## JAVA

\*USING IntelliJ

// Single line comment

/\* …………………………  
 Multiple lines comment  
\*/

#Right click on project > Open module setting > Java 8   
#File > project structure > Program language level – 8

JAVA BASICS

## VARIABLES

into number; //declaration  
number = 7; //assignment or definition

A variable can be reassigned but not re-declared. Variable names start with letters and should only include letters, numbers, and underscores.

\n //new line character

## INPUT

import java.util.Scanner; //imports scanner class

Scanner in = new Scanner(System.in); //declare scanner, scanner\_name is “in”  
System.out.println(“Enter a radius: “); //ask for input  
double radius = in.nextDouble(); //store input  
in.close(); //close scanner

scanner\_name.nextInt() – to get an into  
scanner\_name.next() – get a string  
scanner\_name.nextLine() – to get a line from user

NOTE: Use scanner.nextLine() after using scanner.nextInt() or scanner.nextDouble() in order to remove the enter key from the input buffer

scanner.hasNextInt(); //it returns true if the input in scanner is int type, otherwise false

**>>> Program 1\_Hello\_world <<<**

**>>> Program 3.2\_User\_input <<<**

## OUTPUT

\r in System.out.println(“Enter: “); takes the cursor to next line. It is similar to \n in System.out.printf(“Enter: \n”);

## DATA TYPES

Key data types:

* byte - from -128 to 127 //width – 1 byte
* short – from -32767 to 32767 //width – 2 bytes
* int – integer value, 4 bytes
* long – integer value, 8 bytes
* float – whole number, 4 bytes
* double – whole number, 8 bytes //default whole number data type for Java
* char – single character, 2 bytes
* boolean – true or false

char a = ‘\u00A9’ //to represent Unicode character, eg 00A9 is for copyright symbol character  
long num1 = 123L  
float num2 = 1.1f  
double num3 = 2.22d

//use underscores to make up large numbers  
long number1 = 123\_323\_567\_890L

NOTE: Java automatically converts integers to int on assignments  
byte new\_byte = 12;  
byte byte\_2 = new\_byte/2; //this will give an error  
byte byte\_2 = (byte) (new\_byte/2); //casting to byte

**STRING**

String my\_string = “a string example”;  
String string2 = “String – “;

String concatenation

String new\_string = string2 + my\_string + “ – \u00A9 2015”;  
//new\_string will be “String – a string example - © 2015”

NOTE: if you add an int or any other number data type to a string, Java will convert the int or any other number data type to string before adding them as strings

OPERATORS

Assignment =  
Arithmetic + - \* / %  
Unary ++ -- !  
Equality/Relational == != > < >= <=  
Conditional && || ?:  
Bitwise >> << & | ^

Ternary Operator (shorthand for if-then-else)

boolean a = true;  
int b = a? 2:3; // here b will be 2 if a is true and b will be 3 if a is false (a must be boolean type)

KEYWORDS

Keywords are one of 53 reserved words  
List - <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Java_keywords>

## EXPRESSION AND STATEMENT

Expression – variables + operator + values  
Statement – Expression + data\_type + ;

int number = (100\*123); //Statement  
number = (100\*123) //Expression

System.out.println(“This part is expression”); //statement

NOTE: The following code is a valid Java statement

System.out.println(“This is”+  
 “still a valid“+  
 “Java statement”);

Whitespaces – space, tab, enter

Use whitespaces and indents to format the code for better appearance.

## CONTROL FLOW STATEMENTS

if(condition)  
 statement;

if(condition)  
{  
 statement;  
}  
else if(condition2)  
{  
 statement2;  
}  
else  
{  
 statement3;  
}

VARIABLE SCOPE (Code Block)  
The region from the variable declaration to the corresponding } where it is alive refers to variable scope.

