

Durgasoft SCJP Notes

Part-1

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Language Fundamentals

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

* Rules to define identifiers:-

1) The only allowed characters in Java identifier are:

✓ $\left(\begin{array}{l} a \text{ to } z \\ A \text{ to } Z \\ 0 \text{ to } 9 \\ - \\ \$ \end{array} \right)$

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

Ex:-

✓ all-member

✗ all#

✓ -\$-\$

✗ 098\$-10

2) Identifier can't start 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 length (> 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.

Ex:-

Class Test

{

int String = 10;

System.out.println(String); 10

}

Class Test

{

int Runnable = 20;

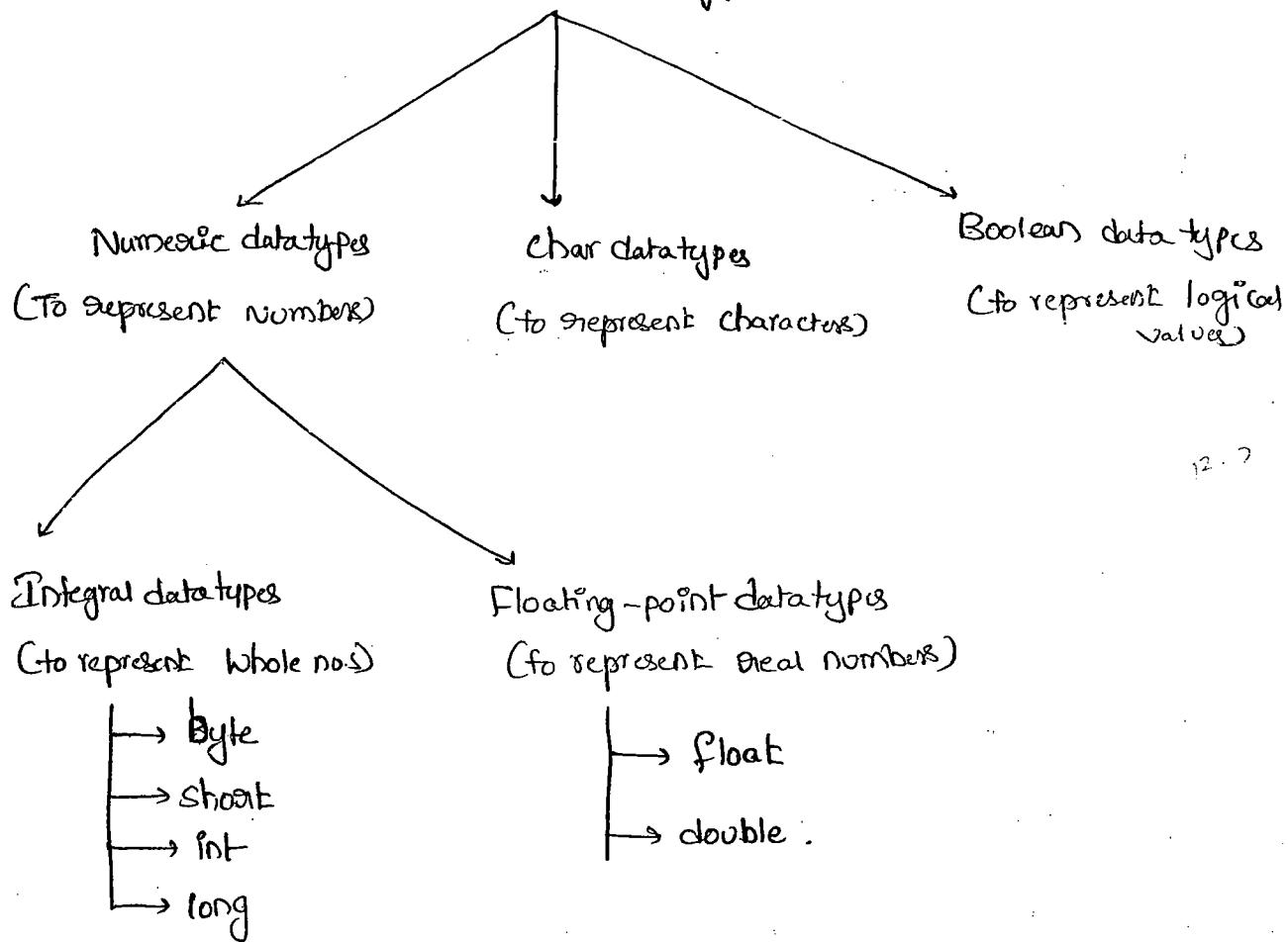
System.out.println(Runnable); 20

}

Q) Which of the following are valid Java identifiers?

- ① Java\$share
- ② 4shared
- ③ all@hands
- ④ total-not-Students
- ⑤ -\$-
- ⑥ total#
- ⑦ int
- ⑧ Integer

Primitive data types (8)



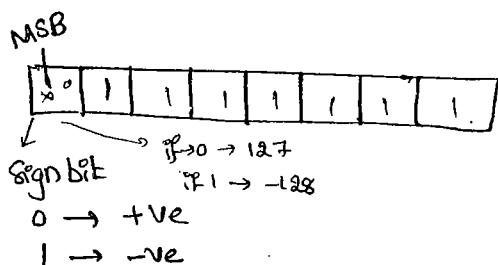
① Byte :-

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

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

7 of 255.

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 outdated.

(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

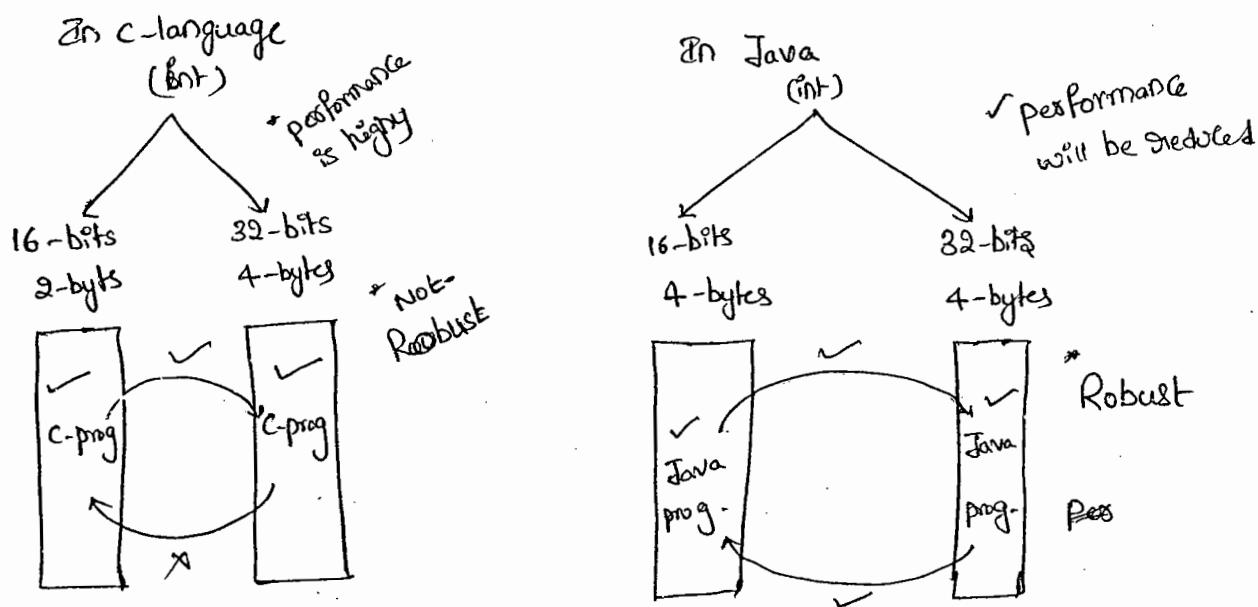
Very efficiently and performance will be improved. But the main

* disadvantage of this approach is the chance of failing 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.



