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Durgasoft SCJP Notes

Part-1

algorithms

Language Fundamentals

MAGIC ENTRIES NAMES & THEIR
PLOT NAMES & THEIR NATURE
ALGORITHMS & PROGRAMMING

- ① Identifiers
- ② Reserved Words
- ③ Data types
- ④ Literals
- ⑤ Arrays
- ⑥ Types of Variables
- *⑦ var-arg methods (1.5 version)
- ⑧ main() method
- ⑨ Command-line arguments
- ⑩ Java Coding Standards

1) Identifier :-

→ A name in Java program is called Identifier, it can be class name or variable name or method name or label name.

Ex:- `class Test` → class name
↓ method name
`p.s.v. main(String [] args)`
↓
`int x=10;` ✓ → is identifier.
↓ variable name
}

* Rules to define identifiers:-

1) The only allowed characters in Java identifier are:

✓ { a to z
 A to Z
 0 to 9
 -
 \$ }

→ If we are using any other character we will get Compilation Error.

Ex:-

✓ All-members

✗ all#

✓ -\$-\$

✗ 098\$-10

2) Identifier Can't Starts with digit. Ex:- ✗ 123total

✓ total123.

3). Java identifiers are Case Sensitive.

Class Test

{

int Number = 10;

int NUMBER = 20;

int NumBer = 30;

}

We can differentiate w.r.t Case.

4) There is no Length Limit for Java identifiers. but it's not recommended to take more than 15 lengths (> 15).

5) Reserved words Can't be used as identifiers.

6) All predefined Java class names & interface names we can use as identifiers. ~~but~~ Even though it is legal, but it is not recommended.

Eg:-

Class Test

{

int String = 10;

System.out(String); 10

}

Class Test

{

int Runnable = 20;

System.out(Runnable); 20

}

Q) Which ~~are~~^{the} following are valid Java identifiers?

✓ ① Java&share

X ② 4shared

X ③ all@hands

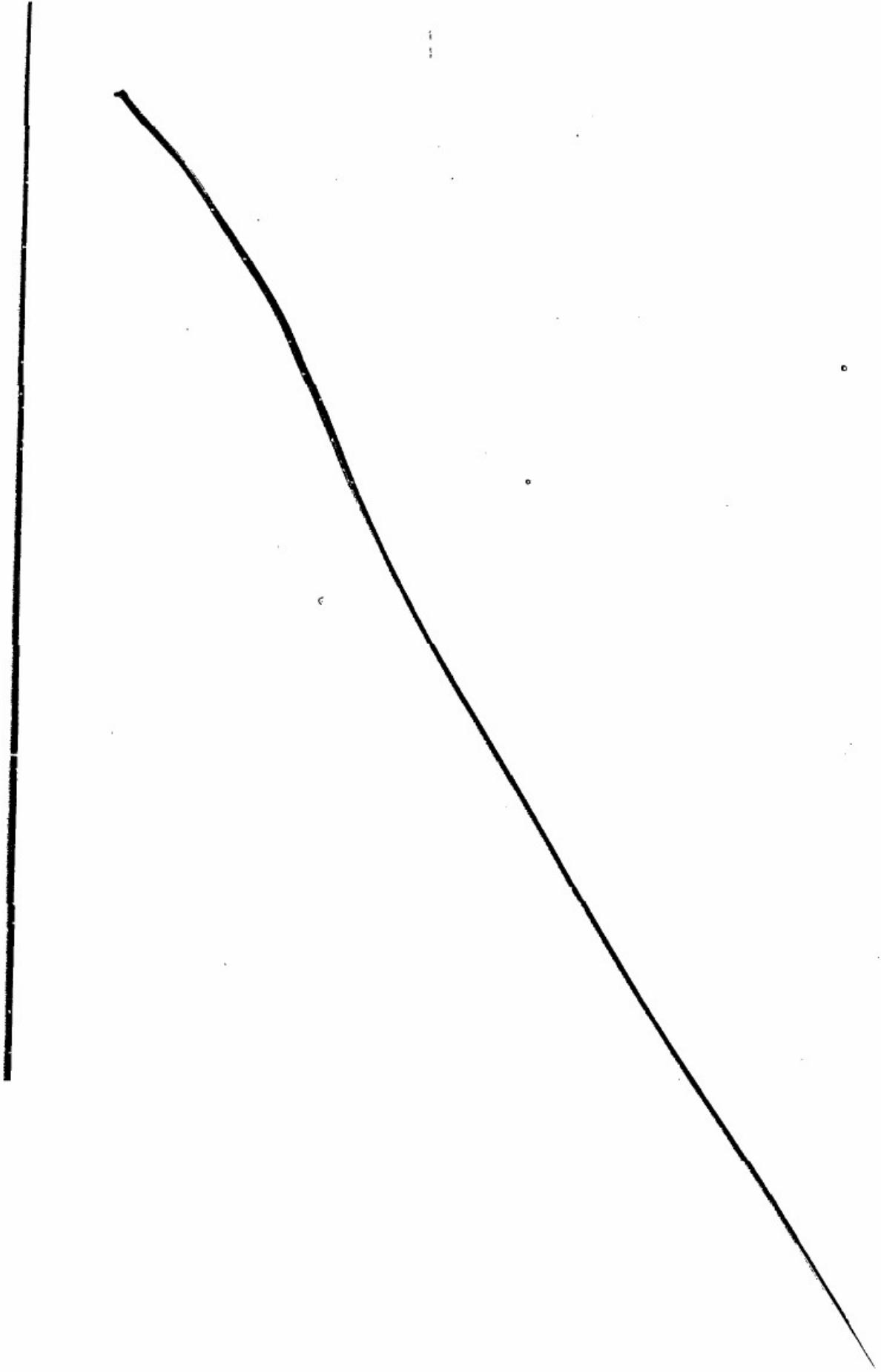
✓ ④ total-number-Students

✓ ⑤ -\$-

X ⑥ total#

X ⑦ int

✓ ⑧ Integer



Primitive data types (8)

Numeric datatypes

(To represent numbers)

char datatypes

(to represent characters)

Boolean data types

(to represent logical values)

Integral datatypes

(to represent whole no.)

- byte
- short
- int
- long

Floating-point datatypes

(to represent real numbers)

- float
- double

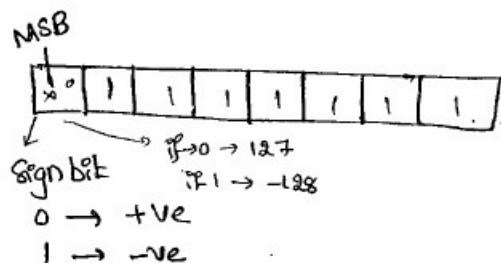
① Byte :-

Size = 8-bits (or 1 Byte)

Max-value = 127

Min-value = -128

Range = -128 to +127



→ The Most Significant Bit is called "Sign bit". 0 means +ve value, 1 means -ve value.

→ +ve numbers represented directly in the memory whereas -ve numbers

represented in 2's Complement form.

Ex:-

✓ byte b = 100;

✓ byte b = 127;

X byte b = 130; C.E!:- possible loss of precision

-found : int

Required : byte

X byte b = 123.456; C.E!:- PLP

found : double

Required : byte

X byte b = true ; C.E!:- PLP incompatible types

-found : boolean

Required : byte

X byte b = "durga"; C.E!:- incompatible types

found : ~~String~~.long.String

Required : byte.

→ byte datatype is best suitable if we want to handle data in terms of streams either from the file or from the Network.

② Short :-

Size : 2-bytes (16-bits)

Range : -2^{15} to $2^{15}-1$,

$[-32768 \text{ to } 32767]$

Ex!- ✓ Short s = 32767

✓ Short s = -32768

X Short s = 32768 C.E!:- PLP
-found : int
Required : short

X short s = 123.456 C.E:- PLP

found: double

Required: short

X short s = true C.E:- Incompatible types

found: boolean

Required: short

→ Most frequently used datatype in Java is short

→ Short datatype is best suitable if we are using 16-bit processors

like 8086 but these processors are Completely outdated & hence

Corresponding short datatype is also out dated.

(3) int :-

→ The most Commonly used datatype is int

Size : 4-bytes

Range : -2^{31} to $2^{31}-1$

$[-2147483648 \text{ to } 2147483647]$

Note:-

→ In C language the size of int is varied from platform to platform

for 16-bit processors it is 2-bytes but for 32-bit processors it is 4-bytes

* The main advantage of this approach is ~~read & write operation~~ we can perform

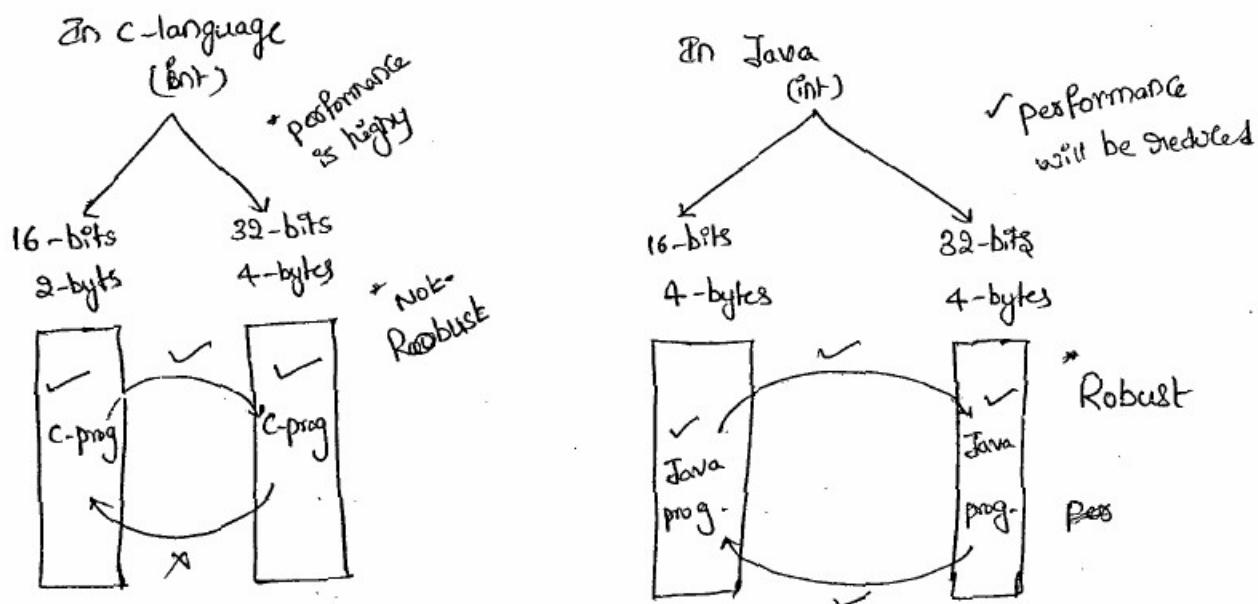
Very efficiently and performance will be improved. But the main

* disadvantage of this approach is the chance of ~~failing~~ failing c program

is very very high if we are changing platform. Hence C-language

is not Considered as Robust.

- But in Java the size of int is always 4-bytes irrespective of any platform. * The main advantage of this approach is the chance of failing Java program is very very less, if we are changing underlying platform, hence Java is considered as Robust language.
- * But the main disadvantage in this approach is read & write operations will become costly & performance will be reduced.



3/02/11

4) long :-

→ When ever int is not enough to hold big values then we should go for long data type.

Ex(1):- To represent the amount of distance travelled by light in 1000 days int is not enough Compulsory we should go for long type

$$\text{Ex(1), long } l = 1,23,000 \times 60 \times 60 \times 24 \times 1000 \text{ miles}$$

Q)

Ex(2) :-

To Count the no. of characters present in a big file. int may not enough Compulsory we should go for long data type.

Size = 8 bytes

Range = -2^{63} to $2^{63}-1$

Note :-

- All the above data-types (byte, short, int, long) meant for representing whole values.
- If we want to represent real numbers Compulsory we should go for floating point data-types.

Floating Point data-types :-

floating point data-types

float

double

1) Size : 4-bytes

2) Range : -3.4×10^{-38} to 3.4×10^{-38}

3) If we want 5 to 6 decimal places of accuracy then we should go for float

4) float follows single precision

1) Size : 8-bytes

2) Range : -1.7×10^{-308} to 1.7×10^{-308}

3) If we want 14 to 15 decimal places of accuracy then we should go for double.

4) double follows double precision

Boolean data type :-

Size : Not Applicable (Virtual machine dependent)

Range : Not Applicable [But allowed values are true/false]

Q) Which of the following boolean declarations are valid

X 1) boolean b = 0; C.E:- Incompatible types

→ found : int

Required : boolean

✓ 2) boolean b = true;

X 3) boolean b = True; C.E:- Can't find symbol

Symbol : Variable True

Location : class Test

X 4) boolean b = "false" C.E:- incompatible types

found : java.lang.String

Required : boolean

✓ 5) boolean True = true

boolean b = True

↳ o.println(b); true

Exp :-

int x=0;

if(x)

in Java X

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

}

else

{
System.out.println("Hi");

}

C++ ✓

C.E:- Incompatible types

→ found : int

Required : boolean

in Java X
while(1)

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

in C++ ✓

→ The only allowed values for the boolean datatypes are "true" or "false" where Case is important.

char datatype :-

→ In ~~old~~ languages like C & C++ we can use Only ASCII characters

and to represent all ASCII characters 8-bits are enough. hence char size is 1-byte.

→ But in Java we can use Unicode Characters which covers world wide all alphabets sets. The no. of unicode characters is " > 256 " & hence 1-byte is not enough to represent all characters Compulsory We should go for 2-bytes.

Size : 2-bytes

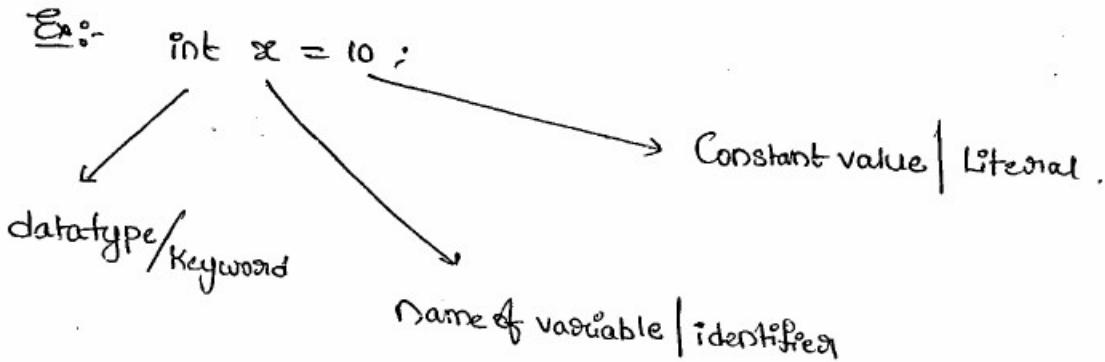
Range : 0 to 65535

Summary of primitive data types :-

datatype	size	Range	Corresponding wrapper classes	default value
byte	1-byte	-2^7 to $2^7 - 1$ [-128 to 127]	Byte	0
short	2-bytes	-2^{15} to $2^{15} - 1$ [-32768 to 32767]	Short	0
int	4-bytes	-2^{31} to $2^{31} - 1$ [-2147483648 to 2147483647]	Integer	0
long	8-bytes	-2^{63} to $2^{63} - 1$	Long	0
float	4-bytes	-3.4e38 to 3.4e38	Float	0.0
double	8-bytes	-1.7e308 to 1.7e308	Double	0.0
char	2-bytes	0 to 65535	Character	0 [represents blank space]
boolean	NA	NA [true/false are allowed]	Boolean	false (In C++)

Literals :-

→ A Constant value which can be assigned to the Variable is called "Literal"



Integral Literals :-

→ For the Integral datatypes (byte, short, int, long) the following are various ways to specify Literal value

1) decimal literals:-

allowed digits are 0 to 9

Ex:- `int x = 10;`

2) Octal literals:-

→ allowed digits are 0 to 7

→ Literal value should be prefixed with "0" [zero]

Ex:- `int x = 010;`

3) Hexadecimal literals:-

→ allowed digits are 0 to 9, a to f or A to F

→ For the Extra digits we can use both upper case & lower case.

