, 26};

**int** searchItem = 164;

//Runtime complexity : O(N) (means how many time runs the loop.)

//Space complexity : O(1) (how much memory taken. here 1 time in the array only)

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length; i++) {

**if**(numbers[i] == searchItem) {

System.***out***.println("item is found at index : "+ i);

**return**;

//here return will stop execution for next lines of code.

//could use break; too.

}

}

System.***out***.println("item not found");

}

}

2) **Binery Search** is search an item thru Binary technic.

Like when I search for an item, it will response YES or NO only.

int[] numbers = {10, 45, 83, 54, 91, 58};

item 96 ? ---------- YES. Index=4.

item 85 ? ---------- NO.

item 58 ? ------------ YES. Index=5.

: code will check the middleIndex value with expected value…

1st- if the value equals with expected value then print the value,

2nd- if the value smaller than expected value then it will make the (middleIndex+1) as FirstIndex.

3rd- if the value greater than expected value then it will make the (middleIndex-1) as lastIndex.

: Example-

**public** **class** Algorithm\_Binary\_Search {

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

**int** counter = 0; // to see how many time loop rounded.

**int** searchItem = 100;

// array values should be in order/sequence. So sort first then search.

**int**[] numbers = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100};

**int** leftIndex = 0;

**int** rightIndex = numbers.length-1;

**int** middleIndex;

**while**(leftIndex < rightIndex) {

counter ++;

middleIndex = (leftIndex+rightIndex)/2;

**if**(numbers[middleIndex] == searchItem) {

System.***out***.println(searchItem + " found at index : "+ middleIndex);

System.***out***.println("counter : "+ counter);

**return**;

}

**else** **if**(numbers[middleIndex] < searchItem) {

leftIndex = middleIndex+1;

}

**else** **if**(numbers[middleIndex] > searchItem){

rightIndex = middleIndex-1;

}

}

System.***out***.println("Item did not found");

}

}

// using while loop in binary seach some time first&last element not found.

// for loop works more acurate.

**public** **static** **void** binarySearch() {

**int**[] num = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100};

**int** searchItem = 100;

**int** firstIndex = 0;

**int** lastIndex = num.length-1;

**int** middleIndex;

**for**(**int** i=0; i<num.length; i++) {

middleIndex = (firstIndex+lastIndex)/2;

**if**(searchItem == num[middleIndex]) {

System.***out***.println(searchItem + " found at index: "+ middleIndex);

**break**;

}

**else** **if**(searchItem > num[middleIndex]) {

firstIndex = middleIndex+1;

}

**else** {

lastIndex = middleIndex-1;

}

}

}

**\* What is Bubble sort ?**

**Ans: Bubble sort is a macanism to sort unsorted array or list values by comparing between values.**

**: why ?**

**Ans: for example- when we search any item on amazon/ebay based on least price then we need to sort the item price lower to higher.**

**: how ?**

**Ans: compare and swapping between two numbers thru the array or list we can sort the numbers. We have to use for loops two times.**

**public** **class** Bubble\_Sort {

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

**int**[] numbers = {6, 2, 4, 1, 5, 8, 0, 9, 7, 3};

System.***out***.println(Arrays.*toString*(numbers));

**int** length = numbers.length;

System.***out***.println();

**for**(**int** i=0; i< length; i++) {

**for**(**int** j=0; j< length -1-i; j++) {

**if**(numbers[j]>numbers[j+1]) {

//swap two numbers

**int** temp = numbers[j];

numbers[j] = numbers[j+1];

numbers[j+1] = temp;

}

}

}

**for**(**int** i=0; i<length; i++) {

System.***out***.print(numbers[i]+" .");

}

}

}

**\* What is selection sort ?**

**Ans: selection is a sorting mecanism where the most-left index value is compared with all the right index values then swapped with the smallest value.**

**It’s not good for large data set.**

**public** **class** Selection\_sort\_2 {

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

**int**[] numbers = {9,8,7,6,5,4,3,2,1,0};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length; i++) {

System.***out***.print(numbers[i]+ ", ");