METHOD in main class

In Java, you can declare and define functions after the main function.

public static return\_type method\_name(arg\_type arg\_name, … )  
{  
 //method implementation  
 return return\_value;  
}

**>>> Program 2.1\_Circle\_area <<<**

**>>> Program 2.2\_Leap\_year <<<**

**INTELLIJ tricks**psvm +tab //creates public static void main(String[] args) { }   
sout +tab //create System.out.println(“ “);

## METHOD OVERLOADING

Creating new implementation for already existing functions, with the same name but with different arguments (number or type) – Method overloading

Method overloading does not affect return type. In other words, the return type of the new function should be same as that of overloaded function.

CONSTANTS for a class

private static final c\_type c\_name = c\_value; //final makes it constant

STATIC

Static methods can be accessed without creating an instance of the class. The constants that are accessed by such static methods need to be static as well.

**>>> Program 3.1\_Method\_overloading <<<**

CONTROL FLOW STATEMENTS continued…

NOTE:  
- break is used to get out from a loop (for,switch, or while)  
- continue is used to jump to next iteration of the loop

SWITCH Statement

switch(switch\_vaue)  
{  
 case 1:   
 …………………  
 break;  
 case 2:  
 …………………  
 break;  
 …  
 default:  
 ………………..  
 break;  
}

//when multiple cases have same statements to execute  
case 1: case 2: case 3:  
 ……………………………  
 break;

FOR LOOP

for(initialization; condition; increment)  
{  
 …………  
}

//declaring i within for loop is allowed in Java

NOTE: To print a printf type line in a println statement:  
System.out.println(“My lucky number is” + String.format(“%d”,10));

WHILE LOOP

It is used when we do not know the number of iterations.

initialization;  
while(condition)  
{  
 ……………  
 increment;  
}

DO WHILE LOOP

It is used when the code needs to run once before checking the condition.

initialization  
do  
{  
 ………..  
 increment;  
} while(condition)

## STRING OPERATIONS

* Length of a string  
  int length = var\_name.length();
* String concatenation  
  String name = f\_name + l\_name;
* Characters  
  char var\_char = string\_name.charAt(int\_position);
* Substring  
  String var\_name = string\_name.substring(start\_index,end\_index);
* Split  
  String[] data = my\_string.split(delimiters,…);

Example:   
String name = “Vader”;  
String substring = name.substring(0,2) //this will be “Va” and not “Vad”  
String substring = name.substring(2) //this will be “der”, from 2 to the end

* Converting numbers to String  
  String a = Integer.toString(int\_val);  
  String b = Double.toString(double\_val);
* Converting character to String  
  String c = Character.toString(char\_val);
* Changing to Uppercase and lowercase  
  String y\_string = x\_string.toUpperCase();  
  String z\_string = x\_string.toLowerCase();
* Comparison of Strings

a\_string.equals(b\_string) //return boolean  
a\_string.compareTo(b\_string)  
// returns 0 if strings are same  
// returns negative value if a\_string comes before the b\_string in Java  
// returns positive value if a\_string comes after the b\_string

NOTE: Uppercase letters come before lowercase letters in Java

PARSING VALUES FROM STRING

//parsing string to a number  
int number = Integer.parseInt(a\_string);  
double number2 = Double.parseDouble(b\_string);

//if the parsing fails, it will throw an error (java.lang.NumberFormatException)

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

OBJECT – Real world objects with two characteristics: state and behavior

CLASS – a template for creating an object

Benefits of using class:  
1. Restrict access to the data  
2. Create your own data type

Access modifiers – public, private, protected

//class definition   
public class class\_name  
{  
 //variables  
 //constructor  
 //methods  
}

//creating object in main (using default empty class constructor)  
 Class\_name object\_name = new Class\_name();

Variables are initialized to NULL by default when a class is initialized without any parameter.  
  
  
GETTERS AND SETTERS  
  
Usually, the variables of a class are private. In order to access those variables, we need to use getters and setters methods. This is done so that only valid values could be set to the variables.

public void set\_variable\_x(int x)  
{  
 if(x > 0)  
 this.x = x;  
 else   
 this.x = 0;   
}

public int get\_variable\_x()  
{  
 return this.x;  
}

**INTELLIJ tricks:**Getters and setters as well as other general functions can be automically generated using IntelliJ   
( Code > Generate OR Alt+Insert ) > Choose function

## CONSTRUCTORS

Constructor is a special method that initializes the variables of the object. A class can have multiple constructors, each for different cases. A constructor name must be same as class name.