This is one of very few places where Java is not case sensitive.

→ Literal value should be prefixed with `0x` or `0X`

8

Ex:- `int x = 0x10`

(?)

`int x = 0X10`

→ These are the only possible ways to specify integral literal.

Ex:- class Test

{

f-s-v-m (String [] args)

{

`int x = 10;`

$$(10)_8 = (?)_{10}$$

`int y = 010;`

$$0 \times 8 + 1 \times 8^1 = 8$$

`int z = 0X10;`

$$(10)_{16} = (?)_{10}$$

S-o-pIn(x+-----+y+-----+z);

10

8

16

$$0 \times 16 + 1 \times 16^1 = 16$$

}

Quesn!!

Q) Which of the following declarations are valid.

✓ ① `int x = 10;`

✓ ② `int x = 066;`

X ③ `int x = 0786;` C.E: Integer number too large

✓ ④ `int x = 0xFACE;` 64206

X ⑤ `int x = 0XBEEF;` C.E: (after B) ; Excepted

✓ ⑥ `int x = 0xB6a;` 3050

→ By default Every integral literal is of int type but we can specify explicitly as long type by suffixing with l or L.

Ex:-

✓ 1) int i = 10;

X 2) int i = 10L; C.E! PLP

✓ 3) long l = 10L; found: long
Required: int

✓ 4) long l = 10;

→ There is no way to specify integral literal is of byte & short types explicitly.

→ If we are assigning integral literal to the byte variable & that integral literal is within the range of byte then it treats as byte literal automatically. Similarly short literal also.

Ex:- byte b = 10; ✓

byte b = 130; X C.E! PLP
found: int
Required: byte

Floating point Literals :-

→ Every floating point literal is by default double type & hence we can't assign directly to float variable.

→ But we can specify explicitly floating point literal is the float type by suffixing with 'f' or 'F'.

Ex:- X float f = 123.456; P.L.P
found: double
Required: float

✓ float f = 123.456f;
✓ double d = 123.456;

→ We Can Specify floating point literal Explicitly as double type of by Suffixing with d or D.

Ex:- ✓ double d = 123.4567D;

X float f = 123.4567d; C.E:- PLP

→ Found : double
Required : float

→ We Can Specify floating point literal only in decimal form & we Can't Specify in octal & Hexa decimal form.

Ex:-

✓ 1) double d = 123.456;

✓ 2) double d = 0123.456; o/p:- 123.456

X 3) double d = 0x123.456; C.E:- malformed floating point literal

Q) Which of the following floating point declarations are Valid?

X 1) float f = 123.456;

✓ 2) double d = 0123.456;

X 3) double d = 0x123.456;

✓ 4) double d = 0xfacE; // 64206.0

✓ 5) float f = 0xBea;

✓ 6) float f = 0.642; // 418.0

Because these 3 are not floating point
So, that values are taking int type.

→ We Can assign integral literal directly to the floating point datatype & that integral Literal Can be Specified either in decimal form or Octal form or hexa decimal form.

double
→ But we can't assign floating point literals directly to the integral types.

Ex:- X int i = 123.456; PLP
→ found: double
Required: int

✓ double d = 1.2e3;
S.o.println(d); 1200.0

→ we can specify floating point Literal even in Scientific form
also [exponential form]

Ex:- ✓ 1) double d = 1.2e3;
S.o.println(d); 1200.0

X 2) float f = 1.2e3; C.E.: PLP

✓ 3) float f = 1.2e3f; C.E.: PLP
o/p:- 1200.0

Boolean Literals:

→ The only possible values for the Boolean data types are true/false

Q) Which of the following Boolean declarations are valid?

X ① boolean b = 0; C.E!: Incompatible types
→ found: int

X ② boolean b = True; C.E!: Can't find symbol
→ Required: boolean

✓ ③ boolean b = true; Symbol : variable True

X ④ boolean b = "true"; C.E!: Incompatible types
→ found: java.lang.String Required: boolean

Ex:- `int x=0;`

```
- If(x)
  {
    S.o.println("Hello");
  }
else
{
  S.o.println("Hi");
}
```

`while(1)`

```
{
  S.o.println("Hello");
}
```

C.E:- Incompatible types

found : int

Required : boolean

Ex@:-

`int x=10;` X

```
if(x == 20)
{
  S.o.println("Hello");
}
else
{
  S.o.println("Hi");
}
```

C.E:- IT
 $f : \text{int}$
 $R : \text{boolean}$

`int x=10;` ✓

```
if(x == 20)
{
  S.o.println("Hello");
}
else
{
  S.o.println("Hi");
}
```

O/P:- Hi

`boolean b=true;`

```
if(b==false)
{
  S.o.println("Hello");
}
else
{
  S.o.println("Hi");
}
```

O/P:- Hi

`boolean b=true;`

```
if(b==true)
{
  S.o.println("Hello");
}
else
{
  S.o.println("Hi");
}
```

O/P:- Hello

Char Literals :-

→ A char literal can be represented as single character with in single quotes.

Ex:- ✓ char ch = 'a';

✗ char ch = a; C.E:- Can't find symbol

Symbol: Variable a

✗ char ch = 'ab'; location : class xxxx

→ C.E:- unclosed character literal

C.E:- unclosed "

C.E:- not a statement

25/08/11:

→ A char literal can be represented as integral literal which represents unicode of that character.

→ we can specify integral literal either in decimal form or octal form or hexa decimal form. But allowed range 0 to 65535.

Ex:- ✓ char ch = 97;

S.o.p(ch); a

✓ 2) char ch = 65535;

S.o.println(ch);

✗ 3) char ch = 65536; C.E:- plp

-found: int

Required: char

✓ 4) char ch = OXFACE;

✓ 5) char ch = 0642;

3) A char literal can be represented in Unicode representation which is nothing but $\boxed{\backslash Uxxxx}$ 4-digit hexa decimal no.

Ex:- 1) char ch = '\u0061';

S.o.p(ch); a

X 2) char ch = '\uabcd'; → semicolon missing

✓ 3) char ch = '\uface';

X 4) char ch = '\i beaf';

4) Every escape character is a char literal

Ex:- 1) char ch = '\n';

✓ 2) char ch = '\t';

X 3) char ch = '\l';

escape character	meaning
\n	New Line
\t	horizontal tab
\r	Carriage Return
\b	Back Space
\f	form feed
'	Single quote
"	Double quote
\	Back slash

Q) Which of the following are valid char declarations.

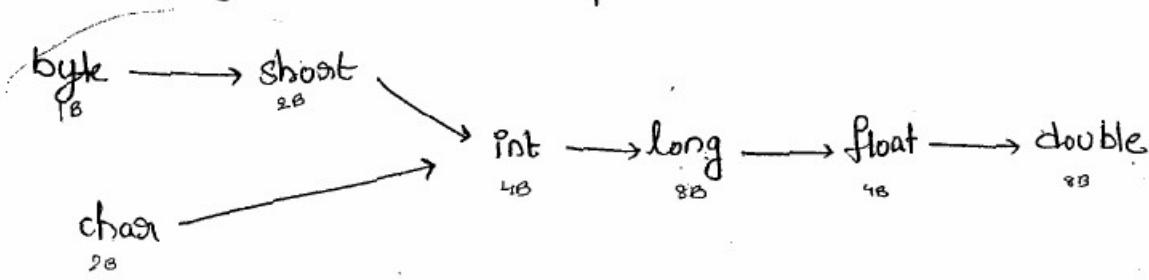
- ✓ 1) char ch = 0xbeaf;
- ✗ 2) char ch = \Ubeaf; because ' '
- ✗ 3) char ch = -10;
- ✗ 4) char ch = '\x';
- ✓ 5) char ch = 'a';

String Literals :-

→ Any Sequence of characters with in " " (double quotes) is called String Literal.

Ex:- String s = "java";

→ The following promotions will be performed automatically by the Compiler



Arrays

(20)

- 1. Array declaration
- 2. Array Creation.
- 3. Array Initialization.
- 4. Declaration, Creation, Initialization in a Single Line.
- 5. length vs Length()
- 6. Anonymous Array
- 7. Array element assignments
- 8. Array Variable assignments.

Array:-

- An Array is an Indexed Collection of fixed no. of homogeneous data elements.
- The main advantage of array is we can represent multiple values under the same name. So, that Readability of ^{the} code is improved.
- But the main limitation of array is Once we created an array there is no chance of increasing/decreasing size based on our requirement. Hence memory point of view arrays concept is not recommended to use.
- We can resolve this problem by using Collections.

i) Array declarations:-

(a) Single dimensional Array declaration :-

- ✓ 1) int [] a;
- ✓ 2) int a[];
- ✓ 3) int [] a;

→ 1st one is recommended because Type is clearly separated from the Name.

→ At the time of declaration we can't specify the size.

Ex:- 1) int [6] a;

(b) 2D Array declaration :-

- ✓ 1) int [][] a;
- ✓ 2) int [][] a;
- ✓ 3) int a[][];
- ✓ 4) int [] a[];
- ✓ 5) int [] [] a;
- ✓ 6) int [] [] a[];

c) 3D - Array declarations:-

- 1) `int[][][] a;`
- 2) `int a[][][];`
- 3) `int [][] [] a;`
- 4) `int[] [] [] a;`
- 5) `int[] a[][];`
- 6) `int[] [] a[];`
- 7) `int[][] [] a;`
- 8) `int [] [] a[];`
- 9) `int [] [] [] a;`
- 10) `int [] [] a[] [];`

Q) Which of the following are valid declarations.

1) `int[] a,b;` $\begin{matrix} a \rightarrow 1 \\ b \rightarrow 1 \end{matrix}$

2) `int[] a[],b;` $\begin{matrix} a \rightarrow 2 \\ b \rightarrow 1 \end{matrix}$

3) `int[] [] a, b;` $\begin{matrix} a \rightarrow 2 \\ b \rightarrow 2 \end{matrix}$

4) `int[] [] a, b[];` $\begin{matrix} a \rightarrow 2 \\ b \rightarrow 3 \end{matrix}$

X 5) `int[] [] a, [] b;` $\begin{matrix} a \rightarrow 2 \\ b \rightarrow 3 \end{matrix}$ C.E :-

→ If we want to specify the dimension before the variable
it is possible only for the first variable.

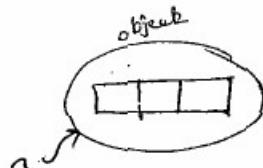
Ex:- `int[] [] a, [] b;`

$\begin{matrix} \text{Allowed} & \text{not allowed} \\ \swarrow & \searrow \end{matrix}$

Q) Array Construction:-

→ Every array in Java is an object, hence we can create by using new operator.

Ex:- `int[] a = new int[3];`



→ For every array type Corresponding Classes are available. These classes are not applicable for programmer level.

Array type	Corresponding classname
① <code>int[]</code>	<code>[I @---</code>
② <code>int[][]</code>	<code>[[I @---</code>
③ <code>double[]</code>	<code>[D @---</code>
⋮	⋮

→ At the time of Construction Compulsory we should specify the size otherwise we will get C.E..

Ex:- `int[] a = new int[];` X C.E!

`int[] a = new int[3];` ✓

→ It is legal to have an array with size 0 in Java.

Ex:- `int[] a = new int[0];` ✓

→ If we are specifying array size as -ve int value, we will get

Runtime Exception saying → NegativeArraySizeException.

Ex:- ~~`int[] a = new int[-6];`~~ R.E! → NegativeArraySizeException.

→ To Specify array Size The allowed datatypes are byte, short, int, char, If we are using any other type we will get C-E.

Ex: ① ✓ `int[] a = new int['a'];` $a=97$
 $A=65$

② byte b = 10;

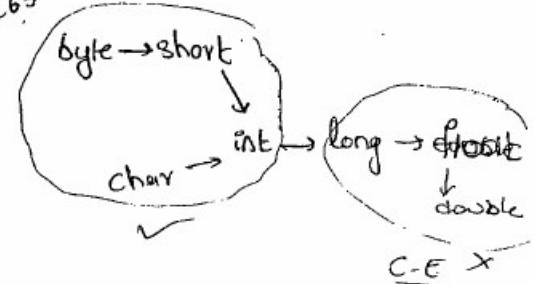
✓ `int[] a = new int[b];`

③ short s = 20;

✓ `int[] a = new int(s);`

✗ `int[] a = new int[10L];`

✗ `int[] a = new int[10.5];`



Note:-

→ The max. allowed arraysize in java is 2147483647 (max. value of int datatype).

Creation of 2D-Arrays:-

→ In java multi dimensional arrays are not implemented in matrix form. They implemented by using Array of Array Concept.

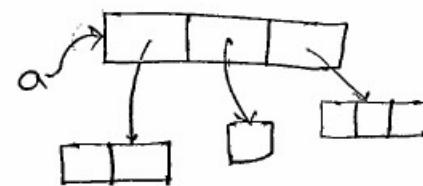
→ The main advantage of This approach is memory utilization will be improved.

Ex:- `int[][] a = new int[3][];`

`a[0] = new int[2];`

`a[1] = new int[1];`

`a[2] = new int[3];`



Note:-

In C++, as

Ex 2:

`int a[2][3]; a = new int[2][3][];`

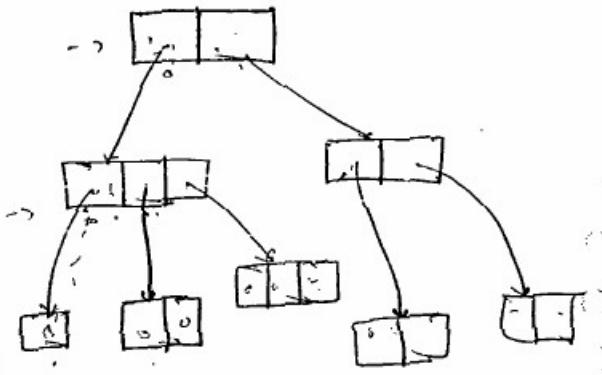
`a[0] = new int[3][];`

`a[0][0] = new int[1];`

`a[0][1] = new int[2];`

`a[0][2] = new int[3];`

`a[1] = new int[2][2];`



Q:- which of the following Array declarations are valid?

