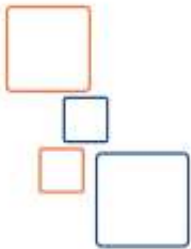


# CORE JAVA PROGRAMMING

AN INTRODUCTION TO JAVA



22-Jan-23

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# Course Duration and Evaluation

- Duration: 42 hours
  - 7 Lectures (21 hours)
  - 7 Labs (21 hours)
- Evaluation Criteria:
  - 60% on labs activities and assignments
  - 40% on written exam after 7 days of the last lectures.
- Course videos:
  - <https://maharatech.gov.eg/course/view.php?id=2052>

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# Lesson 1

An Overview of Java's History and Evolution

22-Jan-23

# The History and Evolution of Java

## HISTORY OF JAVA

James Gosling, Mike Sheridan, and Patrick Naughton initiated the Java language project in **June 1991**. The small team of sun engineers called **Green Team**.



James Gosling



# The History and Evolution of Java

- An easier—and more cost-efficient—solution was needed.
- Gosling and others began work on a **portable, platform-independent** language that could be used to produce code that would run on a variety of CPUs under differing environments.
- This effort ultimately led to the creation of **Java**.
- A second, and ultimately more important, factor was emerging that would play a crucial role in the future of Java. This second force was, of course, the World Wide Web.
- However, with the emergence of the World Wide Web, Java was pushed to the forefront of computer language design, because the Web, too, demanded portable programs.
- **Portable (platform-independent) programs is nearly as old as the discipline of programming itself**, it had taken a back seat to other, more pressing problems. Further, because (at that time) much of the computer world had divided itself into the three competing camps of **Intel, Macintosh, and UNIX**, most programmers stayed within their fortified boundaries, and the urgent need for portable code was reduced.
- By 1993, it became obvious to members of the Java design team that the problems of portability frequently encountered when creating code for embedded controllers are also found when attempting to create code for the Internet.
- **This realization caused the focus of Java to switch from consumer electronics to Internet programming.** So, while the desire for an **architecture-neutral** programming language provided the initial spark, the Internet ultimately led to Java's large-scale success.

# The History and Evolution of Java

- Java derives much of its character from C and C++. This is by intent. The Java designers knew that using the familiar syntax of C and echoing the object-oriented features of C++ would make their language appealing to the legions of experienced C/C++ programmers.
- Java shares some of the other attributes that helped make C and C++ successful.
  - Java was designed, tested, and refined by real, working programmers. It is a language grounded in the needs and experiences of the people who devised it. Thus, Java is a programmer's language.
  - Java is cohesive and logically consistent.
  - except for those constraints imposed by the Internet environment, Java gives you, the programmer, full control. **If you program well, your programs reflect it. If you program poorly, your programs reflect that, too.**

**Java is not a language with training wheels. It is a language for professional programmers.**

- The environmental change that prompted Java was the need for platform-independent programs designed for distribution on the Internet.
- Java also embodies changes in the way that people approach the writing of programs. For example, Java enhanced and refined the object-oriented paradigm used by C++, added integrated support for multithreading, and provided a library that simplified Internet access.

# The History and Evolution of Java

*Java was the perfect response to the demands of the then newly emerging, highly distributed computing universe.*

*Java was to Internet programming what C was to system programming:*

***A revolutionary force that changed the world.***



# The History and Evolution of Java

## How Java Impacted the Internet

- The Internet helped pushing Java to the forefront of programming, and Java, in turn, had a deep effect on the Internet.
- In addition to simplifying web programming in general, Java innovated a new type of networked program called the ***applet*** that changed the way the online world thought about content. Java also addressed some of the trickiest issues associated with the Internet: portability and security. Let's give some brief information about each of these:
  - **Java Applets**
  - **Security**
  - **Portability**

# The History and Evolution of Java

## How Java Impacted the Internet

- **Java Applets**

- At the time of Java's creation, one of its most exciting features was the applet. An *applet* is a special kind of Java program that is designed to be transmitted over the Internet and automatically executed inside a Java-compatible web browser.
- They were typically used to display data provided by the server, handle user input, or provide simple functions, such as a loan calculator, that execute locally, rather than on the server. In essence, the applet allowed some functionality to be moved from the server to the client.
- In the early days of Java, applets were a crucial part of Java programming.
- **Starting with JDK 9, applets are being phased out and deprecated**, with other mechanisms supplying an alternative way of delivering dynamic, active programs via the Web.

- **Security**

- **Portability**

# The History and Evolution of Java

## How Java Impacted the Internet

- **Security**

- As you are likely aware, every time you download a “normal” program, you are taking a risk, because the code you are downloading might contain a virus, Trojan horse, or other harmful code.
- Java achieved this protection by enabling you to confine an application to the Java execution environment and prevent it from accessing other parts of the computer.
- The ability to download programs with a degree of confidence that no harm will be done may have been one of the the most innovative aspect of Java at that time.

# The History and Evolution of Java

## How Java Impacted the Internet

- **Portability**

- Portability is a major aspect of the Internet because there are many different types of computers and operating systems connected to it.
- If a Java program were to be run on virtually any computer connected to the Internet, there needed to be some way to enable that program to execute on different systems.
- The same code must work on all computers. Therefore, some means of generating portable executable code was needed.
- The same mechanism that helps ensure security also helps create portability.

# Java's Magic: The Bytecode

- The key that allows Java to solve both the security and the portability problems just described is that **the output of a Java compiler is not executable code. Rather, it is bytecode.**
- *Bytecode* is a highly optimized set of instructions designed to be executed by the Java run-time system, which is called the **Java Virtual Machine (JVM)**. In essence, the original JVM was designed as an interpreter for bytecode.
- However, the fact that a Java program is executed by the JVM helps solve the major problems associated with web-based programs.

# Java's Magic: The Bytecode

- Translating a Java program into bytecode makes it much easier to run a program in a wide variety of environments because only the JVM needs to be implemented for each platform.
- Once the run-time package exists for a given system, any Java program can run on it. Remember, although the details of the JVM will differ from platform to platform, all understand the same Java bytecode.
- The fact that a Java program is executed by the JVM also helps to make it secure. Because the JVM is in control, it manages program execution.

# Java's Magic: The Bytecode

- It is possible for the JVM to create a restricted execution environment, called the **sandbox**, that contains the program, preventing unrestricted access to the machine.
- Although Java was designed as an interpreted language, there is nothing about Java that prevents on-the-fly compilation of bytecode into native code in order to boost performance.

# The Java Buzzwords

- No discussion of Java's history is complete without a look at the Java buzzwords.
- The key considerations were summed up by the Java team in the following list of buzzwords:

<b>Simple</b>	<b>Secure</b>	<b>Portable</b>	<b>Object-oriented</b>
Robust	Multithreaded	Architecture-neutral	Interpreted
High performance	Distributed	Dynamic	



# The Java Buzzwords

Simple	Secure	Portable	Object-oriented
Robust	Multithreaded	Architecture-neutral	Interpreted
High performance	Distributed	Dynamic	

- **Simple**

- Java was designed to be easy for the professional programmer to learn and use effectively.
- If you already understand the basic concepts of object oriented programming, learning Java will be even easier.
- If you are an experienced C++ programmer, moving to Java will require very little effort.

- **Object-Oriented**

- The object model in Java is simple and easy to extend, while primitive types, such as integers, are kept as high-performance non objects.

# The Java Buzzwords

Simple	Secure	Portable	Object-oriented
Robust	Multithreaded	Architecture-neutral	Interpreted
High performance	Distributed	Dynamic	

- **Robust**

- Because Java is a strictly typed language, it checks your code at compile time. However, it also checks your code at run time.
  - To better understand how Java is robust, consider two of the main reasons for program failure: memory management mistakes and mishandled exceptional conditions (that is, run-time errors).

- **Multithreaded**

- Java supports multithreaded programming, which allows you to write programs that do many things simultaneously.
- The Java run-time system comes with an elegant yet sophisticated solution for multiprocess synchronization that enables you to construct smoothly running interactive systems.

# The Java Buzzwords

Simple	Secure	Portable	Object-oriented
Robust	Multithreaded	Architecture-neutral	Interpreted
High performance	Distributed	Dynamic	

- **Architecture-neutral**
  - Their goal was “*write once; run anywhere.*” To a great extent, this goal was accomplished.
- **Interpreted and High Performance**
  - Java enables the creation of cross-platform programs by compiling into an intermediate representation called Java *bytecode*.
  - This code can be executed on any system that implements the Java Virtual Machine.
  - The Java bytecode was carefully designed so that it would be easy to translate directly into native machine code for very high performance by using a just-in-time compiler.

# The Java Buzzwords

Simple	Secure	Portable	Object-oriented
Robust	Multithreaded	Architecture-neutral	Interpreted
High performance	Distributed	Dynamic	

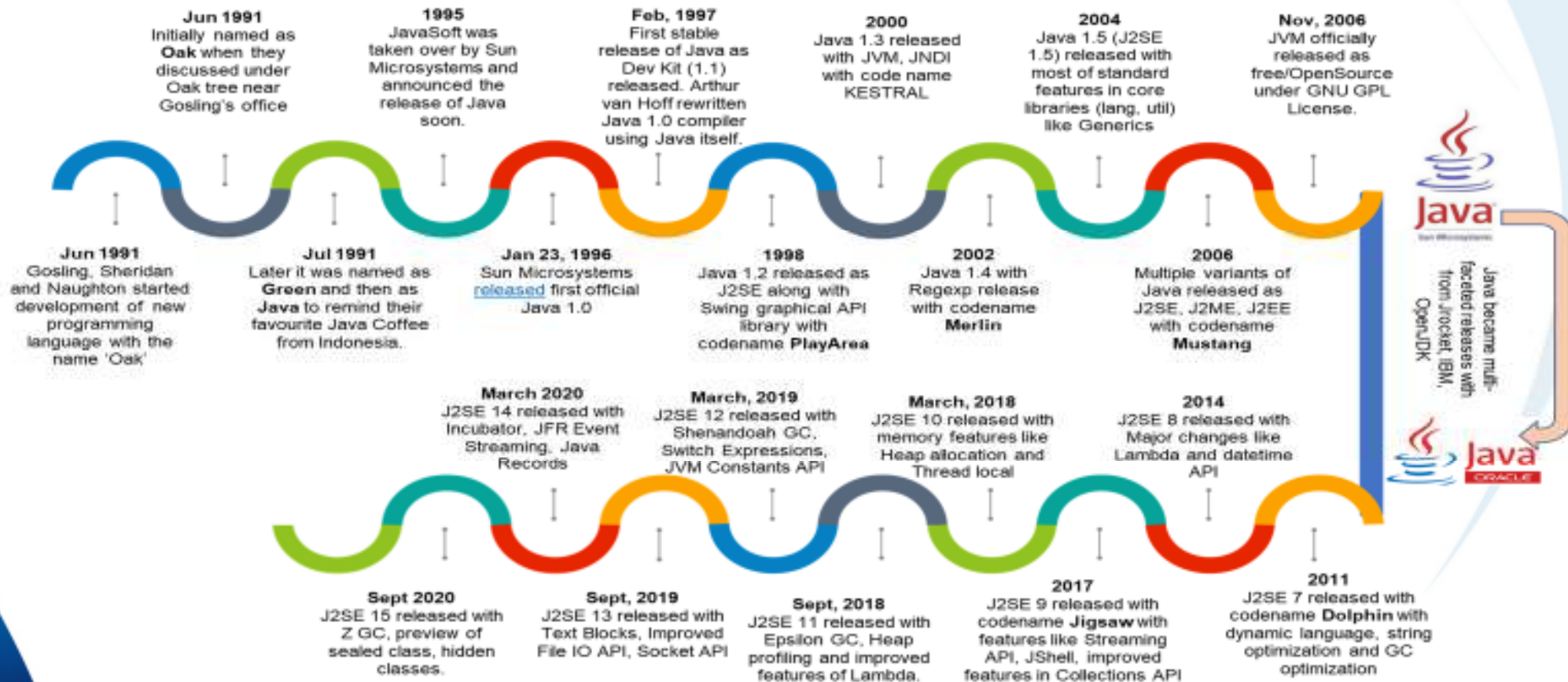
- **Distributed**

- Java is designed for the distributed environment of the Internet because it handles TCP/IP protocols.
- Java also supports Remote Method Invocation (RMI), this feature enables a program to invoke methods across a network.

- **Dynamic**

- Java programs carry with them substantial amounts of run-time type information that is used to verify and resolve access to objects at run time. This makes it possible to **dynamically link** code in a safe and convenient manner. This is crucial to the robustness of the Java environment, in which small fragments of bytecode may be dynamically updated on a running system.

# The Evolution of Java



## Agenda

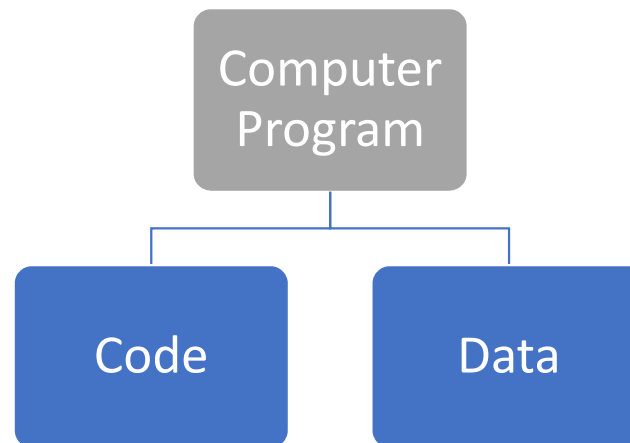
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# An Overview of Java

- Object-Oriented Programming
  - Object-oriented programming (OOP) is at the core of Java.
  - OOP is so integral to Java that it is best to understand its basic principles before you begin writing even simple Java programs.

# Computer Program Components

- These are the two paradigms that govern how a program is constructed.



- The first way is called the process-oriented model.
- The second approach, called object-oriented programming



# The Process-Oriented model

- The process oriented model can be thought of as code acting on data.
- Procedural languages such as C employ this model to considerable success.
- However, the problem with this approach appear as programs grow larger and more complex.

# The Object-Oriented Programming

- Object-oriented programming organizes a program around its data (that is, objects) and a set of well-defined interfaces to that data.
- An object-oriented program can be characterized as data controlling access to code.
- *We will be discussing the main characteristics of Object Oriented*

# Abstraction

- An essential element of object-oriented programming is abstraction.
- Humans manage complexity through abstraction.
- For example, people do not think of a *car* as a set of tens of thousands of individual parts. They think of it as a well-defined object with its own unique behavior.
- A powerful way to manage abstraction is through the use of hierarchical classifications.
- This allows you to layer the semantics of complex systems, breaking them into more manageable pieces.

# Abstraction

- From the outside, the car is a single object.
- Once inside, you see that the car consists of several subsystems: steering, brakes, sound system, seat belts, heating, cellular phone, and so on. In turn, each of these subsystems is made up of more specialized units.
- Hierarchical abstractions of complex systems can also be applied to computer programs.
- The data from a traditional process-oriented program can be transformed by abstraction into its component objects.
- A sequence of process steps can become a collection of messages between these objects.

# Abstraction

- Thus, each of these objects describes its own unique behavior.
- You can treat these objects as concrete entities that respond to messages telling them to *do something*.
- As you will see, object-oriented programming is a powerful and natural paradigm for creating programs that survive the changes accompanying the life cycle of any major software project, including conception, growth, and aging.

# The Three OOP Principles

- All object-oriented programming languages provide mechanisms that help you implement the object-oriented model.
- They are *encapsulation*, *inheritance*, and *polymorphism*.
- In the following slides we will be discussing these concepts briefly.

# Encapsulation

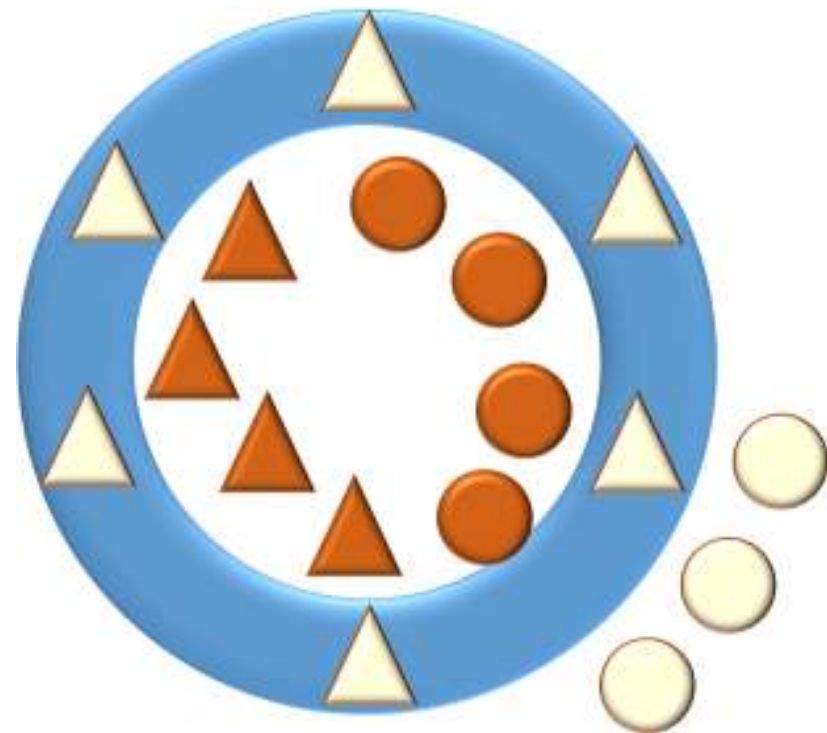
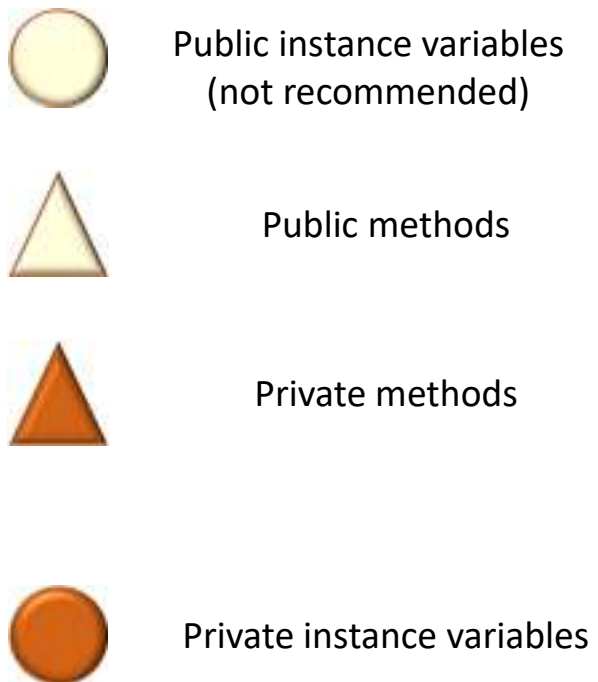
- Encapsulation is the mechanism that binds together code and the data it manipulates, and keeps both safe from outside interference and misuse.
- In Java, the basis of encapsulation is the class.
- A class defines the structure and behavior (data and code) that will be shared by a set of objects.
- Each object of a given class contains the structure and behavior defined by the class.
- *Thus, a class is a logical construct; an object has physical reality.*

# Encapsulation

- When you create a class, you will specify the code and data that constitute that class.
- The data defined by the class are referred to as *member variables* or *instance variables*.
- The code that operates on that data is referred to as *member methods* or just *methods*.



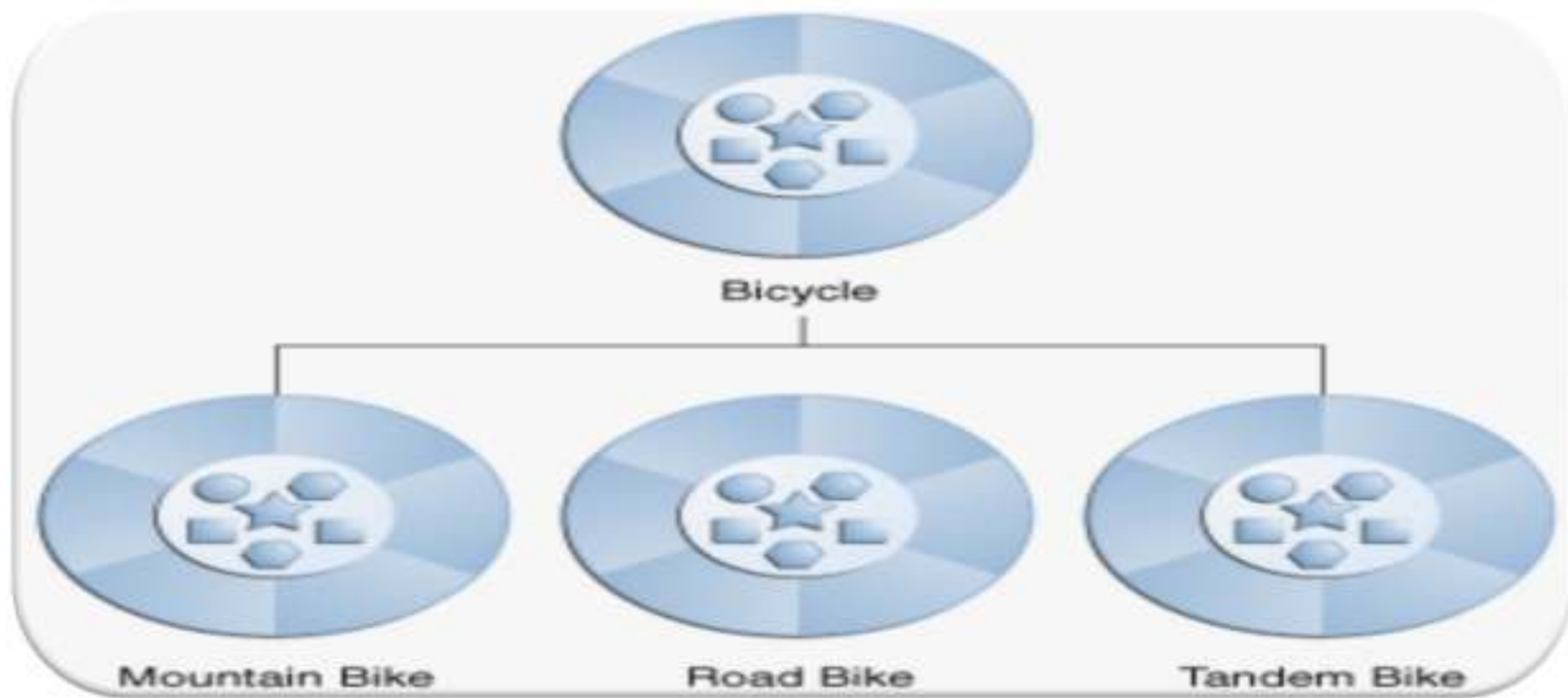
# Encapsulation- A Class Representation



# Inheritance

- Inheritance is the process by which one object acquires the properties of another object.
- This is important because it supports the concept of hierarchical classification.
- Without the use of hierarchies, each object would need to define all of its characteristics explicitly.
- By use of inheritance, an object need only define those qualities that make it unique within its class. It can inherit its general attributes from its parent.

# Inheritance

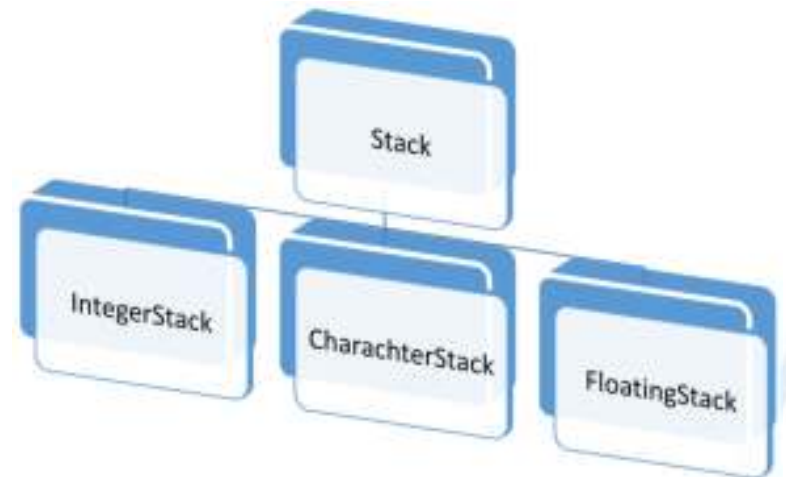


# Polymorphism

- Polymorphism (from Greek, meaning “many forms”) is a feature that allows one interface to be used for a general class of actions. The specific action is determined by the exact nature of the situation.
- More generally, the concept of polymorphism is often expressed by the phrase “*one interface, multiple methods.*” This means that it is possible to design a generic interface to a group of related activities.
- Consider a stack (which is a ***last-in, first-out*** list). You might have a program that requires three types of stacks. One stack is used for integer values, one for floating-point values, and one for characters.

# Polymorphism

- It is the compiler's job to select the specific action (that is, method) as it applies to each situation.
- You, the programmer, do not need to make this selection manually. You need only remember and utilize the general interface.
- The specific action would be determined depending on the calling object



# First Java Program

```
/*
```

This is a simple Java program.

Call this file "Example.java".

```
*/
```

```
class Example {
```

```
// Your program begins with a call to main().
```

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

```
        System.out.println("This is a simple Java program.");
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

# First Java Program

- For this example, the name of the source file should be **Example.java**.
- In Java, a source file is officially called a compilation unit.
- It is a text file that contains (among other things) one or more class definitions.
- The Java compiler requires that a source file use the .java filename extension.

# Compiling the Program

- To compile the Example program, execute the compiler, *javac*, specifying the name of the source file on the command line, as shown here:

```
C:\>javac Example.java
```

- The javac compiler creates a file called Example.class that contains the bytecode version of the program.
- As discussed earlier, the Java bytecode is the intermediate representation of your program that contains instructions the Java Virtual Machine will execute.



## Running the Program

- To actually run the program, you must use the Java application launcher called java. To do so, pass the class name Example as a command-line argument, as shown here:

```
C:\>java Example
```

- When the program is run, the following output is displayed:

```
C:\>This is a simple Java program.
```

# First Sample Program Examined

- The program begins with the following lines:

```
/*  
*This is a simple Java program.  
*Call this file "Example.java".  
*/
```

- The Above lines are multiline comments that are considered as remarks for the developer, explaining the operation of the program to anyone who is reading its source code.

# Java three Styles of Comments

`/*`  
Comment  
`*/`



**Multiline Comment**

`//` Comment  **Single Line Comment**

`/**`  
Comment  
`*/`



**Comments processed by Javadoc tool**

# First Sample Program Examined

- The next line of code in the program is shown here:  
`class Example {`
- This line uses the keyword ***class*** to declare that a new class is being defined.
- **Example** is an identifier that is the name of the class.
- The entire class definition, including all of its members, will be between the opening curly brace (`{`) and the closing curly brace (`}`).

# First Sample Program Examined

- The next line of code is shown here:

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

- As a general rule, a Java program begins execution by calling **main( )**.
- The **public** keyword is an access modifier, which allows the programmer to control the visibility of class members.
- When a class member is preceded by **public**, then that member may be accessed by code outside the class in which it is declared.
- In this case, **main( )** must be declared as **public**, since it must be called by code outside of its class when the program is started.

# First Sample Program Examined

- The keyword **static** allows **main( )** to be called without having to instantiate a particular instance of the class.
- This is necessary since **main( )** is called by the Java Virtual Machine before any objects are made.
- The keyword **void** simply tells the compiler that **main( )** does not return a value.
- **String args[ ]** declares a parameter named args, which is an array of instances of the class **String**.
- In this case, args receives any command-line arguments present when the program is executed.

# First Sample Program Examined

- The next line of code is shown here. Notice that it occurs inside **main( )**.

```
System.out.println("This is a simple Java program.");
```

- Output is actually accomplished by the built-in **println( )** method.
- **System** is a predefined class that provides access to the system, and **out** is the output stream that is connected to the console.

## Second Short Program

```
/*  
Here is another short example.  
Call this file "Example2.java".  
*/  
class Example2 {  
public static void main(String args[]) {  
int num; // this declares a variable called num  
num = 100; // this assigns num the value 100  
System.out.println("This is num: " + num);  
num = num * 2;  
System.out.print("The value of num * 2 is ");  
System.out.println(num);  
}  
}
```

*type var-name;*

*assigns to num the value  
100*

*the plus sign causes  
the value of num to  
be appended to the  
string that precedes  
it*



# Two Control Statements- if statement

- The Java **if statement** works much like the **if statement** in any other language.
- It determines the flow of execution based on whether some condition is true or false. Its simplest form is shown here:

- ***if(condition) statement;***

Where ***condition*** is a boolean expression that evaluates either ***true*** or ***false***

```
if(num < 100)
```

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

- if num contains a value that is less than 100, the conditional expression is true, and println( ) will execute.

# If Statement Example

```
/*  
Demonstrate the if. Call this file "IfSample.java".  
*/  
  
class IfSample {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int x, y;  
        x = 10; y = 20;  
        if(x < y) System.out.println("x is less than y");  
        x = x * 2;  
        if(x == y) System.out.println("x now equal to y");  
        x = x * 2;  
        if(x > y) System.out.println("x now greater than y");  
        // this won't display anything  
        if(x == y) System.out.println("you won't see this");  
    }  
}
```

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# Two Control Statements- the for Loop

- Loop statements are an important part of nearly any programming language because they provide a way to repeatedly execute some task.
- The simplest form of the for loop is shown here:

***for**(initialization; condition; iteration) statement;*

- The initialization portion of the loop sets a loop control variable to an initial value.
- The condition is a Boolean expression that tests the loop control variable.

# Two Control Statements- the for Loop

- If the outcome of that test is true, statement executes and the for loop continues to iterate.
- If it is false, the loop terminates.
- The iteration expression determines how the loop control variable is changed each time the loop iterates.

# For Loop Example

```
/*  
Demonstrate the for loop.  
Call this file "ForTest.java".  
*/  
class ForTest {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int x;  
        for(x = 0; x<10; x = x+1)  
            System.out.println("This is x: " + x);  
    }  
}
```

## ***The Output:***

```
This is x: 0  
This is x: 1  
This is x: 2  
This is x: 3  
This is x: 4  
This is x: 5  
This is x: 6  
This is x: 7  
This is x: 8  
This is x: 9
```

# Using Blocks of Code

- Java allows two or more statements to be grouped into *blocks of code*, also called *code blocks*.
- This is done by enclosing the statements between opening and closing curly braces.
- Once a block of code has been created, it becomes a logical unit that can be used any place that a single statement can.
- For example, a block can be a target for Java's if and for statements.

# Block of Code Example

```

/*
Demonstrate a block of code.
Call this file "BlockTest.java"
*/
class BlockTest {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        int x, y;
        y = 20;
        // the target of this loop is a block
        for(x = 0; x<10; x++) {
            System.out.println("This is x: " + x);
            System.out.println("This is y: " + y);
            y = y - 2;
        }
    }
}
  
```

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```

This is x: 0
This is y: 20
This is x: 1
This is y: 18
This is x: 2
This is y: 16
This is x: 3
This is y: 14
This is x: 4
This is y: 12
This is x: 5
This is y: 10
This is x: 6
This is y: 8
This is x: 7
This is y: 6
This is x: 8
This is y: 4
This is x: 9
This is y: 2
  
```

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

- Java programs are a collection of whitespace, identifiers, literals, comments, operators, separators, and keywords.
- **Whitespace**
  - Java is a free-form language. This means that you do not need to follow any special indentation rules.



# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

## • Identifier

- Identifiers are used to name things, such as classes, variables, and methods. An identifier may be any descriptive sequence of uppercase and lowercase letters, numbers, or the underscore and dollar-sign characters.
- They must not begin with a number, so as not to be confused with a numeric literal. Again, Java is case-sensitive, so **VALUE** is a different identifier than **Value**.

Valid identifiers	AvgTemp	count	a4	\$test	this_is_ok
Invalid identifiers	2count	high-temp	Not/ok	new Value	

**NOTE:** Beginning with JDK 9, the underscore cannot be used by itself as an identifier.

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

- **Literals**

- A constant value in Java is created by using a literal representation of it. For example, here are some literals:

<b>100</b>	<b>98.6</b>	<b>'X', '\u03c0'</b>	<b>"This is a test"</b>
integral literal	floating-point value	Character Literal	String Literal

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

- **Separators**

- In Java, there are a few characters that are used as separators. The most commonly used separator in Java is the semicolon. As you have seen, it is often used to terminate statements.
- The separators are shown in the following table:

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

Symbol	Name	Purpose
( )	Parentheses	Used to contain lists of parameters in method definition and invocation
{ }	Braces	Used to contain the value of automatically initialized arrays. Also used to define a block of code, for classes, methods and local scopes
[ ]	Brackets	Used to declare array types. Also used when dereferencing array values
;	Semicolon	Terminates statements

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

Symbol	Name	Purpose
,	Comma	Separates consecutive identifiers in a variable declaration. Also used to chain statements together inside a for statement
.	Period	Used to separate package names from subpackages and classes. Also used to separate a variable or method from a reference variable
::	Colons	Used to create a method or constructor reference
...	Ellipses	Indicates a variable-arity parameter
@	Ampersand	Begins an annotation

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

- **The Java Keywords**

- There are 61 keywords currently defined in the Java language.
- These keywords, combined with the syntax of the operators and separators, form the foundation of the Java language.
- In general, these keywords cannot be used as identifiers, meaning that they cannot be used as names for a variable, class, or method.
- The exceptions to this rule are the new context-sensitive keywords added by JDK 9 to support modules.
- The keywords **const** and **goto** are reserved but not used.
- In addition to the keywords, Java reserves the following: **true**, **false**, and **null**.