3/08/11

4) long :-

→ When even 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

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

2)

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

System.out.println(b); true

Ex :-

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

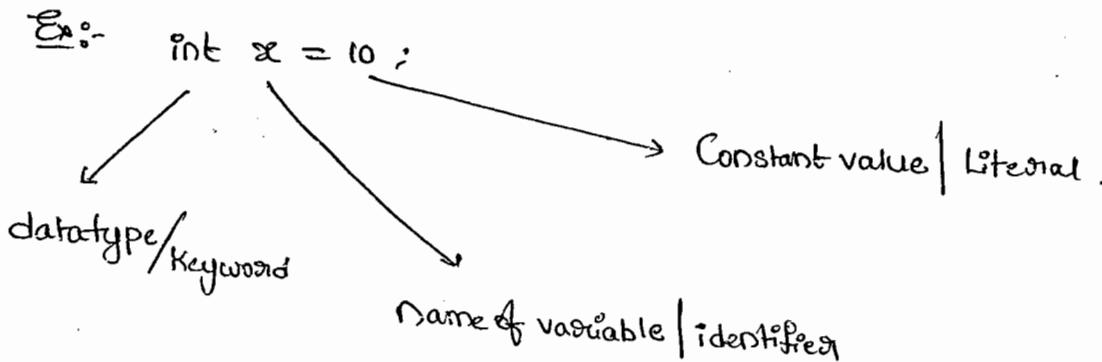
Range : 0 to 65535

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 (true in C++)

Literals :-

→ A Constant value which can be assign 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

Exo- int x = 0x10

(?)

int x = 0x10

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

Exo- class Test

{

p-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

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

}

Quesnall

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 to 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

✓ float f = 123.456f; Required: float
✓ 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 = 0xBear;

✓ 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~~

→ found: double

✓ 3) ~~float f = 1.2e3f; Required: float~~

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

Symbol: variable True

✓ 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 : int`
`R : 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 :-

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

Ex:- ✓ char ch = 'a';

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

Symbol: Variable a

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

C.E:- unclosed character literal

C.E:- unclosed "

C.E:- not a statement

2) char

2) 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);

X 3) char ch = 65536; C.E:- PLP

-found: int

Required: char

✓ 4) char ch = 0XFACE;

✓ 5) char ch = 0640;

3) A char literal can be represented in Unicode representation which is nothing but $\boxed{\text{\textbackslash Uxxxx}}$ 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.

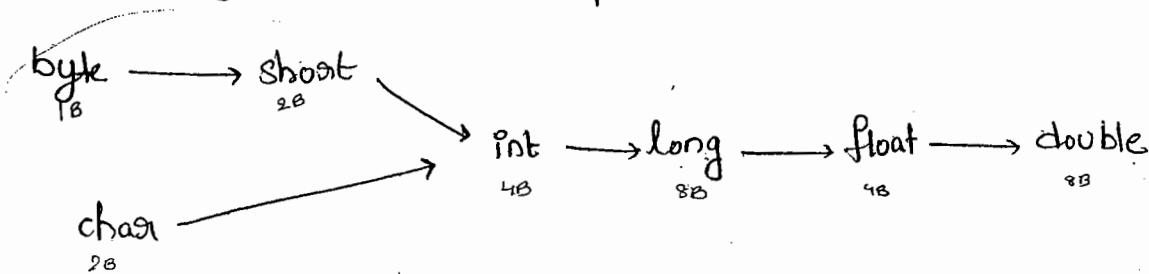
- ✓ 1) char ch = 0xbeaf;
- ✗ 2) char ch = \Ubeaf; because ' '
- ✗ 3) char ch = -10;
- ✗ 4) char ch = '*';
- ✓ 5) char ch = 'a';

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.

1) 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;` $a \rightarrow 1$
 $b \rightarrow 1$

2) `int[] a[],b;` $a \rightarrow 2$
 $b \rightarrow 1$

3) `int[] [] a, b;` $a \rightarrow 2$
 $b \rightarrow 2$

4) `int[] [] a, b[];` $a \rightarrow 2$
 $b \rightarrow 3$

5) `int[] [] a, [] b;` $a \rightarrow 2$
 $b \rightarrow 3$ C.E :-

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

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

Allowed not allowed;

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 data-types 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;

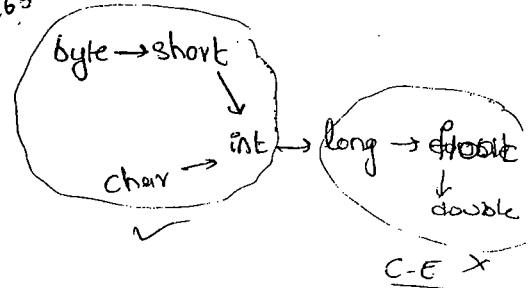
✓ `int[] a = new int[b];`

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.

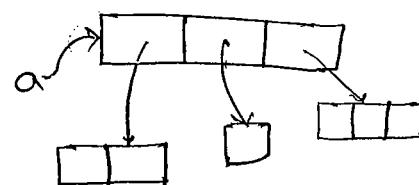
→ The main advantage of this approach is memory utilization will be improved.

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 9:

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

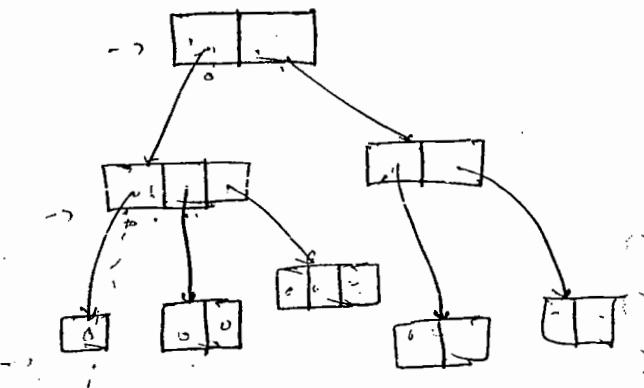
`a[0] = new int[3];`

`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][][5];`

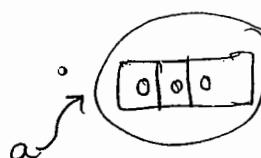
Array Initialization :-

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

Ex(1): `int[] a = new int[3];`

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

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

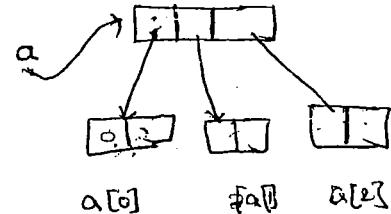


Note:- Whenever we are trying to print any object reference internally `toString()` will be called which is implemented as follows.

classname @ hexadecimal_string_of_hexcode.