X ① `int[] a = new int[];`

✓ ② `int[][] a = new int[3][2];`

✓ ③ `int[][] a = new int[3][];`

X ④ `int[] a = new int[2];`

✓ ⑤ `int[][][] a = new int[3][4][5];`

✓ ⑥ `int[][][] a = new int[3][4][];`

X ⑦ `int[][][] a = new int[3][4][5];`

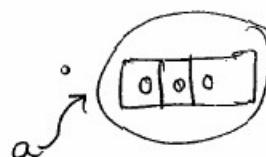
Array Initialization :-

→ Whenever we are creating an array automatically every element is initialized with default values.

Eg:- `int[] a = new int[3];`

`S.o.println(a); [I@3e25a5` hashcode

`S.o.println(a[0]); 0`

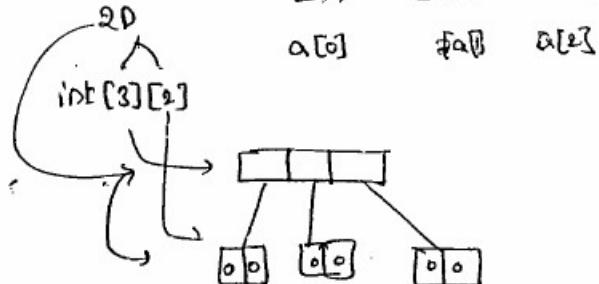
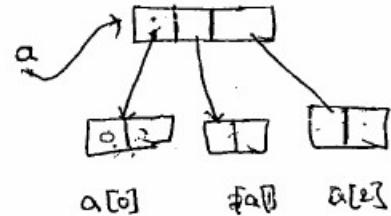


Note:- Whenever we are trying to print any object reference internally `toString()` will be called which is implemented as follows.

classname @ hexadecimal_string_of_hashCode.

Ex (2) :-

```
int[][] a = new int[3][2];
System.out.println(a); [[I@-----
System.out.println(a[0]); [I@ 4567
System.out.println(a[0][0]); 0.
```



Ex (3) :-

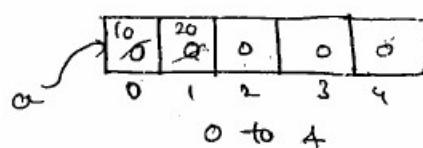
```
int[][] a = new int[3][];
System.out.println(a); [[I@-----
System.out.println(a[0]); null
System.out.println(a[0][0]); R.E! NPE
```



→ Once we created an array Every element by default initialized with default values. If we are not satisfy with those default values Then we can override those with our customized values.

Ex :-

```
int[] a = new int[5];
a[0] = 10;
a[1] = 20;
a[3] = 40;
a[50] = 50; → R.E: AIOBE
a[-50] = 60; → R.E: AIOBE
a[10.5] = 30;
```



Note:-

→ C-E:- PLC, found = double, required = int.

→ If we are trying to access an array with out of Range Index we will get RuntimeException Saying "AIOBE".

Array declaration, Construction & Initialization in a Single Line:-

→ We Can declare, Construct & Initialize an array into a SingleLine.

Ex(1):-

```

int[] a;
a = new int[4];
a[0] = 10;
a[1] = 20;
a[2] = 30;
a[3] = 40;
}      ⇒ int[] a = {10, 20, 30, 40};
```

char

Ex(2):- char[] ch = {'a', 'e', 'i', 'o', 'u'};

String[] s = {"Sneha", "Ravi", "Laxmi", "Sundar"};

→ we Can Extend this Shortcut Even for multidimensional arrays also.

Ex(3):-

```

int[][] a = {{30, 40, 50}, {60, 70}};
```

→ we Can Extend this Shortcut Even for 3D array also

Ex:-

```

int[][][] a = {{{10, 20, 30}, {40, 50}, {60}}, {{70, 80}, {90, 100}, {110}}};
```

Ex: `int[][][] a = {{ {10, 20, 30}, {40, 50}, {60} }, {{70, 80}, {90, 100}, {110}}};`

`System.out.println(a[1][2][3]);`; RE:- ADOBE

`System.out.println(a[0][1][0]);`; 40

`System.out.println(a[1][1][0]);`; 90

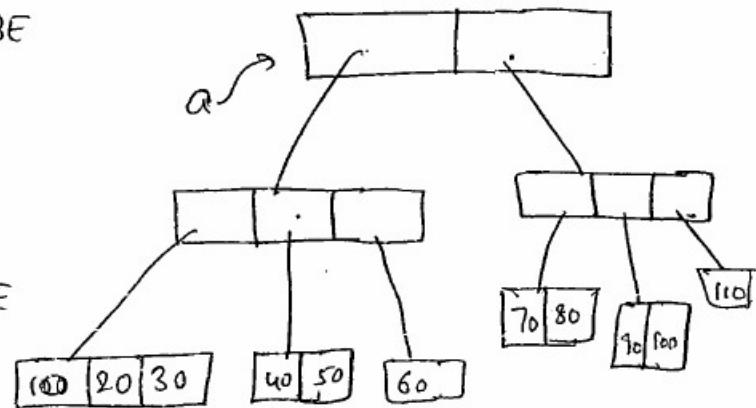
`System.out.println(a[3][1][2]);`; RE:- ADOBE

`System.out.println(a[2][2][2]);`; RE:- ADOBE

`System.out.println(a[1][1][1]);`; 100

`System.out.println(a[0][0][1]);`; 20

`System.out.println(a[1][0][2]);`; RE:- ADOBE



→ If we want to use Shortcut Compulsory we should perform declaration, Construction & initialization in a Single Line.

→ If we are using multiple lines we will get Compile-time Error.

Ex:-

`int x=10;` ; .

✓ `int x;`

✓ `x=10`

`int[] x = { 10, 20, 30 };` :-

✓ `int[] x;`

`x = { 10, 20, 30 };`

C.E!:- Illegal Start of Expression.

length() vs length :-

length :-

- It is a final variable applicable only for arrays.
- It represents the size of array

e.g:- int[] a = new int[10];

S.o.println(a.length); 10

S.o.println(a.length()); C.E

Cannot find Symbol
Symbol : method length()
location : class int[]

length() :-

- It is a final method applicable only for String objects
- It represents the no. of characters present in String.

e.g:-

String s = "dogga";

S.o.println(s.length()); 5

S.o.println(s.length());

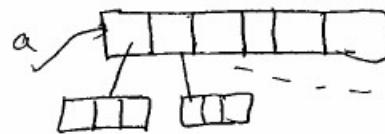
↳ C.E. Cannot find Symbol
Symbol : variable length
location : java.lang.String.

- In multidimensional arrays length variable represents only base size, but not total size.

Eg:- `int[][] a = new int[6][3];`

`S.o.println(a.length); 6`

`S.o.println(a[0].length); 3`



Note:-

- lengths variable is applicable only for arrays whereas length() is applicable for String objects.

Anonymous Array :-

→ Sometimes we can create an array without name also.

Such type of nameless arrays are called "Anonymous arrays".

→ The main objective of anonymous array is Just for instant use.
(not future) (only online)

→ We can create Anonymous array as follows.

`New int[]{10, 20, 30, 40}` ✓

→ At the time of Anonymous Array Creation we can't specify the size, otherwise we will get Compilation Error.

Eg:- ~~`New int[4]{10, 20, 30, 40}`~~

Eg:- Class Test

{

P.S. v.main(String[] args)

{

```

    Sum(new int[]{10, 20, 30, 40}),
}

public static void sum(int[] x)
{
    int total = 0;
    for (int i : x)
    {
        total = total + i;
    }
    System.out.println("The Sum : " + total); 100
}

```

→ Based on our requirement we can give the name for Anonymous array, Then it is no longer Anonymous,

Eg:-

```

String[] s = new String[]{"A", "B"};
    ↗ System.out(s[0]); A
    ↗ System.out(s[1]); B
    ↗ System.out(s.length); 2.

```

Array element assignments :-

Case(1) :-

→ for the primitive type arrays as array elements we can provide any type which can be promoted to declare type.

Q. Eg:- for the int type arrays, the allowed Element types are byte, short, char, int. If we are providing any other type we will get Compiletime Error.

Eg(1) :- $\text{int}[] a = \text{new int}[10];$

✓ $a[0] = 10;$

✓ $a[1] = 'a';$

byte b = 10;

✓ $a[2] = b;$

short s = 20;

✓ $a[3] = s;$

✗ $a[4] = 10.5; \text{ C.E! - PLP}$

found: float

Required: int

✗ $a[5] = 10.5; \text{ C.E! - PLP, found double}$

Required: int

Eg(2) :- for the float type array, the allowed Element types are byte, short, char, int, long, float.

byte → short

int → long → float → double

char

Case(2):-

→ In The Case of Object-type arrays as array elements we can provide either declared type or its child class Objects.

Eg:-

① Number[] n = new Number[10];

✓ n[0] = new Integer(10);

✓ n[1] = new Double(10.5);

✗ n[2] = new String("doung"); → c.e.: Incompatible types

→ found: String

Required: Number

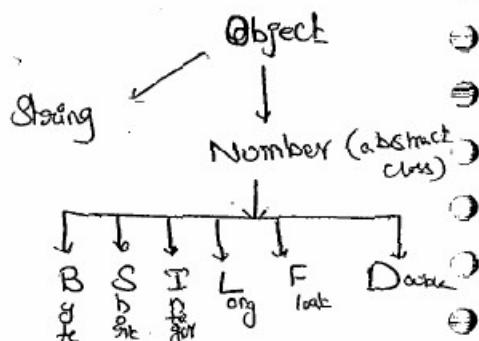
② Object[] a = new Object[10];

✓ a[0] = new Object();

✓ a[1] = new Integer(10);

✓ a[2] = new Double(10.5);

✓ a[3] = new String("deaga");



Case(3):-

→ In the Case of abstract^{class} type arrays as array elements we can provide its child class Objects.

Eg:- ① Number[] n = new Number[10];

✓ n[0] = new Integer(10);

✗ n[1] = new Number();

Case 4:-

→ In the Case of Interface type array, as array element we

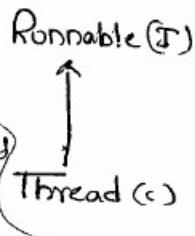
Can provide its implementation class Objects

Eg:- Runnable[] arr = new Runnable[10];

arr[0] = new Thread();

X arr[1] = new String("dooga"); C.E! - Incompatible type

→ found: String
Required: Runnable



Note:-

Array-type	allowed element-type
1. primitive-type arrays	- Any type which can be implicitly promoted - to declared type.
2. Object-type arrays	Either declared type Objects or its child class Objects
3. abstract class type arrays	Its child class objects are allowed.
4. Interface type arrays	Its implementation class Objects are allowed

Array Variable Assignment :-

Case(1):

→ Element level promotions are not applicable at array level

Eg:- A char value can be promoted to int type. But
char array (char[]) can't be Promoted to int[] type.

① int[] a = {10, 20, 30, 40};

char[] ch = {'a', 'b', 'c'};

✓ int[] b = a;

✗ int[] c = ch; C.E:- Incompatible type
found : char[]
Required : int[]

Q) Which of the following promotions are valid.

✓ ① char → int

✗ ② char[] → int[]

✓ ③ int → long

✗ ④ int[] → long[]

✗ ⑤ long → int

✗ ⑥ long[] → double[]

✓ ⑦ String → Object^(Parent)
(child)

✓ ⑧ String[] → Object[]

Eg:- Child-type array, we can assign to the parent-type variable.

→ child-type array we can assign to the parent-type variable.

g)

Eg:- String [] s = {"A", "B", "C"};

✓ Object() a = s;

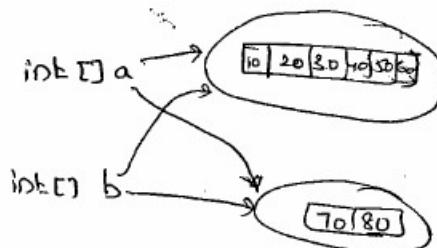
Ques(2):-

→ When even we are assigning one array to another array only reference variables will be reassigned but not underlying elements.
Hence types must be matched but not sizes.

Eg:- (Ans) ① int [] a = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60};
int [] b = {70, 80};

✓ ① a = b;

✓ ② b = a;



Eg(2):

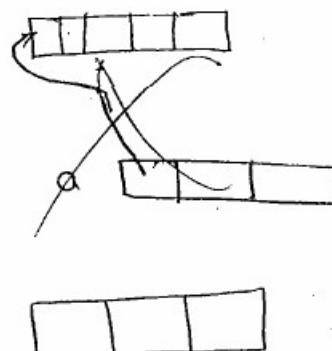
int [][] a = new int [3][2];

a[0] = new int [5];

a[1] = new int [4];

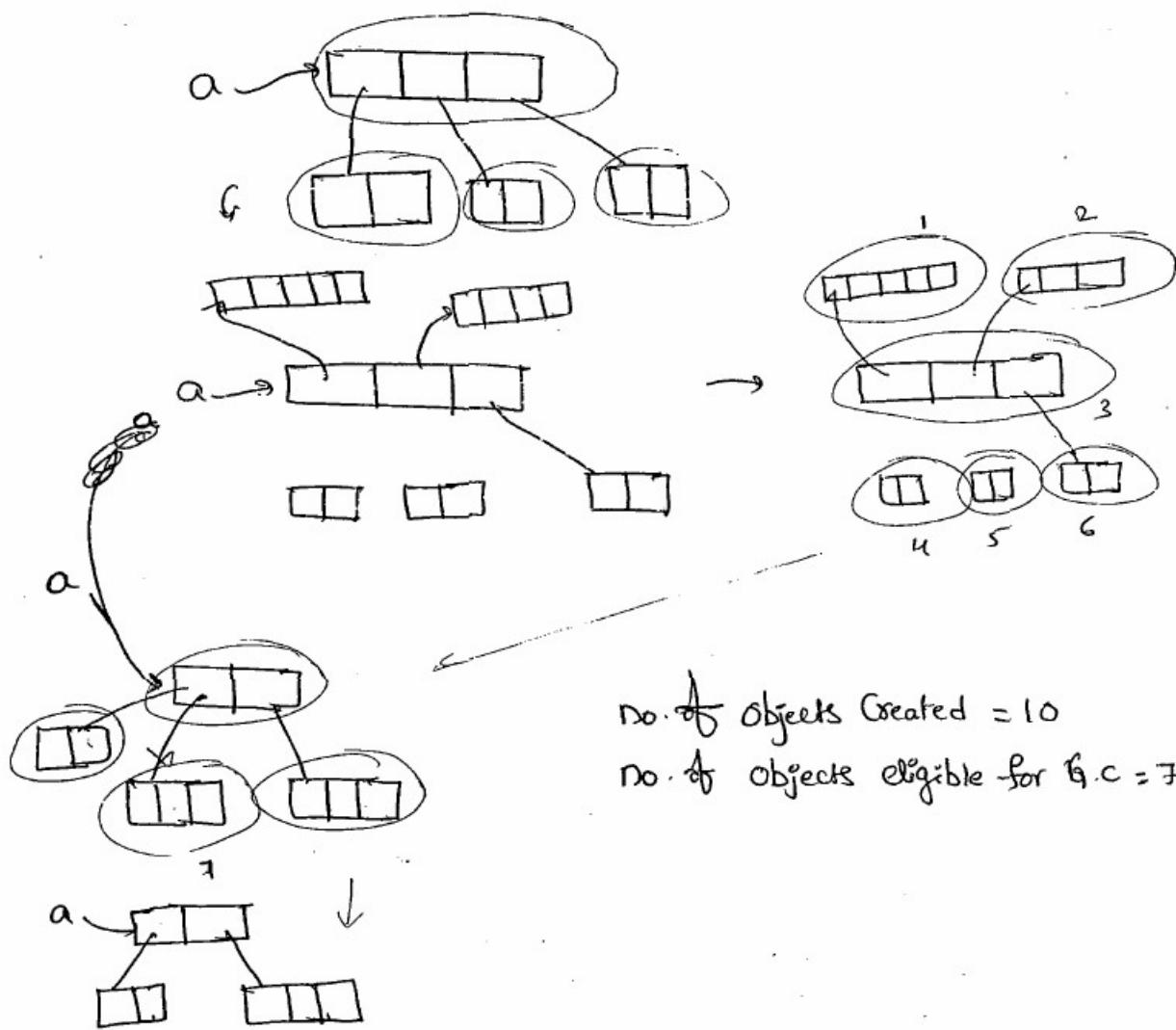
a = new int [2][3];

a[0] = new int [2];



No. of objects created = 10

No. of objects eligible for G.C = 7.