//calling another constructor form a constructor

public class\_name()  
{  
 this(11,”hello”); // when using “this()”, this line must be the first line in constructor  
 system.out.println(“Empty constructor”);  
}  
public class\_name(int x, String y)  
{  
 this.x = x; //it is better to set variables directly rather than using setter function here  
 this.y = y;  
}

**NOTE**: When coding multiple constructors for a class, use constructor chaining. That means, make a constructor initialize all the fields and call this base constructor in other constructors.

**>>> Program 4.1\_Getters\_and\_Setters <<<**

* “this” keyword is used to access current class members (variables and methods) – usually required when we have arguments with same name as class member
* “super” keyword is used to access parent class members (variables and methods)

## INHERITANCE

Inheritance is used to inherit the state and behavior of a class to another class.

Inheritance establishes IS-A relationship between a parent class and a child class. That means German shepherd (child class) is a dog (parent class). So, if we setup a function that has return type of parent class (dog), it can also return an object of type child class (german shepherd) and that returned child object can be assigned as parent class object in the callee function.

public class child\_class extends parent\_class   
{  
 private int child\_var1;  
 private String child\_var2;

public child\_class(int var0, int var1, String var2)  
 {  
 super(var0); //will set parent\_var0 to var0  
 this.child\_var1 = var1;  
 this.child\_var2 = var2;  
 }  
 }

**NOTE**: Every class created in java inherits from a default java class called Object.

Method Override  
A child class can access the parent methods to define its own behavior. When a parent method is rewritten in child class to make it unique to the child class, it is said to be method overriding.

@Override //symbol to represt method override in Java, helps compiler  
public parent\_method(int var1) //In child class  
{  
 child\_method(int var1); //to use different method when parent\_method is called for child object  
 //OR  
 super.method\_name(var1\*x); //remodelling variable before using parent’s method  
}

**>>> Program 4.2\_Inheritance <<<**

* this() call is used to call a constructor from another overloaded constructor in the same class
* super() call is used to call a parent constructor from a child class, a default super() call is always added automatically to a child class by Java
* These two calls must be the first line when used in a constructor
* These two calls cannot be made at the same time in a constructor

REFERENCE – In Java, you always have references to an object in memory. There is no way to access an object directly, everything is done using a reference. An object can have multiple reference and a class can have multiple instances.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Method Overloading  OR  Compile-time Polymorphism | * Methods must have the same method name * Methods must have different parameters (type or number) * Methods may or may not have different return types and access modifiers |
| Method Overrding OR  Runtime Polymorphism | * Methods must have same name and same arguments * Return type can be a subclass of the return type in parent class * Cannot have a lower access modifier (private < protected < public) * Methods can be overriden only in child classes * Static methods, private methods, final methods, and constructors cannot be overriden |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Static methods | Static methods can not access instance methods or instance variables of a class directly. Also, this method can be called without instantiating an object for a class. Class\_name.method\_name(); |
| Instance methods | To use an instance method, we have to instantiate the class first using the new keyword. These methods can access all instance and static methods and variables directly. |
| Static variables | Every instance of a class shares the same static variable. So any change made to static variable is visible to every instance of the class. |
| Instance variables | Every instance of a class has its own copy of an instance variable. |

## COMPOSITION

While inheritance exhibits IS-A relationship between child class and parent class, composition exhibits HAS-A relationship. Composition is when an object of a class is included as a state in another class. This does not need any inheritance, but both class files must be in the same package. Using composition, one class can be used to manage other classes.

**>>> Program 4.3\_Composition <<<**

## ENCAPSULATION

We use encapsulation to restrict access to certain object, variable, or method. We use different levels of access modifiers for object, variables, and methods: public, protected, and private.

**INTELLIJ tricks**When you have to change a name of a variable in a class, do the following for one of them and it will update all the copies of that name.  
select > right click > Refactor > rename

## POLYMORPHISM

Polymorphism allows a method to behave differently at runtime depending on the object calling it (this usually needs inheritance in conjuction).