# Lexical Issues- Atomic Elements of Java

## • The Java Keywords

<b>abstract</b>	assert	boolean	break	byte	case	catch	char
class	const	continue	default	do	double	else	enum
exports	extends	<b>final</b>	finally	float	for	goto	if
implements	import	instanceof	int	interface	long	module	<b>native</b>
new	open	opens	package	<b>private</b>	<b>protected</b>	provides	<b>public</b>
requires	return	short	<b>static</b>	strictfp	super	switch	<b>synchronized</b>
this	throw	throws	to	<b>transient</b>	transitive	try	uses
void	<b>volatile</b>	while	with				

# Lab Exercises

- Create simple applications that performs the following actions:
  - Display a message to the command prompt.
  - Receives an input (as main arguments) and checks for its value and prints it back.
  - Receives two inputs (as main arguments) a number and a string and prints the string on different lines according to the given number.



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# Lesson 2

Data Types, Variables, and Arrays

# Introduction

- As with all modern programming languages, Java supports several types of datatypes. You may use these datatypes to declare variables and to create arrays.
- ***Java Is a Strongly Typed Language***
  - Every variable has a type, every expression has a type, and every type is strictly defined.
  - All assignments, whether explicit or via parameter passing in method calls, are checked for type compatibility.
  - The Java compiler checks all expressions and parameters to ensure that the types are compatible.

# The Primitive Types

- Java defines eight primitive types of data, that can be put in four groups:
- ***Integers***: This group includes **byte**, **short**, **int**, and **long**, which are for whole-valued signed numbers.
- ***Floating-point numbers***: This group includes **float** and **double**, which represent numbers with fractional precision.
- ***Characters***: This group includes **char**, which represents symbols in a character set, like letters and numbers.
- ***Boolean***: This group includes **boolean**, which is a special type for representing true/false values.

# The Primitive Types

- The primitive types represent single values—not complex objects. Although Java is otherwise completely object-oriented, the primitive types are not.
- The reason for this is efficiency. Making the primitive types into objects would have degraded performance too much.
- The primitive types are defined to have an explicit range and mathematical behavior.
- Languages such as C and C++ allow the size of an integer to vary based upon the dictates of the execution environment.

# Integer Types

Name	Width (in bits)	Range
long	64	$-2^{63}$ to $2^{63} - 1$
int	32	$-2^{31}$ to $2^{31} - 1$
short	16	$-2^{15}$ to $2^{15} - 1$
byte	8	$-2^7$ to $2^7 - 1$

## variable declaration examples:

byte b , c;

short s;

short t;

# Floating-Point Types

- Floating-point numbers, also known as real numbers, are used when evaluating expressions that require fractional precision.
- Java implements the standard (IEEE–754) set of floating-point types and operators.
- There are two kinds of floating-point types, float and double their width and ranges are shown here:

Name	Width in Bits	Approximate Range
double	64	4.9 e-324 to 1.8 e+308
float	32	1.4 e-45 to 3.4 e+38

# Characters

- In Java, the data type used to store characters is **char**.
- Java uses Unicode to represent characters.
- Unicode defines a fully international character set that can represent all of the characters found in all human languages.
- At the time of Java's creation, Unicode required 16 bits. Thus, in Java char is a 16-bit type.
- The standard set of characters known as ASCII still ranges from 0 to 127 as always, and the extended 8-bit character set, ISO-Latin-1, ranges from 0 to 255.



# Booleans

- Java has a primitive type, called boolean, for logical values.
- It can have only one of two possible values, **true** or **false**.
- This is the type returned by all relational operators, as in the case of **a < b**. **boolean** is also the type required by the conditional expressions that govern the control statements such as **if** and **for**.

# Literals

- literals are the values that could be assigned to primitive data types or strings.
- literals are categorized according to the data types categories, **Integer, Floating-Point, Boolean, and Character Literals**

# Integer Literals

```
int x=10;  
byte b=15;  
short s= 23;  
long l=15;
```

```
int x=012;  
byte b=0x15;  
short s= 0X23;  
long l=15L;
```

Beginning with JDK 7, you can also specify integer literals using binary or embed one or more underscores.

```
int x= 0b1010;  
int x=123_456_789;  
int x=0b1101_0101_0001_1010;
```

# Floating-Point Literals

- Floating-point numbers represent decimal values with a fractional component.
- They can be expressed in either *standard* or *scientific* notation.

## *Standard Notation*

```
double d=3.14159;  
double d1=0.6667;
```

## *Scientific Notation*

```
double d=314159E-05;  
double d1=6667e-4;
```

- Floating-point literals in Java default to double precision.
- To specify a float literal, you must append an **F** or **f** to the constant.

# Floating-Point Literals

- Hexadecimal floating-point literals are also supported, but they are rarely used.
- They must be in a form similar to scientific notation, but a **P** or **p**, rather than an **E** or **e**, is used.
- For example, **0x12.2P2** is a valid floating-point literal. The value following the **P**, called the ***binary exponent***, indicates the power-of-two by which the number is multiplied. Therefore, **0x12.2P2** represents **72.5**.

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**A1** We need to take a decision do we need to include this slide or not  
Author, 9/5/2018

# Boolean Literals

- There are only two logical values that a boolean value can have, ***true*** and ***false***.
- *The values of true and false do not convert into any numerical representation.*
- *The true literal in Java does not equal 1, nor does the false literal equal 0.*

# Character Literals

- A literal character is represented inside a pair of single quotes.
- All of the visible ASCII characters can be directly entered inside the quotes, such as `'a'`, `'z'`, and `'@'`.
- For characters that are impossible to enter directly, there are several escape sequences that allow you to enter the character you need, such as `'\'` for the single-quote character itself and `'\n'` for the newline character.



# Character Literals

- For octal notation, use the backslash followed by the three digit number. For example, `'\141'` is the letter 'a'. For hexadecimal, you enter a backslash-u ( `\u` ), then exactly four hexadecimal digits.
- For example, `'\u0061'` is the ISO-Latin-1 'a' because the top byte is zero.

Escape Sequence	Description	Escape Sequence	Description
<code>\ddd</code>	Octal character	<code>\uxxxx</code>	Hexadecimal Unicode character
<code>\'</code>	Single quote	<code>\"</code>	Double quote
<code>\\</code>	Backslash	<code>\r</code>	Carriage return
<code>\n</code>	New Line	<code>\f</code>	Form feed
<code>\t</code>	Tab	<code>\b</code>	Backspace

# String Literals

- String literals in Java are specified like they are in most other languages—by enclosing a sequence of characters between a pair of double quotes.
- Examples of string literals are:
  - “Hello World”
  - “two \n lines”
  - “\”This is in quotes \””
- Strings are actually object types. Java implements strings as objects, Java includes extensive string-handling capabilities that are both powerful and easy to use.

# Variables

- The variable is the basic unit of storage in a Java program.
- A variable is defined by the combination of an identifier, a type, and an optional initializer.
- In addition, all variables have a scope, which defines their visibility, and a lifetime.

# Variables

- **Declaring a Variable**

- All variables must be declared before they can be used.
- The basic form of a variable declaration is shown here:

***type identifier [ = value ][, identifier [= value ] ...];***

***int a, b, c;***

***int d= 3, e, f=5;***

***byte z= 22;***

***double pi=3.14159;***

***char x='x';***

# Variables

- **Dynamic Initialization**

- The preceding examples have used only constants as initializers
- Java allows variables to be initialized dynamically, using any expression valid at the time the variable is declared.

***double a=3.0, b=4.0;***

***double c= Math.sqrt (a\*a + b\*b);***

# Variables

- **The Scope and Lifetime of Variables**

- Java allows variables to be declared within any block
- A block defines a scope. Thus, each time you start a new block, you are creating a new scope.
- A scope determines what objects are visible to other parts of your program. It also determines the lifetime of those objects.
- The two major scopes are those defined by a class and those defined by a method.
- The scope defined by a method begins with its opening curly brace. However, if that method has parameters, they too are included within the method's scope.

# Variables- Scope Example

//Demonstrate block scope.

```
class Scope {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        int x; // known to all code within main
        x = 10;
        if(x == 10) { // start new scope
            int y = 20; // known only to this block
            // x and y both known here.
            System.out.println("x and y: " + x + " " + y);
            x = y * 2;
        }
        // y = 100; // Error! y not known here // x is still known here.
        System.out.println("x is " + x);
    }
}
```

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# Type Conversion and Casting

- It is fairly common to assign a value of one type to a variable of another type. If the two types are compatible, then Java will perform the conversion automatically.
- When one type of data is assigned to another type of variable, an automatic type conversion will take place if the following two conditions are met:
  - *The two types are compatible.*
  - *The destination type is larger than the source type.*
- When these two conditions are met, a **widening conversion** takes place.



# Type Conversion and Casting

- For widening conversions, the numeric types, including integer and floating-point types, are compatible with each other.
- However, there are no automatic conversions from the numeric types to ***char*** or ***boolean***. Also, ***char*** and ***boolean*** are not compatible with each other.
- Java also performs an automatic type conversion when storing a literal integer constant into variables of type ***byte***, ***short***, ***long***, or ***char***

# Casting Incompatible Types

- What if you want to assign an int value to a byte variable?
- This conversion will not be performed automatically, because a **byte** is smaller than an **int**.
- This kind of conversion is sometimes called a narrowing conversion, since you are explicitly making the value narrower so that it will fit into the target type.
- To create a conversion between two incompatible types, you must use a cast. A cast is simply an explicit conversion. It has this general form: **(target-type) value**

```
int a;  
byte b;  
b=(byte) a
```

# Automatic Type Promotion in Expressions

- In addition to assignments, there is another place where certain type conversions may occur: in expressions.
- In an expression, the precision required of an intermediate value will sometimes exceed the range of either operand. For example, examine the following expression:

***byte a=40;***

***byte b=50;***


***byte c =100;***

***int d=a \* b / c;***

# Arrays

- An array is a group of like-typed variables that are referred to by a common name.
- Arrays of any type can be created and may have one or more dimensions.
- A specific element in an array is accessed by its index.
- Arrays offer a convenient means of grouping related information.

# One-Dimensional Arrays

- A one-dimensional array is, essentially, a list of like-typed variables.
- To create an array, you first must create an array variable of the desired type.
- The general form of a one-dimensional array declaration is  
***type var\_name[ ];***  **int month\_days [ ];**
- To link ***month\_days*** with an actual, physical array of integers, you must allocate one using ***new*** and assign it to ***month\_days***.
- ***new*** is a special operator that allocates memory.

# One-Dimensional Arrays

- The general form of ***new*** as it applies to one dimensional arrays appears as follows:

***array-var = new type [size];***



***month\_days=new int [12];***

- After this statement executes, **month\_days** will refer to an array of 12 integers.
- Further, all elements in the array will be initialized to zero (The default value of the underlying data type).

# One Dimensional Array Example

//Demonstrate a one-dimensional array.

```
class ArrayTest {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int month_days[];  
        month_days = new int[12];  
        month_days[0] = 31; month_days[1] = 28;  
        month_days[2] = 31; month_days[3] = 30;  
        month_days[4] = 31; month_days[5] = 30;  
        month_days[6] = 31; month_days[7] = 31;  
        month_days[8] = 30; month_days[9] = 31;  
        month_days[10] = 30; month_days[11] = 31;  
        System.out.println("April has " + month_days[3] + " days.");  
    }  
}
```

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# Multidimensional Arrays

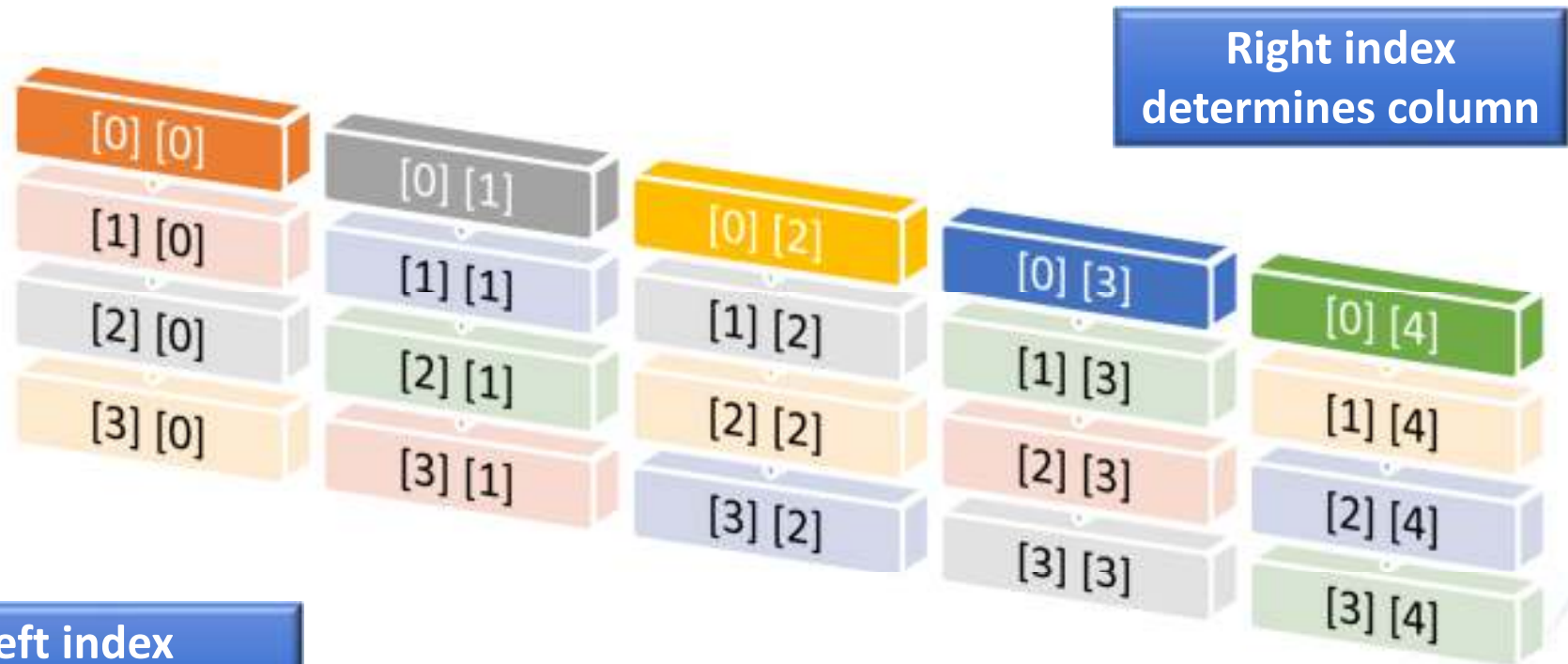
- *Multidimensional* arrays are implemented as arrays of arrays.
- To declare a multidimensional array variable, specify each additional index using another set of square brackets.

***int twoD [ ] [ ] = new int [ 4 ] [ 5 ]***

- This allocates a 4 by 5 array and assigns it to twoD. Internally, this matrix is implemented as an array of arrays of int.
- Conceptually, this array will look like the one shown in the following figure



## 2-Dimensional Array Conceptual View



## Lab Exercise

- Develop an application that extracts the minimum and maximum of the elements of an array of 1000 element and compute the search running time.
- Rewrite the application to implement the binary search algorithm and compute the search running time.

Hint: Use `System.currentTimeMillis()` or `System.nanoTime()`.

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# Lesson 3

Operators, Control Statements, and String Handling

# Operators

- Arithmetic Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Relational Operators
- Boolean Logical Operators
- The Ternary Operator (?)
- **instanceof** Operator
- The arrow Operator (->)

# Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Result
+	Addition (also unary plus)
-	Subtraction (also unary minus)
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulus
++	Increment
+=	Addition Assignment
-=	Subtraction Assignment
*=	Multiplication assignment
/=	Division Assignment
%=	Modulus Assignment
--	Decrement

- The operands of the arithmetic operators must be of a numeric type.
- Remember that when the division operator is applied to an integer type, there will be no fractional component attached to the result.

# The Bitwise Operators

- Java defines several bitwise operators that can be applied to the integer types: **long, int, short, char, and byte.**
- These operators act upon the individual bits of their operands. They are summarized in the following table:

# The Bitwise Operators

Operator	Result	Operator	Result
~	Bitwise unary Not	&=	Bitwise AND Assignment
&	Bitwise AND	=	Bitwise OR Assignment
	Bitwise OR	^=	Bitwise Exclusive OR Assignment
^	Bitwise Exclusive OR	>>=	Shift Right Assignment
>>	Shift Right	>>>=	Shift Right zero fill Assignment
>>>	Shift Right zero fill	<<=	Shift left Assignment
<<	Shift left		

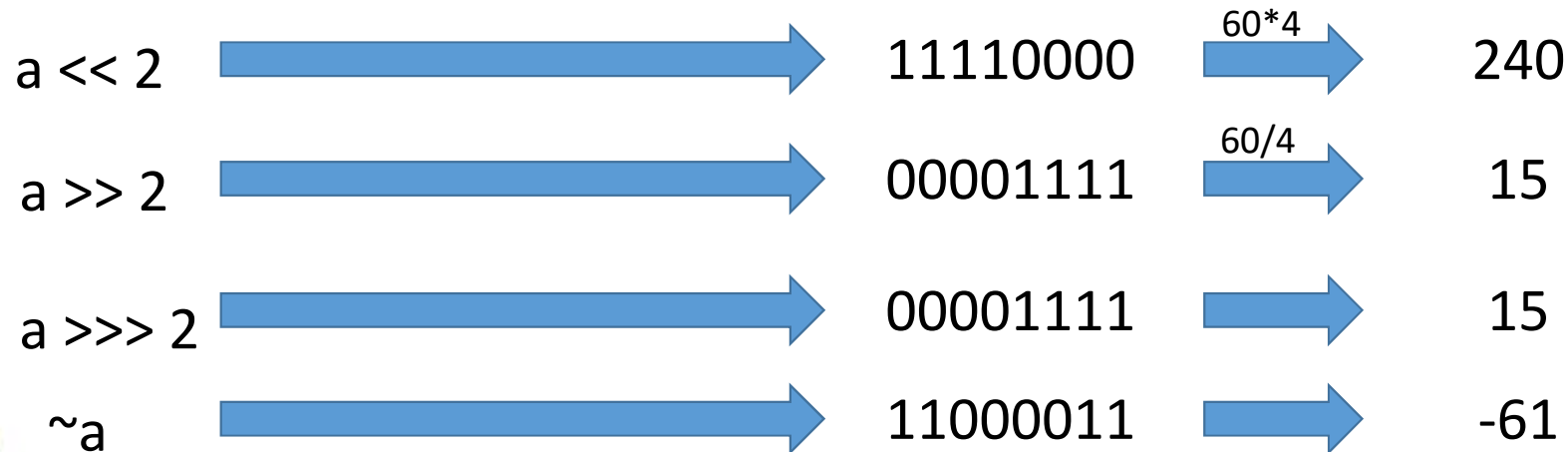


# The Bitwise Operators

- Assume if  $a = 60$ ; and  $b = 13$ ;

 $a = 0011\ 1100$ 
 $b = 0000\ 1101$ 

$$= 0 \cdot 2^0 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^5 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + 0 \cdot 2^7$$

 $a \& b = 0000\ 1100$ 
 $a | b = 0011\ 1101$ 
 $a \wedge b = 0011\ 0001$ 


# Relational Operators

- The relational operators determine the relationship that one operand has to the other
- They determine equality and ordering.
- The relational operators are shown here:

Operator	Result	Operator	Result
==	Equal to	<	Less than
!=	Not equal to	>=	Greater than or equal to
>	Greater than	<=	Less than or equal to

- The outcome of these operations is a boolean value.
- The relational operators are most frequently used in the expressions that control the if statement and the various loop statements.

# Boolean Logical Operators

- The Boolean logical operators shown below, operate only on boolean operands.
- All of the binary logical operators combine two boolean values to form a resultant boolean value.

Operator	Result	Operator	Result
&	Logical AND	&&	Short-circuit AND
	Logical OR		Short-circuit OR
^	Logical XOR (exclusive OR)	&=	AND assignment
!	Logical Unary Not	=	OR assignment
==	Equal to	!=	Not equal to

# Boolean Logical Operators

A					B
False					False
True					False
False					True
True					True

# Boolean Operators Example

//Demonstrate the boolean logical operators.

```
class BoolLogic {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        boolean a = true;  
        boolean b = false;  
        boolean c = a | b;  
        boolean d = a & b;  
        boolean e = a ^ b;  
        boolean f = (!a & b) | (a & !b);  
        boolean g = !a;  
        System.out.println("a = " + a); System.out.println("b = " + b);  
        System.out.println("a | b = " + c); System.out.println("a & b = " + d);  
        System.out.println("a ^ b = " + e); System.out.println("!a & b | a & !b = " + f);  
        System.out.println("!a = " + g);  
    }  
}
```

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# The Ternary Operator (?)

- Java includes a special ternary (three-way) operator that can replace certain types of if-then-else statements.
- The ? has this general form:

***expression1 ? expression2 : expression3***

- Here, expression1 can be any expression that evaluates to a boolean value. If expression1 is true, then expression2 is evaluated; otherwise, expression3 is evaluated.

***double ratio= total == 0 ? 0 : num / total***

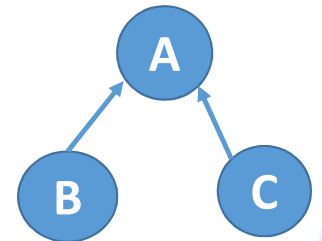
# instanceof Operator

- knowing the type of an object during runtime is useful.
- For example, you might have one thread of execution that generates various types of objects, and another thread that processes these objects.
- In this situation, it might be useful for the processing thread to know the type of each object when it receives it.
- Another situation in which knowledge of an object's type at run time is important involves casting. In Java, an invalid cast causes a run-time error.

# instanceof Operator

- For example, a superclass called A can produce two subclasses, called B and C. Thus, casting a B object into type A or casting a C object into type A is legal, but casting a B object into type C (or vice versa) isn't legal.
- Java provides the run-time operator instanceof to answer this question. The instanceof operator has this general form:

***objref instanceof type***



- Here, objref is a reference to an instance of a class, and type is a class type.



# instanceof example

```
class A {  
    int i, j;  
}  
class B {  
    int i, j;  
}  
class C extends A {  
    int k;  
}  
class D extends A {  
    int k;  
}
```

# instanceof example

```
class InstanceOf {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        A a = new A();  
        B b = new B();  
        C c = new C();  
        D d = new D();  
        if(a instanceof A)  
            System.out.println("a is instance of A");  
        if(b instanceof B)  
            System.out.println("b is instance of B");  
        if(c instanceof C)  
            System.out.println("c is instance of C");  
        if(c instanceof A)  
            System.out.println("c can be cast to A");  
        if(a instanceof C)  
            System.out.println("a can be cast to C");  
        System.out.println();  
    }  
}
```

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## Output:

```
a is instance of A  
b is instance of B  
c is instance of C  
c can be cast to A
```

# instanceof example

```
// compare types of derived types
```

```
A ob;  
ob = d; // A reference to d  
System.out.println("ob now refers to d");  
if(ob instanceof D)  
    System.out.println("ob is instance of D");  
System.out.println();  
ob = c; // A reference to c  
System.out.println("ob now refers to c");  
if(ob instanceof D)  
    System.out.println("ob can be cast to D");  
else  
    System.out.println("ob cannot be cast to D");  
if(ob instanceof A)
```

## Output:

```
ob now refers to d  
ob is instance of D
```

## Output:

```
ob now refers to c  
ob cannot be cast to D
```

# instanceof example

```
        System.out.println("ob can be cast to A");
    System.out.println();
    // all objects can be cast to Object
    if(a instanceof Object)
        System.out.println("a may be cast to Object");
    if(b instanceof Object)
        System.out.println("b may be cast to Object");
    if(c instanceof Object)
        System.out.println("c may be cast to Object");
    if(d instanceof Object)
        System.out.println("d may be cast to Object");
    }
}
```

**Output:**  
ob can be cast to A

**Output:**  
a may be cast to Object  
b may be cast to Object  
c may be cast to Object  
d may be cast to Object

# The arrow Operator (->)

- As of JDK 8, a new feature has been added to Java that profoundly enhances the expressive power of the language.
- This feature is the *lambda expression*.
- Not only do lambda expressions add new syntax elements to the language, they also streamline the way that certain common constructs are implemented.
- The addition of lambda expressions have also provided the catalyst for other new Java features ([\*Default Methods-Method Reference\*](#)).

# Lambda Expression

A *lambda expression* is, essentially, an anonymous (that is, unnamed) method.

However, this method is not executed on its own. Instead, it is used to implement a method defined by a functional interface. Thus, a lambda expression results in a form of anonymous class. Lambda expressions are also commonly referred to as *closures*.

A *functional interface* is an interface that contains one and only one abstract method

# Lambda Expression

The lambda expression introduces a new syntax element and operator into the Java language. The new operator, sometimes referred to as the *lambda operator* or the *arrow operator*, is **→**.

It divides a lambda expression into two parts.

The left side specifies any parameters required by the lambda expression. On the right side is the *lambda body*, which specifies the actions of the lambda expression.

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

`() -> 98.6`



- It evaluates to a constant value.
- This lambda expression takes no parameters, thus the parameter list is empty.
- It returns the constant value 98.6.
- Therefore, it is similar to the following method:
  - `double myMeth() { return 98.6; }`
- Of course the method defined by a lambda expression does not have a name

`() -> Math.random() * 100`



This lambda expression obtains a pseudo-random value from **Math.random()**, multiplies it by 100, and returns the result. It, too, does not require a parameter.



# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

When a lambda expression requires a parameter, it is specified in the parameter list on the left side of the lambda operator. Here is a simple example:

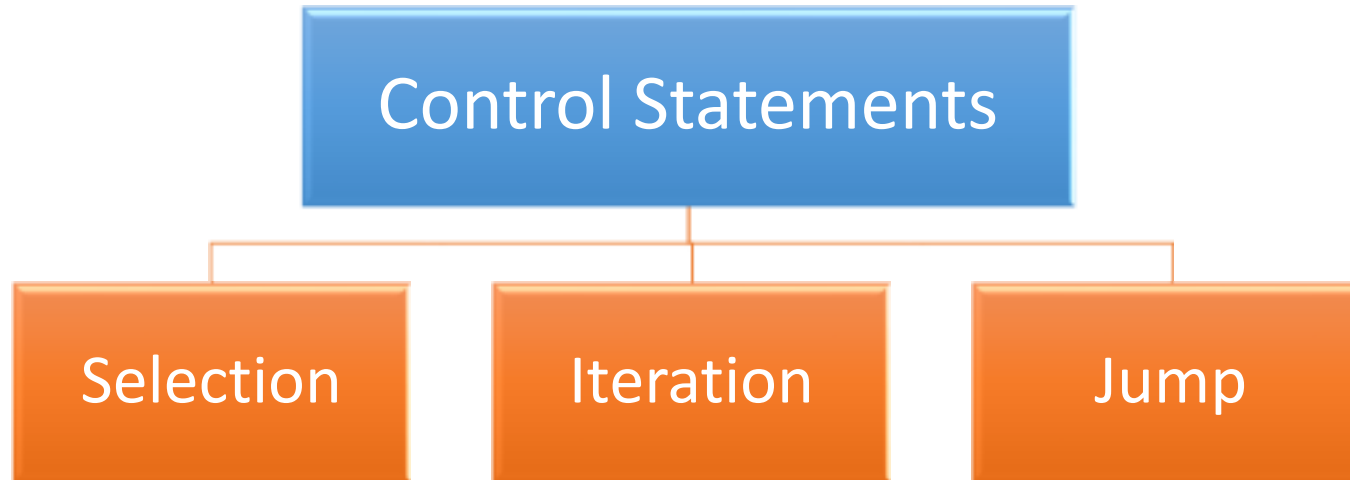
**$(n) \rightarrow 1.0 / n$**

- This lambda expression returns the reciprocal of the value of n
- If n is 4.0 then the reciprocal is 0.25
- The type of n can be inferred so you don't need to explicitly specify it.
- Like a named method, a lambda expression can specify as many parameters as needed

**$(n) \rightarrow (n \% 2) == 0$**

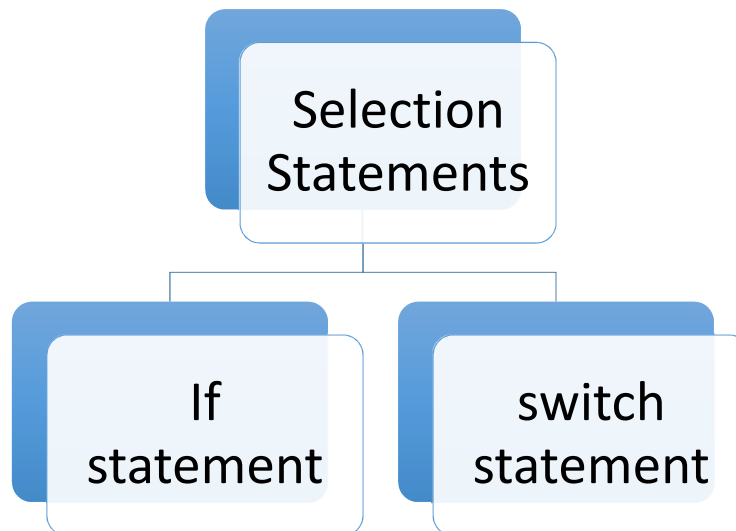
- Any valid type can be used as the return type of a lambda expression.
- The above lambda expression return ***boolean***
- When a lambda expression has only one parameter, it is not necessary to surround the parameter name with parentheses when it is specified on the left side.

# Control Statements in Java

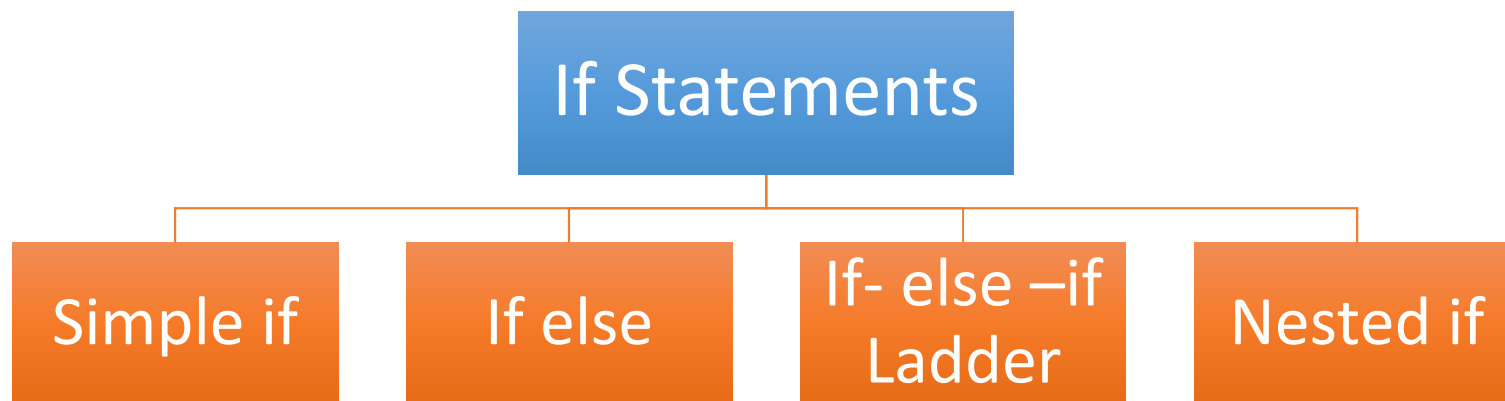


# Selection Statements

- Selection Statements are also called Decision Making Statements.



# If Statements



# Simple if

Syntax :

```
if (condition)
{
    statement1;
}
```

```
if(x < y) {
    System.out.println("x is less than y");
}
```

**Purpose:** The statements will be evaluated if the value of the condition is true.

# If else

Syntax :

```
if (condition)
{
    statement1;
}
else
{
    statement2;
}
```

```
if(x < y) {
    System.out.println("x is less than y");
}else {
    System.out.println("x is either equals
y or greater than y");
}
```

**Purpose:** The statement 1 is evaluated if the value of the condition is true otherwise statement 2 is true.

# If-else-if Ladder

Syntax :

```
if(condition)
    statements;
else if(condition)
    statements;
    else if(condition)
        statements;
    ...
    ...
else
    statements;
```

# If-else-if example

```
class IfElse {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int month = 4; // April  
        String season;  
  
        if(month == 12 || month == 1 || month == 2)  
            season = "Winter";  
        else if(month == 3 || month == 4 || month == 5)  
            season = "Spring";  
        else if(month == 6 || month == 7 || month == 8)  
            season = "Summer";  
        else if(month == 9 || month == 10 || month == 11)  
            season = "Autumn";  
        else  
            season = "Unknown Month";  
        System.out.println("April is in the " + season + ".");  
    }  
}
```



# Nested if

- A nested if is an if statement that is the target of another if or else.
- Nested ifs are very common in programming.