Case 3:-

→ When ever we are performing array assignments dimensions must be matched, i.e., in the place of Single dimensional int[] array, Only we should provide only Single dimensional int[]. By mistake we are providing any other dimension we will get Compiletime Error.

Eg:- `int[][] a = new int[3][];;`

`a[0] = new int[3];`

`a[0] = new int[3][2];`

`a[0] = 0;`

C.E : Incompatible types
→ found : int() ()
requires : int[3]

`a[0] = 10; C.E!:` Incompatible types
 found: int
 required: int[]

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Types of Variables

→ Based on the type of value represented by a variable, all variables are divided into 2 types.

(i) primitive variables

(ii) reference variables

(i) Primitive Variables

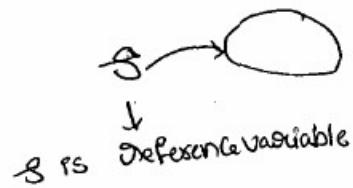
→ Can be used to represent primitive values

Ex:- `int x = 10;`

(ii) Reference Variables

→ Can be used to refer Objects

Ex:- `Student s = new Student();`



→ Based on the purpose & position of declaration all variables are divided into 3 types.

(i) instance variables

(ii) static variables

(iii) local variables.

(i) instance variable :-

- If the value of a variable is varied from Object to Object Such type of variables are called instance variable.
- For every Object a Separate Copy of instance variable will be Created.
- The Scope of instance variables is exactly same as the Scope of the Objects. Because instance variables will be Created at the time of Objects creation & destroy at the time of Objects destruction.
- Instance Variables will be stored as the part of Objects.
- Instance variables should be declared with in the class directly, But outside of any method or Block or Constructor.
- Instance variables cannot be accessed from static area directly we can access by using object reference.
- But from instance area we can access instance members directly

Ex:-

Class Test

{

int x=10;

P.S.V.M (String[] args)

{

S.O.P.N(x); → C.E. - Non-static variable x cannot be referenced from static context"

Test t = new Test();

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s.o.println(t.x); so ✓

```
}
```

public void m()

```
{
```

s.o.println(); ✓ so

```
}
```

→ For the instance variables it is not required to perform initialization explicitly, JVM will provide default values.

Eg:-

class Test

```
{
```

String s;

int x;

boolean b;

p.s.v.m(String[] args)

```
{
```

Test t = new Test();

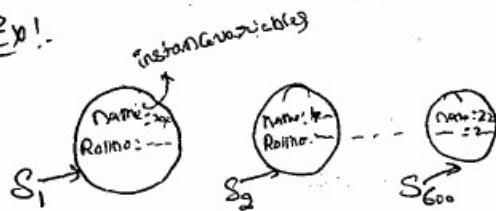
s.o.println(t.s); null

s.o.println(t.x); 0

s.o.println(t.b); false

```
}
```

Ex:-



Students objects, In that

Name, Rollnos are instance variables, Bcz, These values are varied from object to object.

→ Instance variables also known as "Object level variables" or attributes.

(ii) Static Variables :-

Ex:-

```
class Student  
{
```

```
    String name;
```

```
    int rollno;
```

```
    static String CollegeName;
```

```
,
```

```
,
```

```
,
```

```
{
```

```
    name: xxx  
    Rollno: 101  
    Candidate
```

```
S1
```

```
name:yyy  
Rollno: 202
```

```
S2
```

```
name:zzz  
Rollno: 600
```

```
S600
```

College name : dwyagashw

→ If the value of a variable is not varied from Object to Object

Then it is never recommended to declare that variable at Object Level

We have to declare such type of variables at class level by using

Static modifier.

→ In the case of instance variables for every object a separate copy will be created, But in the case of static variable single copy will be created at class level & the copy will be shared by all objects of that class.

→ Static variables will be created at the time of class loading & destroyed at the time of class unloading. Hence the scope of the static variable is

Exactly Same as the Scope of the class.

gfp

Note:- java Test ↳ execution process is

- ① Start jvm
- ② Create main thread
- ③ Locate Test.class
- ④ Load Test.class → Static Variables Creation
- ⑤ Execute main() method of Test.class
- ⑥ Unload Test.class → Static variables destruction
- ⑦ Destroy main Thread
- ⑧ Shutdown Jvm

- Static variables should be declare with in the class directly (but outside of any method or blocks or constructor), with static-modified.
- Static variables can be accessed either by using class name or by using object reference, but recommended to use class name.
- With in the same class even it's not required to use class name.
also we can access directly.

Ex:- class Test

}

Static int x = 10;

p. s. v. m. a (String[] args)

↳ S. o. p. n (Test.x); ✓ 10

S. o. p. n (x); ✓ 10

✓ Test t = new Test();

↳ S. o. p. n (t.x); ✓ 10

→ Static variables are created at the time of class loading i.e., (at the beginning of the program). Hence, we can access from both instance & static areas directly.

→ Eg:- Class Test

```
    {
        static int x=10;
        p.s.v.m(String[] args)
        {
            s.o.println(x);
        }
        public void m1()
        {
            s.o.println(x);
        }
    }
```

→ For the static variables it is not required to perform initialization explicitly, Compulsory Jvm will provide default values.

Eg:- Class Test

```
    {
        static int x;
        p.s.v.m(String[] args)
        {
            s.o.println(x); 0
        }
    }
```

→ Static variables will be stored in method-area. Static variables also known as "class-level variables" or "fields".

* Ex:-

Class Test

{

 int x=10;

 Static int y=20;

 P.S.V.M (String[] args)

{

 Test t₁=new Test();

 t₁.x=888;

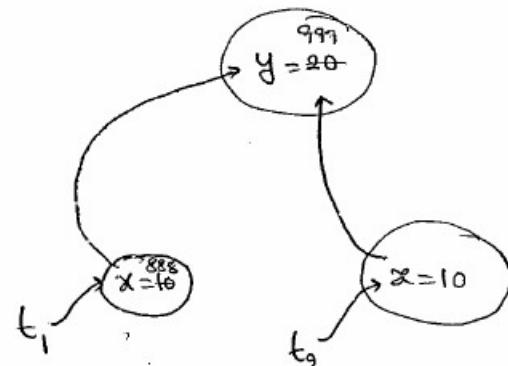
 t₁.y=999;

 Test t₂=new Test();

 S.O.Pln(t₂.x+"----"+t₂.y);

}

 }



t₁.x=888

t₂.y=999

t₂.x=10

t₁.y=999

- If we performing any change for instance variables these changes wont be reflected for the remaining objects. because, for every object a separate copy of instance variables will be their.
- But, if we are performing any change to the static variable, these changes will be reflected for all objects because we are maintaining a single copy.

Q) Local Variables:-

- To meet temporary requirements of the programmer sometimes we have to create variables inside method or Block or Constructor.
- Such type of variables are called Local variables.
- Local variables also known as Stack variables or Automatic variables or temporary variables.
- Local variables will be stored inside a Stack.
- The Local variables will be created while executing the block in which we declared it & destroyed once the Block Completed. Hence, The Scope of ^{Local} Variable is Executing Same as the Block in which we declared it.

Ex:- Class Test

```
 {
    p. s. v. m( String[] args)
    {
        int i=0;
        for( int j=0 ; j<3 ; j++)
        {
            i = i+j;
        }
        S. o. p( i + " --- " + j);
    }
}
```

* C.E.:-

Can't find Symbol
Symbol : variable j
Location: Class Test

→ For the Local variables JVM won't provide any default values.
Compulsory we should perform initialization Explicitly, before using
That Variable.

Eg:- ①

```
Class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        int x;
        ✓ S.o.pIn("Hello");
    }
}
%P:- Hello
```

```
Class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        int x;
        S.o.pIn(x);
    }
}
C.E:-
```

Variable x might not have
been initialized.

Eg(2) :-

```
Class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        int x;
        if(args.length > 0)
        {
            x = 10;
        }
        S.o.pIn(x);
    }
}
```

C.E:- Variable x might not have been initialized

Eg 3: Class Test

```
class Test  
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        int x;  
        if(args.length > 0)  
        {  
            x = 10;  
        }  
        else  
        {  
            x = 20;  
        }  
        System.out.println(x);  
    }  
}
```

O/P: Java Test \leftarrow

20

Java Test * y \leftarrow

10

Note:

- It is not recommended to perform initialization of Local variables inside logical blocks because there is no guarantee execution of these blocks at runtime.
- It is highly recommended to perform initialization for the local variables at the time of declaration, at least with default values.

→ The only applicable modifier for the local variables is "final".

If we are using any other modifier we will get Compile-time Error.

Eg:-

Class Test

{

P.S.V.m (String[] args)

}

X private int x=10;

X public int x=10;

X protected int x=10;

X static int x=10;

✓ final int x=10;

}

}

C.E:-

Illegal Start of Expression.

Uninitialized Arrays..

Class Test

{

int[3] a;

P.S.V.m (String[] args)

{

Test t, = new Test();

S.o.println(t.a); null

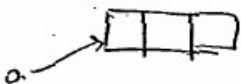
S.o.println(t.a[0]); Nonpointer Exception

}

instance level:-

int [] a ; S.o.p(obj.a) null
 i.e. a=null S.o.p(obj.a[0]) NullPointerException

int [] a = new int [3]; S.o.p(obj.a) [I@1a2b3
 S.o.p(obj.a[0]) 0



Static level:-

Static int [] a; S.o.p(a); null
 S.o.p(a[0]); NPE

Static int [] a = new int [3]; S.o.p(a); [I@1234
 S.o.p(a[0]); 0

Explanation:-

int [] a; → here the array (i.e object) difference is Create but its not initialized (i.e object is not) created. So jvm provides null value to the variable a.

int [] a = new int [3]; → here bcoz of new operator we are creating an object and jvm by default provides '0' value in array

Local Level:-

int [] a ; S.o.p(a) { C.E! - variable a might not have been initialized
 S.o.p(a[0]) }
 int [] a = new int [3]; S.o.p(a) [I@1234
 S.o.p(a[0]) 0

Note:-

Once an array is created all its elements are always initialized with default values irrespective whether it is static or instance or local array.

↳ Var-arg methods (1.5 version)

- Until 1.4 version we can't declare a method with variable no. of arguments, if there is any change in no. of assignments compulsory we should declare a new method. This approach increases length of the code & reduces readability.
- To resolve these problem Sun people introduced Var-arg methods in 1.5 version. Hence from 1.5 version onwards we can declare a method with variable no. of arguments. Such type of methods are called Var-arg methods.
- We can declare Var-arg method as follows.

m1(int... x)

- We can invoke this method by passing any no. of int values including zero no. also.

Ex:- m1(); ✓
 m1(10, 20); ✓
 m1(10); ✓
 m1(10, 20, 30, 40); ✓

Ques:-

```
Class Test
{
    p.s.void m1(int... i)
    {
        s.o.pln("Var-arg method");
    }
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        m1();
        m2();
        m3(10, 20);
        m4(10, 20, 30, 40);
    }
}
```

Ans:- Var-arg method
 Var-arg method
 " "
 " "
 " "

→ Internally Var-arg method is implemented by using single dimensional arrays concept. Hence with in the Var-arg method we can differentiate arguments by using index.

Ex:- Class Test

```
↓  
public static void sum(int... x)  
↓  
int total = 0;  
for(int y: x)  
{  
    total = total + y;  
}  
System.out.println("The Sum: " + total);  
}  
P.S.V.M(String[] args)  
↓  
sum(); 0  
sum(10, 20); 30  
sum(10, 20, 30) 60  
sum(10, 20, 30, 40); 100  
}
```

Op:- The Sum: 0

The Sum: 30

The Sum: 60

The Sum: 100

Case 1:-

Q) Which of the following var-arg method declarations are valid.

m1(int... x) ✓

m1(int x...) ✗

m1(int ...x) ✓

m1(int. ...x) ✗

m1(int .x..) ✗

Case 2:-

→ We can mix Var-arg parameters with normal parameters also.

Ex:- m1(int x, String... y) ✓

Case 3:-

→ If we are mixing var-arg parameters with general parameter

Then Var-arg parameter should be last parameter.

Ex:- m1(int... x, String y) ✗

Case 4:-

→ In any Var-arg method we can take only one Var-arg parameter.

Ex:- m1(int... x, String... y) ✗

Case 5:- Class Test

p.s.v.m1(int i)

↳ S.o.pIn("General method");

p.s.v.m1(int... i)

↳ S.o.pIn("Var-arg");

p.s.v.m(String [] args)

↳ m1(); var-arg

↳ m1(10); General (only)

↳ m1(10, 20); var-arg

→ In General Var-arg method will get Least Priority i.e if no other method matched, Then only Var-arg method will get chance. This is Similar to default case inside Switch.

Case 6:-

Ex:- Class Test

```
d  
P-S-V.m1(int[] x)  
{  
    S.o.println("int[]");  
}  
P-S-V.m1(int... x)  
{  
    S.o.println("int...");  
}  
y
```

C.E:- Cannot declare Both m1(int[]) and m1(int...) in Test.