**INTELLIJ tricks**To create a similar class, we can copy a class:  
right click on class name > refactor > copy > //set new class name > OK

To move a class from external file to main class:  
right click on class name > refactor > move > make inner class of > main > OK

We can use getClass().getSimpleName() function to get class name as a string. getClass() is a method from Object class.

**>>> Program 4.4\_OOP\_review <<<**

DATA STRUCTURES

## ARRAY

import java.util.Arrays;  
  
**Declaration and definition**

data\_type[] my\_array = new data\_type[size];  
my\_array[0] = val0; //for loop can be used here  
my\_array[1] = val1;   
….  
OR  
data\_type[] my\_array = {val1, val2, …, valN};

**To get the size of an array**

int size = my\_array.length;

**Passing to and returning from a function**

public static data\_type[] my\_function(data\_type[] my\_array)   
 { return my\_array };  
Trying to access index that is out of range will result ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

**NOTE:** When an array is declared, all the elements are initialized to default values: 0 for int, false for boolean, NULL for String, etc.

**To print an array in same line using single print statement**System.out.println(“Array = “ + Arrays.toString(my\_array));

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Reference types** | These are data types which hold reference to other data types or objects  Example: Array, String  int[] array1 = new int[5]; int[] array2 = array1;  These two arrays will point to same set data. So changing one will change both |
| **Value types** | All primitive data types are value types. That means they hold value.  int a = 5;  int b = a;  Here a and b share same value. But changing one does not change another |

**NOTE:** int max = Integer.MAX\_VALUE; //this will give the max value possible for an integer data type

**>>> Program 5.1\_Arrays <<<**

## ARRAY LIST

import.java.util.ArrayList;

**Declaration and definition**

ArrayList<class\_data\_type> my\_list = new ArrayList<data\_type>()  
my\_list.add(val1);  
my\_list.add(val2);  
…

An array is a data type whereas an ArrayList is a class. So, we have to use class constructor and methods. The size of an array can not be changed directly after its declaration. The size of the ArrayList is dynamic.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Add an element at position pos** | my\_list.add(pos, val); |
| **Get the size of an ArrayList** | my\_list.size(); |
| **Access the elements** | my\_list.get(position); |
| **Change an element at position pos** | my\_list.set(pos, new\_val); |
| **Remove an element at position pos** | my\_list.remove(pos); |
| **Check if the list is empty** | boolean check = my\_list.isEmpty(); |
| **Check if an element is present** | boolean value = my\_list.contains(value); |
| **Get index of an element** | int position = my\_list.indexOf(value);  //returns -1 if the element is not present |
| **Copy an ArrayList to new ArrayList** | ArrayList<data\_type> new\_list = new ArrayList<data\_type>(); new\_list.addAll(my\_list)); OR ArrayList<data\_type> new\_list = new ArrayList<data\_type>(my\_list); |
| **Convert ArrayList to an array** | data\_type[] my\_arr = new data\_type[my\_list.size()]; my\_arr = my\_list.toArray(my\_arr); |
| **Print an ArrayList** | System.out.println(my\_list); |

**>>> Program 5.2\_ArrayList <<<**

## Autoboxing and Unboxing

The data\_type to be used in an arraylist must be a class. We cannot make an arraylist of primitive data type. But there exist corresponding class data type for each primitive data type. This process of converting primitive data type to class data type (which acts as a wrapper to the primitive data type) is refered as autoboxing. On the other hand, unboxing is when we convert the class data type to a primitive data type (removing the wrapper class).

For example, Integer is class data type for int, Double is class data type for double, etc.

**NOTE:** String is not a primitive data type. It is rather a class data type.

Integer my\_integer = new Integer(2);  
OR  
Integer my\_integer = Integer.valueOf(2); //Autoboxing  
int my\_int = my\_integer.intValue(); //Unboxing

However, Java does the autoboxing and unboxing automatically. So the following code executes same as above.