**Syntax :**

```
if(condition){  
    if(condition) statements....  
    else  
    statements....  
}else{  
    if(condition)  
    statements....  
    else  
    statements....  
}
```

# Example

```
class NestedIfDemo
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        int i = 10;

        if (i == 10)
        {
            // First if statement
            if (i < 15)
                System.out.println("i is smaller than 15");
            // Nested - if statement
            // Will only be executed if statement above
            // it is true
            if (i < 12)
                System.out.println("i is smaller than 12 too");
            else
                System.out.println("i is greater than 15");
        }
    }
}
```

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# switch case

**Purpose:** The statements N will be evaluated if the value of the expression matches the value N.

*Syntax :*  
switch (expression)  
{  
case value 1 :  
statement 1 ;  
break;  
case value 2 :  
statement 2 ;  
break;  
...  
case value N : statement N ; break;  
default :  
statements ; break;  
}

# Example

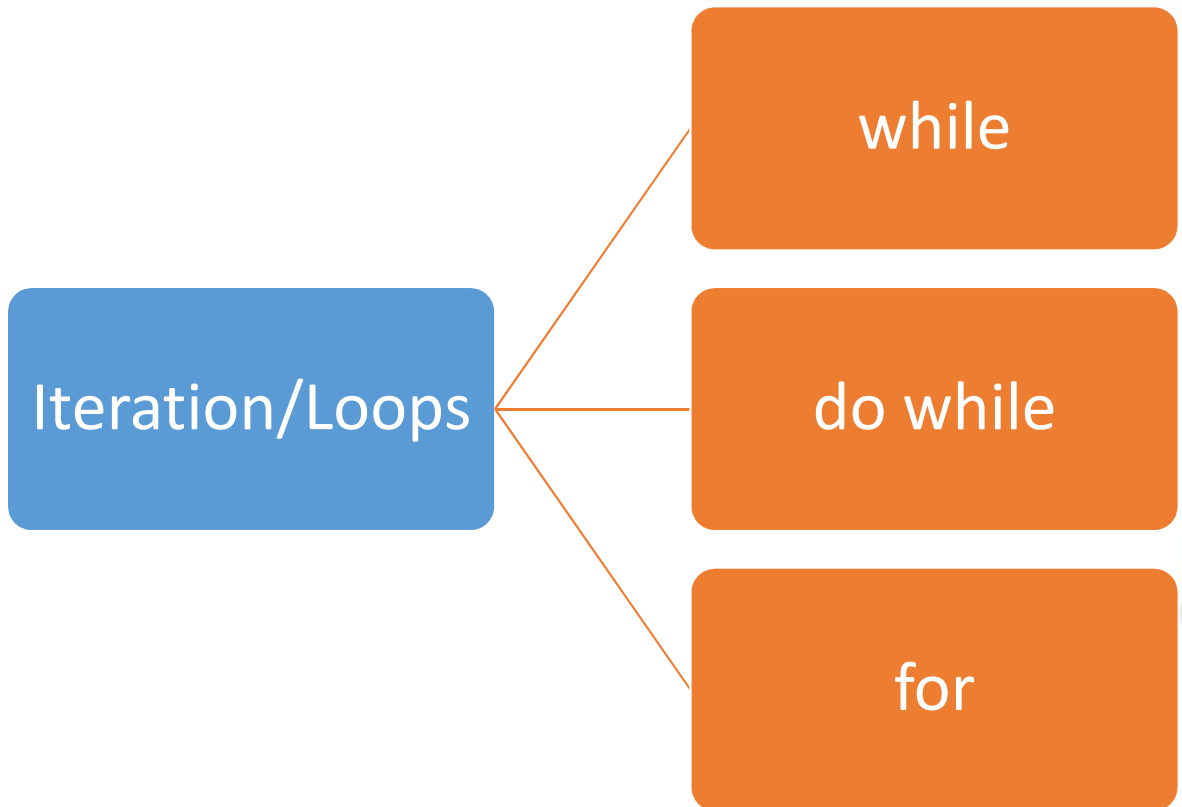
```
class SwitchCaseDemo
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        int i = 9;
        switch (i)
        {
            case 0:
                System.out.println("i is zero.");
                break;
            case 1:
                System.out.println("i is one.");
                break;
            case 2:
                System.out.println("i is two.");
                break;
            default:
                System.out.println("i is greater than 2.");
        }
    }
}
```

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# Iteration Statements

Each loop has four types of statements :

- ***Initialization***
- ***Condition checking***
- ***Execution***
- ***Increment / Decrement***



# while loop

- **Syntax**

```
initialization  
while(final value)  
{  
    statements;  
    increment/decrement;  
}
```

- **Purpose:** To evaluate the statements from initial value to final value with given increment/decrement.

```
int m=1;  
while(m<=20){  
    System.out.println(m);  
    m=m+1;  
}
```

# do while loop

- **Syntax**

**initialization**

**do{**

**statements;**

**increment/decrement;**

**}**

**while(final value);**

- **Purpose:** To evaluate the statements from initial value to final value with given increment/decrement.

```
int m=1;  
do{  
    System.out.println(m);  
    m=m+1;  
} while(m<=20);
```

# for loop

- **Syntax**

**for(initialization; termination condition; step)**

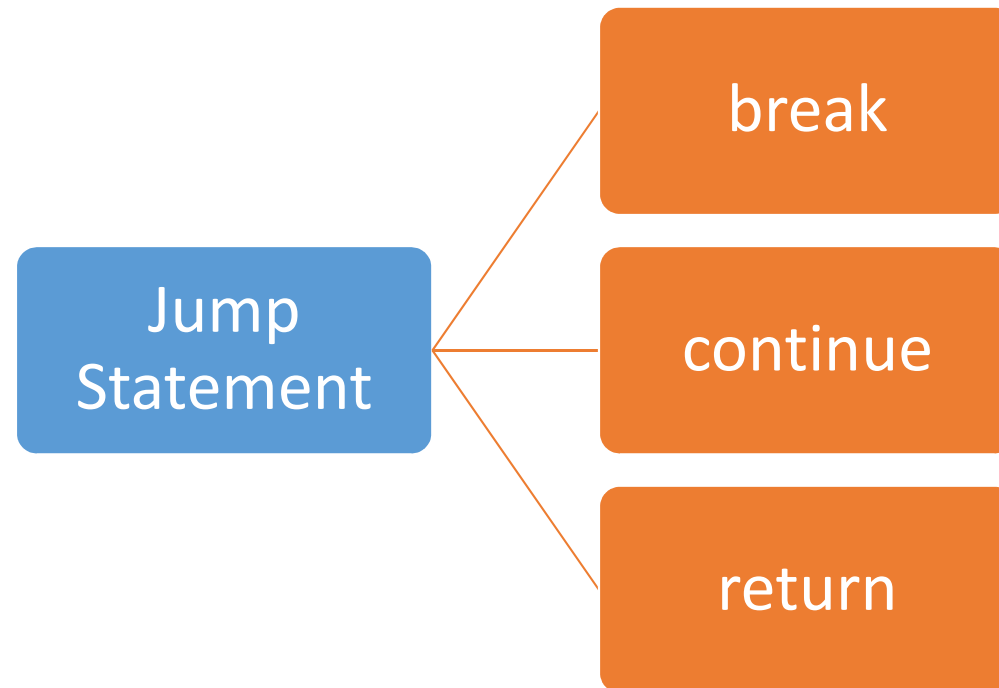
```
{  
    statements;  
}
```

- **Purpose:** To evaluate the statements from initial value to final value with given step.

```
for(int i=0; i<10; i++)  
{  
    System.out.println(i);  
}
```



# Jump Statements



# The break statement

- This statement is used to jump out of a loop.
- Break statement was previously used in switch – case statements.
- On encountering a break statement within a loop, the execution continues with the next statement outside the loop.
- The remaining statements which are after the break and within the loop are skipped.
- Break statement can also be used with the label of a statement.
- A statement can be labeled as follows.

**statementName : SomeJavaStatement**

When we use break statement along with label as:

**break statementName;**

# Example

```
class BreakLabelDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        outer: for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {  
            System.out.print("Pass " + i + ": ");  
            for (int j = 0; j < 100; j++) {  
                if (j == 10)  
                    break outer; // exit both loops  
                System.out.print(j + " ");  
            }  
            System.out.println("This will not print");  
        }  
        System.out.println("Loops complete.");  
    }  
}
```

# continue Statement

- This statement is used only within looping statements.
- When the continue statement is encountered, the next iteration starts.
- The remaining statements in the loop are skipped. The execution starts from the top of loop again.

# Example

```
class ContinueLabel {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
outer: for (int i=0; i<10; i++) {  
        for(int j=0; j<10; j++) {  
            if(j > i) {  
                System.out.println();  
                continue outer;  
            }  
            System.out.print(" " + (i * j));  
        }  
    }  
    System.out.println();  
}  
}
```

# The return Statement

- The last control statement is return. The return statement is used to explicitly return from a method.
- That is, it causes program control to transfer back to the caller of the method.
- The return statement immediately terminates the method in which it is executed.

# Example

```
//Demonstrate return.  
class ReturnDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        boolean t = true;  
        System.out.println("Before the return.");  
        if (t)  
            return; // return to caller  
        System.out.println("This won't execute.");  
    }  
}
```

# String Handling

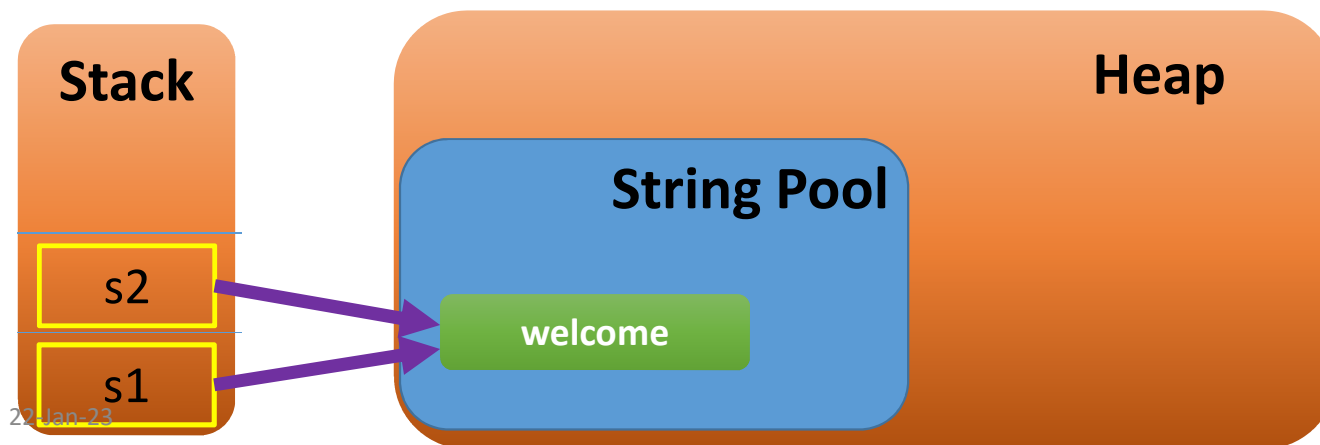


# The String Class (java.lang.String)

- String is a sequence of characters placed in double quote(" ").
- Strings are constant , their values cannot be changed in the same memory after they are created. (String is an ***Immutable class***)

# How to create String object

- There are two ways to create String object:
  - By string literal.
  - By new keyword.
- **By string literal:**
  - For Example: `String s1="welcome";`
    - `String s2="welcome";` //no new object will be created

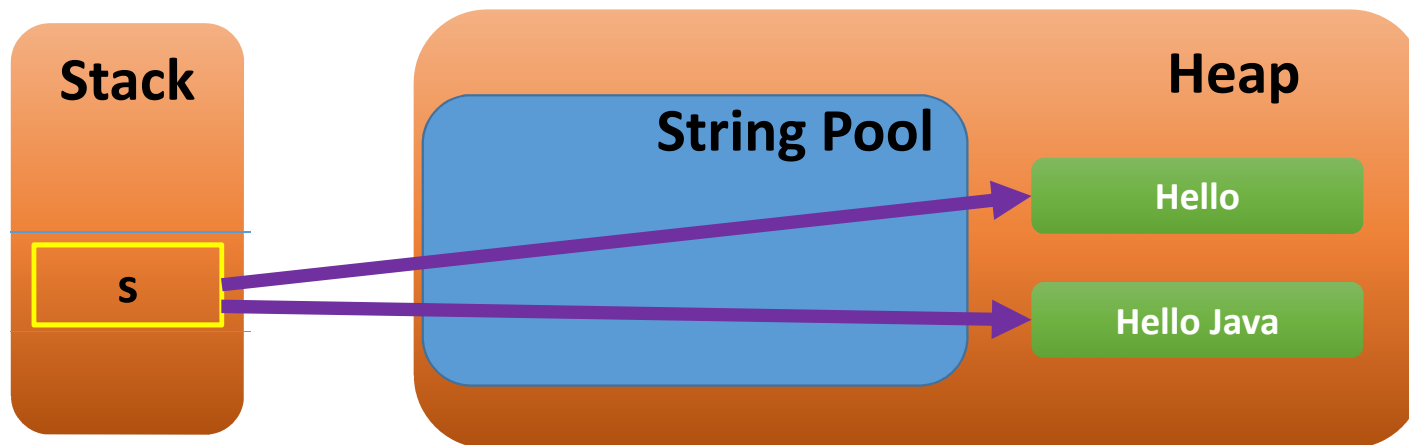


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## Create String By new keyword:-

- For Example:

```
String s=new String("Hello");  
s=new String("Hello Java");
```



# Immutability

In java, string objects are immutable.

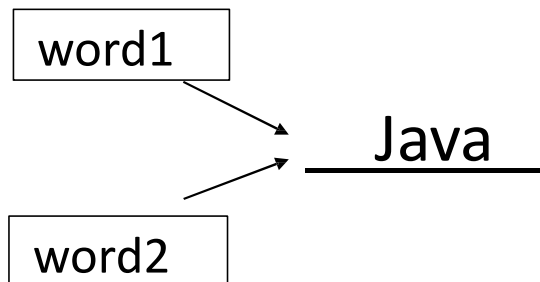
Immutable simply means unmodifiable or unchangeable.

Once string object is created its data or state can't be changed but a new string object is created.

# Advantages Of Immutability

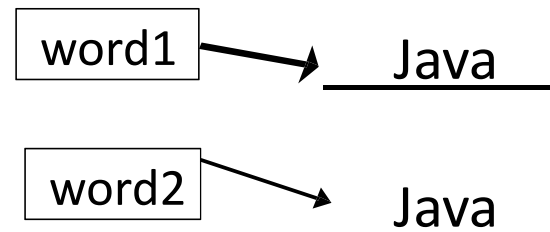
Use less memory:

```
String word1 = "Java";  
String word2 = word1;
```



more efficient: saves  
memory

```
String word1 = "Java";  
String word2 = new String("Java");
```



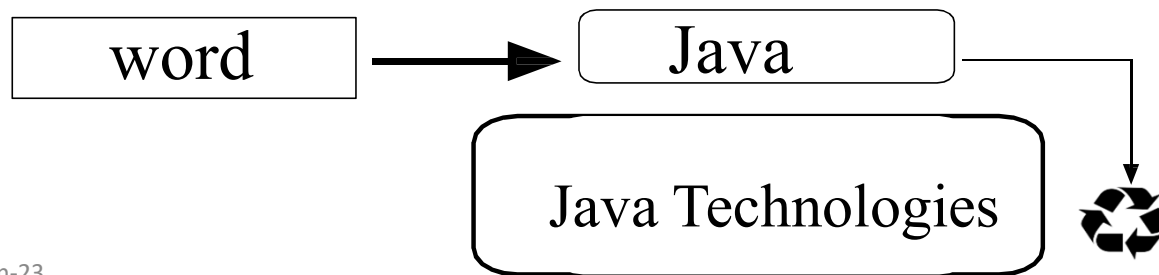
Less efficient: wastes  
memory

# Disadvantages of Immutability

**Less efficient** — you need to create a new string and throw away the old one even for small changes.

## Example:

```
String word = "Java";  
word = word.concat("Technologies");
```



# Constructors

- **No Argument Constructors:**

- No-argument constructor creates an empty String. Rarely used.

Example: **String empty=new String();**

- **Other Constructors:**

- Most other constructors take an array as a parameter to create a String.

Example:

```
char[] letters = {'J', 'a', 'v', 'a'};  
String word = new String(letters); //"Java"
```

# String Methods

- **substring(int begin):**

- Returns substring from begin index to end of the String.

Example:      **String s="helping";**  
**System.out.println(s.substring(2));**//lping

- **equals():**

- To perform content comparison where case is important.

- Example:

**String s="java";**  
**System.out.println(s.equals("java"));**//true

- **concat():** Adding two strings we use this method

Example:

**String s="test";**  
**s= s.concat("software");**  
**System.out.println(s);**  
**// testsoftware**



## length() , charAt()

**int length();**

- Returns the number of characters in the string

**char charAt(i);**

- Returns the char at position i.

Character positions in strings are numbered starting from 0 – just like arrays.

Returns:

"Problem".length();	→	7
"Window".charAt (2);	→	'n'

# New features of String

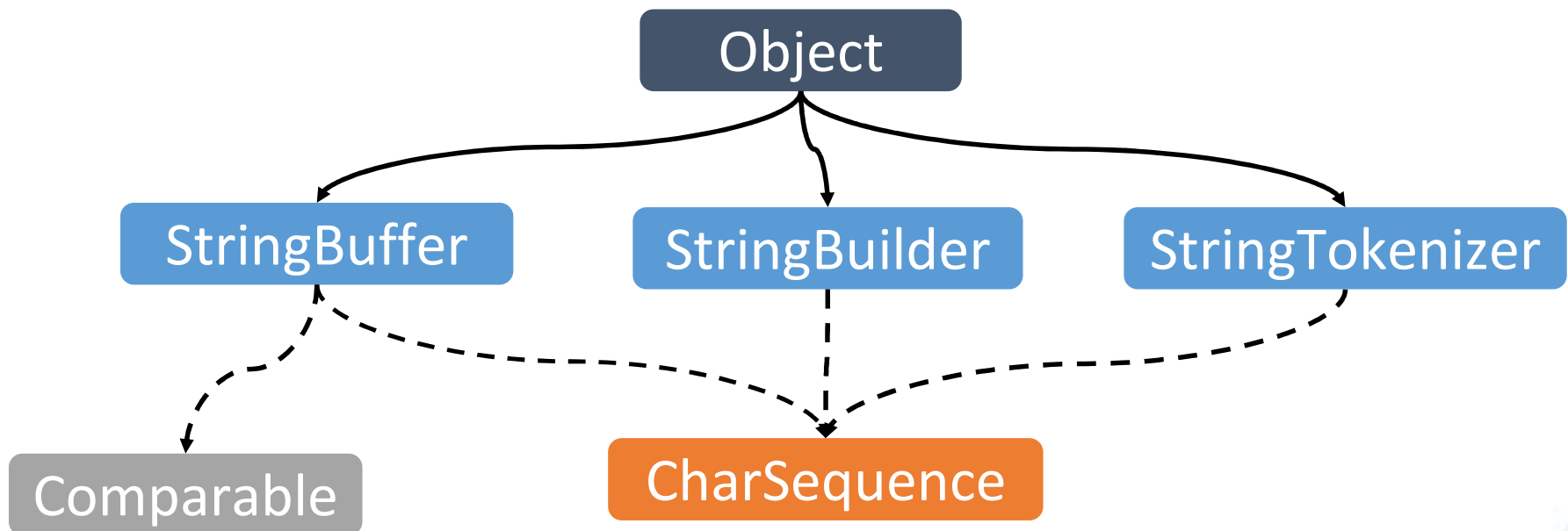
- In JDK 1.7 (Java 7):
  - Java 7 extended the capability of switch case to use Strings also, earlier java versions doesn't support this.
  - If you are implementing conditional flow for Strings, you can use if-else conditions and you can use switch case if you are using Java 7 or higher versions.

# StringBuffer, StringBuilder StringTokenizer

# StringBuffer, StringBuilder and StringTokenizer

- **Limitation of String in Java ?**
- **What is mutable string?**
  - A string that can be modified or changed is known as mutable string. StringBuffer and StringBuilder classes are used for creating mutable string.
- **Differences between String and StringBuffer in java?**
  - Main difference between String and StringBuffer is String is immutable while StringBuffer is mutable

# Relations between StringBuffer, StringBuilder and StringTokenizer:



All These classes are final and implement Serializable.

# StringBuffer

- StringBuffer is synchronized and allows us to mutate the string.
- StringBuffer has many utility methods to manipulate the string.
- This is more useful when using in a multithreaded environment.
- Always modified in same memory location.

# StringBuffer

- **StringBuffer Constructors:**
  - `public StringBuffer()`
  - `public StringBuffer(int capacity)`
  - `public StringBuffer(String s)`
  - `public StringBuffer(CharSequence cs)`

# Method Use In StringBuffer

- append
- insert
- delete
- reverse
- Replacing Character at given index



# StringBuilder

- StringBuilder is the same as the StringBuffer class
- The StringBuilder class is not synchronized and hence in a single threaded environment, the overhead is less than using a StringBuffer.

# StringTokenizer

- A *token* is a portion of a string that is separated from another portion of that string by one or more chosen characters (called *delimiters*).
- The *StringTokenizer* class contained in the *java.util package* can be used to break a string into separate tokens.
- This is particularly useful in those situations in which we want to read and process one token at a time;

## Lab Exercise

- Given a sentence and a word, your task is that to count the number of occurrences of the given word in the string and print the number of occurrence of the word.
  1. Perform the above task using only methods of the String class (2 ways).
  2. Print the tokenizers as a specific word is the delimiter using StringTokenizer class
- Split a string represent an IP address.

## Agenda

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# Lesson 4

Modifiers, Access Specifiers, Packages and Interfaces

# Modifiers, Access Specifiers, Packages and Interfaces

# Modifiers and Access Specifiers

- Modifiers and Access Specifiers are a set of keywords that affect the way we work with features (classes, methods, and variables).
- The following table illustrates these keywords and how they are used.

# Modifiers and Access Specifiers cont'd

Keyword	Top Level Class	Methods	Variables	Free Floating Block
<b>public</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
<b>protected</b>	-	Yes	Yes	-
<b>(friendly)*</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
<b>private</b>	-	Yes	Yes	-
<b>final</b>	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
<b>static</b>	-	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>abstract</b>	Yes	Yes	-	-
<b>native</b>	-	Yes	-	-
<b>transient</b>	-	-	Yes	-
<b>volatile</b>	-	-	Yes	-
<b>synchronized</b>	-	Yes	-	-



# Modifiers and Access Specifiers cont'd

```
class FreeBlocksExample
{
    static{           // Free Floating Block
        System.out.println("Free floating block");
    }

    {               // Common code among all Constructors
        System.out.println("Common Construtor body");
    }
    public FreeBlocksExample(){
        System.out.println("Default constr");
    }
}
```

# Modifiers and Access Specifiers cont'd

```
public FreeBlocksExample(int x){
```

```
    System.out.println("Construtor with one parameter");
```

```
}
```

```
public static void main(String []a)
```

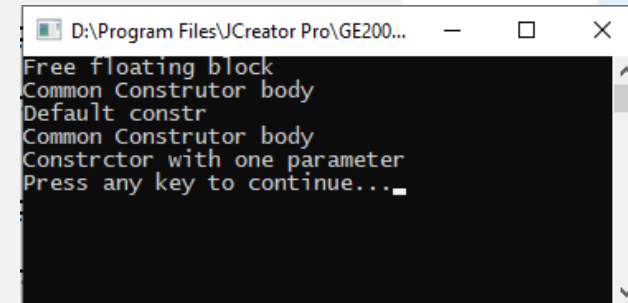
```
{
```

```
    FreeBlocksExample e = new FreeBlocksExample();
```

```
    FreeBlocksExample e2 = new FreeBlocksExample(5);
```

```
}
```

```
}
```



```
D:\Program Files\JCreator Pro\GE200...  
Free floating block  
Common Construtor body  
Default constr  
Common Construtor body  
Construtor with one parameter  
Press any key to continue...
```

# Packages

# Packages

- In the preceding lessons, the name of each example class was taken from the same name space. This means that a unique name had to be used for each class to avoid name collisions.
- After a while, without some way to manage the name space, you could run out of convenient, descriptive names for individual classes.
- You also need some way to be assured that the name you choose for a class will be reasonably unique and not collide with class names chosen by other programmers.

# Packages

- Java provides a mechanism for partitioning the class name space into more manageable chunks.
- This mechanism is the ***package***. The ***package*** is both a naming and a visibility control mechanism.
- You can define classes inside a package that are not accessible by code outside that package.
- You can also define class members that are exposed only to other members of the same package.

# Defining a Packages

- To create a package is quite easy: simply include a **package** command as the first statement in a Java source file.
- Any classes declared within that file will belong to the specified package.
- The **package** statement defines a name space in which classes are stored. If you omit the **package** statement, the class names are put into the default package, which has no name.
- This is the general form of the **package** statement:

`package pkg;`


*pkg* is the name of the package;

## Defining a Packages

- example, the following statement creates a package called **mypackage**:

```
package mypackage;
```

- Java uses file system directories to store packages. For example, the **.class** files for any classes you declare to be part of **mypackage** must be stored in a directory called **mypackage**.
- The general form of a multileveled package statement is shown here:

```
package pkg1[.pkg2[.pkg3]];      package a.b.c;
```

# Finding Packages and CLASSPATH

- How does the Java run-time system know where to look for packages that you create?
  - **First**, by default, the Java run-time system uses the current working directory as its starting point.
  - **Second**, you can specify a directory path or paths by setting the **CLASSPATH** environmental variable.
  - **Third**, you can use the **-classpath** option with **java** and **javac** to specify the path to your classes.



# Packages and Member Access

- Packages add another dimension to access control. As you will see, Java provides many levels of protection to allow fine-grained control over the visibility of variables and methods within classes, subclasses, and packages.
- Classes and packages are both means of encapsulating and containing the name space and scope of variables and methods.
- Packages act as containers for classes and other subordinate packages. Classes act as containers for data and code.

# Packages and Member Access

- Java addresses four categories of visibility for class members:
  - Subclasses in the same package
  - Non-subclasses in the same package
  - Subclasses in different packages
  - Classes that are neither in the same package nor subclasses
- The three access modifiers, **private**, **public**, and **protected**, provide a variety of ways to produce the many levels of access required by these categories. The following table sums up the interactions.

# Packages and Member Access

	private	No Modifier	protected	Public
Same class	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package non-subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Different package subclass	No	No	Yes	Yes
Different package non-subclass	No	No	No	Yes

# Importing packages

- In a Java source file, **import** statements occur immediately following the **package** statement (if it exists) and before any class definitions. This is the general form of the **import** statement:

```
import pkg1 [.pkg2].(classname | *);
```

*Example:*

```
import java.util.Date;
```

```
import java.io.*;
```

# Standard Java SE packages

- All of the standard Java SE classes included with Java begin with the name **java**.
- The basic language functions are stored in a package called **java.lang**.
- Normally, you have to import every package or class that you want to use, but since Java is useless without much of the functionality in **java.lang**, it is implicitly imported by the compiler for all programs.

# Standard Java SE packages

Package Name	Description
<b>java.lang</b>	Contains language support classes ( for e.g classes which defines primitive data types, math operations, etc.) . This package is automatically imported.
<b>java.io</b>	Contains classes for supporting input / output operations.
<b>java.util</b>	Contains utility classes which implement data structures like Linked List, Hash Table, Dictionary, etc and support for Date / Time operations.
<b>java.applet</b>	Contains classes for creating Applets.
<b>java.awt</b>	Contains classes for implementing the components of graphical user interface ( like buttons, menus, etc. ).
<b>java.net</b>	Contains classes for supporting networking operations.

# Interfaces

# Interfaces

- In OOP, it is sometimes helpful to define what a class must do but not how it will do it.
- An **abstract method** defines the **signature** for a method but provides **no implementation**.
- A **subclass** must provide its own **implementation** of each abstract method defined by its **superclass**.
- Thus, an **abstract method** specifies the **interface** to the method but not the *implementation*.
- In Java, you can fully separate a class' interface from its implementation by using the keyword **interface**.



# Interfaces

- An *interface* is syntactically similar to an **abstract class**, in that you can specify one or more methods that have no body.
- Those methods must be **implemented by a class** in order for their actions to be defined.
- An *interface* specifies what **must be done**, but **not how to do it**.
- Once an interface is defined, any number of classes can implement it.
- Also, one class can implement any number of interfaces.

# Interfaces

Here is a simplified general form of a traditional interface:

```
Access specifier interface name
{
    ret-type method-name1(param-list);
    ret-type method-name2(param-list);
    type var1 = value;
    type var2 = value;
    ::
    ::
}
```

- Access specifier is either **public** or not used (**friendly**)
- methods are declared using only their return type and signature.
- They are, essentially, **abstract** methods and are implicitly **public**.
- Variables declared in an **interface** are not instance variables.
- Instead, they are implicitly **public**, **final**, and **static** and must be **initialized**.

# Interfaces

Here is an example of an **interface** definition.

```
public interface Series
{
    int getNext();          // return next number in series
    void reset();           // restart
    void setStart(int x);  // set starting value
}
```

# Implementing Interfaces

The general form of a class that includes the **implements** clause looks like this:

```
access class classname extends superclass implements interface
{
    // class-body
}
```

# Implementing Interfaces

```
// Implement Series.  
class ByTwos implements Series  
{  
    int start;  
    int val;  
    ByTwos() {  
        start = 0;  
        val = 0;  
    }  
    public int getNext() {  
        val += 2;  
        return val;  
    }  
    public void reset() {  
        val = start;  
    }  
    public void setStart(int x) {  
        start = x;  
        val = x;  
    }  
}
```

- Class **ByTwos** implements the **Series** interface
- Notice that the methods `getNext()`, `reset()`, and `setStart()` are declared using the public access specifier

# Implementing Interfaces

```
public class SeriesDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        ByTwos ob = new ByTwos();  
        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {  
            System.out.println("Next value is " + ob.getNext());  
        }  
        System.out.println("\nResetting");  
        ob.reset();  
        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {  
            System.out.println("Next value is " + ob.getNext());  
        }  
        System.out.println("\nStarting at 100");  
        ob.setStart(100);  
        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {  
            System.out.println("Next value is " + ob.getNext());  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# Implementing Interfaces

```
// Implement Series.  
class ByThrees implements Series  
{  
    int start;  
    int val;  
    ByThrees() {  
        start = 0;  
        val = 0;  
    }  
    public int getNext() {  
        val += 3;  
        return val;  
    }  
    public void reset() {  
        val = start;  
    }  
    public void setStart(int x){  
        start = x;  
        val = x;  
    }  
}
```

- Class **ByThrees** provides another implementation of the **Series** interface
- Notice that the methods `getNext( )`, `reset( )`, and `setStart( )` are declared using the public access specifier

# Using interface reference

```
class SeriesDemo2
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        ByTwos twoOb = new ByTwos();
        ByThrees threeOb = new ByThrees();
        Series ob;

        for(int i=0; i < 5; i++) {
            ob = twoOb;
            System.out.println("Next ByTwos value is " + ob.getNext());
            ob = threeOb;
            System.out.println("Next ByThrees value is " + ob.getNext());
        }
    }
}
```



# General Consideration about interfaces

- **Variables** can be declared in an interface, but they are implicitly **public**, **static**, and **final**.
- To define a set of shared constants, create an interface that contains only these constants, without any methods.
- One **interface** can **inherit** another by use of the keyword **extends**. *The syntax is the same as for inheriting classes.*
- When a class implements an interface that inherits another interface, it must provide implementations for all methods required by the interface inheritance chain.

# Default Methods

- Prior to JDK 8, an interface **could not** define any implementation whatsoever.
- The release of JDK 8 changed this by adding a new capability to interface called the default method.
- A default method lets you define a **default implementation** for an interface method.
- You specify an interface default method by using the ***default*** keyword

# Default Methods

```
interface InterfaceA {  
    public void saySomething();  
    default public void sayHi() {  
        System.out.println("Hi");  
    }  
}
```

```
public class MyClass implements InterfaceA  
{  
    public void saySomething() {  
        System.out.println("Hello World");  
    }  
}
```

# Default Methods

- **Extending Interfaces That Contain Default Methods**

- Not mention the default method at all, which lets your extended interface inherit the default method.

```
interface Intf1 {
    default void method() { doSomething(); }
}

interface Intf2 extends Intf1 {
}
```

# Default Methods

- Extending Interfaces That Contain Default Methods
  - Redefine the default method, which overrides it.

```
interface Intf1 {  
    default void method() { doSomething(); }  
}  
  
interface Intf2 extends Intf1 {  
    default void method() { doAnother(); }  
}
```

# Default Methods

- Extending Interfaces That Contain Default Methods
  - Re-declare the default method, which makes it abstract.

```
interface Intf1 {  
    default void method() { doSomething(); }  
}  
  
interface Intf2 extends Intf1 {  
    abstract void method();  
}
```

# Use static Methods in an Interface

- JDK 8 added another new capability to interface:
  - The ability to define one or more **static methods**.
- Like static methods in a class, a static method defined by an interface can be called independently of any **object**.
- Thus, no implementation of the interface is necessary, and no instance of the interface is required in order to call a static method.

# Use static Methods in an Interface

```

public interface MyIF {
// This is a "normal" interface method declaration.
//It does NOT define a default implementation.

    int getUserID();

// This is a default method. Notice that it provides a
//default implementation.
    default int getAdminID()
    {
        return 1;
    }

// This is a static interface method.
    static int getUniversalID()
    {
        return 0;
    }
}
  
```



# Private Interface Methods

- Beginning with JDK 9, an interface can include a private method.
- A private interface method can be called only by a default method or another private method defined by the same interface.
- Because a private interface method is specified **private**, it cannot be used by code outside the interface in which it is defined.
- This restriction includes sub-interface because a private interface method is not accessible by a sub-interface.

# Private Interface Methods

- The key benefit of a private interface method is that it lets two or more default methods use a common piece of code, thus avoiding code duplication.
- Consider an example of a stack of integers, let us define an interface called ***IntStack*** that has two default methods called ***popNElements()*** and ***skipAndPopNElements()***.
- The first returns an array that contains the top *N* elements on the stack. The second skips a specified number of elements and then returns an array that contains the next *N* elements.

# Private Interface Methods

- Both use a private method called **getElements( )** to obtain an array of the specified number of elements from the stack.