Var-arg vs Single dimensional arrays:-

Case 1:-

→ wherever Single dimensional array present we can replace with var-arg parameter.

Ex:- $m_1(\text{int}[] x) \Rightarrow m_1(\text{int... } x)$ ✓

$\text{main}(\text{String}[] \text{args}) \Rightarrow \text{main}(\text{String... } x)$ ✓

Case 2:-

→ wherever var-arg parameter present we can't replace with Single dimensional array.

~~$m_1(\text{int... } x) \Rightarrow m_1(\text{int}[] x)$~~

29/03/11

main()

main()!

- Whether the class contains main() or not & whether the main() is properly declared or not, these checkings are not responsibilities of compiler. At runtime, JVM is responsible for these checkings.
- If the JVM unable to find required main() then we will get runtime exception saying NoSuchMethodError: main.

```
Ex:- class Test
      {
      }
```

compile Javac Test.java ✓

Run x Java Test → R.E:- NoSuchMethodError: main

- JVM always searches for the main() with the following signature.

Public Static Void main(String[] args)

To call by JVM
from anywhere

without existing
Object also JVM
has to call this method

Command-line
arguments

Name of method
which is Configured
inside JVM

main method

Can't return
anything to JVM

→ If we are performing any change to the above signature
we will get runtime exception saying " NoSuchMethodError: main" .

→ Any where the following changes are acceptable.

(i) we can change the order of modifiers. i.e instead of
public static we can take static public.

(ii) we can declare String[] in any valid form

String[] args ✓

String [args] ✓

String args[] ✓

(3) Instead of args we can take any valid Java identifier.

(4) Instead of String[] we can take Var-arg String parameter.
is String...

main (String[] args) \Rightarrow main (String... args)

(5) main() can be declared with the following modifiers also

(i) final

(ii) Synchronized

(iii) Staticfp,

Ex:- class Test

{

final static Synchronized public void main (String... A)

{

S. o. println ("Hello everyone");

}

{

Q) Which of the following main() declarations are valid? 31

- ~~(i)~~ public static int main(String[] args) X
- ~~(ii)~~ static public void Main(String[] args) X
- ~~(iii)~~ public synchronized Strictfp final void main(String[] args) X
- ~~(iv)~~ Public final static void main(String args) X
- ✓ (v) public Strictfp synchronized static void main(String[] args)

Q) In which of the above cases we will get Compiletime Error.

~~Ans:-~~ Nowhere, All cases will compile.

→ Inheritance Concept is applicable for static methods including main() also. Hence if the child class doesn't contain main() then Parent class main() will be executed while executing child class.

Ex:- class P
 {
 public static void main(String[] args)
 {
 System.out.println("PLU durga S/w");
 }
 }

Class C extends P.
 {
 }

javac p.java ✓

java p

o/p:- PLU durga S/w

java C

o/p:- PLU durga S/w

```

Ex 2: class P
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
}

    {
        System.out.println(" I Love");
    }

class C extends P
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.println(" dungas/w");
    }
}

```

javac P.java

```

java P
o/p: I love
java C
o/p: dungas/w.

```

→ It Seems to be Overriding Concept is applicable for Static methods, but it's not overriding but it is Method hiding.

→ Overloading Concept is applicable for main() but JVM always calls String argument method only. The other method we have to call explicitly.

```

ex:- class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.println(" dungas/w");
    }

    p.s.v.m(Integer args)
    {
        System.out.println(" is good");
    }
}

```

O/P:- dungas/w.

Q) Instead of main is it possible to configure any other method as main method? 39

A) Yes, But inside JVM we have to configure some changes then it is possible.

Q) Explain about S.o.pln.

A)

class Test

{

 Static String name = "durga";

}

Test.name.length()

↙

↓

→ It is a method
present in
String class

It is a
class-
name

Static variable of
type String present
in Test class

class System

{

 Static PrintWriter out;

}

System.out.println()

↙

→ It is a method
present in
PrintStream class

It is a
class name
present in
java.lang

Static variable of
type PrintWriter
present in System
class

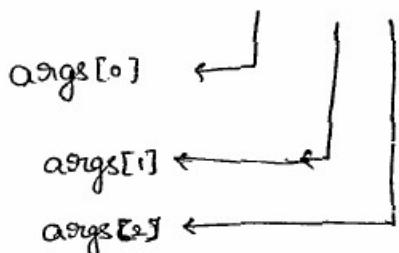
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CommandLine Arguments

CommandLine arguments:

- The arguments which are passing from Commandprompt are called CommandLine arguments.
- The main objective of CommandLine arguments are we can customize the behaviour of the main().

Ex:- Java Test x y z



args.length → 3

Ex(1): class Test

```
    {
        p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    }
```

```
    for(int i=0 ; i<args.length ; i++)
    {
```

```
        s.o.println(args[i]);
    }
```

```
    }
}
```

o/p:- Java Test ←

R.E! - AIOBE

Java test x y ←

x

y

R.E! - AIOBE

Ex(2):-

→ Within the main(), Commandline arguments are available in String form.

Ex:-

class Test

{

p.s.v.m(String[] args)

{

s.o.println(args[0] + args[1]);

}

Java Test 10 20

o/p:- 1020

- Space is the Separator b/w CommandLine arguments, if the CommandLine arguments itself contain Space then we should enclose with in doubleQuotes ("")

Ex:- class Test

{

p.s.v.m(String[] args)

{

s.o.println(args[0]); Note Book

}

Java Test "Note Book"

Ex(3): class Test

{

p.s.v.m(String[] args)

{

String[] args = {"A", "B"},

args = args;

for (String s1 : args)

{

s.o.println(s1);

}

```

Java Test x y ←
or A
B
Java Test x y z ←
or A
B
Java Test ←
or A
B

```

Notes: The maximum allowed no. of commandline arguments is 2147483647, min. is '0'

Java Coding Standards

→ Whenever we are writing the code it is highly recommended to follow Coding Conventions. The name of the method or class should reflect the purpose of functionality of that component.

```

Class A
{
    public int m1(int x, int y)
    {
        return x+y;
    }
}

```

~~Adeswarp Standard~~

```

package com.durgsoft.demo;
public class Calculator
{
    public static int Sum(int number1,
                         int number2)
    {
        return number1+number2;
    }
}

```

Hitech-city

Coding Standards for Classes:-

→ Usually Classnames are Nouns, should starts with Uppercase letter & if it contains multiple words Every inner word should starts with Uppercase letter

Ex:- Student
Customer
String
StringBuffer,

} → Nouns

② Coding Standards for Interfaces :-

- Usually interface names are Adjectives should starts with Uppercase letter & if it contains multiple words every inner word should starts with Uppercase letter.

e.g:- Runnable, Serializable, Cloneable, Movable. } Adjectives

Note:-

- Throwable is a class but not interface. It acts as a root class for all Java Exceptions & Errors.

③ Coding Standards for Methods :-

- Usually method names are either Verbs or Verb noun Combination Should Starts with LowerCase Letter & if it Contains multiple words Every inner words should starts with Upper Case Letter. (CamelCase).

Ex:-

run()	→ Verbs	Verb + noun
sleep()		
eat()		
init()		
wait()		
join()		

getName()	Verb + noun
setSalary()	

④ Coding Standards for Variables :-

- Usually The variable names are nouns Should Starts with LowerCase character & if it Contains multiple words, Every innerword Should Starts with uppercase character (CamelCase).

Ex:- Name
 Roll No
 Mobile Number

}

→ nouns

⑥ Coding Standards for Constants:-

- Usually The Constants are Nouns, Should Contain Only Uppercase characters, If it Contains multiple words, These words are Separated with "-" Symbol.
- we Can declare Constants by using static & final modifiers.

Ex:-
 MAX-VALUE
 MIN-VALUE
 MAX-PRIORITY
 MIN-PRIORITY

⑦ Java bean Coding Standards

- A Java bean is a Simple java class with private properties & public getter & setter methods.

```
Ex:- public class StudentBean
{
    private String name;
    public void setName(String Name)
    {
        this.name = Name;
    }
    public String getName()
    {
        return name;
    }
}
```

→ ends with Bean is
 not official convention
 from SUN.

Syntax for Setter method :-

- The method name should be prefix with "Set". Compulsory the method should take some argument. Return type should be void.

Syntax for getter method :-

- The method name should be prefixed with "get".

- It should be no argument method.

- Return type should not be void.

Note :-

- For the boolean property the getter method can be prefixed with either get or is. Recommended to use "is"

Ex:-

```
private boolean empty;
```

```
public boolean getEmpty()
```

```
{
```

```
    return empty;
```

```
}
```

```
public boolean isEmpty()
```

```
{
```

```
    return empty;
```

```
}
```

Coding Standards for Listeners:-

* To register a listener:-

- Method name should be prefix with add,

- after add whatever we are taking the argument should be same.

- Eg:-
- ✓ ① public void addMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ② public void RegistersMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ③ public void add MyActionListener(Listener l)

To Unregister a Listener :-

→ The rule is same as above, Except method name should be
Prefix with Remove.

- Eg:-
- ✓ ① public void RemoveMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ② public void unRegistersMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ③ public void deleteMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ④ public void RemoveMyActionListener(ActionListener l)

Note:-

In Java bean Coding Standards & Listener Concept is compulsory.

Operators & Assignments

Increment / Decrement 2

Arithmetic operators 3

Concatenation 5

Relational operators 5

Equality operators 6

Bitwise operators 7

Short-Circuit 9

instanceof 6

typeCast Operator 10

Assignment Operator 12

Conditional Operator 13

New operator 13

[] operator 13

Operator precedence 14

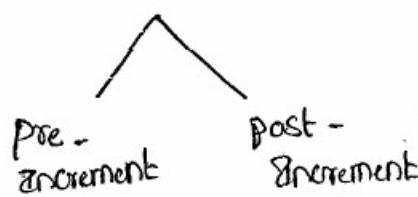
Evaluation Order of Java operands. 14

Kathy Sierra 1-6

book for SCJP

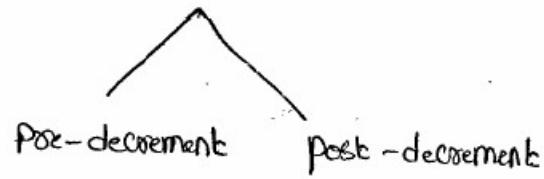
Increment & Decrement Operators.

Increment



`int x = ++y;` `int x = y++;`

Decrement



`int x = --y;` `int x = y--;`

Expression

Initial value
of x

Final value
of x

Final value
of y

`y = ++x;` 4

5

5

`y = x++;` 4

5

4

`y = --x;` 4

3

3

`y = x--;` 4

3

4

- i) We can apply increment and decrement only for variables but not for Constant values.

`int x = 4;`

~~X~~ `int y = ++4;` C.E: unexpected type
~~Syntax(y);~~ ↗ found : Value ②
 ↗ required : Variable ①

- ii) Nesting of increment & decrement operators is not allowed otherwise we will get Compile time Error.

`int x = 4;`

~~`int y = ++(++x);`~~

~~`S.o.p(y);`~~

C.E: Unexpected type
 ② found : value
 ① Required : Variable

Note: after score - it is - Constant Then

iii). We Can't apply increment & decrement operators for the final variables.

Ex(1): final int x = 4; ~~X~~
~~x++;~~

Ex(2): final int x = 4; ~~X~~
~~x = 5~~

C.E:- Can't assign a value to final variable x.

iv). we Can apply increment and Decrement operators for "Every primitive data type Except Boolean".

① double d = 10.5;
~~d++;~~

~~S.o.p(d); // 11.5~~

② char ch = 'a';
~~ch++;~~

~~S.o.p(ch); // b~~

③ boolean b = true;

~~x~~ ~~++b;~~
~~S.o.p(b);~~

C.E:-

operator ++ can't applied to boolean.

④ int x = 10;

~~x++;~~

~~S.o.p(x); //~~

Difference b/w b++ & b = b+1 :-

① byte b=10;
 b++;
 S.o.p(b); //

② byte b=10
 X b=b+1;
 S.o.p(b);

C.E: possible loss of precision
found : int
Required : byte

③ byte b=10
 b = (byte) (b+1)
 S.o.p(b); //

Exp:- max(int, type of a, type of b)
 max(int, byte, int)
Res: int

④ byte a=10;
byte b=20;
byte c=a+b;
S.o.p(c); C.E: PLP

f = int
R = byte

Explanation:-

Max(int, type of a, type of b)

Max(int, byte, byte)

Result is of type: int

∴ found is int but
Required is byte

(+, -, *, %, /)

→ Whenever we are performing any arithmetic operation between two variables a & b the result type is always,

Max(int, type of a, type of b)

byte b=10;
b = (byte) (b+1);
S.o.p(b); //

→ In the Case of Increment & Decrement Operators the required type casting (internal type casting) automatically performed by the Compiler.

byte b++; \Rightarrow b = (byte)(b+1);

b++; \Rightarrow b = (type of b)(b+1);

Arithmetic Operators:-

→ The Arithmetic operations are (+, -, *, /, %)

→ If we are applying any Arithmetic operator b/w two variables a and b the result type is always.

Max (int, type of a, type of b)

byte + byte = int

byte + short = int S.o.println(10+0.0); // 10.0

int + long = long S.o.println('a'+'b'); 195

long + float = float S.o.println(100+'a'); 197

double + char = double

char + char = int

Infinity:-

→ In the Case of Integral arithmetic (int, short, long, byte), There

is no way to represent infinity. Hence, if the infinity is the result

We will always get Arithmetic Exception. (AE : 1 by zero)

Eg:-

S.o.println(0/0); R.E: AE: 1 by zero.

- But in Case of floating point arithmetic, ^(float & double) There is always a way to represent infinity, for this float & Double classes Contains the following two Constants.

Positive-Infinity = infinity

Negative-Infinity = -infinity

$$\begin{array}{l} +ve\infty = \infty \\ -ve\infty = -\infty \end{array}$$

- Hence, in the Case of ~~float~~ floating point Arithmetic we won't get any Arithmetic Exception.

Eg:- ①. S.o.println(10/0.0) ; Infinity

②. S.o.println(-10/0.0) : -infinity.

* NAN :- (Not a Number)

- In integral arithmetic, There is no way to represent undefined results. Hence, if the result is undefined we will get A.E in Case of integral Arithmetic.

Eg:- S.o.p(0/0) ; RE: A.E: 1 by zero

- But in Case of floating point Arithmetic, There is a way to represent undefined results for this float & Double classes Contains NAN Constant.

- Hence, Even though the result is Undefined we won't get any Runtime Exception in floating point Arithmetic.

Eg:- S.o.println(0/0.0); Nan.

* S.o.p(0.0/0); NaN

* S.o.p(-0/0.0); NaN

Ex: * public static void main (double d);

S.o.println (math.sqrt (4)); /2.0

S.o.println (math.sqrt (-4)); NaN.