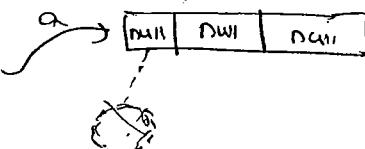
Ex(2):-

```
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):-

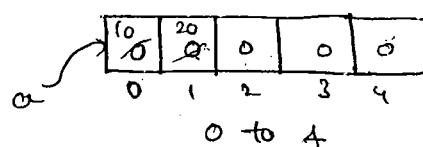
```
int[][] a = new int[3][];
System.out.println(a); [[I@-----
System.out.println(a[0]); null
System.out.println(a[0][0]); R.E! NPE
```



→ 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", "Daxmi", "Sundar"};

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

Ex(3):-

```

int[][] a = {{30, 40, 50}, {60, 70}};
            ↙   ↘
            a[0]  a[1]
            ↙   ↘
            30 40 50   60 70
            ↙   ↘
            a[0][0]  a[1][0]
    
```

→ 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} } }}`

`S.o.println(a[1][2][3]);` RE:- ALOBE

`S.o.println(a[0][1][0]);` 40

`S.o.println(a[1][1][0]);` 90

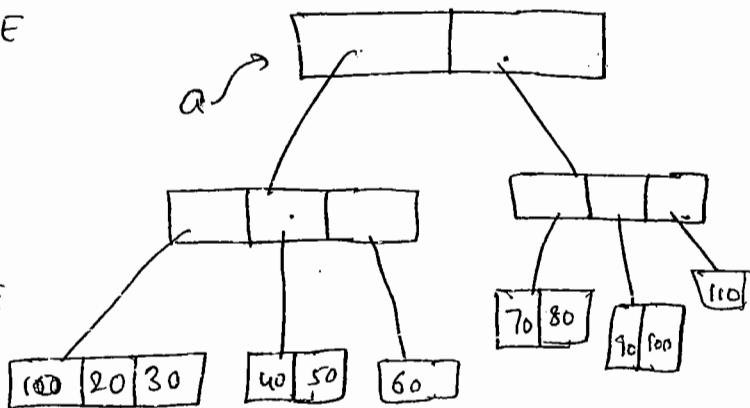
`S.o.println(a[3][1][2]);` RE:- ALOBE

`S.o.println(a[2][2][2]);` RE:- ALOBE

`S.o.println(a[1][1][1]);` 100

`S.o.println(a[0][0][1]);` 20

`S.o.println(a[1][0][2]);` RE:- ALOBE



→ 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

Eg:- `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.

Eg:-

`String s = "dogga";`

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

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

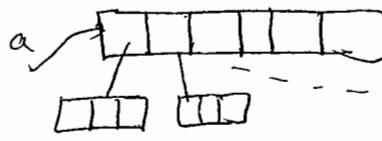
↳ E! Cannot find Symbol
Symbol: variable length
location: java.lang.String.

- 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:- ~~`X 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);
}

```

→ 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.println(s[0]); // A
System.out.println(s[i]); // B
System.out.println(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;

✓ $a[3] = s;$

✗ $a[4] = 10L; \text{ C.E! - PLP}$

found: long

Required: int

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

Required: float

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

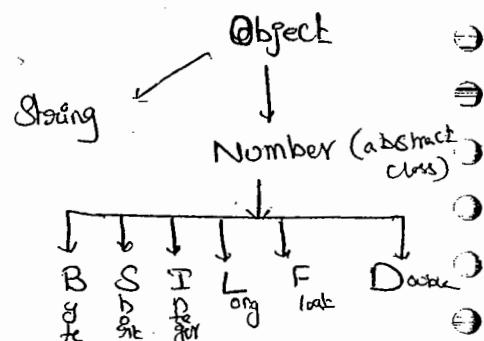
② Object[] a = new Object[10];

✓ 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

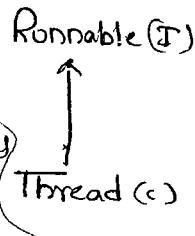
Can provide it's implementation class Objects

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

arr[0] = new Thread();

X arr[1] = new String("doings"); (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 it's child class Objects
3. abstract class type arrays	It's child class objects are allowed.
4. Interface type arrays	it's 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 = cb; 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.

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

✓ Object() a = s;

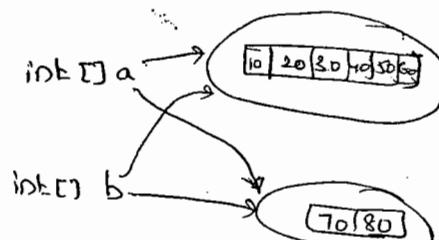
Ques(2):-

→ 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 sized.

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

✓ ① a = b;

✓ ② b = a;



Eg(3):

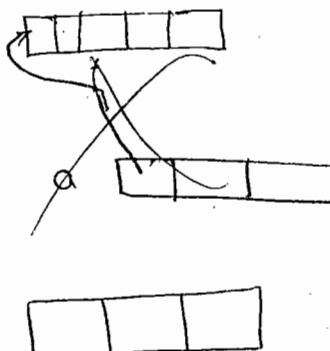
int [][] a = new int[3][2];

a[0] = new int[5];

a[1] = new int[4];