```
//Another version of IntStack that has a private interface
//method that is used by two default methods.
interface IntStack {
    void push(int item); // store an item
    int pop(); // retrieve an item
    // A default method that returns an array that contains
    // the top n elements on the stack.
    default int[] popNElements(int n) {
        // Return the requested elements.
        return getElements(n);
    }
}
```

# Private Interface Methods

Java SE 9 New  
Feature

```
// A default method that returns an array that contains
// the next n elements on the stack after skipping elements
default int[] skipAndPopNElements(int skip, int n) {
    // Skip the specified number of elements.
    getElements(skip);
    // Return the requested elements.
    return getElements(n);
}

// A private method that returns an array containing
// the top n elements on the stack
private int[] getElements(int n) {
    int[] elements = new int[n];
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        elements[i] = pop();
    return elements;
}}
```

# Private Interface Methods

- Notice that both **popNElements( )** and **skipAndPopNElements( )** use the private **getElements( )** method to obtain the array to return.
- This prevents both methods from having to duplicate the same code sequence.
- Keep in mind that because **getElements( )** is private, it cannot be called by code outside **IntStack**. Thus, its use is limited to the default methods inside **IntStack**.

## Private Interface Methods

- Also, because **getElements( )** uses the **pop( )** method to obtain stack elements, it will automatically call the implementation of **pop( )** provided by the **IntStack** is implementation.
- Thus, **getElements( )** will work for any stack class that implements **IntStack**.

# Interfaces and Callbacks

- A common pattern in programming is the *callback* pattern.
- In this pattern, you specify the action that should occur whenever a particular event happens.
- Consider the following example:
- The *javax.swing* package contains a *Timer* class that is useful if you want to be notified whenever a time interval has elapsed.
- For example, if a part of your program contains a clock, you can ask to be notified every second so that you can update the clock face.

# Interfaces and Callbacks

- When you construct a timer, you set the time interval and you tell it what it should do whenever the time interval has elapsed.
- How do you tell the timer what it should do?
- You pass an object of some class. The timer then calls one of the methods on that object.
- Of course, the timer needs to know what method to call. The timer requires that you specify an object of a class that implements the **ActionListener** interface of the **java.awt.event** package. Here is that interface:



# Interfaces and Callbacks

```
public interface ActionListener  
{  
    void actionPerformed(ActionEvent event);  
}
```

- The timer calls the actionPerformed method when the time interval has expired.

# Interfaces and Callbacks

```
class TimePrinter implements ActionListener
{
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent event)
    {
        System.out.println("At the tone, the time is " +
            new Date());
        Toolkit.getDefaultToolkit().beep();
    }
}
```

# Interfaces and Callbacks

In the needed place to make callbacks

```
ActionListener listener = new TimePrinter();  
Timer t = new Timer(10000, listener);
```

# Functional Interfaces

- ❑ **Functional programming** is a style of programming (or a programming paradigm) where programs are executed by evaluating expressions.
- ❑ The output of a function is dependent on the values of its inputs [ *This means that if we call a function x amount of times with the same parameters we'll get exactly the same result every time* ].
- ❑ Allows us to focus on the problem rather than the code [*you specify what you want to accomplish in a task, but not how to accomplish it*]
- ❑ Functions can take functions as arguments and return functions as results.

# Functional Interfaces

- Functional interfaces are new additions in **java 8** which permit exactly one abstract method inside them.
- These interfaces are also called **Single Abstract Method interfaces (SAM Interfaces)**.
- These can be represented using Lambda expressions, Method reference and constructor references as well.
- Java 8 introduces an annotation i.e. **@FunctionalInterface** too, which can be used for compiler level errors when the interface you have annotated violates the contracts of Functional Interface.

# Functional Interfaces

```
package functionalInterfaceExample;  
  
@FunctionalInterface  
public interface MyFirstFunctionalInterface {  
    public void firstWork();  
}
```

# Functional Interfaces

```
package functionalInterfaceExample;  
@FunctionalInterface  
public interface MyFirstFunctionalInterface {  
    public void firstWork();  
    public void doSomeMoreWork();  
}
```

## Compilation Error

Unexpected @FunctionalInterface annotation  
@FunctionalInterface MyFirstFunctionalInterface is not a functional interface  
multiple non-overriding abstract methods found in interface  
MyFirstFunctionalInterface

# Functional Interfaces

```
package functionalInterfaceExample;  
  
@FunctionalInterface  
public interface MyFirstFunctionalInterface {  
    public void firstWork();  
    default public void doSomeMoreWork() {  
        .....  
    }  
}
```

## Compilation Error

Unexpected @FunctionalInterface annotation  
@FunctionalInterface MyFirstFunctionalInterface is not a functional interface  
multiple non-overriding abstract methods found in interface  
MyFirstFunctionalInterface



# Functional Interfaces

```
package functionalInterfaceExample;  
  
@FunctionalInterface  
public interface FirstFunctionalInterface  
{  
    public void firstWork();  
    @Override  
    public String toString();  
    @Override  
    public boolean equals(Object obj);  
}
```

Does not Compile



Compile

# Generic Functional Interface

- ❑ The functional interface associated can be generic.

```
// Use a generic functional interface.  
// A generic functional interface with two parameters  
// that returns a boolean result.  
@FunctionalInterface  
public interface SomeTest<T>  
{  
    boolean test(T n, T m);  
}
```

# Generic Functional Interface

```
// Class SomeTestImpl
class SomeTestImpl implements SomeTest<Integer>
{
    public boolean test(Integer n, Integer m) {
        return n%m ==0;
    }
}
```

# Generic Functional Interface

```
class GenericFunctionalInterfaceDemo
{
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        SomeTestImpl isFactor = new SomeTestImpl();
        if(isFactor.test(10, 2))
            System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

# Functional Interfaces Examples

- Package `java.util.function` contains several functional interfaces.
- Throughout the table, T and R are generic type names that represent the type of the object on which the functional interface operates and the return type of a method, respectively.
- The Following Tables show six of the basic generic functional interfaces.

# Functional Interfaces Examples

Interface	Description
<u><b>BinaryOperator&lt;T&gt;</b></u> “Represents an operation upon two operands of the same type, producing a result of the same type as the operands.”	Contains method <b>apply</b> that <b>takes two</b> T arguments, performs an operation on them (such as a calculation) and <b>returns a</b> value of type T.
<u><b>Consumer&lt;T&gt;</b></u> “Represents an operation that accepts a single input argument and returns no result”	Contains method <b>accept</b> that <b>takes a</b> T argument and <b>returns void</b> . Performs a task with it’s T argument, such as outputting the object, invoking a method of the object, etc.
<u><b>Function&lt;T,R&gt;</b></u> “Represents a function that accepts one argument and produces a result.”	Contains method <b>apply</b> that <b>takes a</b> T argument and <b>returns a</b> value of type R. Calls a method on the T argument and returns that method’s result.

# Functional Interfaces Examples

Interface	Description
<u><b><i>Predicate&lt;T&gt;</i></b></u> <b>“Represents a predicate (boolean-valued function) of one argument.”</b>	Contains method <b>test</b> that <b>takes a</b> T argument and <b>returns a</b> boolean. Tests whether the T argument satisfies a condition.
<u><b><i>Supplier&lt;T&gt;</i></b></u> <b>“Represents a supplier of results. There is no requirement that a new or distinct result be returned each time the supplier is invoked.”</b>	Contains method <b>get</b> that <b>takes no</b> arguments and <b>produces a</b> value of type T. Often used to create a collection object in which a stream operation’s results are placed.
<u><b><i>UnaryOperator&lt;T&gt;</i></b></u> <b>“Represents an operation on a single operand that produces a result of the same type as its operand”</b>	Contains method <b>apply</b> that <b>takes an</b> arguments of type T and <b>returns a</b> value of type T.

## Lab Exercise

- Develop an application to convert temperature from Centigrade to Fahrenheit using **Function<T,R>**
- Use the interfaces in java.util.function to build an application that defines the roots of the quadratic equation ( $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ ) and the roots could be computed by the following formula ( $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$ )



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# Lesson 5

Wrapper Classes, Autoboxing, Inner Classes

# Wrapper Classes

- Each primitive data type has a corresponding wrapper class.

boolean	→	Boolean
byte	→	Byte
char	→	Character
short	→	Short
int	→	Integer
long	→	Long
float	→	Float
double	→	Double

# Wrapper Classes cont'd

- There are three reasons that you might use a wrapper class rather than a primitive:
  1. As an argument of a method that expects an object.
  2. To use constants defined by the class,
    - such as **MIN\_VALUE** and **MAX\_VALUE**, that provide the upper and lower bounds of the data type.
  3. To use class methods for
    - converting values to and from other primitive types,
    - converting to and from strings,
    - converting between number systems (decimal, octal, hexadecimal, binary).

## Wrapper Classes cont'd

- They have useful methods that perform some general operation, for example:

---

<b>primitive xxxValue()</b>	→ convert wrapper object to primitive
-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

---

<b>primitive parseXXX(String)</b>	→ convert String to primitive
-----------------------------------	-------------------------------

---

<b>Wrapper valueOf(String)</b>	→ convert String to Wrapper
--------------------------------	-----------------------------

---

```
Integer i2 = new Integer(42);  
byte b = i2.byteValue();  
double d = i2.doubleValue();
```

```
String s3 =  
Integer.toHexString(254);  
System.out.println("254 is " + s3);
```

## Wrapper Classes cont'd

- They have special static representations, for example:

---

**POSITIVE\_INFINITY**

---

**NEGATIVE\_INFINITY**

---

**NaN**

Not a Number

In class Float &  
Double

# Autoboxing

# Autoboxing

- Beginning with JDK 5, Java has included two important features: *autoboxing* and *auto-unboxing*.
- ***Autoboxing*** is the process by which a primitive type is automatically encapsulated (boxed) into its equivalent type wrapper whenever an object of that type is needed.
- ***Auto-unboxing*** is the process by which the value of a boxed object is automatically extracted (unboxed) from a type wrapper when its value is needed.
- There is no need to call a method such as **intValue( )** or **doubleValue( )**.



# Autoboxing

```
Integer intObject=100; //autobox an int  
int i = intObject; //auto-unbox
```

## Autoboxing and Methods

- In addition to the simple case of assignments, autoboxing automatically occurs whenever a primitive type must be converted into an object; auto-unboxing takes place whenever an object must be converted into a primitive type.

# Inner Classes

# Inner Classes

- The Java programming language allows you to define a class within another class.
  - Such a class is called a *nested class* [*Inner Class*].

```
class OuterClass
{
    ...
    class InnerClass
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

# Why Use Inner Classes?

- There are several reasons for using inner classes:
  1. It is a way of logically grouping classes that are only used in one place.
    - If a class is useful to only one other class, then it is logical to embed it in that class and keep the two together.
    - Nesting such "helper classes" makes their package more streamlined.

# Why Use Inner Classes?

- There are several reasons for using inner classes:

## 2. It increases encapsulation.

- Consider two top-level classes, A and B, where B needs access to private members of A. By hiding class B within class A, A's members can be declared private and B can access them.
- In addition, B itself can be hidden from the outside world.

```
class A
{
    ...
    class B
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

# Why Use Inner Classes?

- There are several reasons for using inner classes:
  3. Nested classes can lead to more readable and maintainable code.
- Nesting small classes within top-level classes places the code closer to where it is used.

# Types of Inner Classes

- There are broadly four types of inner classes:
  1. Normal Member Inner Class
  2. Static Member Inner Class
  3. Local Inner Class (inside method body)
  4. Local Anonymous Inner Class

# 1. Normal Member Inner Class

```
public class OuterClass{  
    private int x ;  
    public void myMethod() {  
        MyInnerClass m = new MyInnerClass() ;  
        m.aMethod() ;  
        ..  
    }  
    public class MyInnerClass{  
        public void aMethod() {  
            //you can access private members of the outer class here  
            x = 3 ;  
        }  
    }  
}
```



# 1. Normal Member Inner Class

- In order to create an object of the inner class you need to use an object of the outer class.
- The following line of code could have been written inside the method of the enclosing class:

```
MyInnerClass m = this.new MyInnerClass();
```

- The following line of code is used to create an object of the inner class outside of the enclosing class:

```
OuterClass obj = new OuterClass() ;  
OuterClass.MyInnerClass m = obj.new MyInnerClass();
```

# 1. Normal Member Inner Class

- An inner class can extend any class and/or implement any interface.
- An inner class can assume any accessibility level:
  - private, (friendly), protected, or public.
- An inner class can have an inner class inside it.
- When you compile the java file, two class files will be produced:
  - **MyClass.class**
  - **MyClass\$MyInnerClass.class**
- The inner class has an implicit reference to the outer class.

# 1. Normal Member Inner Class

The inner class has an implicit reference to the outer class

```
public class MyClass{
    private int x ;
    public void myMethod() {
        MyInnerClass m = new MyInnerClass();
        m.aMethod();
    }
    class MyInnerClass{
        int x ;
        public void aMethod() {
            x = 10 ;    //x of the inner class
            MyClass.this.x = 25 ;    // x of the outer class
        }
    }
}
```

# Example

```
public class DataStructure {
    private final static int SIZE = 15;
    private int[] arrayOfInts = new int[SIZE];
    public void printEven() {
        InnerEvenIterator iterator = this.new InnerEvenIterator();
        while (iterator.hasNext()) {
            System.out.println(iterator.getNext() + " ");
        }
    }
    private class InnerEvenIterator {
        private int next = 0;
        public boolean hasNext() {
            return (next <= SIZE - 1);
        }
        public int getNext() {
            int retValue = arrayOfInts[next];
            next += 2;
            return retValue;
        }
    }
    public static void main(String s[]) {
        DataStructure ds = new DataStructure();
        ds.printEven();
    }
}
```

## 2. Static Inner Class

- You know, The normal inner class has implicitly a reference to the outer class that created it.
  - If you don't need a connection between them, then you can declare the **inner class static**.
- **A static inner class** means:
  - You don't need an outer-class object in order to create an object of a static inner class.
  - You can't access an outer-class object from an object of a static inner class.

## 2. Static Inner Class

- Static Inner Class:
  - is among the static members of the outer class.
  - When you create an object of static inner class, you don't need to use an object of the outer class (remember it's static!).
  - Since it is static, such inner class will only be able to access the static members of the outer class.

## 2. Static Inner Class (Example)

```
public class OuterClass{  
    int x ;  
    static int y;  
    public static class InnerClass{  
        public void aMethod(){  
            y = 10;           // OK  
            x = 33;           // wrong  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
InnerClass ic= new InnerClass(); // inside outer class  
OuterClass.InnerClass ic= new OuterClass.InnerClass();
```

## 3. Local Inner Class

```
public class MyClass {  
    private int x ;  
    public void myMethod(final String str, final int a) {  
        final int b;  
        class MyLocalInnerClass{  
            public void aMethod() {  
                //you can access private members of the outer class  
                //and you can access final local variables of the method  
            }  
        }  
        MyLocalInnerClass myObj = new MyLocalInnerClass();  
    }  
}
```



## 3. Local Inner Class

- The object of the local inner class can only be created below the definition of the local inner class (within the same method).
- The local inner class can access the member variables of the outer class.
- It can also access the local variables of the enclosing method if they are declared final.

## 4. Anonymous Inner Class

```
public class MyClass
{
    public static void main(String []args)
    {
        Timer t = new Timer(10000, new ActionListener() {
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent ae) {
                System.out.println("At the tone, the time is " + new
                    Date());
                Toolkit.getDefaultToolkit().beep();
            }

        });
    }
}
```

## 4. Anonymous Inner Class

- The whole point of using an anonymous inner class is to implement an interface or extend a class and then override one or more methods.
- Of course, it does not make sense to define new methods in anonymous inner class; how will you invoke it?
- When you compile the java file, two class files will be produced:
  - MyClass.class
  - MyClass\$1.class

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# Lesson 6

## Exception handling

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# Exceptions

# Dealing with Errors

- Encountering errors is unpleasant. If a user loses all the work he or she did during a program session because of a programming mistake or some external circumstance, that user may forever turn away from your program.
- At the very least, you must:
  - Notify the user of an error;
  - Save all work; and
  - Allow users to gracefully exit the program.

# Dealing with Errors

- For exceptional situations, such as bad input data with the potential to ruin the program, Java uses a form of error trapping called, naturally enough, ***exception handling***.
- Suppose an error occurs while a Java program is running.
  - The error might be caused by a file containing wrong information.
  - A bad network connection, or
  - use of an **invalid array index** or an attempt to use an object reference that hasn't yet been assigned to an object.



# Dealing with Errors

- Users expect that programs will act sensibly when errors happen. If an operation cannot be completed because of an error, the program ought to either:
  - Return to a safe state and enable the user to execute other commands; or
  - Allow the user to save all work and terminate the program gracefully.
- ***The mission of exception handling is to transfer control from where the error occurred to an error handler that can deal with the situation.***

# Dealing with Errors

- To handle exceptional situations in your program, you must take into account the errors and problems that may occur.
- ***What sorts of problems do you need to consider?***
  - *User input errors.*
  - *Device errors.*
  - *Physical limitations (Disks can fill up; you can run out of available memory)*
  - *Code errors*

# Dealing with Errors

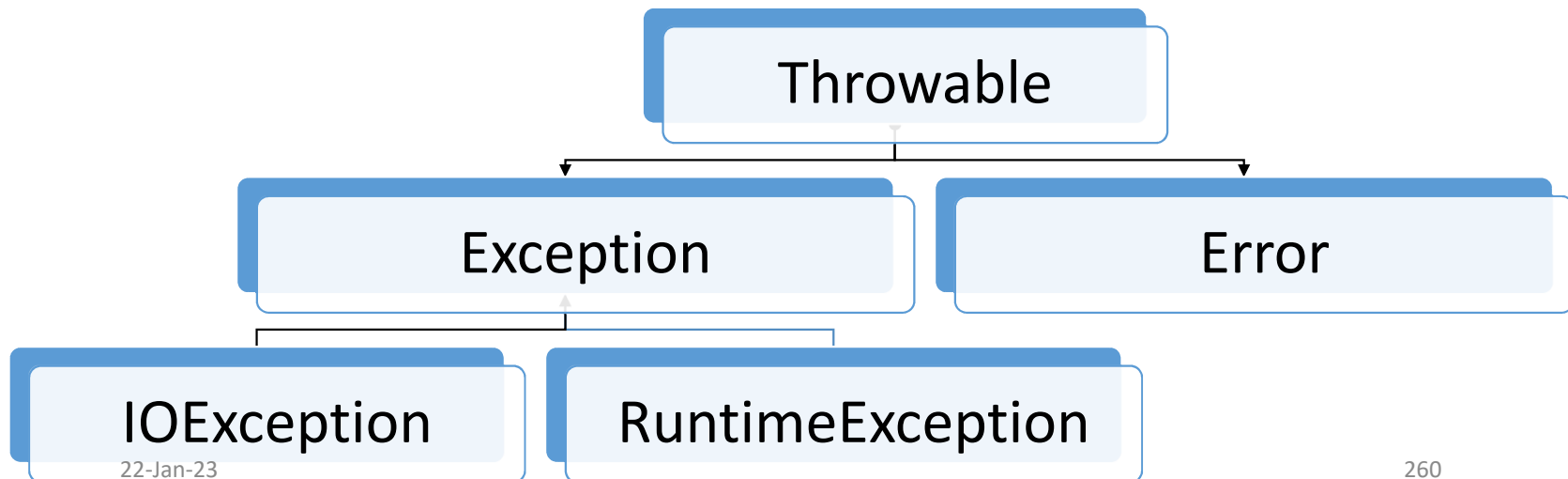
- The traditional reaction to an error in a method is to return a special error code that the calling method analyzes.
- For example, methods that read information back from files often return a -1 end-of-file value marker rather than standard character.
- Unfortunately, it is not always possible to return an error code. There may be no obvious way of distinguishing valid and invalid data.
- A method returning an integer cannot simply return -1 to denote the error; the value -1 might be a perfectly valid result.

# Dealing with Errors

- *Java allows every method an alternative exit path if it is unable to complete its task in the normal way.*
- In this situation, the method does not return a value. Instead, it **throws** an object that encapsulates the error information.
- Note that the method exits immediately; it does not return its normal (or any) value.
- Moreover, execution does not resume at the code that called the method; instead, the exception-handling mechanism begins its search for an *exception handler* that can deal with this particular error condition.

# The Classification of Exceptions

- In the Java programming language, an exception object is always an instance of a class derived from ***Throwable***.
- As you will soon see, you can create your own exception classes if the ones built into Java do not suit your needs.



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# The Classification of Exceptions

- Notice that all exceptions descend from Throwable, but the hierarchy immediately splits into two branches: Error and Exception.
- The Error hierarchy describes internal errors and resource exhaustion situations inside the Java runtime system. ***You should not throw an object of this type.***
- The Exception hierarchy also splits into two branches: exceptions that derive from RuntimeException and those that do not.

# The Classification of Exceptions

- The general rule is this: A ***RuntimeException*** happens because you made a programming error. Any other exception occurs because a bad thing, such as an I/O error, happened to your otherwise good program.
- Exceptions that inherit from RuntimeException include such problems as:
  - ***A bad Cast***
  - ***An out-of-bound array access***
  - ***A null pointer access***

# The Classification of Exceptions

- Exceptions that do not inherit from *RuntimeException* include:
  - *Trying to read past the end of a file*
  - *Trying to open a file that does not exist*
  - *Trying to find a Class object for a string that does not denote an existing class*
- The rule “*If it is a RuntimeException, it was your fault*” works pretty well. You could have avoided that *ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException* by testing the array index against the array bounds.



# The Classification of Exceptions

- The *NullPointerException* would not have happened had you checked whether the variable was *null* before using it.
- The Java Language Specification calls any exception that derives from the class **Error** or the class **RuntimeException** an **unchecked** exception.
- All other exceptions are called **checked** exceptions because the compiler checks that you provide exception handlers for all checked exceptions.

# Declaring Checked Exceptions

- A Java method can throw an exception if it encounters a situation it cannot handle.
- The idea is simple: A method will not only tell the Java compiler what values it can return, *it is also going to tell the compiler what can go wrong.*
- The place in which you advertise that your method can throw an exception is the header of the method; the header changes to reflect the checked exceptions the method can throw.

# Declaring Checked Exceptions

- For example, here is the declaration of one of the constructors of the `FileInputStream` class from the standard library.

```
public FileInputStream(String name) throws FileNotFoundException
```

- When you write your own methods, you don't have to advertise every possible *throwable* object that your method might actually throw.

# Declaring Checked Exceptions

- keep in mind that an exception is thrown in any of the following four situations:

If either of the first two scenarios occurs, you must tell the programmers who will use your method about the possibility of an exception. Why? If no handler catches the exception, the current thread of execution terminates.

- 3) You make a programming error, such as `a[-1] = 0` that gives rise to an unchecked exception (in this case, an *ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException*).
- 4) An internal error occurs in the virtual machine or runtime library.

# Declaring Checked Exceptions

- As with Java methods that are part of the supplied classes, you declare that your method may throw an exception with an *exception specification* in the method header.

```
class MyAnimation
{
    ...
    public Image loadImage(String s)
    throws IOException
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

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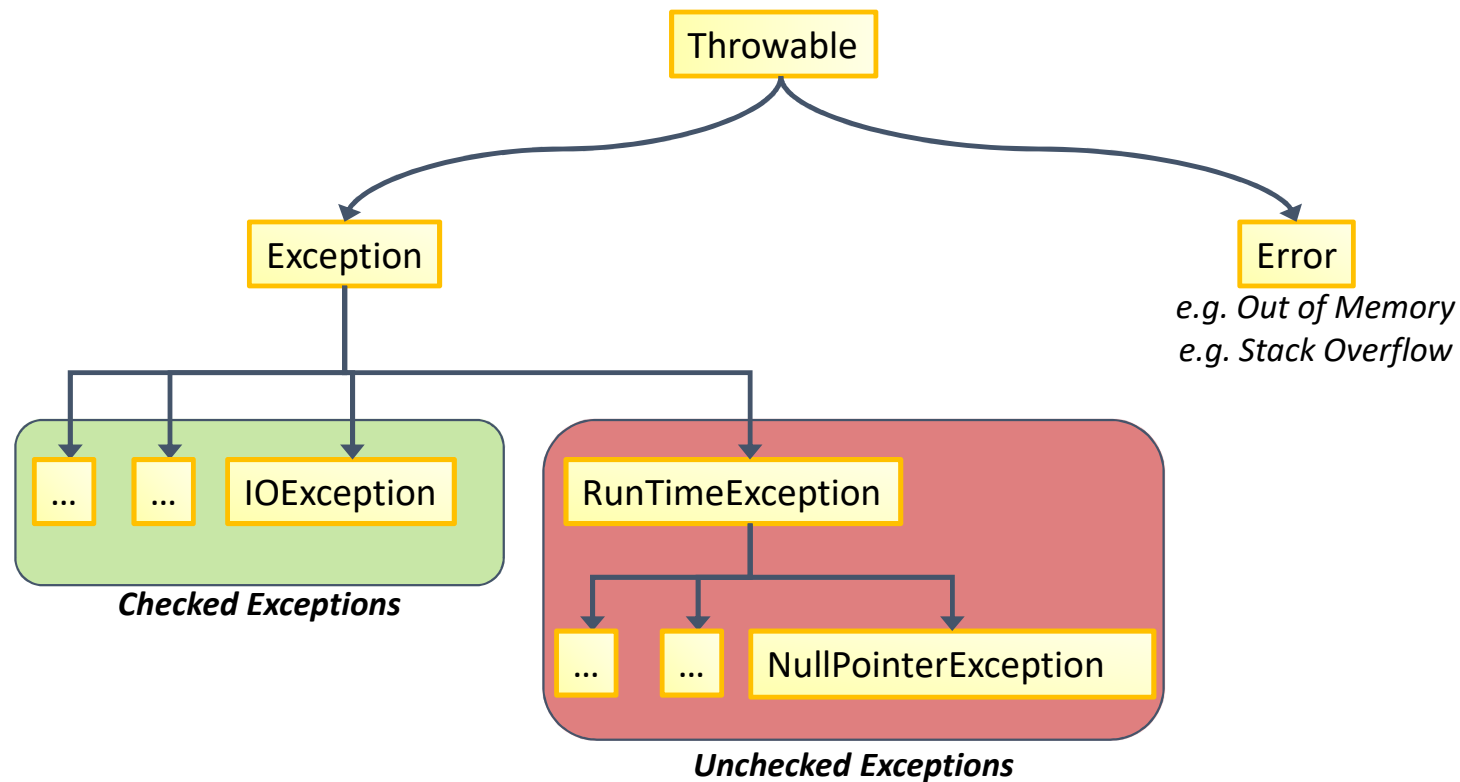
```
class MyAnimation
{
    ...
    public Image loadImage(String s) throws
    FileNotFoundException, EOFException
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

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# Declaring Checked Exceptions

- In summary, a method must declare all the *checked* exceptions that it might throw.
- Unchecked exceptions are either beyond your control (**Error**) or result from conditions that you should not have allowed in the first place (**RuntimeException**).
- *If you override a method from a superclass, the checked exceptions that the subclass method declares cannot be more general than those of the superclass method. (It is OK to throw more specific exceptions, or not to throw any exceptions in the subclass method.)*

# The Exception Class Hierarchy



# How to Throw an Exception

- You have a method, *readData*, that is reading in a file whose header promised

*Content-length: 1024*

- but you got an end of file after 733 characters. You may decide this situation is so abnormal that you want to throw an ***EOFException*** exception.

*throw new EOFException();*

or, if you prefer,

*EOFException e = new EOFException();  
throw e;*



# How to Throw an Exception

- Here is how it all fits together:

```
String readData(Scanner in) throws EOFException
{
    . . .
    while (. . .)
    {
        if (!in.hasNext()) // EOF encountered
        {
            if (n < len)
                throw new EOFException();
        }
    }
    return s;
}
```

# How to Throw an Exception

- As you can see, throwing an exception is easy if one of the existing exception classes works for you. In this case:
  1. Find an appropriate exception class.
  2. Make an object of that class.
  3. Throw it.
- Once a method throws an exception, it does not return to its caller.
- This means you do not have to worry about setting up a default return value or an error code.

# Creating Exception Classes

- Your code may run into a problem which is not satisfactorily described by any of the standard exception classes.
- In this case, it is easy enough to create your own exception class.
- Just derive it from Exception, or from a child class of Exception such as IOException.
- It is customary to give both a default constructor and a constructor that contains a detailed message.
- Note that The toString method of the Throwable superclass returns a string containing that detailed message

# Creating Exception Classes

```
import java.io.IOException;

public class FileFormatException extends IOException
{
    public FileFormatException() {
        // TODO
    }
    public FileFormatException(String arg0) {
        super(arg0);
        // TODO
    }
}
```

# Catching Exceptions

- You now know how to throw an exception.
- It is pretty easy: You throw it and you forget it.
- If an exception occurs that is not caught anywhere, the program will terminate and print a message to the console, giving the type of the exception and a stack trace.
- GUI programs catch exceptions, print stack trace messages, and then go back to the user interface processing loop.

# Catching Exceptions

- To catch an exception, set up a `try/catch` block. The simplest form of the try block is as follows:

```
try
{
    //code
    //more code
    //more code
} catch
(ExceptionType e)
{
    /*handler for
    this type*/
}
```

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If any code inside the *try* block throws an exception of the class specified in the *catch* clause, then

1. The program ***skips*** the ***remainder*** of the code in the *try* block.
2. The program ***executes*** the handler code ***inside*** the catch clause

# Catching Exceptions

- If none of the code inside the ***try*** block throws an exception, then the program skips the ***catch*** clause.
- Here is an example for a typical code for reading data

# Catching Exceptions

```
public void read(String filename) {  
    try {  
        InputStream in = new FileInputStream(filename);  
        int b;  
        while ((b = in.read()) != -1) {  
            // process input  
        }  
    } catch (IOException exception) {  
        exception.printStackTrace();  
    }  
}
```

May throw IOException

We can remove the catch clause and modify the method header to throw the exception thus delegating to the caller the exception handling process



# Catching Exceptions

- Which way is better?
  - To handle the exception
  - To propagate to the caller
- ***As a general rule, you should catch those exceptions that you know how to handle and propagate those that you do not know how to handle.***

# Example: Create A new Exception

```
public class NegativeNumberException extends Exception
{
    public NegativeNumberException()
    {
        super("It is Negative Number could not deal ...");
    }
}

class TestException
{
    public static void main(String []args)
    {
        TestException t = new TestException();
        t.computeFunction();
    }
}
```

# Example: Create A new Exception

```
int fact(int n) throws NegativeNumberException
{
    if(n<0)    throw new NegativeNumberException();
    if(n==1)   return 1;
    return n*fact(n-1);
}

public void computeFunction()
{
    System.out.println("Compute Function is running");
    try{
        System.out.println("Fact (-5) = " + fact(-5));
    }
    catch (NegativeNumberException e)
    {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}
```

# Example: Create A new Exception

 D:\Program Files\JCreator Pro\GE2001.exe

```
Compute Function is running
NegativeNumberException: It is Negative Number could not deal ...
    at TestException.fact(NegativeNumberException.java:20)
    at TestException.computeFunction(NegativeNumberException.java:30)
    at TestException.main(NegativeNumberException.java:14)
Press any key to continue...
```

# Catching Multiple Exceptions

- You can catch multiple exception types in a ***try*** block and handle each type differently. Use a separate ***catch*** clause for each type as in the following example:

# Catching Multiple Exceptions

```
try
{
    //code that might throw exceptions
} catch (FileNotFoundException e)
{
    //emergency action for missing files
} catch (UnknownHostException e)
{
    //emergency action for unknown hosts
} catch (IOException e)
{
    /*emergency action for all other I/O
    problems*/
}
```

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The exception object may contain information about the nature of the exception.

To find out more about the object, try

***`e.getMessage()`***

to get the detailed error message or to get the actual type of the exception object.

***`e.getClass().getName()`***

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# Catching Multiple Exceptions

- As of Java SE7, you can catch multiple exception types in the same catch clause.
- For example, suppose that the action for missing files and unknown hosts is the same. Then you can combine the catch clauses:

```
try
{
    //code that might throw exceptions
} catch (FileNotFoundException e)
{
    //emergency action for missing files and unknown hosts
} catch (IOException e)
{
    /*emergency action for all other I/O problems*/
}
```

This feature is only needed when catching exception types that are not subclasses of one another.

# Rethrowing and Chaining Exceptions

- You can throw an exception in a catch clause. Typically, you do this when you want to change the exception type.
- If you build a subsystem that other programmers use, it makes a lot of sense to use an exception type that indicates a failure of the subsystem.
- An example of such an exception type is the ServletException.
- The code that executes a servlet may not want to know in minute detail what went wrong, but it definitely wants to know that the servlet was at fault.



# Rethrowing and Chaining Exceptions

```
try
{
    // call a method to access the database
}
catch (SQLException e)
{
    throw new ServletException("database error: " + e.getMessage());
}
```

- Here, the ServletException is constructed with the message text of the exception.

# Rethrowing and Chaining Exceptions

- However, it is a better idea to set the original exception as the “cause” of the new exception:

```
try
{
    // call a method to access the database
}
catch (SQLException e)
{
    Throwable se = new ServletException("database error");
    se.initCause(e);
    throw se;
}
```

- **This wrapping technique is highly recommended. It allows you to throw high level exceptions in subsystems without losing the details of the original failure.**

# The *finally* Clause

- When your code throws an exception, it stops processing the remaining code in your method and exits the method.
- This is a problem if the method has acquired some local resource, which only this method knows about, and that resource must be cleaned up.
- One solution is to catch and re-throw all exceptions. But this solution is tedious because you need to clean up the resource allocation in two places—in the normal code and in the exception code.