→ For any x value including NaN the below Expressions always returns false, Except the (\neq) Expression returns true.

$$x \neq \text{NaN} \Rightarrow \text{True}$$

at $x=10$

S.o.p(10 > float.NaN); false

S.o.p(10 < float.NaN); false

S.o.p(10 == float.NaN); false

S.o.p($\frac{float}{10} != \text{float.NaN}$); true.

S.o.p(float.NaN == float.NaN); false

S.o.p(float.NaN != float.NaN); True.

$x > \text{NaN}$
 $x \geq \text{NaN}$
 $x < \text{NaN}$
 $x \leq \text{NaN}$
 $x == \text{NaN}$

False

Conclusion about A.E (Arithmetic Exception) :-

→ It is Runtime Exception but not Compiletime Error.

→ Possible only in Integral Arithmetic but not Floating point Arithmetic
(int, byte, short, char) (float, double)

→ The only operators which cause A.E are / and %.

3. String Concatenation Operator (+)

→ the only overloaded operator in Java is '+' operator.

→ Sometimes it acts as arithmetic addition operator & Some time acts as String arithmetic Operator or String Concatenation operator.

Eg:- int a=10, b=20, c=30;

String d = "Shanth";

S.o.p(a+b+c+d); Go Shanth

S.o.p(a+b+d+~~B~~); 30Shanth30

S.o.p(d+a+b+c); Shanth102030

S.o.p(a+d+b+c); 10Shanth2030.

$\frac{d+a+b+c}{Shanth10+b+c}$
 $Shanth10\cancel{20} + c$
 $Shanth10\cancel{20} 30$
 $Shanth102030$

→ If at least one operand is String type then '+' operator acts
(If both are number type)
as Concatenation, otherwise, '+' acts as arithmetic operator.

Here S.o.p() is evaluated from Left to Right.

Eg:- int a=10, b=20;

String c = "Shanth";

✗ a = b+c; ^{total String} C.E:- Incompatible type : found : String
Required : int

✓ C = a+c; ^{total String}

✓ b = a+b;

✗ C = a+b; C.E:- Incompatible type:

found : int

Required : String.

Relational Operators

These are $>$, $<$, \geq , \leq

→ we can apply Relational operators for Every primitive datatype.

Except boolean.

Eg:-

1) $10 > 20$ false ✓

2) $'a' < 'b'$ true ✓

3) $10 \geq 10.0$ true ✓

4) $'a' < 125$ true ✓

5) $true \leq true$

6) $true < false$

CE :- Operator \leq can't be applied to boolean, booleans

→ We can't apply relational operators for the object types.

Eg:- 1) "Shanthi" $<$ "Shanthi" X

2) "durga" $<$ "durga123" X

CE :- operator $<$ can't be applied to String, String.

→ Nesting of Relational operators we are not allowed to apply.

Eg:- ✓ S.o.p (10 < 20);

✗ S.o.p (10 \leq 20 $<$ 30)

boolean

CE :- Operator $<$ can't be applied to boolean.

Eg:- String $s_1 = \text{new String}("durga");$

String $s_2 = \text{new String}("durga");$



S.o.println(s₁ == s₂); false (reference)



S.o.println(s₁.equals(s₂)); true (content)

Equality Operators ($==$, $!=$)

→ These are $==$, $!=$

→ We can apply Equality operators for Every primitive type including

boolean types.

Q.P

✓ 1) $10 == 10.0$	T ✓
✓ 2) 'a' == 97	T ✓
✓ 3) true == false	F ✓
✓ 4) 10.5 == 12.3	F ✓

→ We can apply Equality operators even for object reference also.

→ For the two object references t_1 and t_2 if $t_1 == t_2$ returns True

iff both t_1 & t_2 are pointing to the same object.

i.e., Equality operator ($==$) is always meant for reference/address Comparison

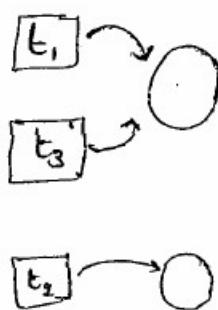
Ex): Thread $t_1 = \text{new Thread();}$

Thread $t_2 = \text{new Thread();}$

Thread $t_3 = t_1;$

✗ S.o.p($t_1 == t_2$) ; False

✓ S.o.p($t_1 == t_3$) ; True



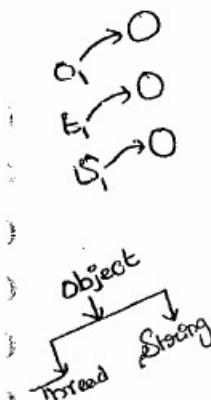
* To apply Equality Operators b/w the object references Compulsory

There should be Some relationship b/w argument types.

[either parent to child (or) child to parent (or) Same type] otherwise

We will get CE: InComparable type].

Eg:- (2) object o₁ = new Object(); because Object is Super class H2



Thread t₁ = new Thread();

String s₁ = new String("shanth");

S.o.p(t₁ == s₁); CE:- InComparable types Thread & java.lang.String

S.o.p(t₁ == o₁); F java.lang.Object

S.o.p(s₁ == o₁); F

→ for any object reference g_1 , if g_1 is pointing to any object

$g_1 == null$ is always false, otherwise g_1 contains null value

→ So, $null == null$ is always True.

Note:-

* In General, $==$ operator meant for Reference Composition

whereas $.equals()$ method meant for Content Composition.

instanceof operator (instanceof) ✓

By using this operator we can check, whether the given object is of a particular type or not.

SyD:-

$g_1 \text{ instanceof } X$

any reference type

class / interface.

instanceof
HashMap
String

Ex:- short s=15;

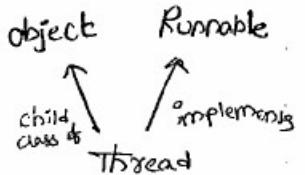
Boolean b;

b = (s instanceof Short)

b = (s instanceof Number)

Eg:- 1) Thread t = new Thread()

- ✓ S.o.p(t instanceof Thread); True
- ✓ S.o.p(t instanceof Object); True
- ✓ S.o.p(t instanceof Runnable); True



→ To use instanceof operator, Compulsory there should be Some relationship b/w assignment type, otherwise we will get Compile-time Error saying Inconvertable type.

Eg:- 2) Thread t = new Thread();

S.o.p(t instanceof String); C.E :-

Inconvertable type

found : Thread

Required : String

→ Whenever we are checking parent object is of child type Then we will get false as output.

object o = new ~~Object~~; Integer(10);

- ✓ S.o.p(o instanceof String); false

→ For any class or interface X, null instanceof X always returning "false".

- ✓ S.o.p(null instanceof String); false.

Eg:- Iterator iter = l.iterator();
while (iter.hasNext())

Object o = iter.next();
if (o instanceof Student)
l. Apply student created function

else if (o instanceof Customer)
2. Apply customer related
3. Customer created function

Bit-Wise Operators :-

(sg) arguments

- (1) $\&$ → AND \rightarrow if Both operands are True then Result is True
- (2) $|$ → OR \rightarrow if atleast 1 operand is T " T
- (3) \wedge → X-OR \rightarrow if Both operands are different " T

e.g. S.o.println(4 & 5); 4

S.o.println(4 | 5); 5

S.o.println(4 \wedge 5); 1

Ex:- S.o.println(4 & 5); 4

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 101 \\ \hline 100 \end{array} = 4$$

S.o.println(4 | 5); 5

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 101 \\ \hline 101 \end{array} = 5$$

S.o.println(4 \wedge 5); 1

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 101 \\ \hline 001 \end{array} = 1$$

→ We can apply these operators even for integral data-types also.

also.

Ex:- (1) S.o.println(4 & 5); 4

(2) S.o.println(4 | 5); 5

(3) S.o.println(4 \wedge 5); 1

Bitwise Complement Operator (\sim) :

S.o.println($\sim T$); CE: operator \sim can't be applied to boolean.

- (ii) We can apply Bitwise Complement Operator only for integral types, but not for boolean type.

Ex:- i) S.o.println($\sim \text{True}$);

C.E: operator \sim can't be applied to boolean.

✓ ii) S.o.println(~ 4); -5

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 = 0000\ 0000 \quad \dots \quad 0100 \\ \sim 4 = \boxed{1}111\ 1111 \quad \dots \quad 1011 \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{2's Complement} \end{array}$$

$0 \rightarrow \text{+ve}$
 $1 \rightarrow \text{-ve}$

\swarrow -ve

$\begin{array}{r} \text{One's Comp} \\ 000\ 0000 \quad \dots \quad 0100 \\ \hline \text{2's Comp} \end{array}$

add '1' to 1's Comp
is 2's Comp

$$\begin{array}{r} 000\ 0000 \quad \dots \quad 0100 \\ \hline 000 \quad \dots \quad 0101 \end{array}$$

-ve 5

$\boxed{\therefore -5}$

Note:

- The most Significant bit represents Sign bit. 0 means +ve no, 1 means -ve no.
- The no. will be represented directly in the memory. whereas as -ve no's will be represented in 2's Complement form.

Boolean Complement Operator (!) :-

84

→ We can apply these operators only for Boolean type but not for integral types.

Ex:- (1) S.o.p(! u);

C.E.: operator ! can't be applied to int.

(2) S.o.p(! False); True

(3) S.o.p(! True); False

Summary:-



⇒ we can apply for both integral & boolean types.

~ ⇒ we can apply only for integral types but not for boolean types.

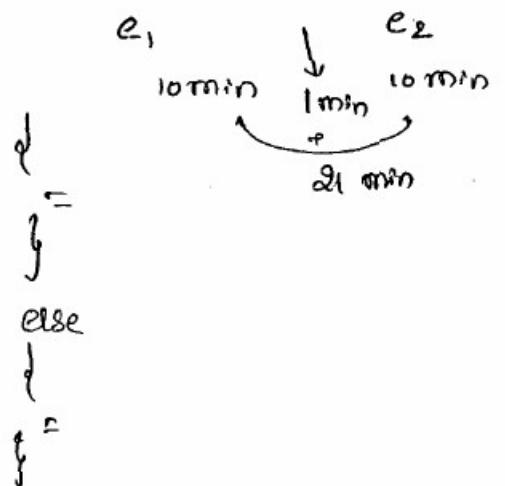
! ⇒ we can apply only for boolean types but not for integral types.

Short-Circuit Operators (&&, ||)

- 1) We can use these operators just to improve performance of the system.
- 2) These are exactly same as normal bitwise operators &, | except the following difference.

$\&, $	$\&\&, $
1. Both operands should be evaluated always.	1. 2 nd operand evaluation is optional.
2. Relatively low-performance.	2. Relatively high-performance.
3. Applicable for both Boolean & integral types	3. Applicable only for Boolean types.

Ex:- if ($e_1 \& e_2$)



- 1) $x \& y \Rightarrow y$ will be evaluated iff x is True.
- 2) $x || y \Rightarrow y$ will be evaluated iff x is False.

Ex:- int $x=10;$

int $y=15;$

if ($++x > 10 \& ++y < 15$)

}

$++x;$

}

else

}

$++y;$

}

S.o.println(x + "-----" + y);

Q.P.

	x	y
$\&$	11	17
$ $	12	16
$ $	12	15
$\&\&$	11	17

```

② int x=10;
    if (x++ < 10) && (x/0 > 10)
    {
        S.o.println("Hello");
    }
    else
    {
        S.o.println("Hi");
    }

```

Ans:

- a) C.E
- b) R.E : Arithmetic Exception : 1 by Zero.
- c) Hello
- d) Hi

Note:

if we Replace && with &

then Result is ③, that is R.E.

$$\begin{array}{l} a=97 \\ b=65 \end{array}$$

TypeCast Operators:-

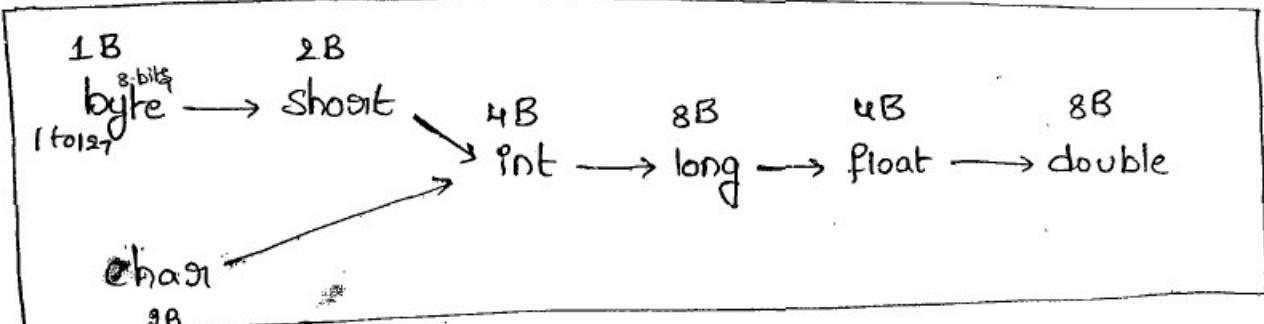
→ There are 2 types of primitive type Castings.

1. Implicit type Casting
2. Explicit type Casting.

Implicit Type Casting:-

- 1) Compiler is responsible to perform this type casting.
- 2) This Typecasting is required when ever we are assigning smaller data type value to the bigger data type variable.
- 3) It is also known as "widening (or) UpCasting".
- 4) No loss of information in this type casting.

→ The following are various possible implicit type casting

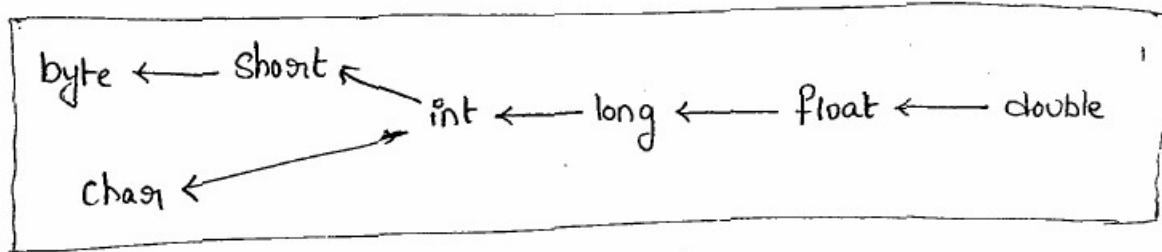


Ex(1):

- ① `double d=0;` [Compiler Converts int to double automatically]
 ↘ `S.o.println(d); 0.0`
- ② `int x='a';` [Compiler Converts char to int automatically]
 ↘ `S.o.println(x); 97`
- `a=97, b=98 ---`
- `A=65, B=66, C=67,`

2) Explicit Type Casting :-

- 1) programmer is responsible to perform this TypeCasting
 - 2) It is required whenever we are assigning bigger datatype value to the smaller datatype variable.
 - 3) It is also known as "Narrowing or down Casting".
 - 4) There may be a chance of loss of information in this Type-Casting.
- The following are various possible Conversions where Explicit typecasting is required.