Integer my\_integer = 2;   
int my\_int = my\_integer;

**FOR EACH LOOP**

ArrayList<String> names = new ArrayList<String>();  
for(int i=0; i < names.size(); i++)  
 System.out.println(names.get(i));

OR  
ArrayList<String> names = new ArrayList<String>();  
for(String name: names)  
 System.out.println(name);

**>>> Program 5.3\_Autoboxing\_and\_unboxing <<<**

## LINKED LIST

import.java.util.ArrayList;

For operations on large number of data, ArrayList would take up a lot of time. In that case, we prefer linked list, since operations such as adding and removing are faster using linked list.

**Declaration**LinkedList<String> my\_list = new LinkedList<String>();

LinkedList has same operations as an ArrayList.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **To get first element** | my\_list.getFirst(); |

**ITERATOR**

import.java.util.ArrayList;An iterator iterates through a given list.

Iterator<String> it = my\_list.iterator(); //it does not point to first item here  
while(it.hasNext()) //it points to first item after first it.hasNext()  
 System.out.println(i.next());

Capture.PNG

ListIterator provides more flexibility as it is bi-directional. But it only applies to list classes.

ListIterator<Integer> it = my\_list.listIterator();  
while(it.hasNext()) //ListIterator also has it.hasPrevious()  
{  
 if(val1 < it.next())   
 {  
 it.previos();  
 it.add(val1);  
 }

}

**NOTE:** it.remove() removes the last item returned by next() or previous(), and it can be called only once per next() or previous()

**>>> Program 5.4\_LinkedList <<<**

Inner and Abstract Classes and Interfaces

## Interfaces

Interface does not contain any code implementation and is rather used for abstraction.

Like a class, an interface can have methods and variables, but   
- the methods declared in interface are by default abstract (only method signature, no body)  
- all methods are public and abstract (can with implementation since Java 8 and can be private since Java 9)  
- all fields are public, static, and final

Interface acts as a blueprint for a class. A class that implements an interface must define all the methods present in the interface, otherwise it is considered as abstract class.

**Syntax:**public interface Interface\_name  
{  
 //declare constant fields and abstract methods  
 return\_type method(arg1, …);  
 data\_type var1;  
}

//implementation  
public class class\_name implements Interface\_name { }

**INTELLIJ tricks**To implement all the methods from an interface in a class:  
Alt+insert > Implement Methods > Select methods > OK

**NOTE:** An object can be **declared** as an interface type but it must be **defined** as a class type object.  
Example: Interface\_name my\_object = new class\_name(args, … );  
Here you will have to use class casting to access methods of the class that my\_object belongs to. On the positive side, you can hold different objects that have common interface in this way.

**NOTE:** A class can not inherit from multiple classes, but can implement multiple interfaces.

**>>> Program 6.1\_Interface <<<**

## Inner Classes (Nested Classes)

The class written within a class is called the nested class, and the class that holds the inner class is called the outer class.

**Syntax**public class Outer\_class()  
{  
 class Inner\_class() { }  
}

  
<source: tutorialspoint.com>

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Inner class | An object of outer class must be defined in order to declare an object for an inner class. The inner class can be either be public or private. The public inner class can be accessed from main as: Outer\_class.Inner\_class my\_obect = outer.new Inner\_class(args,…); |
| Method-local inner class | The scope of the inner class is limited within a method of the outer class. |
| Anonymous inner class | It has no name and thus needs to be defined and instantiated at the same time. |
| Static nested class | It is a static member of outer class. It can be accessed without instantiating the outer class. Just like static members, a static nested class does not have access to the instance variables and methods of the outer class. Outer\_class.Static\_nested my\_object = new Outer\_class.Static\_nested(args,…); |

**>>> Program 6.2\_Nested\_classes <<<**

**Abstract Class**

Abstraction – Declaring what needs to be done but not how it is to be done

Abstraction can be achieved by using either an interface or an abstract class. An interface can extend another interface.

The purpose of an Abstract class is to provide a common definition of a base class that multiple derived classes can share.