# The *finally* Clause

- Java has a better solution: the *finally* clause.
- The code in the finally clause executes whether or not an exception was caught.
- In the following example, the program will dispose of the *FileInputStream* under all circumstances:

# The *finally* Clause

```
InputStream in = new FileInputStream(filename);  
try {  
    // 1  
    // code that might throw exceptions  
    // 2  
} catch (IOException e) {  
    // 3  
    // show error message  
    // 4  
} finally {  
    // 5  
    in.close();  
}
```

## The *finally* Clause



**CAUTION:** A finally clause can yield unexpected results when it contains return statements. Suppose you exit the middle of a try block with a return statement. Before the method returns, the finally block is executed. If the finally block also contains a return statement, then it masks the original return value.

# The Try-with-Resources Statement

- Starting Java SE 7 the *Try-with-Resources* statement have been introduced.
- In its simplest variant, the try-with-resources statement has the form

```
try (Resource res = . . . )  
{  
    //work with res  
}
```

- When the try block exits, then `res.close()` is called automatically. Here is a typical example—reading all words of a file:

# The Try-with-Resources Statement

```
try (Scanner in = new Scanner(new  
FileInputStream("/usr/share/dict/words")  
) , "UTF-8")  
{  
while (in.hasNext())  
    System.out.println(in.next());  
}
```

The resource must belong to a class that implements the *AutoCloseable* interface.

When the block exits normally, or when there was an exception, the `in.close()` method is called, exactly as if you had used a finally block.



# The Try-with-Resources Statement

- You can specify multiple resources. For example:

```
try (Scanner in = new Scanner(new  
FileInputStream("/usr/share/dict/words"), "UTF-8");  
PrintWriter out = new PrintWriter("out.txt"))  
{  
while (in.hasNext())  
    out.println(in.next().toUpperCase());  
}
```

# Exception Propagation

```
public class Example3
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Example3 ref=new Example3();
        try {
            ref.myMethod1();
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }

    public void myMethod1() throws Exception
    {
        myMethod(5);
    }

    public void myMethod(int x) throws Exception
    {
        if (x>0) throw new Exception("Exception in
                                   method");
    }
}
```

Method Call Propagation

Exception Propagation

## Notes:

- If several method calls throw different exceptions,
  - then you can do either of the following:
    1. Write separate **try-catch** blocks for each method.
    2. Put them all inside the same **try** block and then write multiple **catch** blocks for it  
(one **catch** for each exception type).
    3. Put them all inside the same **try** block and then just **catch** the parent of all exceptions: **Exception**.

## Notes:

- If more than one **catch** block are written after each other,
  - then you must take care not to handle a parent exception before a child exception
  - (i.e. a parent should not mask over a child).
  - Anyway, the compiler will give an error if you attempt to do so.

## Notes:

- An exception is considered to be one of the parts of a method's signature. So, when you override a method that throws a certain exception, you have to take the following into consideration:
  - You may throw the same exception.
  - You may throw a subclass of the exception
  - You may decide not to throw an exception at all
  - You **CAN'T** throw any different exceptions other than the exception(s) declared in the method that you are attempting to override

## Lab Exercise

- Create your own exception class and write down two other classes, the first will contain three methods throwing your newly created exception class and the second class will be calling the methods that throws exception using the try-catch-finally block.

## Agenda

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# Lesson 7

## Generic Programming

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# Generic Programming

## Introduction

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# Why generic Programming

- ***Generic programming*** means writing code that can be reused for objects of many different types.
- Generic classes are desirable because they let you write code that is safer and easier to read than code littered with Object variables and casts.
- Generics are particularly useful for collection classes, such as the universal ArrayList.
- Generic classes are—at least on the surface—similar to templates in C++. In C++, as in Java, templates were first added to the language to support strongly typed collections.

# Why generic Programming

- It is important to understand that Java has always given you the ability to create generalized classes, interfaces, and methods by operating through references of type **Object**.
- Because **Object** is the superclass of all other classes, an **Object** reference can refer to any type object.
- In pre-generics code, generalized classes, interfaces, and methods used **Object** references to operate on various types of objects.
- The problem was that they could not do so with type safety.

# Why generic Programming

- Generics added the type safety that was lacking.
- They also streamlined the process, because it is no longer necessary to explicitly employ casts to translate between **Object** and the type of data that is actually being operated upon.

# Why generic Programming

- In other words, the term generics means parametrized types.
- *Parameterized types are important because they enable you to create classes, interfaces, and methods in which the type of data upon which they operate is specified as a parameter.*
- Using generics, it is possible to create a single class, for example, that automatically works with different types of data.
- A class, interface, or method that operates on a parameterized type is called *generic*, as in *generic class* or *generic method*.

# The Advantages of Type Parameters

- Before generic classes were added to Java, generic programming was achieved with *inheritance*.
- The ArrayList class simply maintained an array of Object references:

```
public class ArrayList // before generic classes
{
    private Object[] elementData;
    . . .
    public Object get(int i) { . . . }
    public void add(Object o) { . . . }
}
```

# The Advantages of Type Parameters

- This approach has two problems. A cast is necessary whenever you retrieve a value:

```
ArrayList files = new ArrayList();  
.  
.  
.  
String filename = (String) files.get(0);
```

- Moreover, there is no error checking. You can add values of any class:

```
files.add(new File(". . ."));
```

# The Advantages of Type Parameters

- The call in the previous slide compiles and runs without error.
- Elsewhere, casting the result of ***get*** to a String will cause an error.
- Generics offer a better solution: ***type parameters***. The ***ArrayList*** class now has a type parameter that indicates the element type:

```
ArrayList<String> files = new ArrayList<String>();
```

- This makes your code easier to read. You can tell right away that this particular array list contains String objects.



# The Advantages of Type Parameters

- The compiler can make good use of the type information too. No cast is required for calling **get**. The compiler knows that the return type is **String**, not **Object**:

***String filename = files.get(0);***

- The compiler also knows that the **add** method of an **ArrayList<String>** has a parameter of type **String**.
- That is a lot safer than having an **Object** parameter. Now the compiler can check that you don't insert objects of the wrong type. For example, the statement ***files.add(new File(". . ."));*** // can only add **String** objects to an **ArrayList<String>** will not compile. A compiler error is much better than a class cast exception at runtime.

# Generic Using extends or super keywords

```
class Picture{  
...  
    //creating a method that accepts  
    //only child class of Shape  
    public void drawPics(List<? extends Shape> lists){  
        for(Shape s:lists){  
            //calling method of Shape class  
            //by child class instance  
            s.draw();  
        }  
    }  
}
```

## Lab Exercise-1

- Create a base class named Shape that contains one abstract method draw().
- Create two concrete classes (Rectangle and Circle) that extend Shape
- Create a test class that defines a method that accepts a list that contains **only** child classes of shape
- Test your method by creating two ArrayList of Rectangle and shapes and pass them to the generic method

## Lab Exercise-2

- Create a generic class that could be used to represent complex numbers
- Create some generic methods that represent basic arithmetic operation on complex(addition, subtraction, etc...)

# Lesson 8

## Lambda Expressions

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# Lambda Expressions

- Lambda expressions could be considered as the most exciting change to the Java language in many years.
- You will see how to use lambda expressions for defining blocks of code with a concise syntax, and how to write code that consumes lambda expressions.

# Why Lambdas?

- *A lambda expression is a block of code that you can pass around so it can be executed later, once or multiple times.*
- In the previous slides we gave a brief introduction regarding “Interfaces and Callbacks”.
- you saw how to do work in timed intervals. Put the work into the actionPerformed method of an ActionListener.
- You then submit the instance to a Timer object.
- The key point is that the actionPerformed method contains code that you want to execute later.

# Why Lambdas?

- A block of code was passed to someone—a timer, or a sort method. That code block was called at some later time.
- Up to now, giving someone a block of code hasn't been easy in Java.
- You couldn't just pass code blocks around. Java is an object-oriented language, so you had to construct an object belonging to a class that has a method with the desired code.
- In other languages, it is possible to work with blocks of code directly.



# Why Lambdas?

- For some time now, the question was not whether to augment Java for functional programming, but how to do it. It took several years of experimentation before a design emerged that is a good fit for Java.
- In the next slides, we will see how we can work with blocks of code in Java SE 8.
- The logician Alonzo Church wanted to formalize what it means for a mathematical function to be effectively computable.
- Ever since, an expression with parameter variables has been called a ***lambda expression***  $\lambda$ .

# Lambda Expressions

Java defines two types of lambda bodies.

- single expression lambda bodies
- block of code lambda bodies

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

let's look at some simple examples that put the basic lambda expression concepts into action

```
// A functional interface.
interface MyValue
{
    double getValue();
}
// Another functional interface.
interface MyParamValue
{
    double getValue(double v);
}
```




Functional Interfaces

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
public class LambdaDemo {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        MyValue myVal;  
        // using anonymous inner class representation  
        myVal = new MyValue() {  
            public double getValue() {  
                return 98.6;  
            }  
        };  
  
        /*  
        * Call getValue(), which is provided by the previously assigned lambda  
        * expression.  
        */  
        System.out.println("A constant value: " + myVal.getValue());  
    }  
}
```


# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
public class LambdaDemo {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        MyValue myVal;  
        // using anonymous inner class representation  
        myVal = () -> 98.6;  
  
        /*  
        * Call getValue(), which is provided by the previously assigned lambda  
        * expression.  
        */  
        System.out.println("A constant value: " + myVal.getValue());  
    }  
}
```



A simple lambda expression

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
public class LambdaDemo {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        MyValue myVal;  
        /* declare an interface reference Here, the lambda expression is simply a  
         * constant expression. When it is assigned to myVal, a class instance is  
         * constructed in which the lambda expression implements the getValue()  
         * method in MyValue.  
         */  
        myVal = () -> 98.6;   
        /*  
         * Call getValue(), which is provided by the previously assigned lambda  
         * expression.  
         */  
        System.out.println("A constant value: " + myVal.getValue());  
    }  
}
```

A simple lambda expression

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
/*Now,create a parameterized lambda expression and assign it to a MyParamValue  
 * reference. This lambda expression returns the reciprocal of its argument.  
 */  
MyParamValue myPval = (n) -> 1.0 / n;  
// Call getValue(v) through the myPval reference.  
System.out.println("Reciprocal of 4 is " + myPval.getValue(4.0));  
System.out.println("Reciprocal of 8 is " + myPval.getValue(8.0));  
}  
}
```

A lambda expression that has  
a parameter

Sample output from the program is shown here:  
A constant value: 98.6  
Reciprocal of 4 is 0.25  
Reciprocal of 8 is 0.125

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

A key aspect of a functional interface is that it can be used with any lambda expression that is compatible with it.

For example, consider the following program. It defines a functional interface called **NumericTest** that declares the abstract method **test( )**

This method has two **int** parameters and returns a **boolean** result. Its purpose is to determine if the two arguments passed to **test( )** satisfy some condition.



# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
// Use the same functional interface with three
// different lambda expressions.
// A functional interface that takes two int
// parameters and returns
// a boolean result.

interface NumericTest {
    boolean test(int n, int m);
}
```

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
class LambdaDemo2 {  
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    // This lambda expression determines if one number is  
    // factor of another.  
    NumericTest isFactor = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0;  
    if(isFactor.test(10, 2))  
        System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");  
}
```

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
if(!isFactor.test(10, 3))  
    System.out.println("3 is not a factor of 10");  
System.out.println();  
// This lambda expression returns true if the first argument  
//is less than the second.  
NumericTest lessThan = (n, m) -> (n < m);  
if(lessThan.test(2, 10))  
    System.out.println("2 is less than 10");
```

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
if(!lessThan.test(10, 2))  
    System.out.println("10 is not less than 2");  
System.out.println();  
// This lambda expression returns true if the absolute  
// values of the arguments are equal.  
NumericTest absEqual =  
    (n, m) -> (n < 0 ? -n : n) == (m < 0 ? -m : m);
```

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

```
if (absEqual.test(4, -4))  
    System.out.println("Absolute values of 4 and -4 are equal.");  
if (!lessThan.test(4, -5))  
    System.out.println("The value 4 is not less than value -5.");  
System.out.println();  
}  
}
```

# Single Lambda Expressions(Examples)

The output is shown here:

2 is a factor of 10

3 is not a factor of 10

2 is less than 10

10 is not less than 2

Absolute values of 4 and -4 are equal.

The value 4 is not less than value -5.

# Block Lambda Expressions

## Lambda Syntax

`(parameters) -> expression`

or

`() -> expression`

or

`(parameters) -> { statements; }`

Single Lambda  
Expressions

Block Lambda  
Expressions

# Block Lambda Expressions

- Lambdas that have block bodies are sometimes referred to as *block lambdas*.
- A block lambda expands the types of operations that can be handled within a lambda expression because it allows the body of the lambda to contain multiple statements.
- Aside from allowing multiple statements, block lambdas are used much like the expression lambdas just discussed.
- One key difference, however, is that you must explicitly use a **return** statement to return a value.



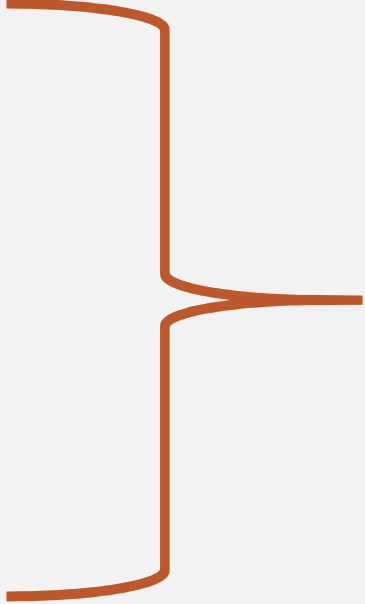
# Block Lambda Expressions

- Here is an example that uses a block lambda to find the smallest positive factor of an **int** value.
- It uses an interface called **NumericFunc** that has a method called **func( )**, which takes one **int** argument and returns an **int** result. Thus, **NumericFunc** supports a numeric function on values of type **int**.

```
// A block lambda that finds the smallest positive factor  
// of an int value.  
interface NumericFunc {  
    int func(int n);  
}
```

# Block Lambda Expressions

```
class BlockLambdaDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
// This block lambda returns the smallest positive factor of a value.
        NumericFunc    smallestF = (n) -> {
            int result = 1;
            // Get absolute value of n.
            n = n < 0 ? -n : n;
            for(int i=2; i <= n/i; i++)
                if((n % i) == 0) {
                    result = i;
                    break;
                }
            return result;
        };
        System.out.println("Smallest factor of 12 is " + smallestF.func(12));
        System.out.println("Smallest factor of 11 is " + smallestF.func(11));
    }
}
```



Block Lambda Expression

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# Generic Functional Interface

The functional interface associated with a lambda expression can be generic.

```
// A generic functional interface with two parameters
// that returns a boolean result.
interface SomeTest<T>
{
    boolean test(T n, T m) ;
}
```

# Generic Functional Interface

```
class GenericFunctionalInterfaceDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        // This lambda expression determines if one integer is a factor of another.  
        SomeTest<Integer> isFactor = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0;  
        if(isFactor.test(10, 2)) System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");  
        System.out.println();  
        // The next lambda expression determines if one Double is a factor of another.  
        SomeTest<Double> isFactorD = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0;  
        if(isFactorD.test(212.0, 4.0)) System.out.println("4.0 is a factor of 212.0");  
        System.out.println();  
    }  
}
```

# Generic Functional Interface

```
//This lambda expression determines if one string is part of another.  
SomeTest<String> isIn = (a, b) -> a.indexOf(b) != -1;  
String str = "Generic Functional Interface";  
System.out.println("Testing string: " + str);  
if(isIn.test(str, "face"))  
    System.out.println("'face' is found.");  
else  
    System.out.println("'face' not found.");  
}
```

# Method References

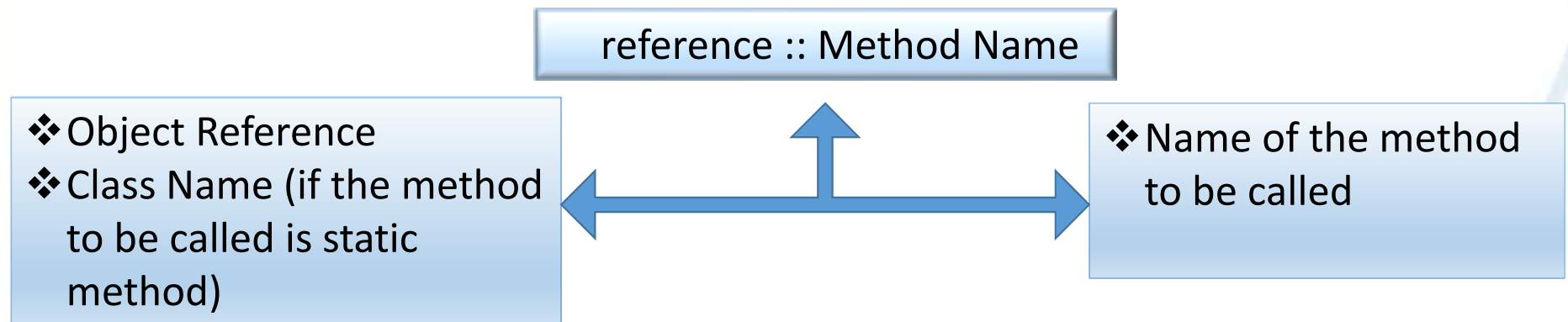
- What are method references?
- Method reference syntax
- Method Reference types
- Method reference examples

# Method References

- It is a feature which is related to Lambda Expression.
- It allows us to reference constructors or methods without executing them.
- Method references and Lambda are similar in that they both require a target type that consist of a compatible functional interface.

# Method References

- What are method references?
  - A new feature in Java SE 8
  - Allows to use a method as a value
- Method reference syntax





# Method Reference Example

- You want to filter all the subdirectories in a directory
  - You need to start writing a method that given a File will tell you whether it's directory or not
  - there's such a method inside the File class called isDirectory
  - It can be viewed as a function that takes a File and returns a boolean
  - But to use it for filtering you need to wrap it into a FileFilter object that you then pass to the File.listFiles method

# Method Reference Example

- ❑ You will use.
  - ❑ `listFiles (FileFilter)` function in file class
  - ❑ `FileFilter` interface with *accept* method.
  - ❑ `isDirectory` function in file class

# Method Reference Example

```
File fObj = new File(".");  
File[] directories = fObj.listFiles(new  
FileFilter() {  
    public boolean accept(File file) {  
        return file.isDirectory();  
    }  
});
```

Filter  
subdirectories

# Method Reference Example

```
File fObj = new File(".");  
File[] directories = fObj.listFiles((file) ->  
                                     file.isDirectory());  
    ;
```

Filter  
subdirectories

Now, in Java 8 you can rewrite that code as follows:

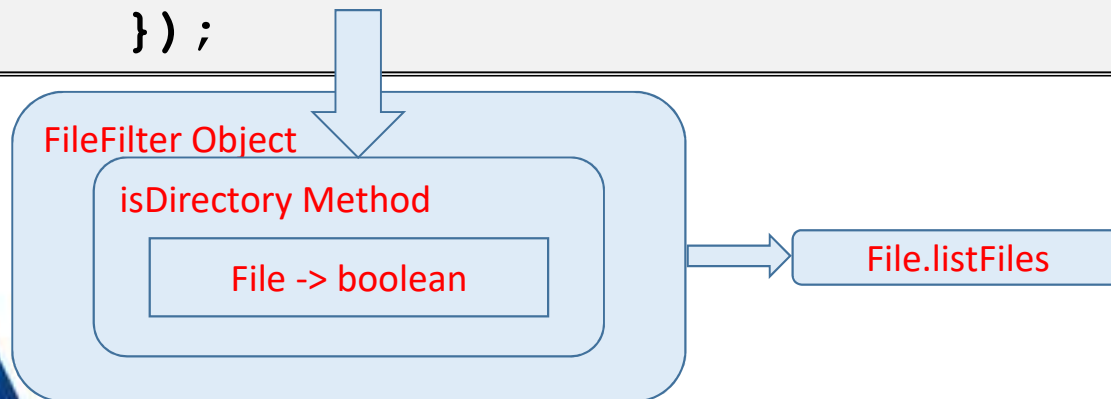
```
File[] directories= new File(".").listFiles(File::isDirectory);
```

# Method Reference Example

## Old way of filtering subdirectories

```
File[] directories= new File(".").listFiles(new FileFilter()
{
    public boolean accept(File file) {
        return file.isDirectory(); }
});
```

Filtering files with the `isDirectory` method requires wrapping the method inside a `FileFilter` object before passing it to the `File.listFiles` method



# Method Reference Example

## Java 8 Style

```
File[] directories = new File(".").listFiles(File::isDirectory);
```



File.isDirectory

File :: isDirectory (new Syntax)



File.listFiles

In Java 8 pass the isDirectory function to the listFiles method using the method reference :: Syntax

# Types of Method Reference

Type	Example	Syntax
Reference to a static method	<i>ContainingClass::staticMethodName</i>	Class::staticMethodName
Reference to a constructor	<i>ClassName::new</i>	ClassName::new
Reference to an instance method of an arbitrary object of a particular type	<i>ContainingType::methodName</i>	Class::instanceMethodName
Reference to an instance method of a particular object	<i>containingObject::instanceMethodName</i>	object::instanceMethodName

# Example of Method Reference Types

```
@FunctionalInterface
interface StringFunction {
    String applyFunction(String s);
}

@FunctionalInterface
interface StringConsumer {
    void consumeFunction(String s);
}
```



# Example of Method Reference Types

```
class Utils {  
    public static String transform(String st, StringFunction f)  
    {  
        return f.applyFunction(st);  
    }  
    public static void goodbye(String st, StringConsumer f)  
    {  
        f.consumeFunction(st);  
    }  
    public static String makeExciting(String s)  
    {  
        return s + " ** !!";  
    }  
    private Utils() {}  
}
```

# Example of Method Reference Types

```
class RefMethodEx2{  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        String s = "TestITI";  
        // SomeClass::staticMethod  
String result1 = Utils.transform(s, Utils::makeExciting);  
        System.out.println("\n1- Static "+result1);  
        // someObject::instanceMethod  
        String prefix = "Blah @@ ";  
String result2 = Utils.transform(s, prefix::concat);  
        System.out.println("\n2- object::instance method: "+result2);  
    }  
}
```

# Example of Method Reference Types

```
// SomeClass::instanceMethod

String result3 = Utils.transform(s, String::toUpperCase);
System.out.println("\n3- Class::instance Method: "+result3);

// SomeClass::Constructor

String result4 = Utils.transform("hi - > "+s, String::new);
System.out.println("\n\n\n4- Class::constructor: "+result4);

}

} // End of the Class
```

1- Static TestITI \*\* !!

2- object::instance method: Blah @@ TestITI

3- Class::instance Method: TESTITI

4- Class::constructor: hi - > TestITI

# Lab Exercise-1

- Your goal is to make a method called `betterString` that takes two `Strings` and a lambda that says whether the first of the two is “better”.
- The method should return that better `String`; i.e., if the function given by the lambda returns `true`, the `betterString` method should return the first `String`, otherwise `betterString` should return the second `String`.
- *`String string1 = ...;`*
- *`String string2 = ...;`*
- *`String longer = StringUtils.betterString(string1, string2, (s1, s2) -> s1.length() > s2.length());`*
- *`String first = StringUtils.betterString(string1, string2, (s1, s2) -> true);`*

## Lab Exercise-2

- Given a String, the task is to check whether a string contains only alphabets or not.
- use *isLetter()* method of *Character* class.

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# Lesson 8

## Introduction to JAVA Stream API

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# Stream API

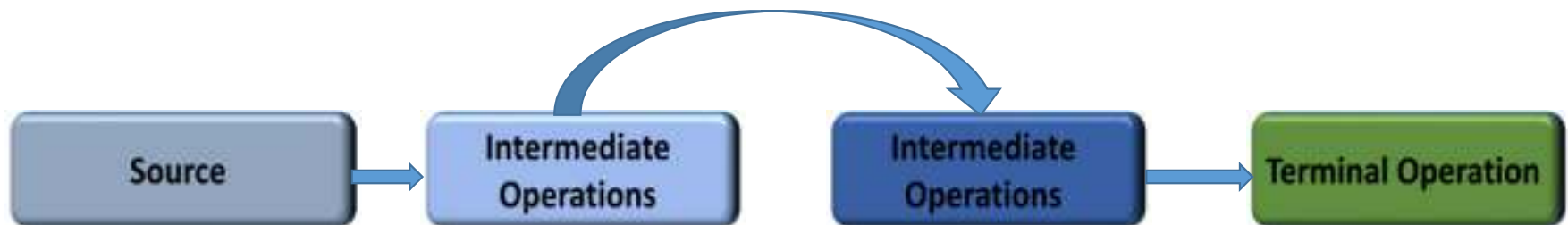
- Java SE 8 introduces the concept of streams.
- Streams are objects of classes that implement interface `Stream` (from the package *java.util.stream*) or one of the specialized stream interfaces for processing collections of `int`, `long` or `double` values.
- Together with lambdas, streams enable you to perform tasks on collections of elements—often from an array or collection object.



# Stream API: Stream Pipelines

- Streams move elements through a sequence of processing steps—known as a stream pipeline—that begins with a data source (such as an array or collection), performs various intermediate operations on the data source's elements and ends with a terminal operation.
- A stream pipeline is formed by chaining method calls. Unlike collections, ***streams do not have their own storage***—once a stream is processed, it cannot be reused, because it does not maintain a copy of the original data source.

# Stream API: Stream Pipelines



```
.stream()  
  .filter(b -> b.getColor() == red)  
  .mapToInt( b -> b.getWeight())  
  .sum();
```

# Stream API: Intermediate Operations

- An intermediate operation specifies tasks to perform on the stream's elements and always results in a new stream.
- Intermediate operations are *lazy*—they aren't performed until a terminal operation is invoked.
- This allows library developers to optimize stream-processing performance.

# Stream API: Intermediate Operations

- For example, if you have a collection of 1,000,000 Person objects and you're looking for the first one with the last name "Abbas", stream processing can terminate as soon as the first such Person object is found.

# Stream API: Terminal Operations

- A terminal operation initiates processing of a stream pipeline's intermediate operations and produces a result.
- Terminal operations are ***eager***—they perform the requested operation when they are called.
- The Below tables show some common intermediate and terminal operations

# Stream API: Common Intermediate Stream Operations

Operation	Description
<code>filter</code>	Results in a stream containing only the elements that satisfy a condition.
<code>distinct</code>	Results in a stream containing only the unique elements.
<code>limit</code>	Results in a stream with the specified number of elements from the beginning of the original stream.
<code>map</code>	Results in a stream in which each element of the original stream is mapped to a new value (possibly of a different type). The new stream has the same number of elements as the original stream.
<code>sorted</code>	Results in a stream in which the elements are in sorted order. The new stream has the same number of elements as the original stream.

# Stream API: Common Terminal Stream Operations

## Loop

- **forEach**- Performs processing on every element in a stream (e.g., display each element).

## ***Reduction operations***

- Take all values in the stream and return a single value

## **Mutable reduction operations**

- Create a container (such as a collection or StringBuilder)

## **Search operations**

- Performs different search or match operations on a stream

# Stream API: Common Terminal Stream Operations

Operation	Reduction operations
<b>average</b>	Calculates the average of the elements in a numeric stream.
<b>count</b>	Returns the number of elements in the stream.
<b>max</b>	Locates the largest value in a numeric stream.
<b>min</b>	Locates the smallest value in a numeric stream.
<b>reduce</b>	Reduces the elements of a collection to a single value using an associative accumulation function (e.g., a lambda that adds two elements).



# Stream API: Common Terminal Stream Operations

Operation	Mutable Reduction operations
<code>collect</code>	Creates a new collection of elements containing the results of the stream's prior operations.
<code>toArray</code>	Creates an array containing the results of the stream's prior operations..

# Stream API: Common Terminal Stream Operations

Operation	Search operations
<b>findFirst</b>	Finds the first stream element based on the prior intermediate operations; immediately terminates processing of the stream pipeline once such an element is found.
<b>findAny</b>	Finds any stream element based on the prior intermediate operations; immediately terminates processing of the stream pipeline once such an element is found.
<b>anyMatch</b>	Determines whether any stream elements match a specified condition; immediately terminates processing of the stream pipeline if an element matches.
<b>allMatch</b>	Determines whether all of the elements in the stream match a specified condition.

# Stream API Example

- In the following example we will show how to use Stream API and lambda expressions to simplify programming tasks that you probably already performed for ***Arrays*** and ***ArrayLists***
- The Example demonstrates operations on an ***IntStream*** (package ***java.util.stream***)—a specialized stream for manipulating int values.
- The techniques shown in this example also apply to ***LongStreams*** and ***DoubleStreams*** for long and double values, respectively.

# Stream API Example

```
import java.util.stream.IntStream;

public class IntStreamOperations {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        int[] values = {3, 10, 6, 1, 4, 8, 2, 5, 9, 7};

        // display original values

        System.out.print("Original values: ");

        IntStream.of(values).forEach(value ->System.out.printf("%d ", value));

        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

# Stream API Example

```
//count, min, max, sum and average of the values
System.out.printf("%nCount: %d%n",
    IntStream.of(values).count());
System.out.printf("Min: %d%n",
    IntStream.of(values).min().getAsInt());
System.out.printf("Max: %d%n",
    IntStream.of(values).max().getAsInt());
System.out.printf("Sum: %d%n", IntStream.of(values).sum());
System.out.printf("Average: %.2f%n",
    IntStream.of(values).average().getAsDouble());
```

Returns OptionalInt which is a container object which may or may not contain an int value

# Stream API Example

The identity value must be an identity for the accumulator function. This means that for all x, `accumulator.apply(identity, x)` is equal to x. The accumulator function must be an [associative function](#).

```
//sum of squares of values with reduce method
```

```
System.out.printf("Sum of squares via reduce method:
```

```
%d%n", IntStream.of(values)
```

```
.reduce(0, (x,y) -> x+y*y);
```

Accumulator Function

```
//product of values with reduce method
```

```
System.out.printf("Product via reduce method: %d%n", IntStream.of(values)
```

```
.reduce(1, (x,y) -> x*y) );
```

Identity Value

# Stream API Example

```
//even values displayed in sorted order
System.out.printf("%nEven values displayed in sorted order: ");
IntStream.of(values).filter(value -> value % 2 == 0)
.sorted().forEach(value -> System.out.printf("%d ", value));
System.out.println();

//odd values multiplied by 10 and displayed in sorted order
System.out.printf("Odd values multiplied by 10 displayed in sorted order: ");
IntStream.of(values).filter(value -> value % 2 != 0)
.map(value -> value * 10)
.sorted()
.forEach(value -> System.out.printf("%d", value));
System.out.println();
```

# Stream API Example

```
//sum range of integers from 1 to 10, exclusive
System.out.printf("%nSum of integers from 1 to 9: %d%n",
    IntStream.range(1, 10).sum());

//sum range of integers from 1 to 10, inclusive
System.out.printf("Sum of integers from 1 to 10: %d%n",
    IntStream.rangeClosed(1, 10).sum());
}

} // end class IntStreamOperations
```



## Another Stream API Example

```
List<Dish> menu = Arrays.asList(  
    new Dish("beef", false, 700, Dish.Type.MEAT),  
    new Dish("chicken", false, 400, Dish.Type.MEAT),  
    new Dish("french fries", true, 530, Dish.Type.OTHER),  
    new Dish("rice", true, 350, Dish.Type.OTHER),  
    new Dish("season fruit", true, 120, Dish.Type.OTHER),  
    new Dish("pizza", true, 550, Dish.Type.OTHER),  
    new Dish("prawns", false, 300, Dish.Type.FISH),  
    new Dish("salmon", false, 450, Dish.Type.FISH) );
```

# Another Stream API Example

- Consider the following code snippets

```
List<Dish> vegetarianDishes =  
new ArrayList<>();  
for(Dish d: menu){  
    if(d.isVegetarian()){  
        vegetarianDishes.add(d);  
    }  
}
```

Without using Stream API

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```
import static  
java.util.stream.Collectors.  
toList;  
List<Dish> vegetarianDishes  
=  
menu.stream()  
    .filter(Dish::isVegetarian)  
    .collect(toList());
```

Using Stream API

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# Another Stream API Example

```
import static java.util.stream.Collectors.toList;
List<String> threeHighCalorieDishNames =
    menu.stream()
        .filter(d -> d.getCalories() > 300)
        .map(Dish::getName)
        .limit(3)
        .collect(toList());
System.out.println(threeHighCalorieDishNames);
```

Select  
only the  
first  
three

Get s Stream from menu (the list  
of dishes)

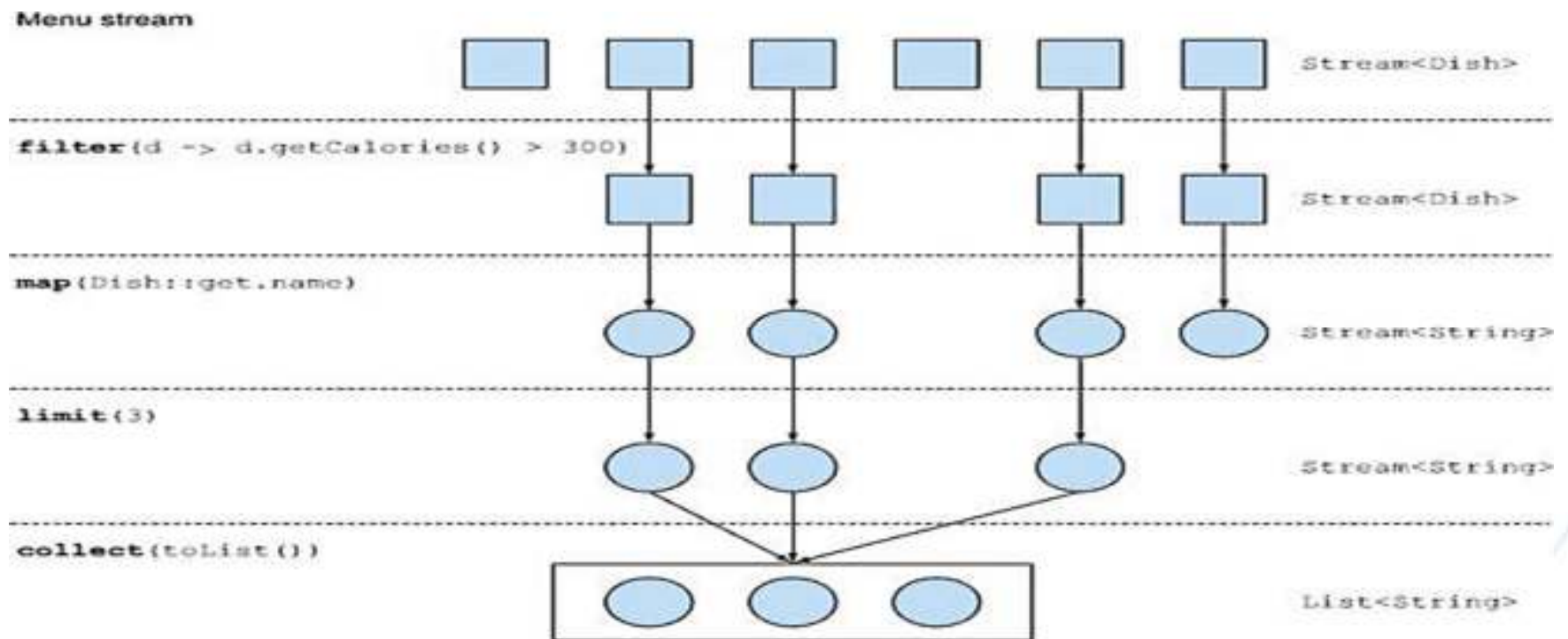
Create a pipeline of operations:  
first filter high-calorie dishes.