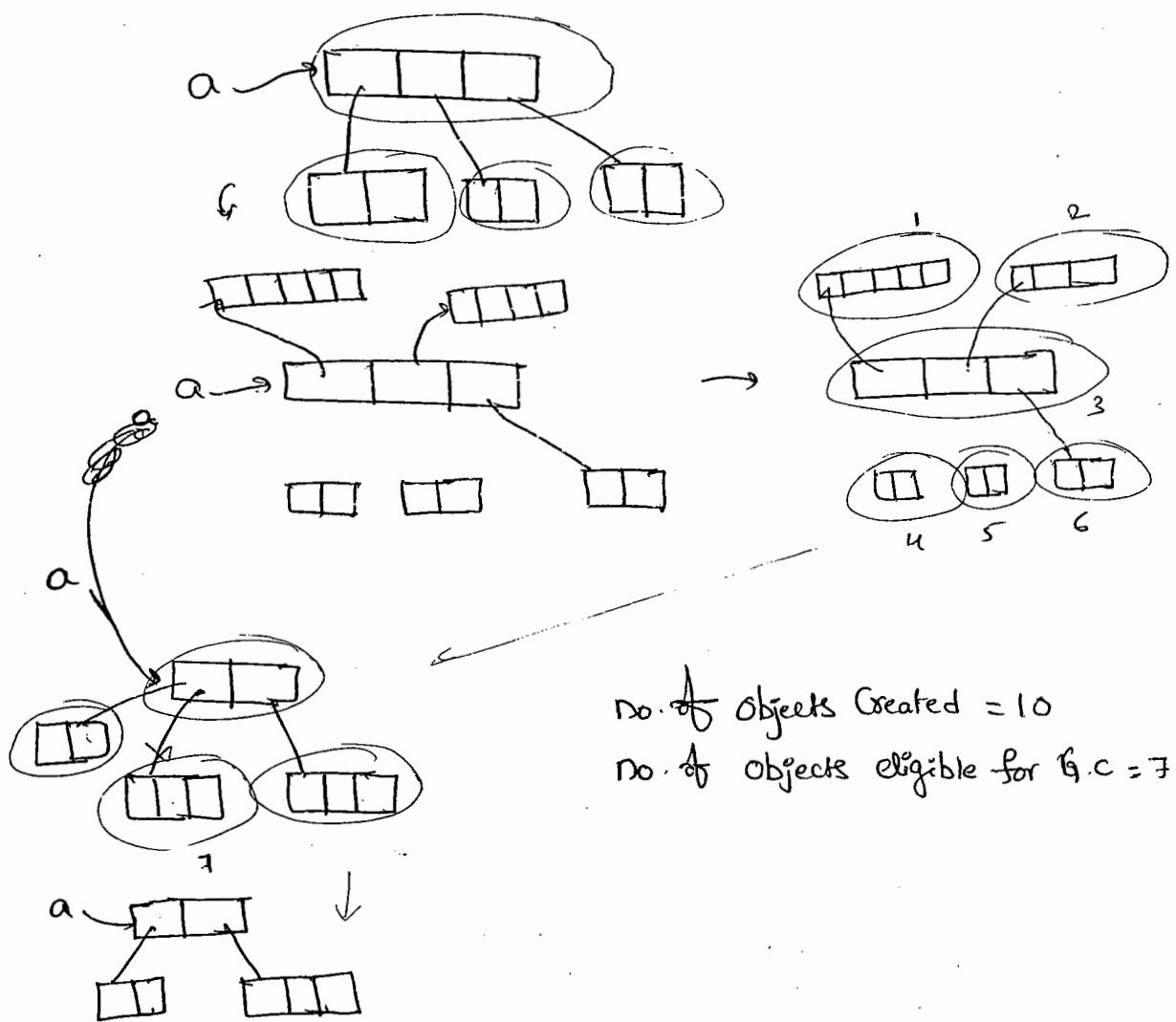
a = new int[2][3];

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

e.g:- `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[]

$a[0] = 10;$ 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

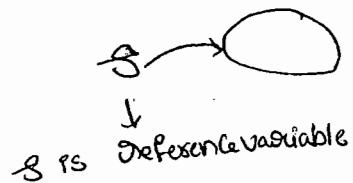
→ Can be used to represent primitive values

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 declare with in the class directly, But outside of any method or blocks or Construction.
- 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(x); ↗  
}
```

→ 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();

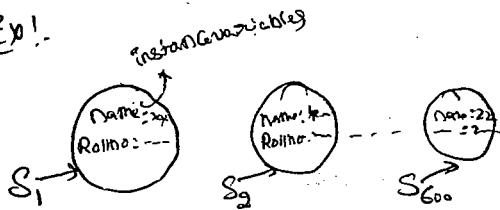
s.o.println(t.s); null

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  
CGPA: 3.5
```

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

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

College-name: duagastu

```
S1
```

```
S2
```

```
S600
```

→ 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.main(String[] args)

↳ S.o.println(Test.x); ✓ 10

S.o.println(x); ✓ 10

✓ Test t = new Test();
↳ S.o.println(t.x); ✓ 10
↳ S.o.println(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); o
        }
    }
```

→ 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();

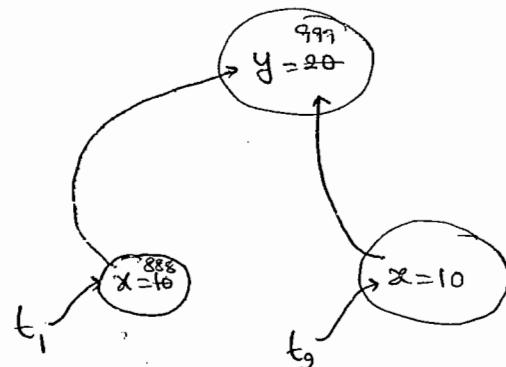
S.O.Pln(t₂.x+"---"+t₂.y);

}

—
t₀

999

}



t₁.x=888

t₂.x=10

t₁.y=999

t₂.y=20

t₂.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 there.
- 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.

(iii) 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 Exactly 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. n (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.pn("Hello");
}
```

%P:- Hello

Class Test

↓

```
p.s.v.m(String[] args)
{
    int x;
    S.o.pn(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.pn(x);

↓

↓

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

Eg 3: Class Test

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

    int x;

    if(args.length > 0)
    {
        x = 10;
    }
    else
    {
        x = 20;
    }

    S.o.println(x);
}
```

O/P: Java Test ↪

20

Java Test x y ↪

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. pIn(t, "a"); null

S. o. pIn(t, "a[0]"); Nonpointer Exception

}

instance level:-

int [] a ;

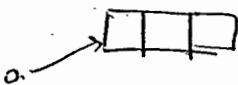
i.e. a=null

S.o.p(obj.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 below 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);` ✓

Ex(i) :-

Class Test

```

    {
        p.s.void m1(int... i)
        {
            s.o.println("Var-arg method");
        }
        p.s.v.m(String[] args)
        {
            m1();
            m2();
            m3();
            m4();
        }
    }
  
```

Op:- Var-arg method
 Var-arg method
 " " " "
 " " " "

→ Internally var-arg method is implemented by using single dimension arrays concept. Hence within 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);  
↓  
D.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.println("General method");

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

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

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:- m1(int[] x) \Rightarrow m1(int... x) ✓

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

Case 2:-

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

~~m1(int... x) \Rightarrow m1(int[] x)~~

09/03/11

30

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

main method

can't return
anything to JVM

Command-line
arguments

Name of method
which is configured
inside 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.

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

(2) 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 Staticfp Synchronized public void main (String... A)

↓

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

}

↓

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

- ~~Ans~~
- (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~~ No where, 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("ZLU durga S/w");
 }
 }

class C extends P.
 {
 }

javac p.java ✓

java p

o/p:- ZLU durga S/w

java C

o/p:- ZLU durga S/w

```

Ex 21. class P
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
}

    S.o.pln(" I Love");
}

class C extends P
{
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
}

    S.o.pln(" durgaSw");
}

```

javac P.java

```

java P
o/p: I love
java C
o/p:- durgaSw.

```

→ 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)
}

 S.o.pln(" durgaSw");
}

p.s.v.m(Integer args)
{

 S.o.pln(" is good");
}

o/p:- durgaSw.