Ex:-

1) $x \mid \text{byte } b = 130$
c.e: possible loss of precision

found : int

Required : byte

2) $\text{byte } b = (\text{byte}) 130;$
S.o.p(b); -126

→ whenever we are assigning Bigger datatype value to the Smaller datatype variable then the most significant bit will be lost.

① \times byte $b = 130$;

\checkmark byte $b = (\text{byte}) 130$;

2	130
2	65 - 0
2	32 - 1
2	16 - 0
2	8 - 0
2	4 - 0
2	2 - 0
2	1 - 0

47

$$130 \equiv 0000 \dots \underline{10000010}$$

(32-bit)

$$\text{byte } b \equiv \underline{10000010} \text{ (8 bit)}$$

\downarrow $\neg b$'s Complement
-ve

$$\begin{array}{r} 1111101 \\ ,1 \\ \hline 1111110 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 0000010 \\ , \\ 1111110 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 \\ &= 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore -126$

$$\boxed{\therefore -126}$$

②

int $i = 150$;

short $s = (\text{short}) i$;

$s.o.\text{println}(s) \neq 150$

$$150 \equiv 0000 \dots 010010110$$

32 bits

short $s \equiv 0000 \dots \underline{00010110} \rightarrow 2\text{-Bytes} = \text{short} = 16\text{-bits}$

+ve

\downarrow don't apply $\neg b$'s Comp.

$$\therefore s = 150$$

③ int $x = 150$;

byte $b = (\text{byte}) x$;

short $s = (\text{short}) x$;

$s.o.\text{println}(b); -106$

$s.o.\text{println}(x); 150$

$$150 \equiv 0000 \dots 010010110$$

$$\text{byte } b = \underline{00010110}$$

-ve

\downarrow 2's Com

$$\underline{1101010}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1101001 \\ ,1 \\ \hline 1101010 \end{array}$$

$$\boxed{\therefore -106} = \underline{2+8+32+64} = 106$$

10/2/11

→ whenever we are assigning floating point datatype values to the integral datatypes by Explicit-type Casting the digits after the decimal point will be lossed.

Ex:-

```
double d = 130.456;
```

```
int a = (int) d;
```

```
byte b = (byte) d;
```

```
S.o.println(a); 130
```

```
S.o.println(b); -126
```

Assignment Operators :-

→ There are 3 types of assignment operators

1. Simple assignment operators
2. Chained assignment operator
3. Compound assignment operator.

1. Simple assignment operator :-

Ex:- int x = 10;

2. Chained assignment operator :-

Ex:- int a, b, c, d;

a = b = c = d = 20;



→ We Can't perform chained assignment at the time of declaration

Ex:- `int a = b = c = d = 20;` } X C-E
 ↓ ↓ ↓

C-E: Can't find Symbol

Symbol: variable b

location: Class Test

`int a = b = c = d = 20;`
 ^
 (Same C.E. & d)

Ex:- `int b, c, d;`
`a = b = c = d = 20` { ✓

3. Compound assignment operator :-

→ Sometimes we can mix assignment operator with some other operators to form Compound assignment operator.

Ex:- `int a = 10;` $a + 30$
`a += 30;` $a = a + 30$
`System.out(a); 40` $a = 10 + 30$
 $a = 40$

→ The following are various possible Compound assignment operators in Java.

<code>+=</code>	<code>&=</code>	<code>>>=</code>
<code>-=</code>	<code> =</code>	<code>>>>=</code>
<code>%=</code>	<code>^=</code>	<code><<=</code>
<code>*=</code>		
<code>/=</code>		

(10)

④ In Compound assignment operators the required typecasting will be performed automatically by the Compiler.

Ex ①
~~byte b = 10;~~
~~b = b + 1;~~
~~S.o.println(b);~~

C.E:- PLP

-found : int

Required : byte

~~b = b + 1;~~

✓
 byte b = 10;
 b++;
 S.o.println(b); //

byte b = 10
 b += 1;
 S.o.println(b) //

byte b = 127;
 b += 3;
 S.o.println(b); -126

Ex ②:-

int a, b, c, d;

a = b = c = d = 20;

a += b *= c /= d /= 2;

S.o.println(a + "----" + b + "----" + c + "----" + d);
 620 600 30 10

Conditional Operator (?:)

→ The only ternary operator available in Java is a Ternary Operator (or) Conditional Operator.

Ex!- int a = 10, b = 20;

int x = (a > b) ? 40 : 50;
 F
 S.o.println(x); 50

a > b is T then 40
 a > b is F then 50

a + b → binary operator

++a → unary "

(a + b) ? a : b ; → ternary. "

→ Nesting of Conditional operator is possible.

Ex:- int a=10, b=20;

int x = (a>50) ? 777 : ((b>100) ? 888 : 999);
 ↓ F ↓ F →
 S.o.println(x); 999

Ex:- int a=10, b=20;

✓ | byte c = (true) ? 40 : 50; ✓ a<12 T
 ✓ | byte c = (false) ? 40 : 50; ✗ a<b x.C.E
 ↓
 ✗ | byte c = (a < b) ? 40 : 50; C.E.: PLP
 ✗ | byte c = (a > b) ? 40 : 50; found: int
 ↓
 -final int a=10, b=20; required: byte.

✓ | byte c = (a < b) ? 40 : 50;
 ✓ | byte c = (a > b) ? 40 : 50;

New Operator:-

→ We can use this operator for creation of objects.

→ In Java there is no Delete operator. because destruction of useless object is responsibility of Garbage Collector.

[] Operator:-

→ We can use these operators for declaring & creating arrays.

Operator precedence :-

1. Unary operators:-

[] , $x++$, $x--$

$++x$, $--x$, \sim , $!$

`new` , `< type >` (used to type cast)

2. Arithmetic Operators:-

* , / , %

+ , -

3. Shift operators:-

`>>>` , `>>` , `<<`

4. Comparison operators:-

< , \leq , > , \geq , `instanceof`

5. Equality operators:-

`==` , `!=`

6. Bitwise operators:-

&
^
|

7. Short - Circuit operators:-

`||`
`&&`

8. Conditional operators:-

`?:`

9. Assignment operators:-

= , $+ =$, $- =$, $\cdot =$, $/ =$

Evaluation Order of Operands :-

- There is no precedence for operands before applying any operators all operands will be evaluated from left to right.

Ex:-

class EvaluationOrderDemo

{

p.s.v.m (String[] args)

{

S.o.p (m,(1) + m,(2) * m,(3) + m,(4) * m,(5) / m,(6));

}

p.s.int m,(int i)

{

S.o.println(i);

return i;

}

{

o/p:-

10

$$1+2 \underline{\times} 3 + 4 \times 5 / 6$$

$$1+6+4 \underline{\times} 5 / 6$$

$$1+6+20 / 6$$

$$1+6+3$$

$$7+3$$

$$= 10$$

Ex(2) :-

class Test

{

p.s.v.m (String[3] args)

}

int x = 10;

x = ++x;

S.o.println(x); //

}

1st increment

2nd place init into x

int x = 10;

x = x++;

S.o.println(x); 10

1st place x=10

∴ x = 10++

∴ x = 11

but last operation is

x = 10

Ex(3) :-

① int x = 0;

(+2)³

x = ++x + x++ + x++ + ++x;

S.o.p(x); 8

x = 0 x x 8 4

x++ = 1

x++ = 2

3

4

Ex 4:-

int x = 0;

x += ++x + x++;

S.o.println(x); 2

x = x + ++x + x++;

= 0 + 1 + 1

x = 2

Flow Control

16/05/2011
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Flow Control :-

→ Flow Control describes the order in which the statements will be executed at runtime.

Flow Control

Selection Statements

① if - else

② switch

Iterative Statements

① while

② do - while

③ for()

④ for - each loop

Transfer Statements

① break

② continue

③ return

④ try

⑤ catch

⑥ final

a) Selection Statements :-

c) if - else :-

SyD :- if(b)

Action if b is true

}

else

Action if b is false

{

→ The argument to the if statement should be boolean-type.
if we are providing any other type we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

① int $\alpha = 0$

```
if ( $x$ )  
  ↓  
  S.o.println("Hello");
```

{
else
 ↓

```
  S.o.println("Hi");  
  ↓  
}
```

C.E:- Incompatible types

found : int

Required : boolean

② int $\alpha = 10$

```
if ( $x = 20$ )  
  ↓  
  S.o.println("Hello");  
  ↓
```

{
else
 ↓

```
  S.o.println("Hi");  
  ↓  
}
```

③

int $\alpha = 10;$

```
if ( $x = 20$ )  
  ↓
```

```
  S.o.println("Hello");  
  ↓
```

{
else
 ↓

```
  S.o.println("Hi");  
  ↓  
}
```

O/P:- Hi ✓

④

boolean b = false;

```
if ( $b = true$ )  
  ↓
```

```
  S.o.println("Hello");  
  ↓
```

{
else
 ↓

```
  S.o.println("Hi");  
  ↓  
}
```

✓

O/P:- Hello ✓

⑤

boolean b = false;

```
if ( $b == true$ )  
  ↓
```

```
  S.o.println("Hello");  
  ↓
```

{
else
 ↓

```
  S.o.println("Hi");  
  ↓  
}
```

✓

O/P:- Hi ✓

Q2) Curly braces ({ }) are optional and without curly braces we can take only one statement & which should not be declarative statement

Ans

Eg:-

if (true)

 cout << "Hello";



if (true)

 int x=0;



C.E!

if (true)

 int x=10;



C.E!

if (true);



Switch Statement :-

- If several options are possible then it is recommended to use if-else, we should go for Switch Statement.

Syn :- Switch (x)



Case 1 :

 Action 1;

Case 2 :

 Action 2;



default :

 Default Action;



→ Curly braces are mandatory.

→ both Case & default are optional inside a switch

Eg:-

 int x=10;

 Switch(x)



→ Within the Switch, every statement should be under some Case or default. Independent statements are not allowed.

Ex:-

```
int x=10;  
Switch(x)  
{  
    S.o.p("Hello");  
}
```

C.E:-

Case, default or '}' expected

→ until 1.4v The allowed datatypes for switch argument are

byte

short

int

char

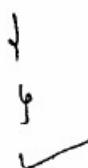
→ But from 1.5v onwards in addition to these the corresponding wrapper classes (Byte, Short, Character, Integer) & enum types are allowed.

1.4v	1.5v	1.7v
byte	⊕ Byte	
short	short	⊕ String
char	Character	
int	Integer	
	+	
	enum	

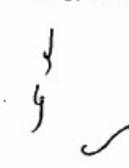
→ If we are passing any other type we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

```
byte b=10;
switch(b)
```



```
char ch='a';
switch(ch)
```



```
long l=10l;
switch(l)
```



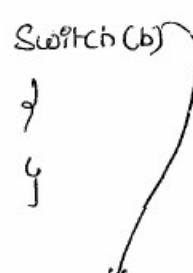
C.E:-

possible loss of precision

→ found: long

→ required: int

```
boolean b=true;
switch(b)
```

C.E:-
Incompatible types

→ found: boolean

→ required: int

- every Case label should be within the range of Switch argument type
- otherwise we will get Compiletime Error.

```
byte b=10;
```

```
switch(b)
  |
```

Case 10:

S.o.println("10");

Case 100:

S.o.println("100");

Case 1000:

-128 to
127

S.o.println("1000");

{

C.E:- possible loss of precision

→ found: byte int

→ required: byte.

```
byte b=10;
```

```
switch(b+1)
  |
```

Case 10:

S.o.println("10");

Case 100:

S.o.println("100");

Case 1000:

S.o.println("1000");

{



→ Every Case label should be a valid Compiletime Constant, if we are taking a variable as Case label we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

```
int x=10;
```

```
int y=20;
```

```
switch(x)
```

```
}
```

```
Case 10:
```

```
s.o.println("10");
```

```
Case y:
```

```
}
```

```
| s.o.println("20"); X
```

```
X
```

C.E! Constant Expression required.

Suppose final int y=20;

```
Case y:
```

```
s.o.println("20");
```

→ If we declare y as final then we wont to get any compiletime error

→ Expressions are allowed for both Switch Argument & Case label but Case label should be Constant Expression

Ex:- int x=10;

```
switch(x+1)
```

```
}
```

```
Case 10:
```

```
s.o.println("10");
```



```
Case 10+20:
```

```
s.o.println("10+20");
```

```
}
```

→ duplicate Case labels are not allowed.

e.g. int x=10;

Switch(x)



Case 97:

s.o.println("97");

Case 98:

s.o.println("98");

Case 99:

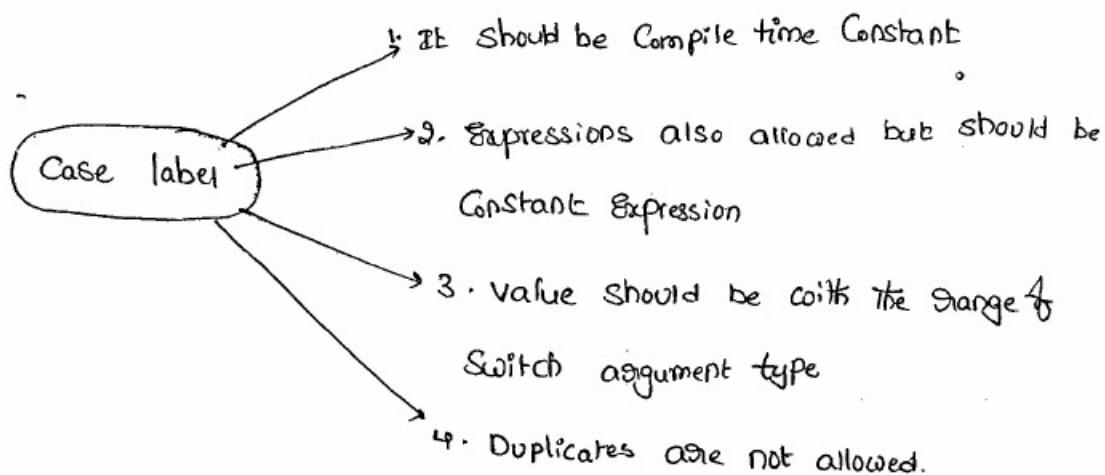
s.o.println("99");

Case 'a':

s.o.println("a"); X

C.E.: duplicate Case label

Summary:-



Fall-through inside switch :

→ Within the Switch Statement if any Case is matched from that case onwards all statements will be executed until break statement or end of the switch. This is called fall-through in inside switch.

Ex:- `switch (x)`

}

Case 0:

`s.o.println ("0");`

Case 1:

`s.o.println ("1");`

`break;`

Case 2:

`s.o.println ("2");`

default:

`s.o.println ("def");`

}

Op:-

if $x=0$:-

0
1

if $x=1$:-

1

if $x=2$:-

2
def

if $x=3$:-

def

→ fall-through inside switch is useful to define some common action for several cases.