Get the names of  
the dishes

Store the  
result in  
another  
List

The result is [ ]

# Another Stream API Example



# Parallel data processing and performance

- One of the most important benefit of Stream API is the possibility of executing a pipeline of operations on collections that automatically makes use of the multiple cores on your computer.

# Parallel data processing and performance

- Processing a collection of data in parallel was extremely cumbersome.
  - ❖ First, you needed to explicitly split the data structure containing your data into subparts.
  - ❖ Second, you needed to assign each of these subparts to a different thread.
  - ❖ Third, you needed to synchronize them opportunistically to avoid unwanted race conditions, wait for the completion of all threads, and finally combine the partial results.
  - ❖ Java 7 introduced a framework called fork/join to perform these operations more consistently and in a less error-prone way.

# Parallel data processing and performance

- In the following, you'll discover how the Stream interface gives you the opportunity to execute operations in parallel on a collection of data without much effort. It lets you declaratively turn a sequential stream into a parallel one.
- Moreover, you'll see how Java can make this magic happen or, more practically, how parallel streams work under the hood by employing the fork/join framework introduced in Java 7.

# Parallel data processing and performance

- it's important to know how parallel streams work internally, because if you ignore this aspect, you could obtain unexpected (and very likely wrong) results by misusing them.
- The way a parallel stream gets divided into chunks, before processing the different chunks in parallel, can in some cases be the origin of these incorrect and apparently unexplainable results.
- For this reason, you can take control of this splitting process by implementing and using your own ***Splitterator***.



# Parallel Streams

- we briefly mentioned that the Stream interface allows you to process its elements in parallel in a very convenient way: it's possible to turn a collection into a parallel stream by invoking the method `parallel` on the collection source.

❖ ***A parallel stream is a stream that splits its elements into multiple chunks, processing each chunk with a different thread.***

you can automatically partition the workload of a given operation on all the cores of your multicore processor and keep all of them equally busy. Let's experiment with this idea by using a simple example.

# Parallel Streams

- Let's suppose you need to write a method accepting a number *n* as argument and returning the sum of all the numbers from 1 to the given argument.
- A straightforward (perhaps naive) approach is to generate an infinite stream of numbers, limiting it to the passed number, and then reduce the resulting stream with a ***BinaryOperator*** that just sums two numbers, as follows:

```
public static long sequentialSum(long n) {  
    return Stream.iterate(1L, i-> i+1)  
                  .limit(n)  
                  .reduce(0L, Long::sum) ;  
}
```

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# Parallel Streams

- This operation seems to be a good candidate to leverage parallelization, especially for large values of  $n$ . But where do you start?
- Do you synchronize on the result variable?
- How many threads do you use?
- Who does the generation of numbers?
- Who adds them up?

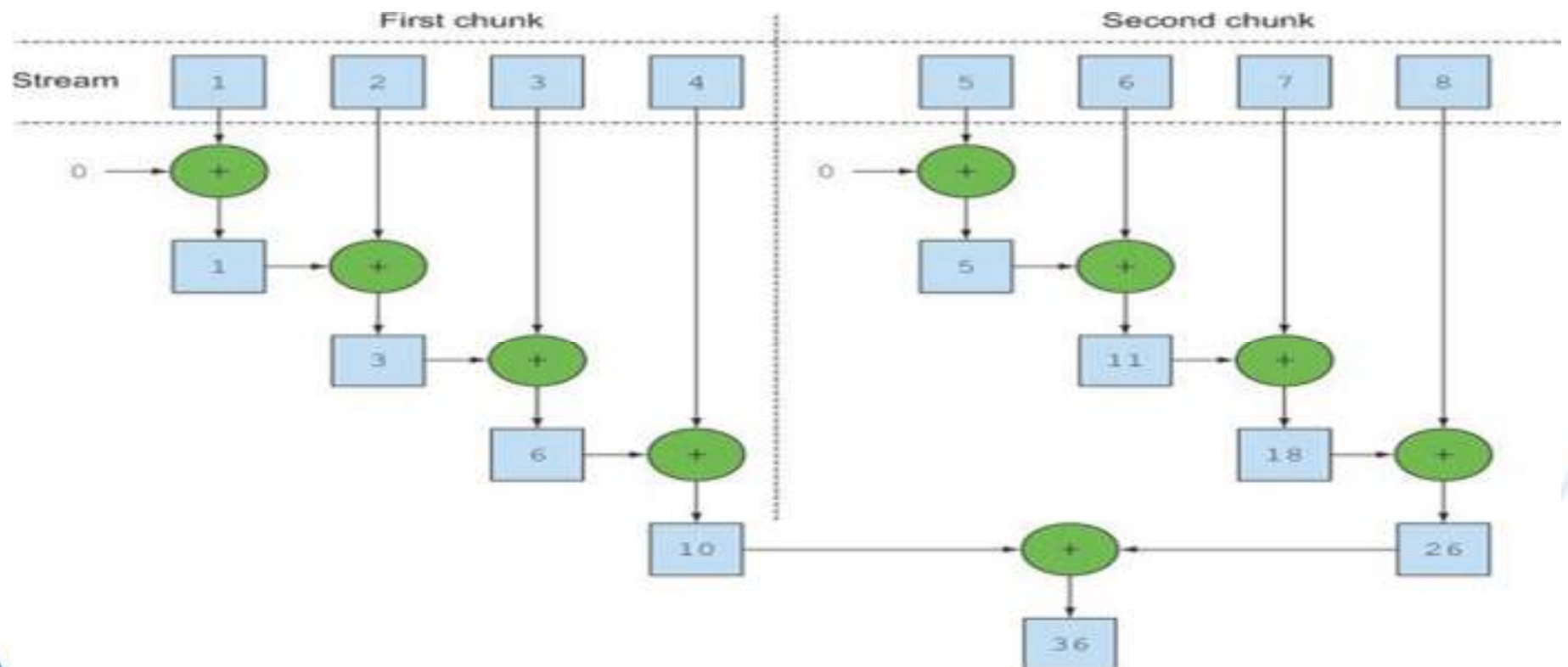
# Parallel Streams

- Don't worry about all of this. It's a much simpler problem to solve if you adopt parallel streams!
- You can make the former functional reduction process (that is, summing) run in parallel by turning the stream into a parallel one; call the method `parallel` on the sequential stream:

# Parallel Streams

```
public static long sequentialSum(long n) {  
    return Stream.iterate(1L, i-> i+1)  
        .limit(n)  
        .parallel()  
        .reduce(0L, Long::sum) ;  
}
```

# Parallel Streams



# Parallel Streams Example

```
import java.time.Duration;
import java.time.LocalDateTime;
import java.util.stream.IntStream;
import java.util.stream.Stream;
public class ParallelExample {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LocalDateTime startTime = LocalDateTime.now ();
        long count = Stream.iterate (0, n -> n + 1)
            .limit (1_000_000)
            // .parallel() //with this 23s, without this 1m 14s on intel core i7
            //8th generation with 32 GB memory
            .filter (ParallelExample::isPrime)
            .peek (x -> System.out.format ("%s\t", x))
            .count ();
        LocalDateTime endTime = LocalDateTime.now ();
        Duration duration = Duration.between (startTime, endTime);
        System.out.println ("\nTotal: " + count);
        System.out.println ("Computed in " + duration.getSeconds () + " seconds");
    }
    public static boolean isPrime(int number) {
        if (number <= 1) return false;
        return !IntStream.rangeClosed (2, number / 2).anyMatch (i -> number % i == 0);
    }
}
```

# Lab Exercise

- **World Countries:** There are two domain classes: **Country** and **City**. Each *city* belongs to a *country* defined by the *attribute*, **countryCode**. Each *country* has a unique **code** and has many **cities**.
  - The Country class has the following attributes
  - The City class has the following attributes
- ```
private int id;  
private String name;  
private int population;  
private String countryCode;
```
- ```
private String code;  
private String name;  
private String continent;  
private double surfaceArea;  
private int population;  
private double gnp;  
private int capital;  
private List<City> cities;
```
- Create the above two classes and then create a java application to find the following:
    - Find the highest populated city of each country
    - Find the most populated city of each continent
    - Find the highest populated capital city



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# Lesson 9

## Java Collection Framework

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# Java Collections

## Introduction

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# Introduction to Java Collection Framework

- The data structures that you choose can make a big difference when you try to implement methods in a natural style or are concerned with performance.
  - Do you need to search quickly through thousands (or even millions) of sorted items?
  - Do you need to rapidly insert and remove elements in the middle of an ordered sequence?
  - Do you need to establish associations between keys and values?

# Introduction to Java Collection Framework

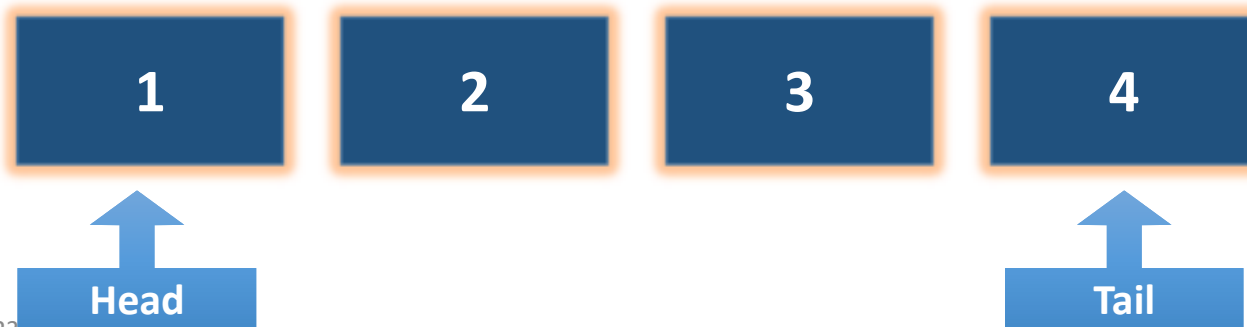
- In this lesson we will show how the Java library can help you accomplish the traditional data structuring needed for serious programming.
- We will show how to use the collection classes in the Java standard library

# The Java Collections Framework

- The initial release of Java supplied only a small set of classes for the most useful data structures: ***Vector, Stack, Hashtable***
- With the introduction of Java SE 1.2, the designers felt that the time had come to rollout a full-fledged set of data structures.
- They wanted the library to be small and easy to learn.
- We will explore the basic design of the Java collections framework, show you how to put it to work, and explain the reasoning behind some of the more controversial features.

# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

- The Java collection library separates *interfaces* from *implementations*.
  - Let us look at that separation with a familiar data structure, the *queue*.
  - You use a queue when you need to collect objects and retrieve them in a “first in, first out” fashion



## Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

- A *queue interface* specifies that you can add elements at the tail or the end of the queue, remove them at the head, and find out how many elements are in the queue.

```
// a simplified form of the interface in the standard library
interface Queue<E> {

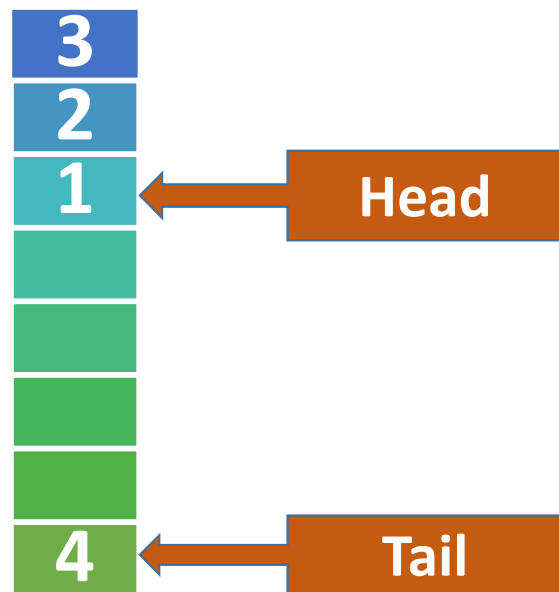
    void add(E element) ;
    E remove() ;
    int size() ;
}
```



## Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

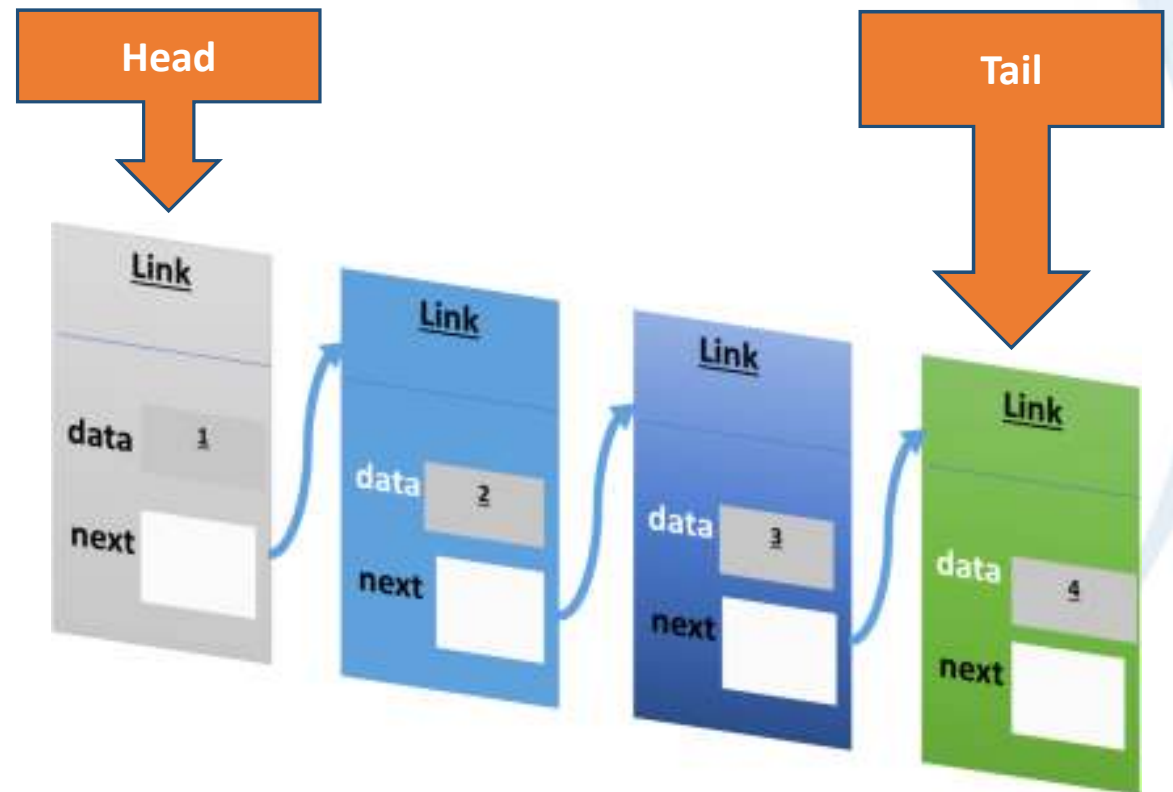
- The interface tells you nothing about how the queue is implemented.
- Of the two common implementations of a queue, one uses a “***circular array***” and one uses a ***linked list***
- Each implementation can be expressed by a class that implements the Queue interface.

# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation



Circular Array

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Linked List

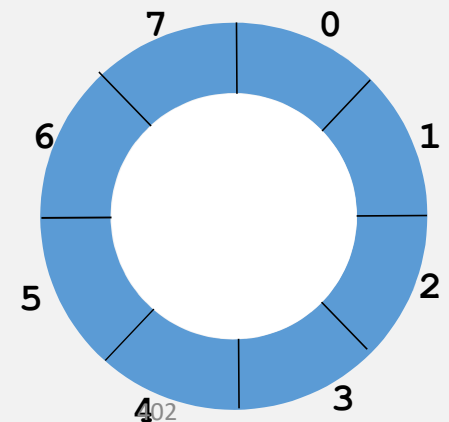
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# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

```
// not an actual library class
class CircularArrayQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
    private int head;
    private int tail;
    private E[] elements;
    CircularArrayQueue(int capacity) {
    }
    public void add(E element) {
    }
    public E remove() {
        return null;
    }
    public int size() {
        return head;
    }
}
```

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The idea of a circular array is that the end of the array “wraps around” to the start of the array



# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

```
class LinkedListQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {  
    private Link head;  
    private Link tail;  
    LinkedListQueue() {  
    }  
    public void add(E element) {  
    }  
    public E remove() {  
    }  
    public int size() {  
    } }  
}
```

# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

- When you use a queue in your program, you don't need to know which implementation is actually used once the collection has been constructed.
- Therefore, it makes sense to use the concrete class *only* when you construct the collection object.
- Use the *interface type* to hold the collection reference.  

```
Queue<Customer> expressLane = new CircularArrayQueue<>(100);  
expressLane.add(new Customer("Harry"));
```
- With this approach, if you change your mind, you can easily use a different implementation.

# Separating Collection Interfaces and Implementation

- Why would you choose one implementation over another?
- A circular array is somewhat more efficient than a linked list, so it is generally preferable.
- The circular array is a *bounded* collection—it has a finite capacity.
- If you don't have an upper limit on the number of objects that your program will collect, you may be better off with a linked list implementation after all.

# The Collection Interface

- The fundamental interface for collection classes in the Java library is the ***Collection*** interface.
- The interface has two fundamental methods:
- There are several methods in addition to these two; we will discuss them later.

```
public interface Collection<E>
{
    boolean add(E element);
    Iterator<E> iterator();
    . . .
}
```

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# The Collection Interface

- The add method adds an element to the collection.
- The add method returns true if adding the element actually changes the collection, and false if the collection is unchanged.
- The ***iterator*** method returns an object that implements the ***Iterator*** interface. You can use the iterator object to visit the elements in the collection one by one.



# The Iterator Interface

- The Iterator interface has four methods:

```
public interface Iterator<E>
{
    E next();
    boolean hasNext();
    void remove();
    default void forEachRemaining(Consumer<? super
    E> action){...}
}
```

# The Iterator Interface

- By repeatedly calling the next method, you can visit the elements from the collection one by one.
- However, if you reach the end of the collection, the next method throws a ***NoSuchElementException***.
- Therefore, you need to call the hasNext method before calling next.

```
Collection<String> c = . . . ;
Iterator<String> iter = c.iterator();
while (iter.hasNext())
{
    String element = iter.next();
    //do something with element
}
```

# The Iterator Interface

- As of Java SE 8, you don't even have to write a loop. You can call the ***forEachRemaining*** method with a lambda expression that consumes an element.
- The lambda expression is invoked with each element of the iterator, until there are none left.

*iterator.forEachRemaining(element -> do something with element);*

- The order in which the elements are visited depends on the collection type.

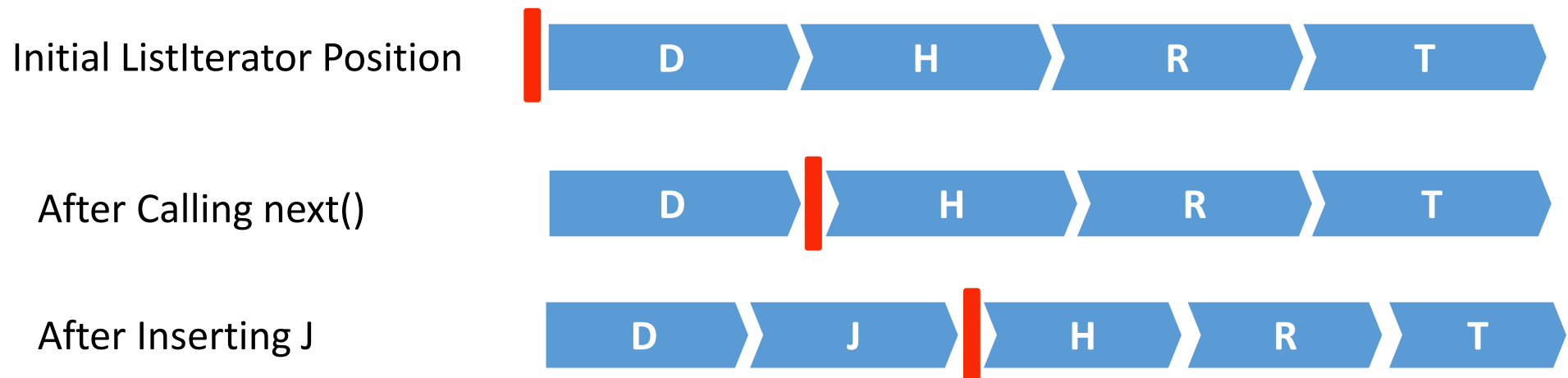
# The Iterator Interface

- There is an important conceptual difference between iterators in the Java collections library and iterators in other libraries.
- In traditional collections libraries iterators are modeled after array indexes.
- Given such an iterator, you can look up the element that is stored at that position.
- However, the Java iterators do not work like that.
- The lookup and position change are tightly coupled. The only way to look up an element is to call next, and that lookup advances the position.

# The Iterator Interface

- Think of Java iterators as being *between elements*.
- When you call `next`, the iterator *jumps over* the next element, and it returns a reference to the element that it just passed.
- The ***remove*** method of the Iterator interface removes the element that was returned by the last call to ***next***.
- There is a dependency between the calls to the `next` and `remove` methods.
- It is illegal to call `remove` if it wasn't preceded by a call to `next`. If you try, an ***IllegalStateException*** is thrown.

# The Iterator Interface



## A Conceptual View of the List Iterator

# Generic Utility Methods

- The Collection and Iterator interfaces are generic, which means you can write utility methods that operate on any kind of collection.
- The designers of the Java library decided that some utility methods are so useful that the library should make them available.
- In fact, the Collection interface declares quite a few useful methods that all implementing classes must supply.

# Generic Utility Methods

```
int size()
boolean isEmpty()
boolean contains(Object obj)
boolean containsAll(Collection<?> c)
boolean equals(Object other)
boolean addAll(Collection<? extends E> from)
boolean remove(Object obj)
boolean removeAll(Collection<?> c)
void clear()
boolean retainAll(Collection<?> c)
Object[] toArray()
<T> T[] toArray(T[] arrayToFill)
default boolean removeIf(Predicate<? super E> filter)
```



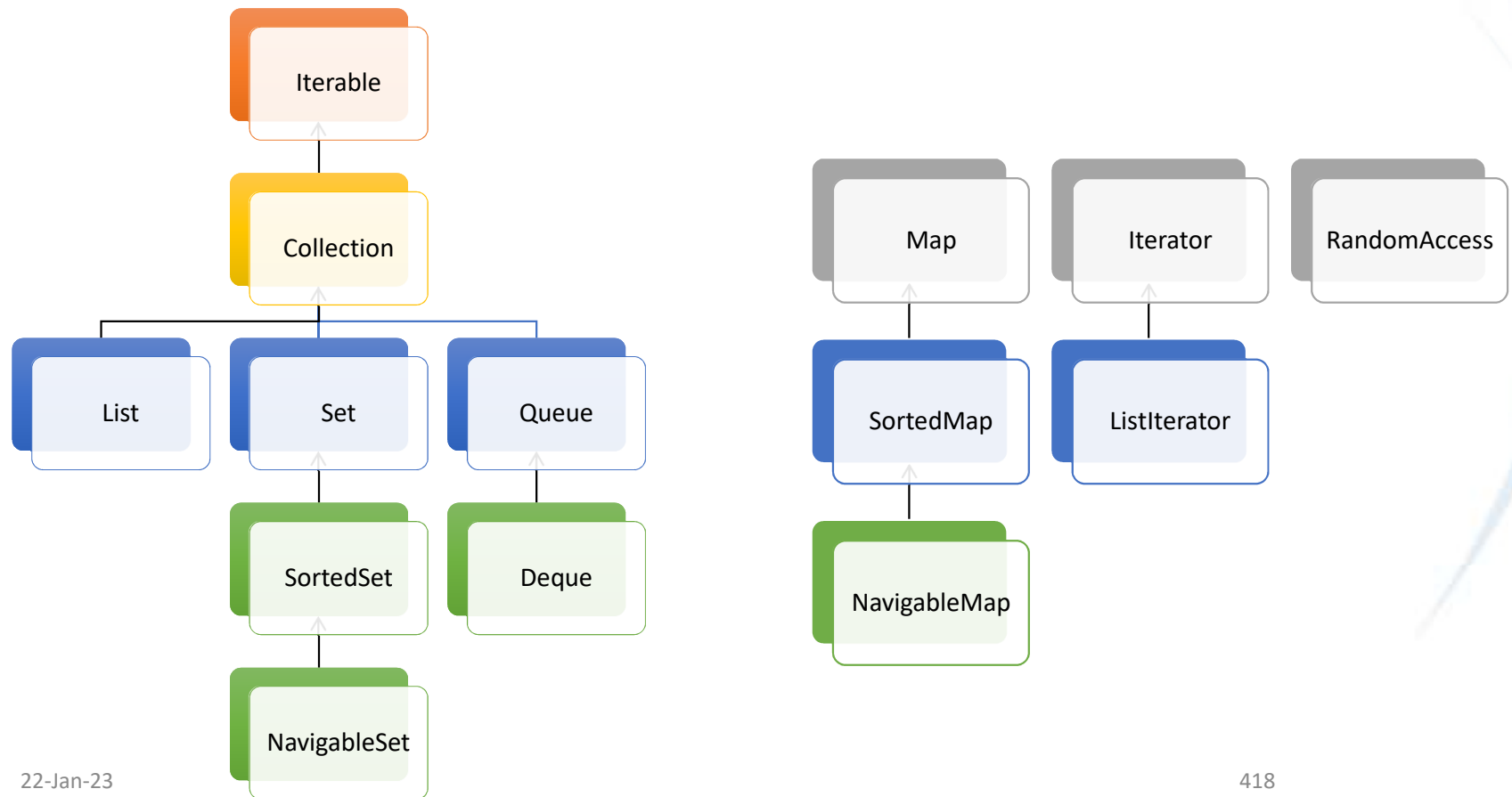
# Generic Utility Methods

- To make life easier for implementers, the library supplies a class ***AbstractCollection*** that leaves the fundamental methods ***size*** and ***iterator*** abstract but implements the routine methods in terms of them.
- A concrete collection class can now extend the ***AbstractCollection*** class.
- With Java SE 8, this approach is a bit outdated. It would be nicer if the methods were default methods of the Collection interface.
- This has not happened. However, several default methods have been added. Most of them deal with streams.

# Interfaces in the Collections Framework

- The Java collections framework defines a number of interfaces for different types of collections.
- There are two fundamental interfaces for collections: ***Collection*** and ***Map***.
- you insert elements into a collection with a method ***boolean add(E element)***
- However, maps hold key/value pairs, and you use the put method to insert them:  
***V put(K key, V value)***

# Interfaces in the Collections Framework



# Interfaces in the Collections Framework

- A List is an *ordered collection*. Elements are added into a particular position in the container.
- The **ListIterator** interface is a subinterface of Iterator. It defines a method for adding an element before the iterator position.
- The Set interface is identical to the Collection interface, but the behavior of the methods is more tightly defined. *The add method of a set should reject duplicates.*

# Interfaces in the Collections Framework

- The ***SortedSet*** and ***SortedMap*** interfaces expose the comparator object used for sorting, and they define methods to obtain views of subsets of the collections.
- Java SE 6 introduced interfaces ***NavigableSet*** and ***NavigableMap*** that contain additional methods for searching and traversal in sorted sets and maps.
- The ***TreeSet*** and ***TreeMap*** classes implement these interfaces.

# Concrete Collections

- The following slides show the collections in the Java library and briefly describes the purpose of each collection class.
- All classes in the below table implement the ***Collection*** interface, with the exception of the classes with names ending in ***Map***. Those classes implement the Map interface instead.

# Classes in the collections framework

Collection Type	Description
ArrayList	An indexed sequence that grows and shrinks dynamically
LinkedList	An ordered sequence that allows efficient insertion and removal at any location
ArrayDeque	A double-ended queue that is implemented as a circular array
HashSet	An unordered collection that rejects duplicates
TreeSet	A sorted set
EnumSet	A set of enumerated type values
LinkedHashSet	A set that remembers the order in which elements were inserted
PriorityQueue	Elements are ordered according to their natural ordering, or by a Comparator provided at queue construction time

# Classes in the collections framework

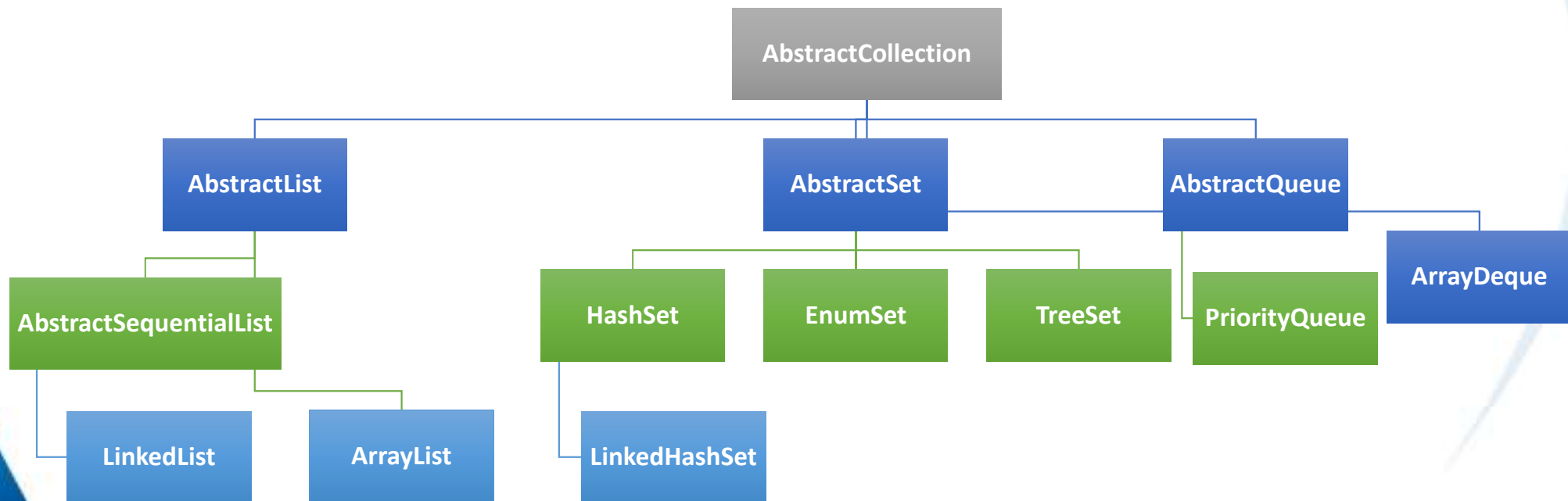
Collection Type	Description
HashMap	A data structure that stores key/value associations
TreeMap	A map in which the keys are sorted
EnumMap	A map in which the keys belong to an enumerated type
LinkedHashMap	A map that remembers the order in which entries were added
WeakHashMap	A map with values that can be reclaimed by the garbage collector if they are not used elsewhere
IdentityHashMap	A map with keys that are compared by ==, not equals



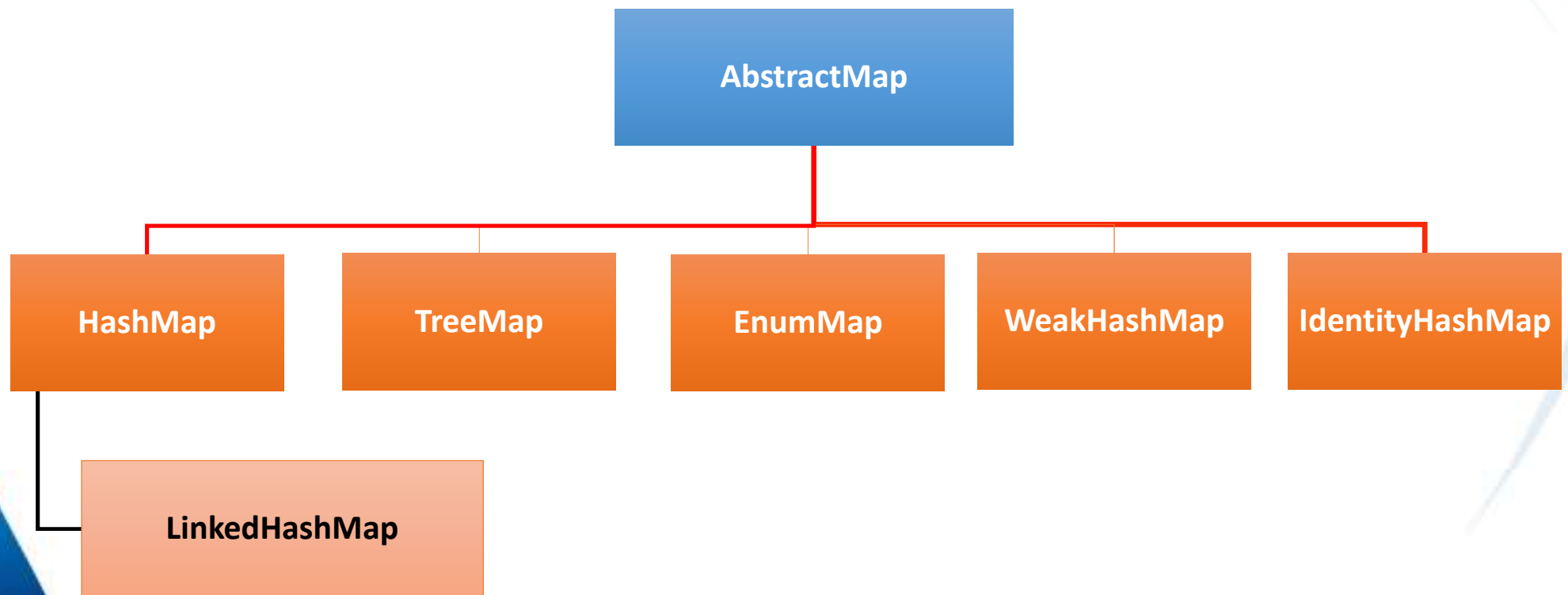
# Collection Framework Categories— Sequences cont'd

- Because a sequence is linear, you will be able to add a new object only at the beginning or at the end, or insert a new object following a given object position in the sequence.
- In the Java collections framework, types that define sequences are subdivided into two subgroups, **lists** and **queues**.
- **Vectors, linked lists, and stacks are all lists.**

# Classes in the collections framework



# Classes in the collections framework



# Linked Lists

- Arrays and ArrayList are used frequently when we are developing different applications.
- However, arrays and array lists suffer from a major drawback.
- Removing an element from the middle of an array is expensive since all array elements beyond the removed one must be moved toward the beginning of the array. The same is true for inserting elements in the middle.
- Another well-known data structure, the *linked list*, solves this problem.