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

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 PrintStream Out;

↓

System.out.println()

↙

→ It is a
class name
present in
java.lang

→ It is a method
present in
PrintStream class
Static variable of
type PrintStream
present in System
class

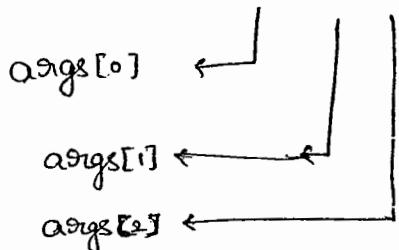
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CommandLine Arguments

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

```
class Test  
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        for(int i=0 ; i<args.length ; i++)  
        {  
            System.out.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. p. l. n (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. p. l. n (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 s : args)
```

```
}
```

```
s. o. p. l. n (s);
```

```
{
```

```

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

```

Note: 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;
    }
}

```

~~Amescript Standard~~

```

package com.dorgesoft.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

→ 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.

Ex:- Runnable, Serializable, Closeable, 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()

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). 64 of 255.

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;
}
```

① 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 RegisterMyActionListener(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 unRegisterMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ③ public void deleteMyActionListener(MyActionListener l)
 - ✗ ④ public void removeMyActionListener(ActionListener l)

Note:-

In Java bean Coding Standards & Listener Concept 1 compulsorily.

Operators & Assignments

Kathy Sierra 1-6

book for SCJP

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 Operators 12

Conditional Operator 13

New Operator 13

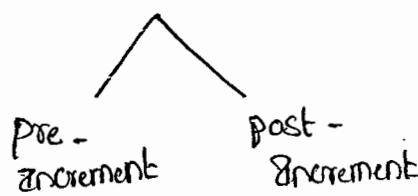
[] Operator 13

Operator precedence 14

Evaluation Order of Java Operands. 14

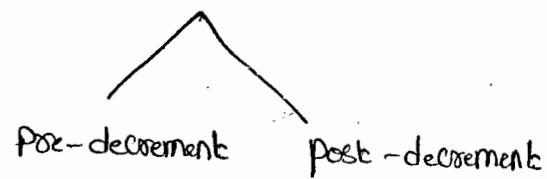
Increment & Decrement Operators.

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;`

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

`S.o.p(y);`

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

↗ after scope - y 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 $b = (\text{byte})(b+1);$

b++; \Rightarrow $b = (\text{type of } b)(b+1);$

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 \approx 1 by zero)

Eg:-

`S.o.println(10/0); R.E: AE: 74 of 255`

- But in Case of floating point arithmetic, 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 ~~Floating~~ 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.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x > \text{NaN} \\ x \geq \text{NaN} \\ x < \text{NaN} \\ x \leq \text{NaN} \\ x == \text{NaN} \end{array} \right\} \text{false}$$

Conclusion about A.E (Arithmetical 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+e); 30shanth30

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

S.o.p(a+d+b+c); 10shanth2030.

$\frac{d+a+b+c}{Shanth10+20+30}$
 $Shanth1020+30$
 $Shanth102030$

→ 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";

$\times a = (b + c)$ ^{total String} C.E:- Incompatible type : found : String
Required : int

✓ $c = a + c$; ^{total String}

✓ $b = a + b$;

$\times c = a + b$; C.E:- Incompatible type:

found : int

Required : String.

Relational Operators

$$A=65, a=97 \quad 41$$

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" ✗

2) "durga" $<$ "durga123" ✗

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 \leq 30)

boolean

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

Eg:-

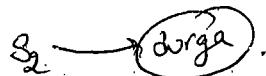
String s₁ = new String("durga");

String s₂ = new String("durga");

S.o.ptn(s₁ == s₂); false (reference)



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



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

→ These are $==$, $!=$

* We can apply Equality operators for Every primitive type including

boolean types.

SOP

✓ 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

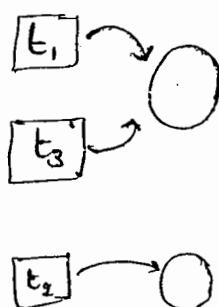
Ex): Thread $t_1 = \text{new Thread();}$

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



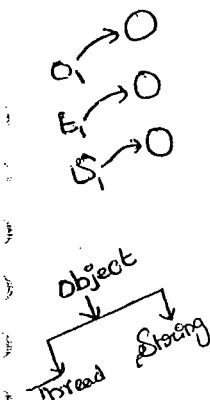
* To apply Equality Operators b/w the object references Compulsory

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]. 79 of 255.

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



Thread t₁ = new Thread();

String s₁ = new String ("short");

s₁.op(t₁ == s₁); CE :- InComparable types Thread &

^{java.lang} java.lang.String

s₁.op(t₁ == o₁); F

s₁.op(s₁ == o₁); F

→ for any object reference g₁, if g₁ is pointing to any object

g₁ == null is always false, otherwise g₁ contains null value

→ So, null == null is always True.

Note:-

* In General, == operator meant for Reference Composition

where as 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:-

g₁ instanceof X

any reference type

class / interface.

instanceof
HashMap
String

Ex:- short s=15;

Boolean b;

b = (s instanceof Short)

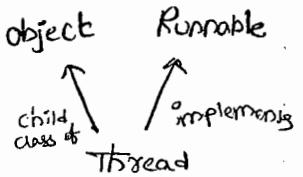
b = (s instanceof Number)

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 of 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)

{ APPLY STUDENT RELATED FUNCTION }

else if (o instanceof Customer)

{ APPLY CUSTOMER RELATED }

Bit-Wise Operations :-

(sg) arguments

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

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

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

S.o.println(4 ^ 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 ^ 5); 1

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

→ We can apply these operations 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 ^ 5); 1

Bitwise Complement Operator (\sim) :-

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

- ① We can apply Bitwise Complement Operator only for integral types, but not for boolean type.

Ex:- 1) S.o.println($\sim \text{True}$);

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

✓ 2) S.o.println(~ 4); -5

$$4 = 0000\ 0000 \quad \dots \quad 0100$$
$$\sim 4 = \boxed{1}111\ 1111 \quad \dots \quad 1011$$

0 → +ve
1 → -ve

1's Complement

-ve ↙
One's Comp

$$\begin{array}{r} 000\ 0000 \quad \dots \quad 0100 \\ -111\ 1111 \quad \dots \quad 1011 \\ \hline 000 \quad \dots \quad 0101 \end{array}$$

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

-ve 5

$\therefore -5$

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 -ve nos 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.

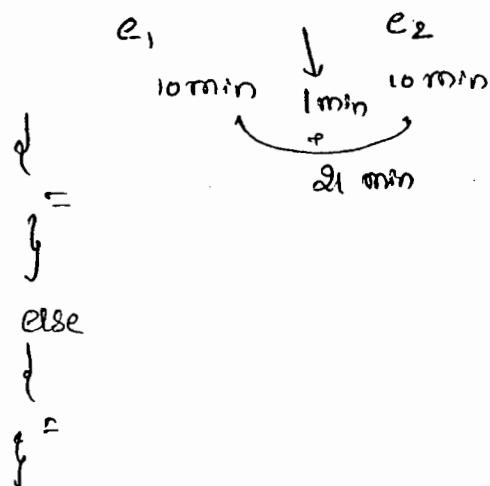
! ⇒ we can apply only for boolean types but not for
integral types.

** Short-Circuit Operators (&&, ||) → double AND double OR

- 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.

<u>&, !</u>	<u>&&, </u>
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 (num & num)



- 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. $\ln(x + ----- + y);$

Q.P.

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