}

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length-1; i++) {

**for**(**int** j=i+1; j<numbers.length; j++) {

**if**(numbers[i]>numbers[j]) {

**int** temp = numbers[i];

numbers[i] = numbers[j];

numbers[j] = temp; }

}

}

System.***out***.println();

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length; i++) {

System.***out***.print(numbers[i]+", ");

}

}

}

**\*\* what is Insertion sort ?**

**Ans: insertion sort a mechanism to sort the values from array / list. Where I pick a value and store into a temp variable then compare with all the left-index values and find the largest value then move into right-index. Then temp value insert into the hole-index.**

**public** **class** Insertion\_sort\_2 {

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

**int**[] numbers = {9,8,7,6,5,4,3,2,1,0};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length; i++) {

System.***out***.print(numbers[i]+", ");

}

System.***out***.println();

**for**(**int** i=1; i<numbers.length; i++) {

**int** temp = numbers[i];

**int** j = i-1;

**while**(j>=0 && numbers[j]>temp) {

numbers[j+1]=numbers[j];

j--;

}

numbers[j+1] = temp;

}

**for**(**int** i=0; i<numbers.length; i++) {

System.***out***.print(numbers[i]+", ");

}

}

}

**\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* Time complexity \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\***

**Runtime complexity:**

**1) for same type of operation complexity = O(1) : any number time of operation. its just size of the code.**

**2) for same type execution cycle complexity = O(n) : any number time of execution**

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data[i]); // O(n)

}

**----------------------------------------------------------------------------**

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**int**[] data2 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data[i]); // O(n)

}

**for**(**int** j=0; j<data2.length; j++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data2[j]); // O(n)

}

// O(n+n)

-------------------------------------------------------------------

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**int**[] data2 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

**for**(**int** j=0; j<data2.length; j++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]); // O(n^2)

}

}

---------------------------------------------------------------------------

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**int**[] data2 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

**for**(**int** j=0; j<data2.length; j++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]); // O(n^2)

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]);

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]);

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]);

// O(4n^2), but it doesn't matter how big the constant. still will be O(n^2)

}

}

------------------------------------------------------------------------------

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**int**[] data2 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

**for**(**int** j=0; j<data2.length; j++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data2[j] + data[i]); // O(n^2)

}

}

**for**(**int** j=0; j<data2.length; j++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data2[j]);

// O(n^2+n). but we cut off all of the things that scales less. so O(n^2)

}

------------------------------------------------------------------------------

**Share and Learn:**

1) O(1) : when a function has any number of constant(always same) instruction(operators)

and doesn't change execute cycle on input then time complexity will be O(1).

**public** **int** add(**int** a, **int** b, **int** c) {

**int** sum;

sum = a + b + c;

**return** sum;

}

**-----------------------------------------------------------------------------**

**2) O(n) : when a function will execute how many time depends on input the number then time complexity O(n).**

**char**[] data = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'};

**for**(**int** i=0; i<data.length; i++) { // one thing will happen again and again.

System.***out***.println(data[i]); // O(n)

}

**public** **void** print\_recursive(**int** n) {

**if**(n == 0) **return**; // here return means break;

print\_recursive(n = n -1);

System.***out***.println(n);

}

**int**[] arr = {10, 20,60,30,70};

**public** **void** print\_recursive(**int**[] array) {

**for**(**int** i=0; i<array.length; i++) {

System.***out***.println(array[i]);

}

}

**---------------------- w3resource.com/java-exercises ---------------------------**

**25.** Write a Java program to find common elements from three sorted (in non-decreasing order) arrays.

ArrayList<Integer> common = **new** ArrayList<Integer>();

**int** array1[] = {2, 4, 8};

**int** array2[] = {2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 16};

**int** array3[] = {4, 8, 14, 40};

**int** x = 0, y = 0, z = 0;

**while** (x < array1.length && y < array2.length && z < array3.length){

**if** (array1[x] == array2[y] && array2[y] == array3[z]){

common.add(array1[x]);

x++;

y++;

z++;

}

**else** **if** (array1[x] < array2[y])

x++;

**else** **if** (array2[y] < array3[z])

y++;

**else**

z++;

}

System.***out***.println(common);

-------------------------------------------------------------

**26.** Write a Java program to move all 0's to the end of an array. Maintain the relative order of the other (non-zero) array elements.