* If a class is declared abstract, it cannot be instantiated.
* Abstract classes may or may not contain abstract methods, i.e., methods without body ( public abstract void get(); )
* If a class has at least one abstract method, then the class **must**be declared abstract.
* To use an abstract class, you have to inherit it from another class, provide implementations to all the abstract methods in it.

Interface is used primarily when unrelated classes are expected to implement the interface.

GENERICS

We can make a method, class or interface that operates on a general data type. In other words, same declaration can accept multiple types of arguments.

**Generic method:**  
public static <E> return\_type foo(E my\_var)   
//<E> is not written if the method is a member of a generic class  
{  
 System.out.printf(“%s\n”,my\_var);  
 return E;  
}

**Generic class:**  
public class House<T> // T type can be any class-type and not primitive data types  
{  
 private T t;  
 public void House(T t)  
 {  
 this.t = t;  
 }  
 public T get()  
 {  
 return t;  
 }  
}

**In main:**  
foo(1); //prints 1  
foo(“ablaze”); //prints ablaze  
House<String> my\_house = new House<String>(“Green”);  
System.out.println(my\_house.get()); //prints Green

If no restriction is placed on T, any class-type can be set to the generic class. But if we can also set a upperbound on the type T:  
public class House<T extends upper\_class>   
{ … }

Here, any object of upper\_class or its child classes can only be the type for generic class House.

**Note:** A type in generic class can have multiple upperbounds (one class but multiple interfaces).  
public class House<T extends class\_A & interface\_B & interface\_C> { … }

**Comparable Interface**When a generic class implements a comparable interface, it has to implement compareTo() method. We can set that method to only allow comparing generic object with similar objects. We can also set desired field to be compare.   
public class House <T> implements Comparable<House<T> { … }

**>>> Program 7.1\_Generics <<<**

Naming Conventions and Packages

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| CATEGORY | CONVENTIONS |
| Packages | * lowercase, unique * internet domain name in reverse * if domain name contains invalid characters, start with number, or include Java keywords, it should be replaced/adjusted with underscore * Example: java.lang, java.io |
| Class name | * CamelCase * Example: ArrayList, LinkedList, String |
| Interface | * CamelCase |
| Method name | * mixedCase |
| Constants | * UPPER\_CASE |
| Variable name | * mixedCase * no underscores and start with lower case |
| Type parameters | * Single capital character * E – Element, K – Key, T – Type, V – Value |

**Packages**

We can not import two packages that have classes with same name. If we need to access the class from second package, we can do:  
com.package.second.MyClass myClassObject;  
However, this needs to be done for every time we use the object of MyClass from second package.

Java object class is imported from the package java.lang, and this import is done automatically.

import java.util.\*  
//this imports all the classes in package java.util  
//this is different than  
import java.util.test.\*  
//here java.util.test is a different package from java.util

**NOTE:**You can use:  
com.example.package\_name;  
org.example.package\_name;  
for the packages you are not going to distribute.

**>>> Program 8.1\_Packages <<<**

**Scope & Access Modifiers**

A class can access private variables from its inner class.

Top Level  
Classes, Enum, and Interfaces at top level must be public or package-private. Package-private is specified by not specifying (except interfaces where all methods and variables are private).

Member Level   
Public – can be accessed from anywhere  
Private – only visible to the class it is declared in  
Protected – visible in the same package or in subclasses anywhere

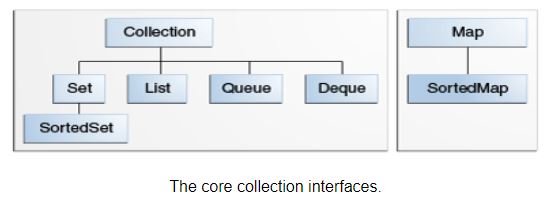
A static method can not call a non static method since non static method requires an instance of the class. But non static method can call static method.

Final keyword in a variable means that the variable can only be defined once either at the class definition or in the constructor. Final keyword in a class means that the class can not be changed or extended.

Java Collections

Collection frameworks:

* Interfaces
* Implementations (Classes)
* Alogrithms

  
<src - docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/collections/interfaces/ >

**>>> Program 9.1\_CollectionBinarySearch <<<**