```

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

```

Ans:

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

Note:

If we Replace $\&\amp;$ with $\&$

Then Result is ④, that is R.E.

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

TypeCast Operators:-

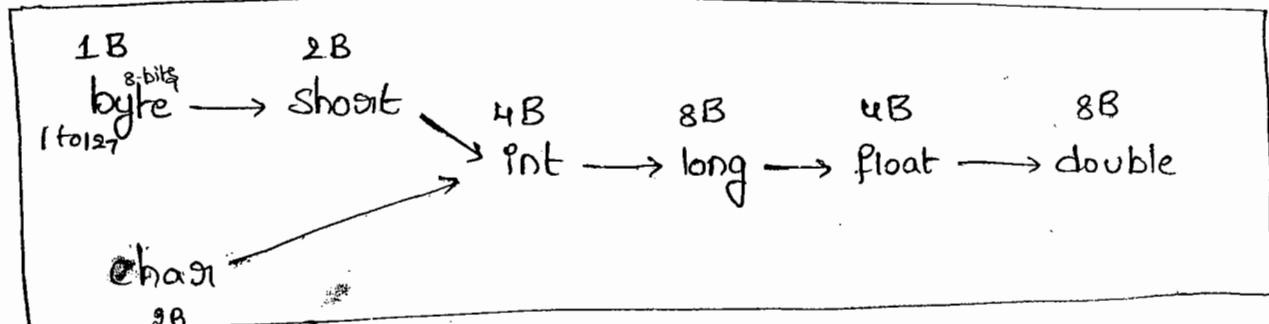
→ There are 2 types of primitive type Castings.

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 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

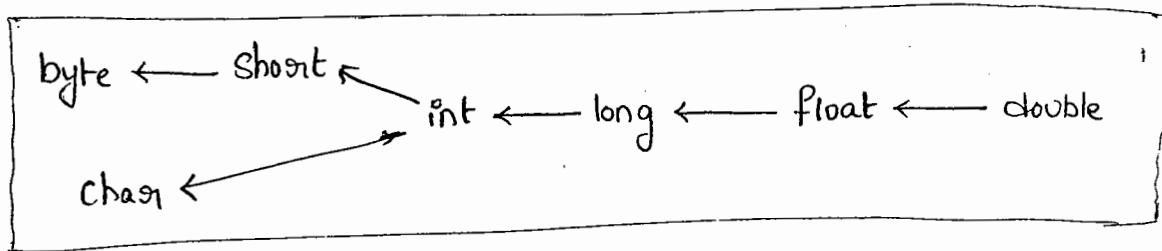


Ex(1):

- ① `double d=10;` [Compiler Converts int to double automatically]
↙ `S.o.println(d); 10.0`
- ② `int x='a';` [Compiler Converts char to int automatically]
↙ `S.o.println(x); 97`
- ③ `a=91, b=98 ---`
- ④ `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 X byte b = 130 ;

✓ byte b = (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)

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

↓ j's Complement
-ve

$$\begin{array}{r} 1111101 \\ \underline{-1} \\ 1111110 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 0000010 \\ \swarrow \\ 1111110 \end{array}$$

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

∴ -126

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

②

int i = 150;

short s = (short) i;

s.o.println(s);

$$150 \equiv 0000 \dots 010010110$$

32 bits

short s \equiv 0000 ... 00010110 \rightarrow 2 Bytes = short = 16-bits

↓ don't apply j's Comp.

+ve

$$\therefore S = 150$$

③ int x = 150;

byte b = (byte)x;

short s = (short)x;

s.o.println(b); -106

s.o.println(x); 150

$$150 \equiv 0000 \dots 010010110$$

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

$$\begin{array}{r} \downarrow \text{-ve} \quad \text{x2's Comp} \\ 1101001 \\ \underline{-1} \\ 1101010 \end{array}$$

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

90 or 255.

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 lost.

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;` $a = a + 30$
`S.o.println(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)

Q 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) ↳ 11

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 → binary operator

++a → unary "

(a>b)? a:b; → ternary.

a>b is T then 40

a>b is F then 50

→ Nesting of Conditional operator is possible.

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

int x = (a>50) ? 777 : ((b>100) ? 888 : 999);
 ↓ ↓
 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 ✗ C.E.
 don't compare these variables

✗ | byte c = (a < b) ? 40 : 50; C.E.: PLP
 ✗ | byte c = (a > b) ? 40 : 50;
 found: int
 required: byte.

- final int a=10, b=20;

✓ | 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 Collection.

[] Operator:-

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

Operator precedence :-

1. Unary operators:-

[] , α^{++} , α^{--}

$^{++}\alpha$, $^{--}\alpha$, ~ , !

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:-

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

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 (Strong IJ 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[] 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);

1st place x = 10

∴ x = 10++

∴ x = 11

but last operation is

x = 10

Ex(3) :-

① int x = 0;

(+2)³

x = $\frac{++x}{1} + \frac{x++}{2} + \frac{x++}{3} + \frac{++x}{4}$

S.o.p(x);

x = 0 x x x 4

x++ = 1

x++ = 2

3

4

Ex 4:-

int x = 0;

x += ++x + x++;

S.o.println(x);

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

= 0 + 1 + 1

x = 2

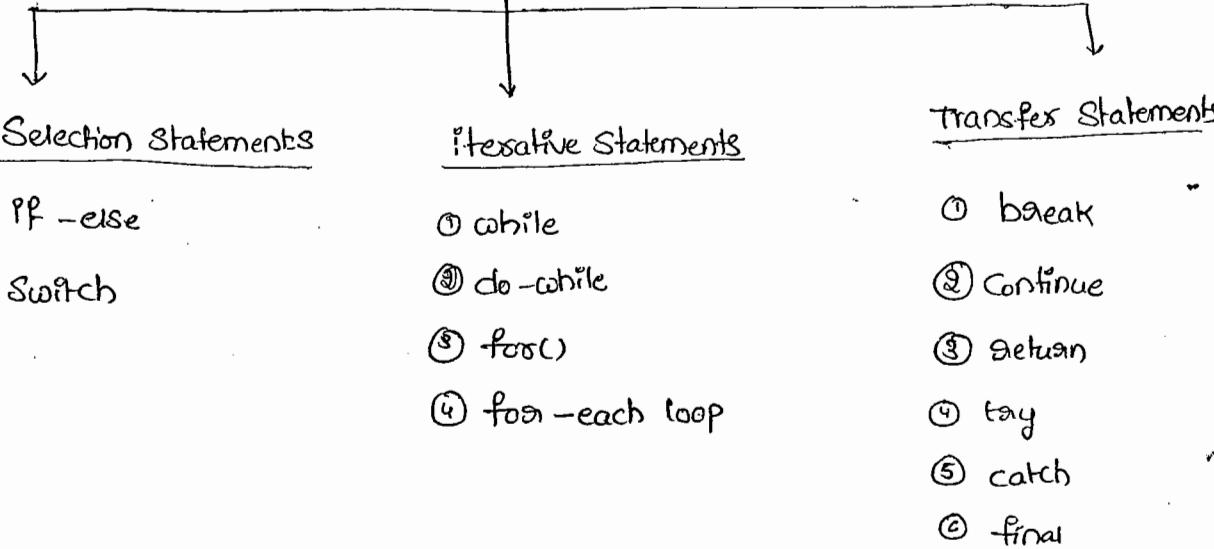
flow Control

16/05/2011
52

flow Control :-

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

flow - Control



a) Selection Statements :-

c) if - else :-

SyD:- $\text{if}(b)$
 ↓
 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 x=0`