**int** nums[] = {0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1};

**int** left = 0;

**int** right = nums.length-1;

Arrays.*sort*(nums);

**while**(left<right) {

**if**(nums[left]==1 && nums[right]==0) {

nums[left]=0;

nums[right]=1;

left++;

right--;

}

**else** **if**(nums[left]==0 && nums[right]==1) {

left++;

right--;

}

**else** **if**(nums[left]==1 && nums[right]==1) {

right--;

}

**else** **if**(nums[left]==0 && nums[right]==0) {

left++;

}

}

System.***out***.println(Arrays.*toString*(nums));

**-------------------------------------------------**

**class** Student{

**private** String name;

**private** **int** age;

**private** **int** id;

Student(String name, **int** age, **int** id){

**this**.name = name;

**this**.age = age;

**this**.id = id;

}

}

**class** work{

**public** **void** test() {

Student s1 = **new** Student("john", 34, 0021);

Student s2 = **new** Student("tom", 35, 0022);

ArrayList<Student> list = **new** ArrayList<>();

list.add(s1);

list.add(s2);

System.***out***.println(list);

**for**(Student student : list) {

System.***out***.println(student.name+" "+student.age+" "+student.id); }

}

}

**---------------------------OOPS----------------------------**

**7.** Write a Java program to create a class called "Bank" with a collection of accounts and methods to add and remove accounts, and to deposit and withdraw money. Also define a class called "Account" to maintain account details of a particular customer.

//Account.java

**public** **class** Account {

**private** String name;

**private** String accountNumber;

**private** **double** balance;

**public** Account(String name, String accountNumber, **double** balance) {

**this**.name = name;

**this**.accountNumber = accountNumber;

**this**.balance = balance;

}

**public** String getName() {

**return** name;

}

**public** **void** setName(String name) {

**this**.name = name;

}

**public** String getAccountNumber() {

**return** accountNumber;

}

**public** **void** setAccountNumber(String accountNumber) {

**this**.accountNumber = accountNumber;

}

**public** **double** getBalance() {

**return** balance;

}

**public** **void** setBalance(**double** balance) {

**this**.balance = balance;

}

**public** **void** deposit(**double** amount) {

balance += amount;

}

**public** **void** withdraw(**double** amount) {

balance -= amount;

}

**public** String getAccountInfo() {

**return** "Name: " + name + ", Account Number: " + accountNumber + ", Balance: " + balance;

}

}

--------------

//Bank.java

**import** java.util.ArrayList;

**public** **class** Bank {

**private** ArrayList < Account > accounts;

**public** Bank() {

accounts = **new** ArrayList < Account > ();

}

**public** **void** addAccount(Account account) {

accounts.add(account);

}

**public** **void** removeAccount(Account account) {

accounts.remove(account);

}

**public** **void** depositMoney(Account account, **double** amount) {

account.deposit(amount);

}

**public** **void** withdrawMoney(Account account, **double** amount) {

account.withdraw(amount);

}

**public** ArrayList < Account > getAccounts() {

**return** accounts;

}

}

------------------------

//Main.java

**import** java.util.ArrayList;

**public** **class** Main {

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

Bank bank = **new** Bank();

Account account1 = **new** Account("Peter Irmgard", "C0011", 5000);

Account account2 = **new** Account("Katja Ruedi", "C0121", 4500);

Account account3 = **new** Account("Marcella Gebhard", "C0222", 20000);

bank.addAccount(account1);

bank.addAccount(account2);

bank.addAccount(account3);

ArrayList < Account > accounts = bank.getAccounts();

**for** (Account account : accounts) {

System.***out***.println(account.getAccountInfo());

}

System.***out***.println("\nAfter depositing 1000 into account1:");

bank.depositMoney(account1, 1000);

System.***out***.println(account1.getAccountInfo());

System.***out***.println("No transaction in account2:");

System.***out***.println(account2.getAccountInfo());

System.***out***.println("After withdrawing 5000 from account3:");

bank.withdrawMoney(account3, 5000);

System.***out***.println(account3.getAccountInfo());

}

}

--------------------