# Linked Lists

- While an array stores object references in consecutive memory locations, a linked list stores each object in a separate *link*.
- Each link also stores a reference to the next link in the sequence.
- In the Java programming language, all linked lists are actually ***doubly linked***; that is, each link also stores a reference to its predecessor
- Removing an element from the middle of a linked list is an inexpensive operation—only the links around the element to be removed need to be updated

# Linked Lists

- The following code example adds three elements and then removes the second one:

```
// LinkedList implements List
List<String> staff = new LinkedList<>();
staff.add("First");
staff.add("Second");
staff.add("Third");
Iterator iter = staff.iterator();
String first = iter.next(); // visit first element
String second = iter.next(); // visit second element
iter.remove(); // remove last visited element
```

# Linked Lists

- A linked list is an *ordered collection* in which the position of the objects matters.
- The ***LinkedList.add*** method adds the object to the end of the list. But you will often want to add objects somewhere in the middle of a list.
- This position dependent add method is the responsibility of an iterator, since iterators describe positions in collections.
- Using iterators to add elements makes sense only for collections that have a natural ordering.

# Linked Lists

- Therefore, there is no add method in the Iterator interface. Instead, the collections library supplies a subinterface *ListIterator* that contains an add method:

```
interface ListIterator<E> extends Iterator<E>
{
    void add(E element);
    E previous()
    boolean hasPrevious()
}
```



# Linked Lists

- The `listIterator` method of the `LinkedList` class returns an iterator object that implements the `ListIterator` interface.

***ListIterator<String> iter = staff.listIterator();***

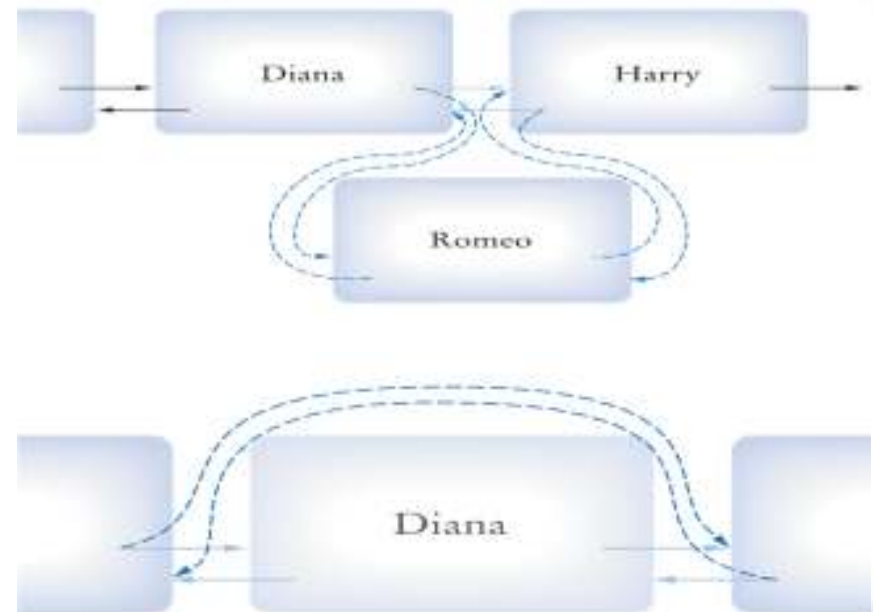
- The `add` method adds the new element *before* the iterator position.
- For example, the following code skips past the first element in the linked list and adds “Before Second” before the second element

# Linked Lists

```
List<String> numbers = new LinkedList<>();  
numbers.add("First");  
numbers.add("Second");  
numbers.add("Third");  
ListIterator<String> iter = numbers.listIterator();  
iter.next(); // skip past first element  
iter.add("Before Second");
```

# Linked Lists Operations

- **Efficient** Operations
  - **Insertion** of a node
    - **Find** the elements it goes between
    - **Remap** the **references**
  - **Removal** of a node
    - **Find** the element to remove
    - **Remap** neighbor's **references**
  - Visiting all elements **in order**
- **Inefficient** Operations
  - **Random access**



# Linked Lists Concurrency

- As you might imagine, if an iterator traverses a collection while another iterator is modifying it, confusing situations can occur.
- For example, suppose an iterator points before an element that another iterator has just removed.
- The iterator is now invalid and should no longer be used. The linked list iterators have been designed to detect such modifications.
- If an iterator finds that its collection has been modified by another iterator or by a method of the collection itself, it throws a ***ConcurrentModificationException***.

# Linked Lists Concurrency

```
List<String> list = . . .;  
ListIterator<String> iter1 = list.listIterator();  
ListIterator<String> iter2 = list.listIterator();  
iter1.next();  
iter1.remove();  
iter2.next(); // throws ConcurrentModificationException
```

- To avoid concurrent modification exceptions, follow this simple rule:
  - You can attach as many iterators to a collection as you like, provided that all of them are only readers.
  - Alternatively, you can attach a single iterator that can both read and write.

# Linked Lists Example

- The following program puts linked lists to work.
- It simply creates two lists, merges them, then removes every second element from the second list, and finally tests the removeAll method.

# Linked Lists Example

```
import java.util.*;
public class LinkedListTest
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        List<String> a = new LinkedList<>();
        a.add("A");
        a.add("B");
        a.add("C");
        List<String> b = new LinkedList<>();
        b.add("D");
        b.add("E");
        b.add("F");
        b.add("G");
    }
}
```

# Linked Lists Example

```
// merge the words from b into a
ListIterator<String> aIter = a.listIterator();
Iterator<String> bIter = b.iterator();
while (bIter.hasNext()) {
    if (aIter.hasNext()) aIter.next();
    aIter.add(bIter.next());
}
System.out.println(a);
// remove every second word from b
bIter = b.iterator();
while (bIter.hasNext()) {
    bIter.next(); // skip one element
    if (bIter.hasNext())
    {
        bIter.next(); // skip next element
        bIter.remove(); // remove that element
    }
}
```



# Linked Lists Example

```
System.out.println(b);  
// bulk operation: remove all words in b from a  
    a.removeAll(b);  
    System.out.println(a);  
}  
}
```

[A, D, B, E, C, F, G]

[D, F]

[A, B, E, C, G]

# Maps

- A set is a collection that lets you quickly find an existing element.
- However, to look up an element, you need to have an exact copy of the element to find.
- That isn't a very common lookup—usually, you have some key information, and you want to look up the associated element.
- The *map* data structure serves that purpose.
- A map stores key/value pairs. You can find a value if you provide the key.

# Basic Map Operations

- The Java library supplies two general-purpose implementations for maps: ***HashMap*** and ***TreeMap***. Both classes implement the Map interface.
- A hash map hashes the keys, and a tree map uses an ordering on the keys to organize them in a search tree.
- The hash or comparison function is applied *only to the keys*. The values associated with the keys are not hashed or compared.

# Basic Map Operations

- Here is how you set up a hash map for storing employees:

```
//HashMap implements Map  
Map<String, Employee> staff = new HashMap<>();  
Employee harry = new Employee("Harry Hacker");  
staff.put("987-98-9996", harry);
```

- Whenever you add an object to a map, you must supply a key as well. In our case, the key is a string, and the corresponding value is an Employee object.

# Basic Map Operations

- To retrieve an object, you must use (and, therefore, remember) the key.

```
String id = "987-98-9996";  
e = staff.get(id); // gets harry
```

- If no information is stored in the map with the particular key specified, ***get*** returns ***null***.

# Basic Map Operations

- The null return value can be inconvenient. Sometimes, you have a good default that can be used for keys that are not present in the map. Then use the ***getOrDefault*** method.

```
Map<String, Integer> scores = . . .;
```

```
int score = scores.getOrDefault(id, 0); // Gets 0 if the id is not present
```

- Keys must be unique. You cannot store two values with the same key.
- If you call the ***put*** method twice with the same key, the second value replaces the first one.
- In fact, ***put*** returns the previous value associated with its key parameter.

# Basic Map Operations

- The remove method removes an element with a given key from the map.
- The size method returns the number of entries in the map.
- The easiest way of iterating over the keys and values of a map is the ***forEach*** method.
  - Provide a lambda expression that receives a key and a value. That expression is invoked for each map entry in turn.

```
scores.forEach( (k, v) ->  
System.out.println("key=" + k + ", value=" + v) );
```

# Map Example

- We first add key/value pairs to a map.
- Then, we remove one key from the map, which removes its associated value as well.
- Next, we change the value that is associated with a key and call the get method to look up a value. Finally, we iterate through the entry set.



# Map Example

```
public class Employee {  
    private String name;  
    public Employee(String name) {  
        // TODO Auto-generated constructor stub  
        this.setName(name);  
    }  
    public String getName() {  
        return name;  
    }  
    public void setName(String name) {  
        this.name = name;  
    }  
}
```

# Map Example

```
import java.util.*;
public class MapTest {
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Map<String, Employee> staff = new HashMap<>();
    staff.put("144-25-5464", new Employee("Amr"));
    staff.put("567-24-2546", new Employee("Mohsen"));
    staff.put("157-62-7935", new Employee("Medhat"));
    staff.put("456-62-5527", new Employee("Iman"));
}
```

# Map Example

```
// print all entries
System.out.println(staff);
// remove an entry
staff.remove("567-24-2546");
// replace an entry
staff.put("456-62-5527", new Employee("Mona"));
// look up a value
System.out.println(staff.get("157-62-7935"));
// iterate through all entries
staff.forEach((k, v) ->
System.out.println("key=" + k + ", value=" + v));
}
}
```

# Map Example-Output

```
{157-62-7935=collections.maps.Employee@7960847b, 144-25-5464=collections.maps.Employee@6a6824be, 456-62-5527=collections.maps.Employee@5c8da962, 567-24-2546=collections.maps.Employee@512ddf17}  
collections.maps.Employee@7960847b  
key=157-62-7935, value=collections.maps.Employee@7960847b  
key=144-25-5464, value=collections.maps.Employee@6a6824be  
key=456-62-5527, value=collections.maps.Employee@5f5a92bb
```

```
{157-62-7935=Medhat, 144-25-5464=Amr, 456-62-5527=Iman, 567-24-2546=Mohsen}  
Medhat  
key=157-62-7935, value=Medhat  
key=144-25-5464, value=Amr  
key=456-62-5527, value=Mona
```

# Map Interface Methods

```
V get(Object key);  
default V getOrDefault(Object key, V defaultValue);  
V put(K key, V value);  
void putAll(Map<? extends K, ? extends V> entries);  
boolean containsKey(Object key);  
boolean containsValue(Object value);  
default void forEach(BiConsumer<? super K, ? super V> action);
```

# Updating Map Entries

- Normally, you get the old value associated with a key, update it, and put back the updated value.
- But you have to worry about the special case of the first occurrence of a key.
- Consider using a map for counting how often a word occurs in a file.
- When we see a word, we'd like to increment a counter like this:

***counts.put(word, counts.get(word) + 1);***

# Updating Map Entries

- That works, except in the case when word is encountered for the first time. Then ***get*** returns null, and a ***NullPointerException*** occurs.

- A simple remedy is to use the ***getOrDefault*** method:

***counts.put(word, counts.getOrDefault(word, 0) + 1);***

- Another approach is to first call the ***putIfAbsent*** method. It only puts a value if the key was previously absent.

***counts.putIfAbsent(word, 0);***

***counts.put(word, counts.get(word) + 1); // Now we know that get will succeed***

## Updating Map Entries

- But we can do better than that; we can use the ***merge*** method that simplifies this common operation as follows:

***counts.merge(word, 1, Integer::sum);***

- The Call to the ***merge*** method associates ***word*** with ***1*** if the key wasn't previously present, and otherwise combines the previous value and 1, using the ***Integer::sum*** function.



# Map Views

- The collections framework does not consider a map itself as a collection.
- However, you can obtain **views** of the map—objects that implement the Collection interface or one of its sub interfaces.
- There are three views:
  - *The Set of keys*
  - *The Collection of values*
  - *The Set of key/value pairs*

# Map Views

- The following methods return these three views:
  - ***Set<K> keySet()***
  - ***Collection<V> values()***
  - ***Set<Map.Entry<K, V>> entrySet()***

# Algorithms

- Generic collection interfaces have a great advantage—you only need to implement your algorithms once.
- For example, consider a simple algorithm to compute the maximum element in a collection.
- Here is how you can find the largest element of an Array or ArrayList or LinkedList.

# Algorithms

```
//Array
if (a.length == 0) throw new
NoSuchElementException();
T largest = a[0];
for (int i = 1; i < a.length; i++)
if (largest.compareTo(a[i]) < 0)
largest = a[i];
```

```
//ArrayList
if (v.size() == 0) throw new
NoSuchElementException();
T largest = v.get(0);
for (int i = 1; i < v.size(); i++)
if (largest.compareTo(v.get(i)) < 0)
largest = v.get(i);
```

```
//LinkedList
if (l.isEmpty()) throw new NoSuchElementException();
Iterator<T> iter = l.iterator();
T largest = iter.next();
while (iter.hasNext())
{
    T next = iter.next();
    if (largest.compareTo(next) < 0)
        largest = next;
}
```

# Algorithms

- These loops are tedious to write, and just a bit error-prone.
  - Do the loops work correctly for empty containers?
  - For containers with only one element?
- You don't want to test and debug this code every time, but you also don't want to implement a whole set of methods for arrays, array lists, and linked lists.

# Algorithms

- That's where the collection interfaces come in.
- As you have seen in the computation of the maximum element in a linked list, random access is not required for this task.
- Computing the maximum can be done simply by iterating through the elements. Therefore, you can implement the max method to take *any* object that implements the Collection interface.

# Algorithms- Generic method for implementing Max

```
public static <T extends Comparable> T max(Collection<T> c)
{
    if (c.isEmpty()) throw new NoSuchElementException();
    Iterator<T> iter = c.iterator();
    T largest = iter.next();
    while (iter.hasNext())
    {
        T next = iter.next();
        if (largest.compareTo(next) < 0)
            largest = next;
    }
    return largest;
}
```

Now you can compute the maximum of a linked list, an array list, or an array, with a single method.

# Algorithms- Sorting and Shuffling

- Sorting algorithms are part of the standard library for most programming languages, and the Java programming language is no exception.
- The ***sort*** method in the ***Collections*** class sorts a collection that implements the ***List*** interface.

```
List<String> staff = new LinkedList<>();
```

```
fill collection
```

```
Collections.sort(staff);
```

- This method assumes that the list elements implement the ***Comparable*** interface. If you want to sort the list in some other way, you can use the ***sort*** method of the `List` interface and pass a ***Comparator*** object.



# Algorithms- Sorting and Shuffling

- Here is how you can sort a list of employees by salary:

```
staff.sort(Comparator.comparingDouble(Employee::getSalary));
```

- If you want to sort a list in *descending* order, use the static convenience method ***Comparator.reverseOrder()***. For Example

```
staff.sort(Comparator.reverseOrder())
```

- sorts the elements in the list `staff` in reverse order, according to the ordering given by the `compareTo` method of the element type. Similarly,

```
staff.sort(Comparator.comparingDouble(Employee::getSalary).reversed())
```

sorts by descending salary.

# Algorithms- Sorting and Shuffling

- The following example fills an array list with 49 Integer objects containing the numbers 1 through 49.
- It then randomly shuffles the list and selects the first six values from the shuffled list.
- Finally, it sorts the selected values and prints them.

# Algorithms- Sorting and Shuffling example

```
import java.util.*;
/**This program demonstrates the random shuffle and sort algorithms.
 * @version 1.11 2012-01-26
 * @author Cay Horstmann
 */
public class ShuffleTest{
    public static void main(String[] args){
        List<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<>();
        for (int i = 1; i <= 49; i++)
            numbers.add(i);
        Collections.shuffle(numbers);
List<Integer> winningCombination = numbers.subList(0, 6);
        Collections.sort(winningCombination);
        System.out.println(winningCombination);
    }
}
```

22-Jan-23

[9, 13, 22, 25, 27, 38]

# Algorithms- Binary Search

- To find an object in an array, you normally visit all elements until you find a match.
- However, if the array is sorted, you can look at the middle element and check whether it is larger than the element that you are trying to find.
- If so, keep looking in the first half of the array; otherwise, look in the second half.
- That cuts the problem in half, and you keep going in the same way.

# Algorithms- Binary Search

- For example, if the array has 1024 elements, you will locate the match (or confirm that there is none) after 10 steps.
- Whereas a linear search would have taken you an average of 512 steps if the element is present, and 1024 steps to confirm that it is not.
- The ***binarySearch*** method of the Collections class implements this algorithm.
- Note that the collection must already be sorted, or the algorithm will return the wrong answer.

# Algorithms- Binary Search

- To find an element, supply the collection and the element to be located.
- If the collection is not sorted by the compareTo element of the Comparable interface, supply a comparator object as well.  
***`i = Collections.binarySearch(c, element);`***  
***`i = Collections.binarySearch(c, element, comparator);`***
- A non-negative return value from the binarySearch method denotes the index of the matching object.

# Simple Algorithms

- The ***Collections*** class contains several simple but useful algorithms. Among them is the example from the beginning of this section—finding the maximum value of a collection.
- Others include copying elements from one list to another, filling a container with a constant value, and reversing a list.
- Java SE 8 adds default methods ***Collection.removeIf*** and ***List.replaceAllThat*** are just a bit more complex. You provide a lambda expression to test or transform elements.

# Simple Algorithms

- For example, here we remove all short words and change the remaining ones to lowercase:

```
words.removeIf(w -> w.length() <= 3);  
words.replaceAll(String::toLowerCase);
```

- ***java.util.Collections*** contains a set of static methods that represents implementation of some of the most common operations and algorithms



# Sample Methods from java.util.Collections

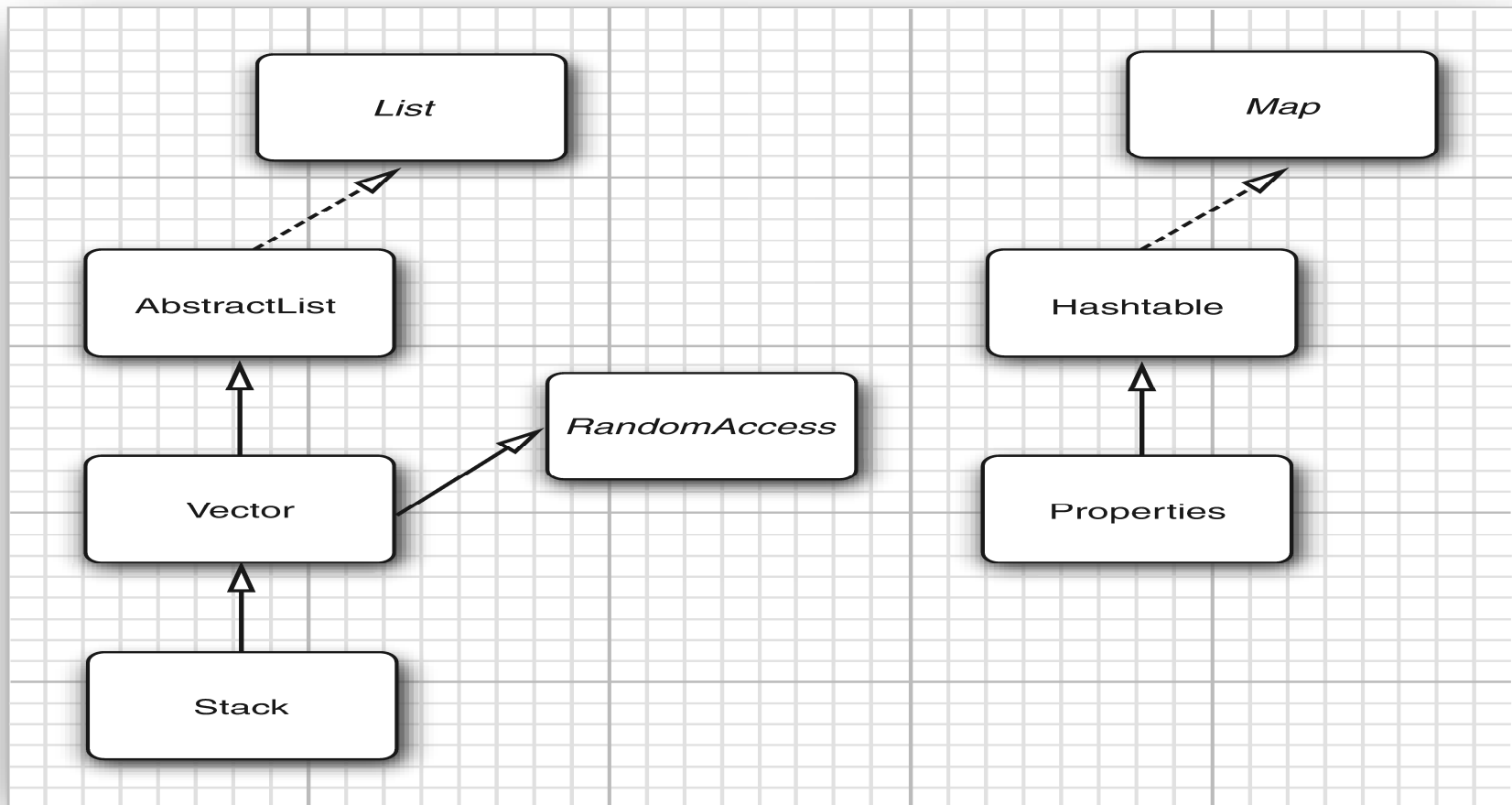
```
static <T> min(Collection<T> elements, Comparator<? super T> c)
static <T> max(Collection<T> elements, Comparator<? super T> c)
static <T> void copy(List<? super T> to, List<T> from)
static <T> void fill(List<? super T> l, T value)
static <T> boolean addAll(Collection<? super T> c, T... values)
static <T> boolean replaceAll(List<T> l, T oldValue, T
newValue)
static void swap(List<?> l, int i, int j)
static void reverse(List<?> l)
static void rotate(List<?> l, int d)
static int frequency(Collection<?> c, Object o)
default boolean removeIf(Predicate<? super E> filter)
```

Rotates the elements in the specified list by the specified distance. After calling this method, the element at index *i* will be the element previously at index  $(i - \text{distance}) \bmod \text{list.size}()$

# Legacy Collections

- A number of “legacy” container classes have been present since the first release of Java, before there was a collections framework.
- They have been integrated into the collections framework as shown in the following image

# Legacy Collections



# Lab Exercise

- ***Simple Word Dictionary***

- Create a map that uses the alphabets as keys and a collection as values (This collection should only contain words starting with the corresponding key)
- Develop an application that stores words into that collection.
- Elements in the words map for each alphabet should be sorted
- Provide methods to print all the letters and corresponding words
- Provide a method to print the words of a given letter

## Agenda

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# Lesson 10

## Multi-Threading in Java

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# What is Thread?

- **What is Thread?**
  - A single sequential execution path in a program
  - Used in many applications:
    - Games, animation, perform I/O
  - Every program in Java has at least two threads; the main thread of the program and the garbage collector thread.
  - Each thread has its own stack, priority & virtual set of registers.

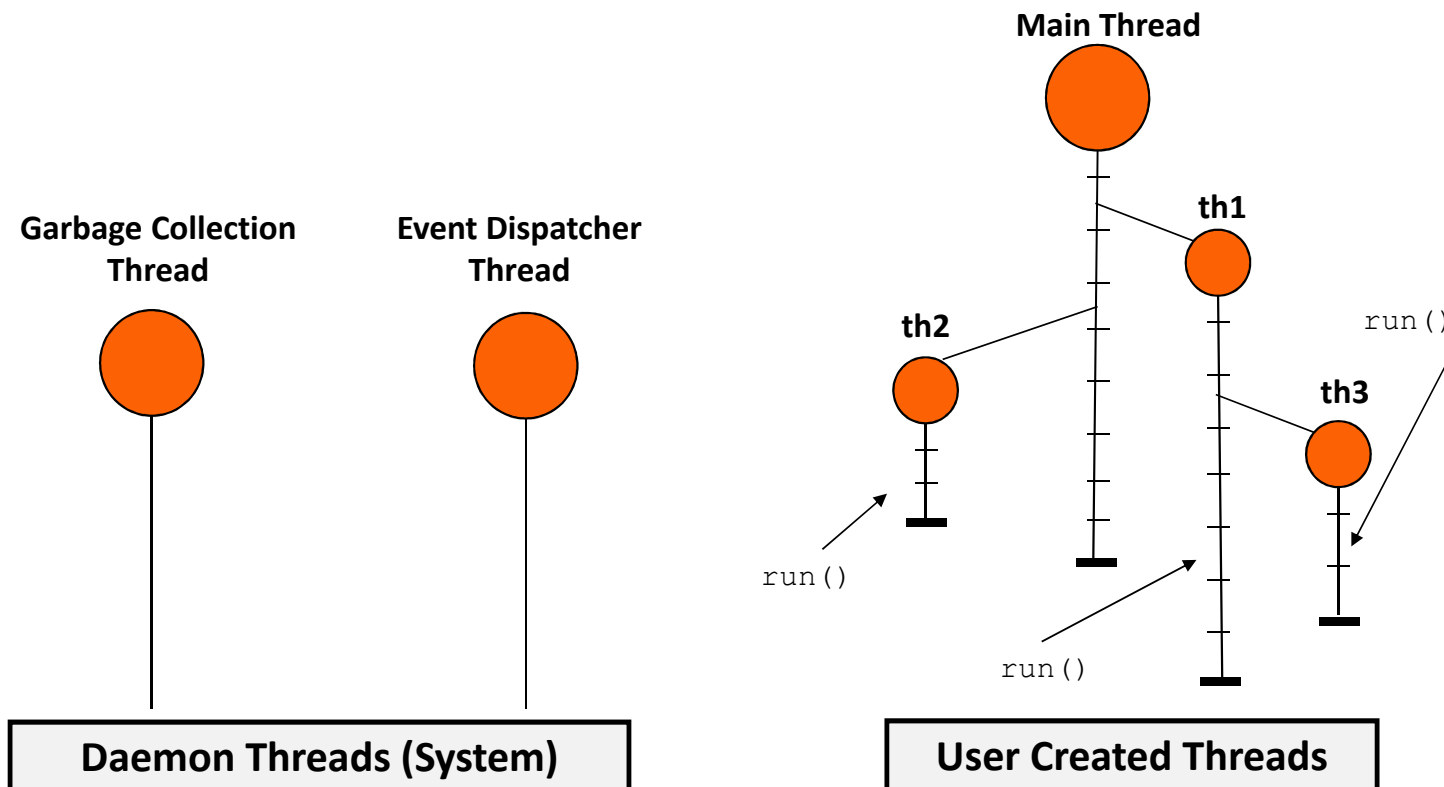
# What is Thread?

- Multiple threads do not means that they execute in parallel when you're working in a single CPU.
  - Some kind of scheduling algorithm is used to manage the threads (ex: Round Robin).
  - The scheduling algorithm is JVM specific (i.e. depending on the scheduling algorithm of the underlying operating system)



# What is Thread?

- Several thread objects that are executing concurrently:



# What is Thread?

- Threads that are ready for execution are put in the ready queue.
  - Only one thread is executing at a time (*in case of single processor or no parallelism*), while the others are waiting for their turn.
- The task that the thread carries out is written inside the `run()` method.

# Thread Handling

- The threads are handled into two main classes:

- **Class Thread**

- `start()`
    - `run()`
    - `sleep()`
    - `suspend()` \*
    - `resume()` \*
    - `stop()` \*

- **Class Object**

- `wait()`
    - `notify()`
    - `notifyAll()`

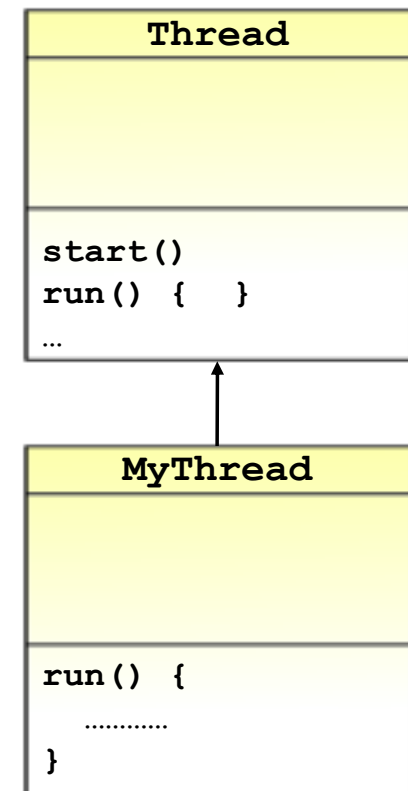
*\* Deprecated Methods (may cause deadlocks in some situations)*

# How to Create Threads in Java?

- There are two ways to work with threads?
  - Extending class **Thread**.
  - Implementing **Runnable** Interface.

# Extending Class Thread

1. Define a class that extends **Thread**.
2. Override its **run ()** method.
3. In main or any other method:
  - a. Create an object of the subclass.
  - b. Call method **start ()**.