```
if(x)
    {
        System.out.println("Hello");
    }
```

else

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

C.E:- Incompatible types

found : int

Required : boolean

②

`int x=10`

```
if(x==20)
    {
        System.out.println("Hello");
    }
```

else

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

③

`int x=10;`

```
if(x==20)
```

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

else

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

O/P :- Hi

④

`boolean b=false;`

```
if(b==true)
```

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

else

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

O/P :- Hello

⑤

`boolean b=false;`

```
if(b==true)
```

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

else

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

✓

O/P :- Hi

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

Ex:-

if (true)

 cout << "Hello";



if (true)

 int x=0;



C.E!

if (true)

 int x=10;



✓

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

Ex :-

 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

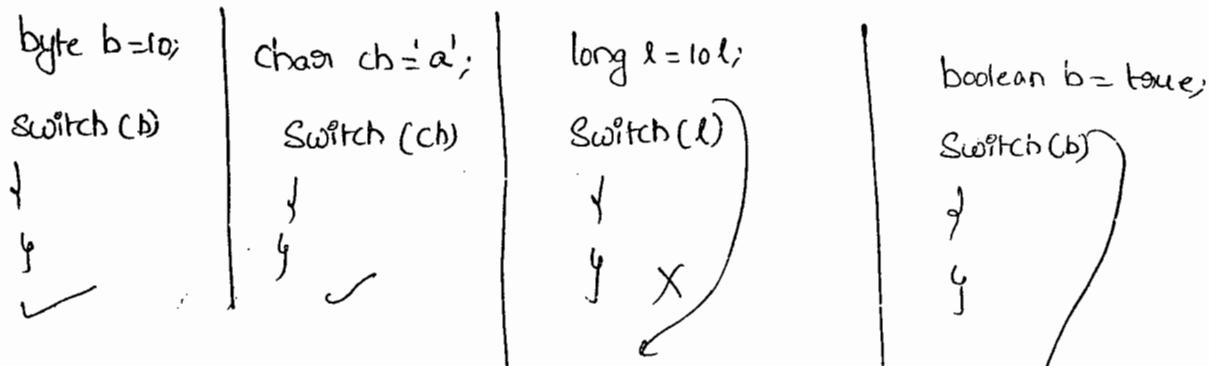
int

char

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

<u>1.4 v</u>	<u>1.5v</u>	<u>1.7v</u>
byte	⊕ Byte	
short	Short	⊕ String
char	Character	
int	Integer	
	+	
	enum	

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

Ex:-C-E:-

possible loss of precision

→ found: long

→ required: int

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.

Ex:-

```

byte b=10;
switch(b)
{
    case 10:
        S.o.println("10");
    case 100:
        S.o.println("100");
    case 1000:
        S.o.println("1000");
}

```

-128 to
127

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");
}

```

int type

→ 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");

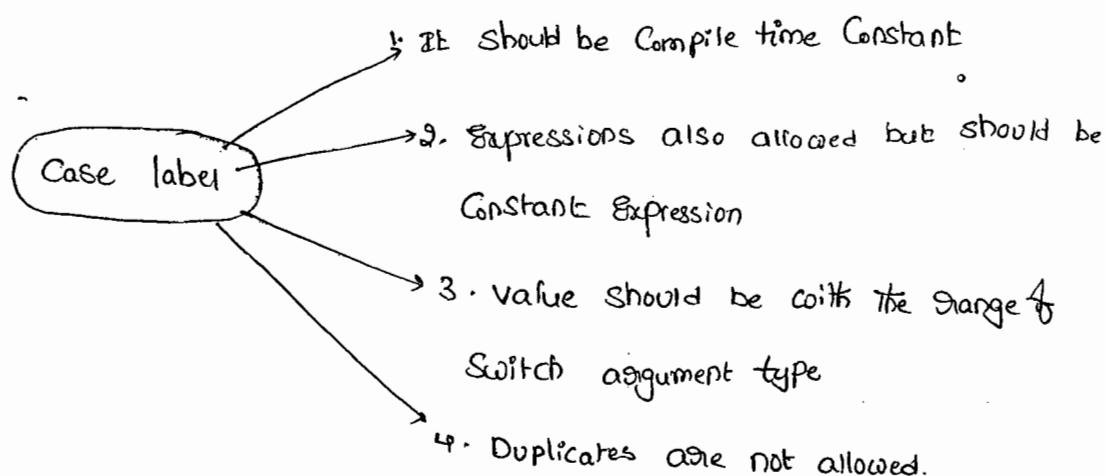
Case 'a':

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");`

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{x=0} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{x=1} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Case 0:

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

`break;`

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{x=2} \\ 2 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{x=3} \\ \text{def} \end{array}$$

Case 1:

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

108 of 255.

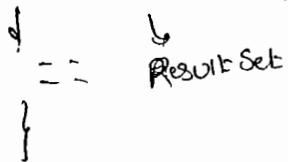
Case 2: `s.o.println("2");`

(b) Iterative Statements :-

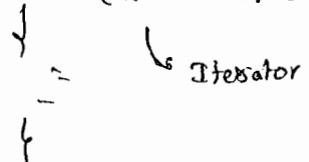
(i) while :-

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

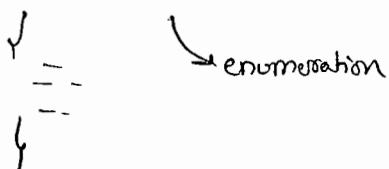
Ex:- ① `while (rs.next())`



② `while (itr.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);



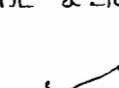
while (true)

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");

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

O/P:- Hello

Hello

Hello

④ final int a=10, b=20;

while (a < b)

↓

S.o.println("Hello");

↓

S.o.println("Hi");

X

Unreachable Statement

⑤ 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); ✓
⑤ do while(true); X C.E!-	Compulsory one statement declare (or) take ;			

⑥ 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");
C.E!   Unreachable Statement
  
```

X

②