Ex:- Switch(x)

↓

Case 3:

Case 4:

Case 5:

 s.o.println("Summer");

 break;

Case 6:

Case 7:

Case 8:

Case 9:

 s.o.println("Rainy");

 break;

Case 10:

Case 11:

Case 12:

Case 13:

Case 14:

 s.o.println("winter");

 break;

Default Case :-

→ We can use default case to define default action.

→ This case will be executed iff no other case is matched

→ We can take default case anywhere within the switch but it is convention to take as last case.

Ex:- Switch(x)

↓

default: s.o.println("def");

$$\frac{x=0}{0} \quad \frac{x=1}{2}$$

Case 0: s.o.println("0");

$$\frac{x=2}{2} \quad \frac{x=3}{def}$$

 break;

Case 1: s.o.println("1");

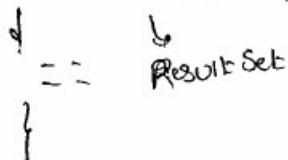
Case 2: s.o.println("2");

(b) Iterative Statements :-

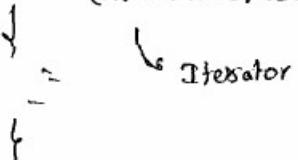
(i) while :-

→ if we don't know the no. of iterations in advance then the best suitable loop is while loop.

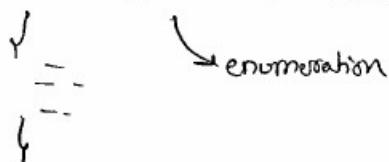
Ex:- ① `while(rs.next())`



② `while(it.hasNext())`



③ `while(e.hasMoreElements())`



Syntax :-

`while(b)` → boolean type

↓

Action

{

→ The argument to the while loop should be boolean type.
if we are using any other type we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:- `while(1)`

↓

`s.o.println("Hello");`

{

C.E :- Incompatible types

Found : int

Required : boolean

→ C-style braces are optional and without C-style braces we can take only one statement which should not be declarative statement.

Ex(1)

while (true)

 S.o.println("Hello");



while (true);



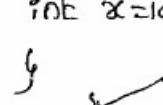
while (true)

 int x=10;



while (true)

 int x=10;



Ex(2):

① while (true)

{

 S.o.println("Hello");

}

 S.o.println("Hi");



C.E:- unreachable statements

② while (false)

{

 S.o.println("Hello");

}

 S.o.println("Hi");



C.E:- unreachable statements

③ int a=10, b=20;

 while (a < b)

{

 S.o.println("Hello");

}

 S.o.println("Hi");

}



O/P:- Hello
Hello
Hello

;

;

④ final int a=10, b=20;

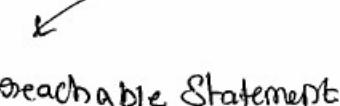
 while (a < b)

{

 S.o.println("Hello");

}

 S.o.println("Hi");



Unreachable Statement

④ do-while :-

→ If we want to execute loop body atleast once then we should go for do-while loop.

Syn:-

```
do  
{  
    Action  
} while(b);
```

should be boolean type
mandatory

→ Curly braces are optional & without having curly braces we can take only one statement b/w do & while which should not be declarative statement.

Ex:-	① do S.o.println("Hello"); while(true);	② do; while(true);	③ do int x=10; while(true);	④ do int x=10; while(true);
①	✓	✓	✗	✓
②	Compulsory one statement declare (or) take ";"			

⑤ do while(true)

```
S.o.println("Hello");  
while(false);
```

O/P:- Hello
Hello

Note:-

";" is a valid java statement

```
do  
while(true)  
S.o.println("Hello")  
while(false);
```

Ex-①

```

do      X
|
S.o.println("Hello");
|
}
while(true);
X S.o.println("Hi");
L.E! unreachable statements
  
```

X

②

```

do
|
S.o.println("Hello");
|
}
while(false);
S.o.println("Hi");
L.E! O/P:- Hello
  
```

✓

③

```

int a=10, b=20;
do
|
S.o.println("Hello");
|
}
while(a < b);
S.o.println("Hi");
O/P:- Hello
      +Hello
      └─
  
```

④

```

int a=10, b=20;
do
|
S.o.println("Hello");
|
}
while(a > b);
S.o.println("Hi");
O/P:- Hello
+Hi
  
```

⑤ final int a=10, b=20;

do

|

S.o.println("Hello");

|

while(a < b);

X S.o.println("Hi");

L.E! - unreachable statement

⑥

final int a=10, b=20;

do

|

S.o.println("Hello");

|

while(a > b);

S.o.println("Hi");

O/P:- Hello
 +Hi
 ✓

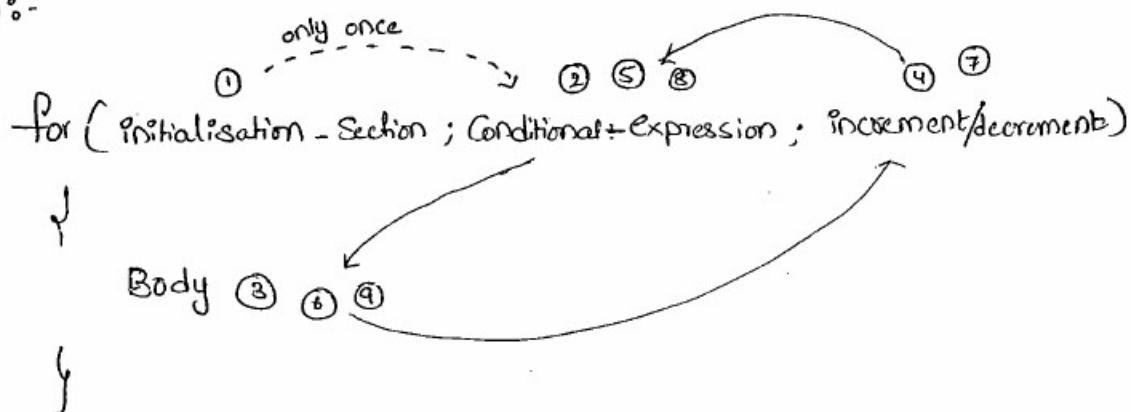
1000
900
800
700
600
500
400
300
200
100
0

1000
900
800
700
600
500
400
300
200
100
0

for() :-

→ This is the most commonly used loop

Syntax:-



- Curly braces are optional & without curly braces we can take only one statement which should not be declarative statement.

(a) Initialization-Section :-

→ This will be executed only once.

→ Usually we are just declaring and performing initialization for the variables in this section.

→ Here we can declare multiple variables of the same type but different datatype variables we can't declare.

Ex:- ① int i=0, j=0; ✓

② int i=0, byte b=0; ✗

③ int i=0, int j=0; ✗

→ In the initialization section we can take any valid java statement

including S.O.P. also

Ex:-

```

int i=0;
for( System.out.println("Hello U R Sleeping"); i<3 ; i++)
{
    System.out.println(" No Boss U only sleeping");
}

```

O/P:- Hello U R Sleeping

No Boss U only sleeping
 No Boss U only sleeping
 No Boss U only sleeping

Conditional Expression:-

- Here, we can take any Java Expression but the result should be boolean type.
- It is optional and if we are not specifying then Compiler will always places "True".

Encaement & decrement Section :-

- We can take any valid Java Statement including S.O.P() also.

Ex:-

```

int i=0;
for( S.O.P("Hello"); i<3 ; S.O.P("Hi"))
{
    System.out.println( i++);
}

```

O/P:-
 Hello
 Hi
 Hi

→ All 3 parts of for loop are independent of each other. 60

→ All 3 parts of for loop are optional

Ex:- $\text{for}(\text{; } \text{; }) ;$ Statement
So, it is True.

⇒ Represent infinite loop

Note:-

; is a valid Java Statement

Ex:-

```
for(int i=0; true; i++)  
}  
System.out.println("Hello");  
}  
System.out.println("Hi"); X  
C.E:- unreachable
```

```
for(int i=0; false; i++)  
}  
System.out.println("Hello");  
}  
System.out.println("Hi"); X  
C.E:- unreachable
```

```
for(int i=0; ; i++)  
}  
System.out.println("Hello");  
}  
System.out.println("Hi"); X  
C.E:- unreachable
```

```
int a=10, b=20;  
  
for(int i=0; a < b; i++)  
}  
System.out.println("Hello");  
}  
System.out.println("Hi");  
  
O/P:- Hello ✓  
Hello  
;
```

```
final int a=10, b=20;  
  
for(int i=0; a < b; i++)  
    True  
}  
System.out.println("Hello");  
}  
System.out.println("Hi"); X  
  
O/P:- C.E:- unreachable statement.
```

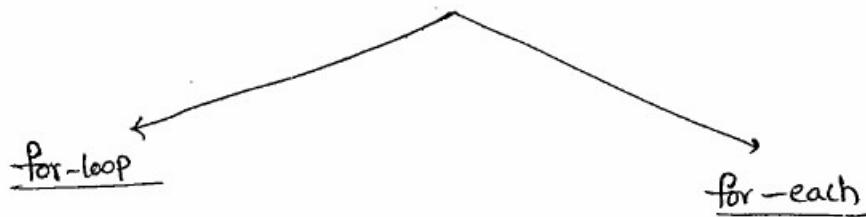
for-each() Loop :- (Enhanced for loop) :-

→ Introduced in 1.5v. This

→ This is the most Convenient loop to retrieve the elements of Arrays & Collections

Ex:- ① Point elements of Single dimensional Array by using General & enhanced for loops

int[] a = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};



for(int i=0; i<a.length; i++)

↓

System.out.println(a[i]);

}

10
20
30
40
50

for (int x : a)

↓

System.out.println(x);

}

10
20
30
40
50

② Point the elements of 2D-int Array by using General & for-each loop

int[][] a = {{10, 20, 30}, {40, 50}};

for-loop

for(int i=0; i<a.length; i++)

↓

for (int j=0; j<a[i].length; j++)

↓

System.out.println(a[i][j]);

}

for-each

for (int[] x : a)

↓

for (int y : x)

↓

System.out.println(y);

10
20
30
40
50

→ Even though for-each loop is more convenient to use, but it has the following limitations.

(i) It is not a general purpose loop -

(ii) It is applicable only for Arrays & Collections

(iii) By using for-each loop we should therefore all values of Arrays & Collections and can't be used to retrieve a particular set of values.

(C) Transfer Statements :-

(1) break :-

→ We can use break statement in the following cases

(i) within the switch to stop fall through

(ii) inside loops to break the loop execution based on some condition

(iii) inside labeled blocks to break that block execution based on some condition.

Ex:-

Switch (b)

```

    {
        !
        break;
    }
  
```

```

for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
{
    if (i==5)
        break;
    System.out.println(i);
}
  
```

Class Test

```

}
P.S.V.M ( → )
  
```

```

int i=10;
  
```

```

l:
  
```

```

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

```

if (i == 10)
  
```

```

break l;
  
```

```

System.out.println("Hi!");
  
```

```

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

Output
Hello
End

→ If we are using break Statement Any where else we will get
Compiletime Error

Ex:- Class Test

```
{  
    P-S-V.m(c ----)  
    {  
        int x=10;  
        if(x==10)  
            break;  
        S.out("Hello");  
    }  
}
```

C.E break outside Switch or loop.

Continue Statement:

→ We can use Continue Statement to skip Current Iteration and
Continue for the Next Iteration Inside loops

Ex:-

```
for(int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)  
{  
    if(i%2 == 0)  
        Continue;  
    S.out(i);  
}  
1  
3  
5  
7  
9
```

→ If we are using Continue outside of loops we will get
Compiletime Error.

Ex:- int x=10;

if ($x == 10$)

 Continue;

 S.o.println("Hello");

C.E:- Continue outside of loop

Labeled break & Continue Statements:-

→ In the Case of Nested loops to break and Continue a particular loop we should go for labeled break & Continue statements.

Ex:-

$l_1:$

for (----)



$l_2:$

for (----)



for (----)



break l_1 ;

break l_2 ;

break;



Ex 2:-

$l_1:$

for (int i=0; i<3; i++)



 for (int j=0; j<3; j++)



 if (i==j)

 break;

 S.o.println(i+"-----"+j);



 }



break l_1 ;

1-----0
2-----0

break l_1 ;

No output

Continue :- 0---1 2---0
 0---2 2---1

Continue l_1 :-
 1---0
 1---2

1....0
2....0
2....1

do-while Vs Continue :- (Very hot combination)

N=1

Ex:- int x=0;

do
↓

x++;

S.o.println(x);

if (++x < 5)

Continue;

x++;

S.o.println(x);

} while (++x < 10);

O
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
x = 0
x < 5
x < 10

X
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
x < 5
x < 10
x < 10

Imp Note:-

→ Compiler will check for unreachable statements only in the case of loops but not in 'if - else'.

Ex:- ① if (true)

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

{
else

} S.o.println("Hi");

{

O/P!.. Hello

② while(true)

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

{

S.o.println("Hi");

→ C.E :-

Unreachable
Statement

س ب)

ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب)

ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب) ب)

ب)

Declarations & Access Modifiers

- ① Java Source file Structure (1 - 9)
- ② Class modifiers (10 - 14)
- ③ member modifiers (15 - 23)
- * ④ Interfaces (24 - 31)

Package :-

Java Source file Structure :-

- A Java program can contain any no. of classes but atmost one class can be declared as the public. If there is a public class the name of the program & name of public class must be matched otherwise we will get CompiletimeError.
- If there is no public class then we can use any name as Java source file name, there are no restrictions.

Ex:- Class A

|

↓

Class B

|

↓

Class C

|

↓

Save: S01.java (1) ~
R.java (1) ✓
D.java (1) ✓

Case(1):-

If there is no public class then we can use any name as Java source file name.

- Ex:- A.java ✓
B.java ✓
C.java ✓
Durga.java ✓

Case 2:-

If Class B declared as public & the program name is A.java,

Then we will get CompiletimeError saying,

"Class B is public should be declared in a file named B.java"

Case 3:-

If we declare Both A & B classes as public if name of the program is B.java then we will get CompiletimeError saying.

"Class A is public should be declared in a file named A.java".

Ex:-

Class A

{

P.S.V.m(String[] args)

{

S.o.println("A class main method");

}

Class B

{

P.S.V.m(String[] args)

{

S.o.println("B class main method");

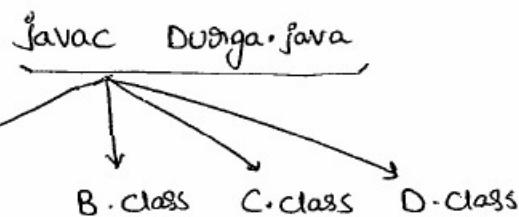
}

Class C
 ↓
 P.S.V.m(String[] args)
 ↓

S.o.println("C class main method");

Class D
 ↓
 ↓

Save ⇒ Durga.java



① java A ←

A class main method

② java B ←

B class main method

③ java C ←

C class main method

④ java D ←

R.E!- NoSuchMethodError: main

⑤ java Durga ←

R.E!- NOClassDefFoundError: Durga