# Extending Class Thread

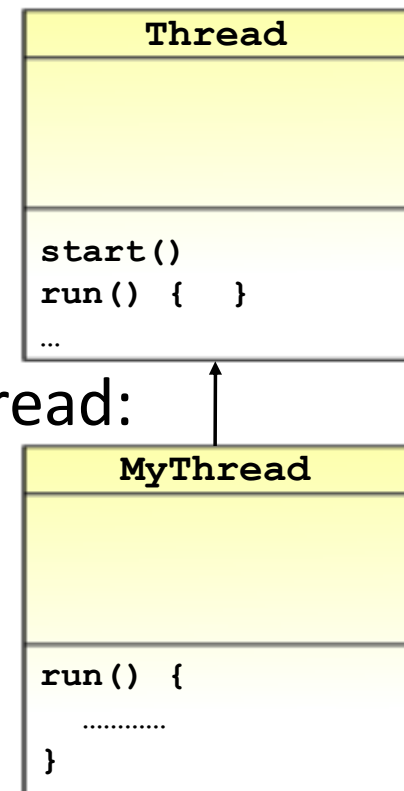
```

public class MyThread extends Thread 1
{
    public void run() 2
    {
        ... //write the job here
    }
}
  
```

- In the place you want to create and start thread:

```

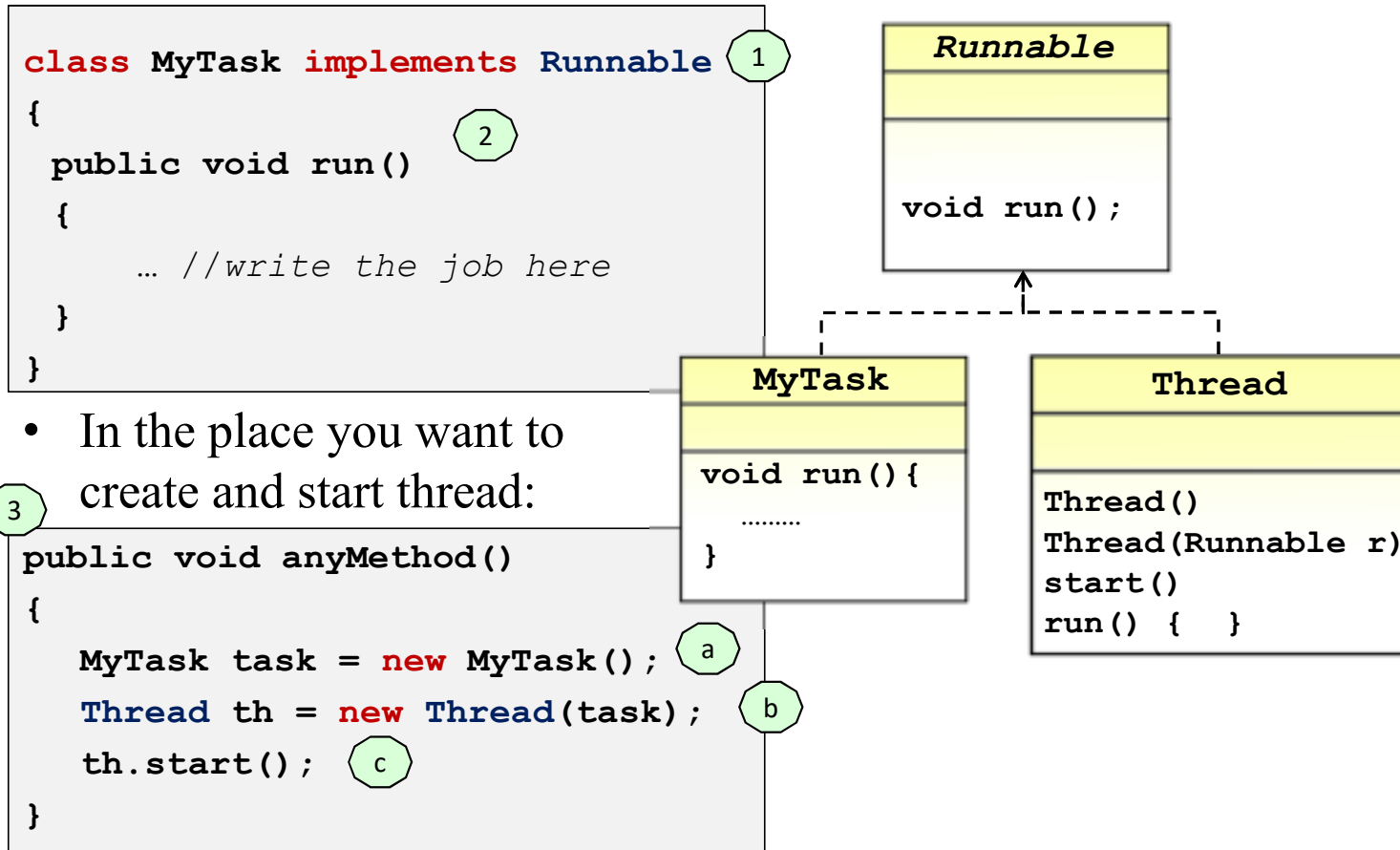
public void anyMethod()
{
    MyThread th = new MyThread(); 3.a
    th.start(); 3.b
}
  
```



# Implementing Runnable Interface :

1. Define a class that implements **Runnable**.
2. Override its **run ()** method .
3. In main or any other method:
  1. Create an object of your class.
  2. Create an object of class **Thread** by passing your object to the constructor that requires a parameter of type **Runnable**.
  3. Call method **start ()** on the **Thread** object.

# Implementing Runnable Interface :





# Extending Thread VS. Implementing Runnable

- Implementing the Runnable interface:
  - May take *more* work
  - Here, you're not really specializing or modifying the thread's behavior. You're just giving the thread something to run.
  - You can run it *in a thread*, or pass it to some kind of *executor service*.
  - Your class can still *extend other class*.
  - An object from an implemented Runnable *can be shared* among many threads.

# Extending Thread VS. Implementing Runnable

- Extending the Thread class
  - *Easier* to implement
  - Your class *can no longer extend* any other class
  - Each object from an extended Thread is *separated* from others threads

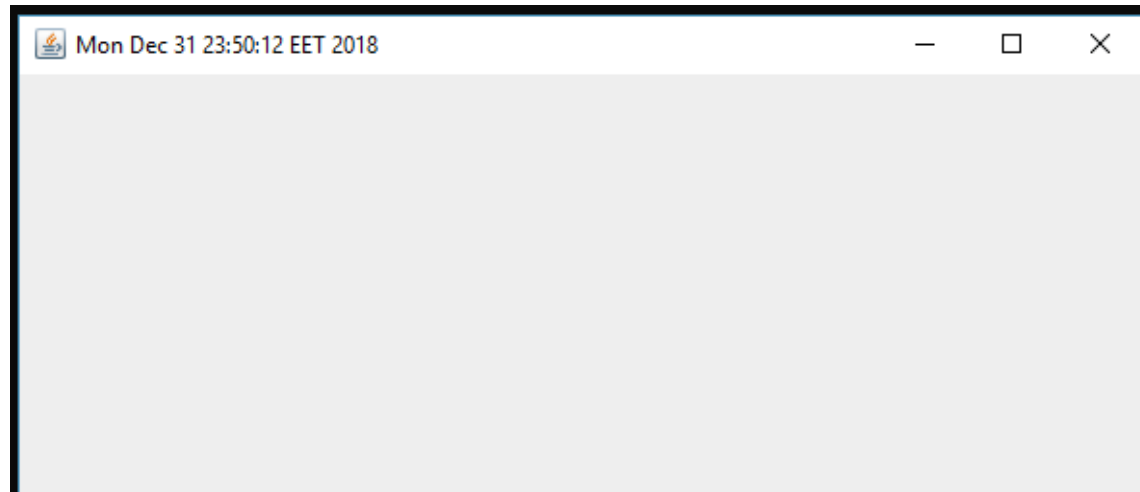
# Example: DateTimeApplication

```
public class DateTimeApp extends JFrame implements Runnable{
    Thread th;          Date d = new Date();
    public DateTimeApp(){
        this.setTitle(d.toString());
        th = new Thread(this);
        th.start();
    }
    public static void main(String[] args){
        DateTimeApp app = new DateTimeApp();
        app.setBounds(50,50,600,400);    app.setVisible(true);
    }
    public void run(){
        while(true){
            d= new Date();          this.setTitle(d.toString());
            Thread.sleep(1000); // you'll need to catch an exception
                                // here
        }
    }
}
```

# Example: DateTimeApplication

```
public class DateTimeApp extends JFrame{
    Thread th;          Date d = new Date();
    public DateTimeApp(){
        this.setTitle(d.toString());
        th = new Thread(new DateTimeThread());
        th.start();
    }
    public static void main(String[] args){
        DateTimeApp app = new DateTimeApp();
        app.setBounds(50,50,600,400);    app.setVisible(true);
    }
    class DateTimeThread implements Runnable{ //Inner Class
        public void run(){
            while(true){
                d= new Date();          this.setTitle(d.toString());
                Thread.sleep(1000); // you'll need to catch an exception
                                   // here
            }
        }
    }
}
```

# Example: DateTimeApplication



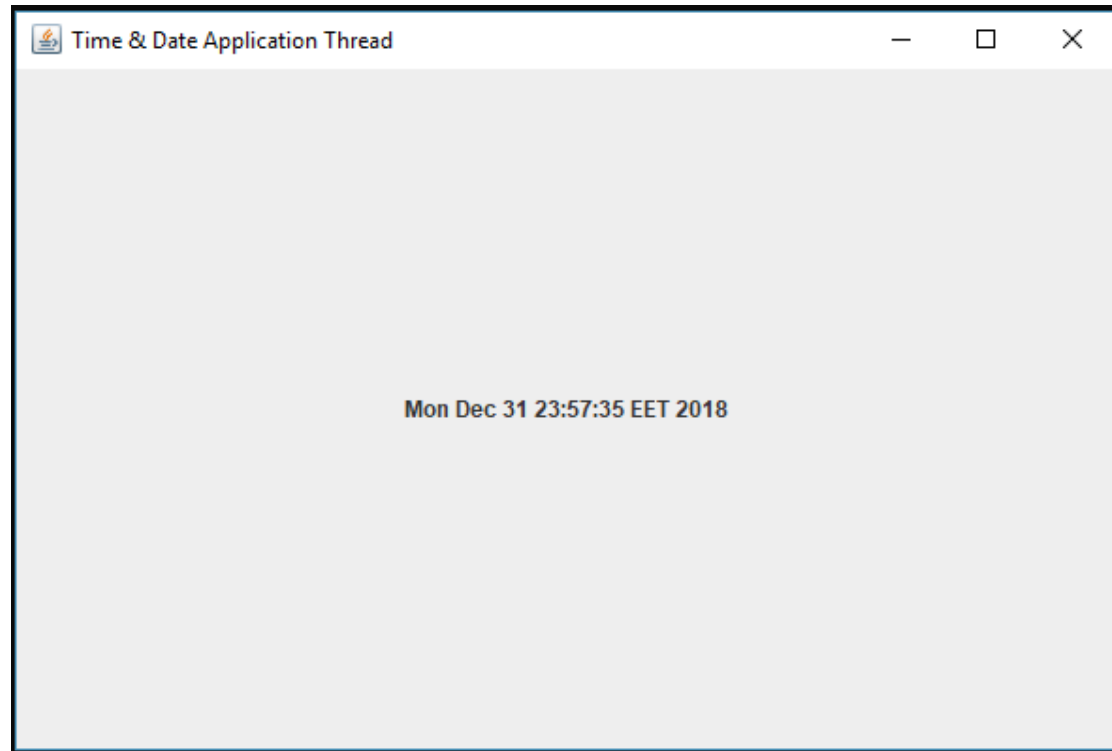
# Example: DateTimeApplication

```
public class DateTimeApp extends JFrame implements Runnable{
    Thread th; Date d = new Date();
    JLabel timeLabel = new JLabel();
    public DateTimeApp(){
        this.setTitle("Date & Time Frame Application");
        timeLabel.setHorizontalAlignment(JLabel.CENTER);
        timeLabel.setText(d.toString());
        this.add(timeLabel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        th = new Thread(this);
        th.start();
    }
    public static void main(String[] args){
        DateTimeApp app = new DateTimeApp();
        app.setBounds(50, 50, 600, 400);
        app.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

# Example: DateTimeApplication

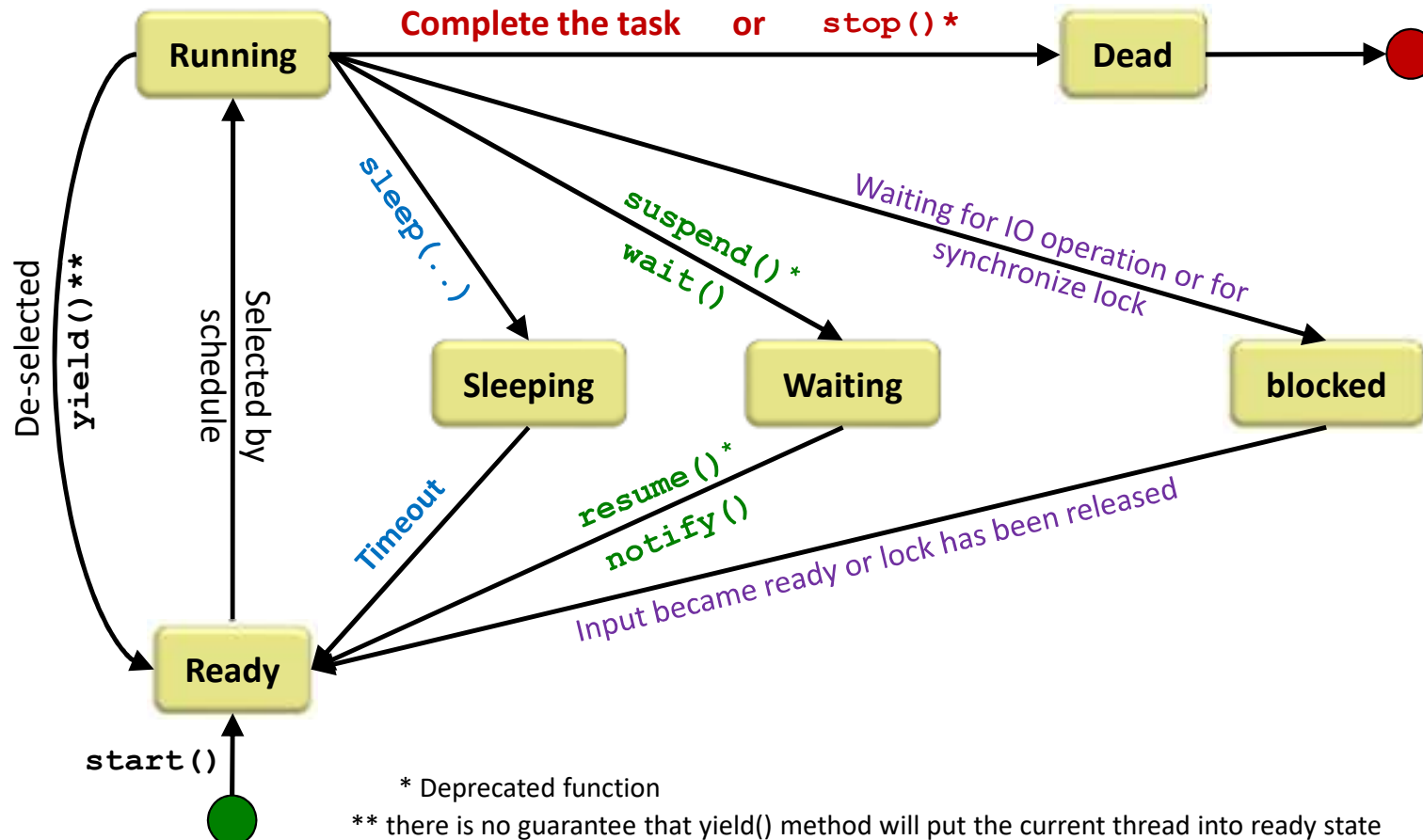
```
public void run() {  
    while(true) {  
        d= new Date();  
        timeLabel.setText(d.toString());  
        Thread.sleep(1000); // you'll need to catch an exception  
                           // here  
    }  
} // End of run  
} // End of class
```

# Example: DateTimeApplication

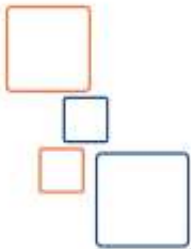




# Thread Life Cycle



# Assignments



1/22/2023

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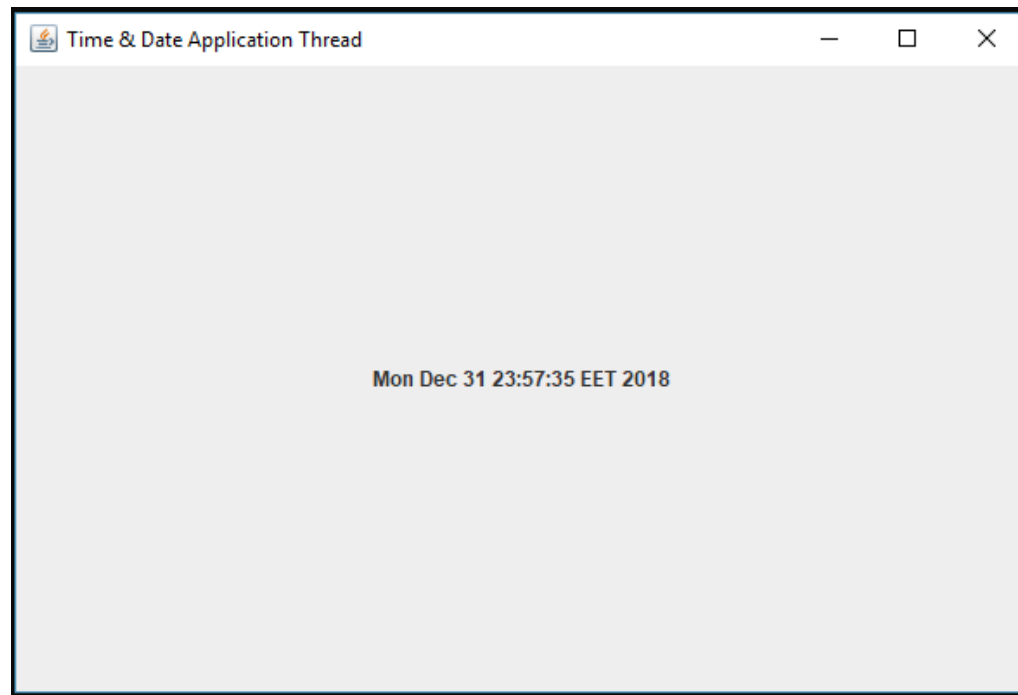


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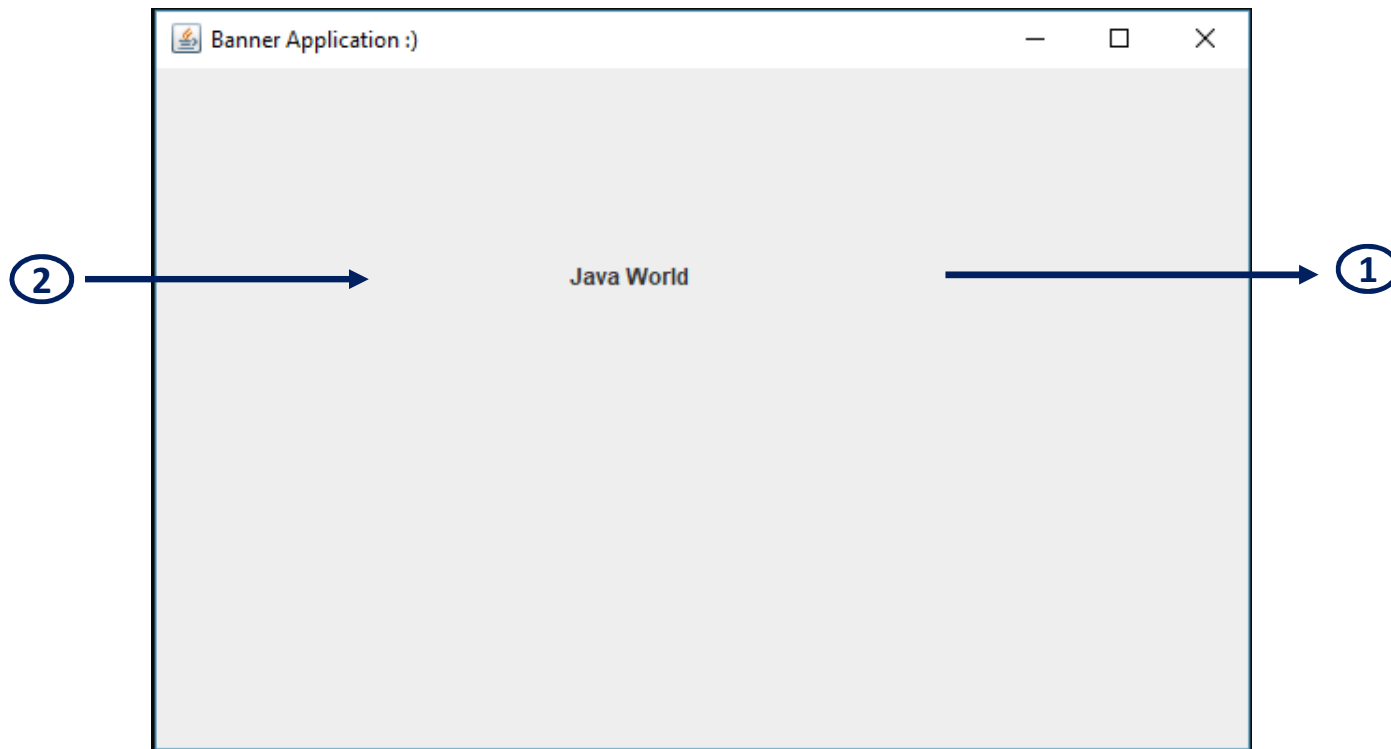
# 1. Date and Time Application

- Create a GUI application that displays date and time on it.



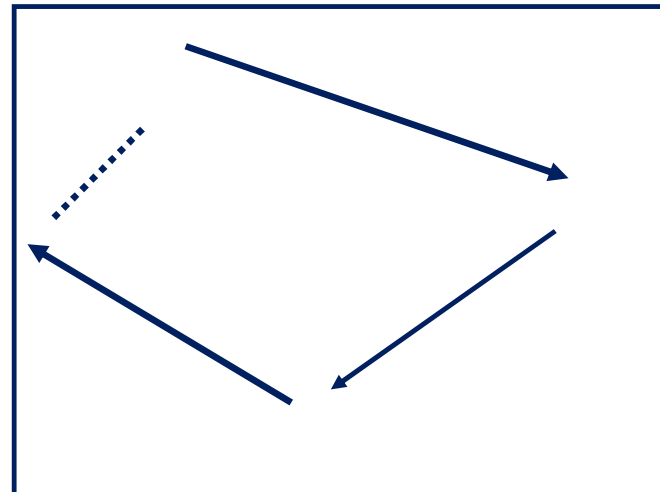
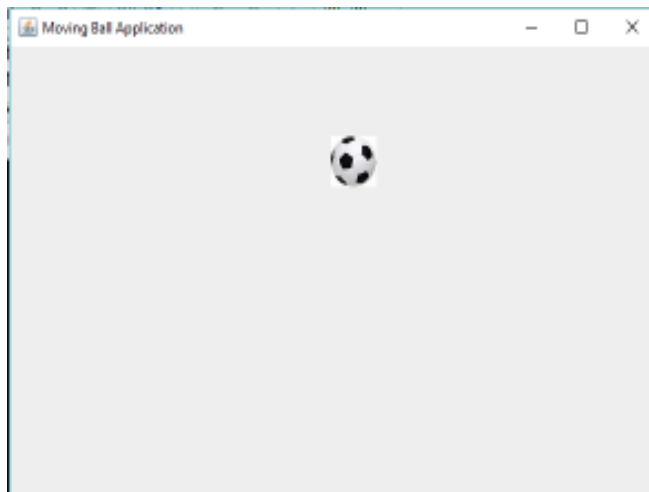
## 2. Text Banner Application

- Create a GUI application that displays marquee string on it.



### 3. Animation Ball Application

- Create a GUI application that displays a ball which moves randomly on this application frame.



# Appendix 1

## Input and Output Stream



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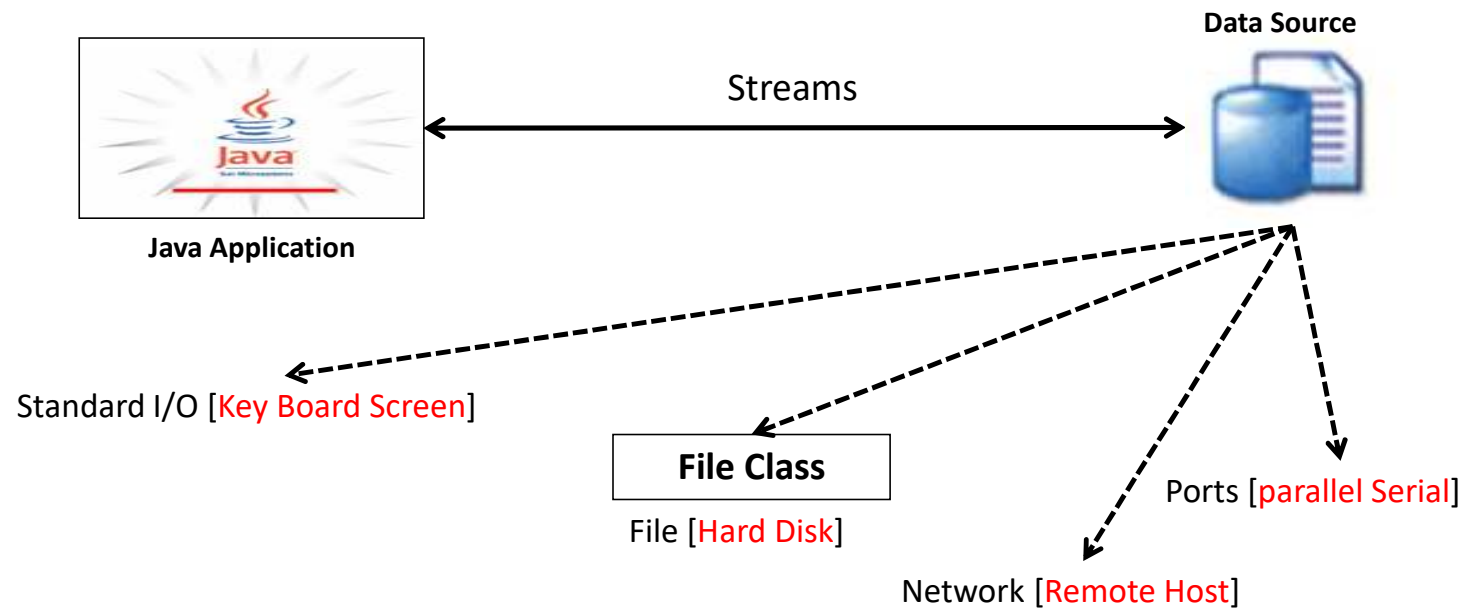


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# Appendix Outline

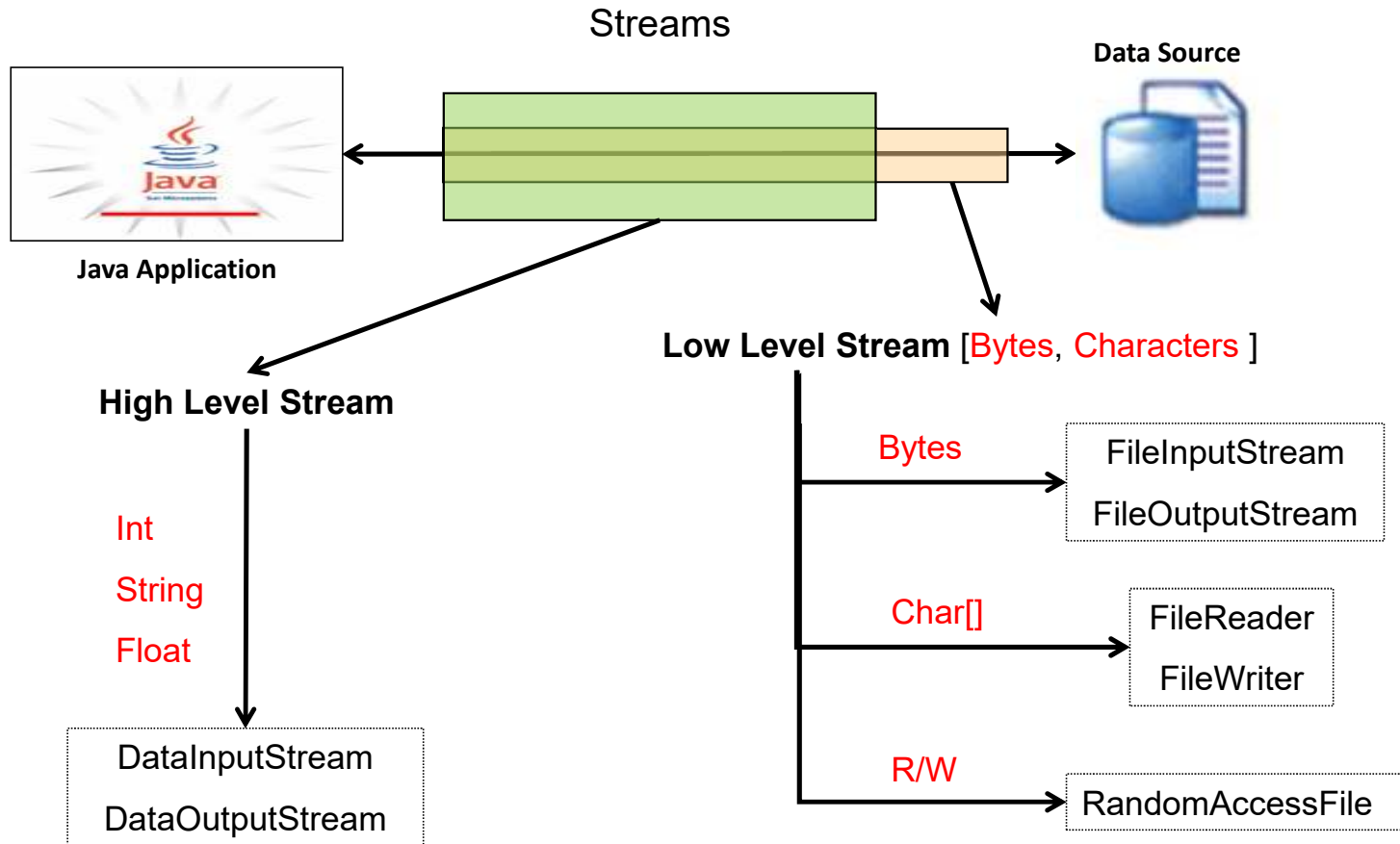
- ☐ Input and Output Streams
- ☐ Low Level Streams and High Level Streams
- ☐ Working with File Streams

# Streams





# Streams



# Streams

- A stream is a flow of data between a Data Source and a Data Sink (Destination).
- Streams are used for data input and output.
- An Input Stream is a stream that reads input into the application. Reading is a blocking operation (i.e. it blocks its thread).
- An Output Stream is a stream that carries out data from the application.
- Streams can be classified into two categories: Low Level Streams and High Level Streams.

# Low Level Streams

- A Low Level Stream is a stream that is attached directly to the source/destination.
- It can only deal with raw data in the form of bytes or characters.

# High Level Streams

- A High Level Stream is a stream that is attached to a lower level stream (i.e. layered over it).
- It can deal with higher data types such as int, float, String, or even whole objects.
- A High Level Stream saves some conversion effort for the programmer. (e.g. Reading complete Strings instead of reading character by character then transferring them into a String).

# File Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `File(String path)`
  - `File(String parent, String child)`
  - `File(File parent, String child)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `boolean exists()`
  - `boolean isFile()`
  - `boolean isDirectory()`
  - `String getName()`
  - `String getParent()`
  - `String getAbsolutePath()`

# File Class Cont'd

- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `String[] list()`
  - `boolean canRead()`
  - `boolean canWrite()`
  - `boolean delete()`
  - `long length()`
  - `boolean createNewFile()`
  - `boolean mkdir()`

# FileInputStream Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `FileInputStream(String file)`
  - `FileInputStream(File file)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `int read()`
  - `int read(byte[] b)`
  - `int read(byte[] b, int offset, int length)`
  - `int available()`
  - `long skip(long)`
  - `void close()`
- The **offset** parameter determines the start index in the destination array **b**.
- The **length** parameter specifies the maximum number of bytes to read.

# FileOutputStream Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `FileOutputStream(String file)`
  - `FileOutputStream(File file)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `void write(int b)`
  - `void write(byte[] b)`
  - `void write(byte[] b, int offset, int length)`
  - `void close()`
  - `void flush()`
- The **offset** parameter determines the start index at the source array **b**.
- The **length** parameter specifies the number of bytes to write.



# FileReader Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `FileReader(String file)`
  - `FileReader(File file)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `int read()`
  - `int read(char[] c)`
  - `int read(char[] c, int offset, int length)`

# FileWriter Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `FileWriter(String file)`
  - `FileWriter(File file)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `void write(c)`
  - `void write(char[] c)`
  - `void write(char[] c, int offset, int length)`
  - `void write(String str)`
  - `void write(String str, int offset, int length)`

# RandomAccessFile Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `RandomAccessFile(String file, String mode)`
  - `RandomAccessFile(File file, String mode)`
- The **mode** parameter can assume the values “r” or “rw”.
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `long getFilePointer()`
  - `void seek(long position)`
  - `long length()`
  - `int read()`
  - `int read(byte[] b)`
  - `int read(byte[], int offset, int length)`
  - `void write(int b)`
  - `void write(byte[] b)`
  - `void write(byte[] b, int offset, int length)`

# DataInputStream Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `DataStream (InputStream in)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `int readInt()`
  - `long readLong()`
  - `float readFloat()`
  - `double readDouble()`
  - `String readUTF()`

# DataOutputStream Class

- Commonly Used Constructor(s):
  - `DataOutputStream (OutputStream out)`
- Commonly Used Method(s):
  - `void writeInt(int i)`
  - `void writeLong(long l)`
  - `void writeFloat(float f)`
  - `void writeDouble(double d)`
  - `void writeUTF(String str)`

# Opening a Text File Example

- The following code sample is for printing a text file to the command prompt:

```
public static void main (String[] args)
{
    FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("sample.txt");
    int size = fis.available();
    byte[] b = new byte[size];
    fis.read(b);
    System.out.println(new String(b));
    fis.close();
}
```

# Saving a Text into File Example

- The following code sample is for printing data which are the arguments of the program, into a file:

```
public static void main (String[] args)
{
    FileWriter fileWriter = null;
    PrintWriter printWriter = null;
    try{
        //Opening a file in append mode using FileWriter
        fileWriter = new FileWriter("sample.txt", true);
        //Wrapping BufferedWriter object in PrintWriter
        printWriter = new PrintWriter(fileWriter);
        //Bringing cursor to next line
        printWriter.println();
        //Writing text to file
        for(String data : args){
            printWriter.println(data);
        }
    }
}
```

# Saving a Text into File Example

```
        catch (IOException e){
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    finally{ //Closing the resources
        try{
            printWriter.close();
            fileWriter.close();
        } catch (IOException e)
        {
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}
```