```

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

58

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");
C.E!:-  unreachable
        statement
  
```

⑥

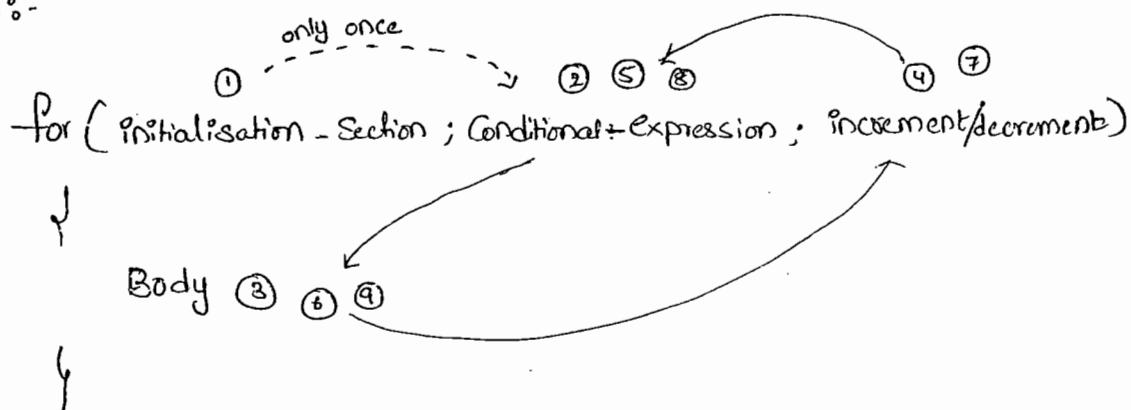
```

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


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 & decarment Section :-

→ We can take any valid java Statement including S.O.P() also.

Ex:- int i=0;

```

for( S.O.println("Hello") ; i<3 ; S.O.println("Hi"))
{
}

```

S.O.println(i++);

}

O/P:-

Hello
Hi
Hi

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

→ 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:-

$\text{for}(\text{int } i=0; \text{true}; i++)$	$\text{for}(\text{int } i=0; \text{false}; i++)$	$\text{for}(\text{int } i=0; ; i++)$
↓	↓	↓
$\text{s.o.println("Hello");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hello");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hello");}$
↓	↓	↓
$\text{s.o.println("Hi");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hi");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hi");}$
C.E:- unreachable	C.E:- unreachable	C.E:- unreachable
int a=10; b=20;	$\text{final int a=10; b=20;}$	
$\text{for}(\text{int } i=0; a < b; i++)$	$\text{for}(\text{int } i=0; a < b; i++)$	
↓	↓	True
$\text{s.o.println("Hello");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hello");}$	
↓	↓	
$\text{s.o.println("Hi");}$	$\text{s.o.println("Hi");}$	X
O/P:- Hello ✓	O/P:- C.E! - unreachable statement.	
Hello		
!		

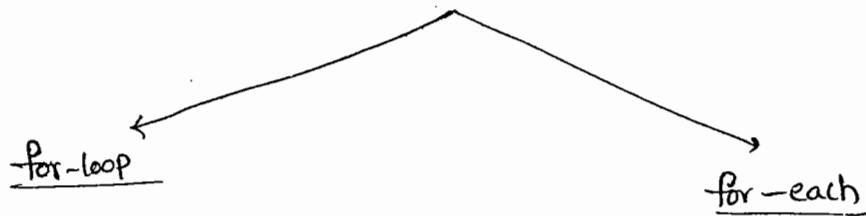
for-each() Loop :- (Enhanced for loop) :-

→ 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]*);

}

10
20

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 retrieve all values of Arrays & Collections and can't be used to retrieved a particular set of values.

(C) Transfer statements :-

(1) break :-

→ We can use break statement in the following cases

(1) within the switch to stop fall through

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

(3) 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");

if
Hello
End

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

Ex:- Class Test

{
P-S-V.m (→)

int x=10;

if (x == 10)

break;

System.out.println("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;

System.out.println(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 :-

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

break l_1 :-

No output

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

1 --- 0
1 --- 2

Continue l_1 :-

1 0

2 0

2 ... 1

120 of 255.

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

x = 1

Ex:- int x = 0;

do
|

x++;

System.out.println(x);

if (++x < 5)

Continue;

x++;

System.out.println(x);

} while (++x < 10);

x = 0
1 x 5

x = 5
3 < 5

x = 5
4

x++
5

x = 6
6

x = 7
7

x = 8
8

x = 9
9

x = 10
10

1
4
6
8
10

Important!

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

Ex:- ① if (true)

|

System.out.println("Hello");

{
else

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

{

O/P:- Hello

② while(true)

|

System.out.println("Hello");

|

System.out.println("Hi");

o/p:- C.E.

Unreachable Statement

Declarations & Access Modifiers

① Java Source file Structure (1 - 9)

Package :-

② Class modifiers (10 - 14)

③ member modifiers (15 - 23)

* ④ Interfaces (24 - 31)

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: Sai.java (1) ✓

R.java (1) ✓

D.java . ✓

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 Compiletime Error 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 & name of the program is B.java then we will get Compiletime Error 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");

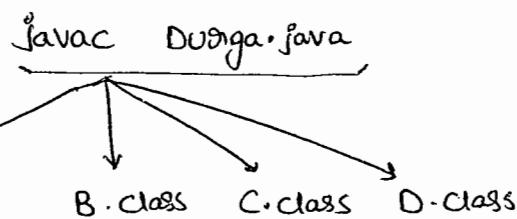
↓

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

Note!

→ It is highly recommended to take only one class per source file & name of the file and that class name must be matched. This approach improves readability of the code.

import Statement :-

```
Class Test
{
    P-S-V-m (String[] args)
    {
        ArrayList l = new ArrayList(); // ArrayList
    }
}
```

C-E:- symbol:method ArrayList

C-E:- Cannot find Symbol

Symbol: class ArrayList

Location: class Test

→ We can resolve this problem by using fully qualified name
java.util.

→ The problem with usage of fully qualified name every time increases length of the code & reduces readability.

→ We can resolve this problem by using import statement

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
Class Test
{
    P-S-V-m (String[] args)
    {
        AL l = new AL();
    }
}
```

→ Whenever you are using import statement it is not required to use fully qualified name hence it reduces improves readability & reduces length of the code.

Case(1):-

Types of import statements :-

→ There are 2 types of import statements

(1) Explicit class import

(2) Implicit class import

Import Statements

Explicit class import :-

Ex:- `import java.util.ArrayList;`

→ This type of import is highly recommended to use because it improves readability of the code.

→ Best suitable for Hitch City where readability is important

Implicit class import :-

Ex:- `import java.util.*;`

→ It is never recommended to use this type of import because it reduces readability of the code.

→ Best suitable for Amrapet where typing is important.

Case 2: difference b/w #include & import Statement :-

- In C language #include all the specified header files will be loaded at the time of include statement only irrespective of whether we are using those header files or not. Hence this is "Static loading".
- But in the case of Java language import statement no ^{class-} file will be loaded at the time of import statement, in the next lines of code whenever we are using a class at that time only the corresponding .class file will be loaded. This type of loading is called dynamic loading or load on demand or load on fly.

Case 3:

which of the following import statements are valid?

- X ① import java.util;
- X ② import java.util.ArrayList,*;
- ✓ ③ import java.util.*;"
- ✓ ④ import java.util.ArrayList;

Case 4:

→ Consider the Code,

```
class MyRemoteObject extends java.rmi.Unicast
    RemoteObject
    {
    }
```

→ The Code Compiles fine Even though we are not using import statement because we used fully Qualified Name.

Note:-

→ When ever using Fully Qualified name it is not required to use import statement. When ever we are using import statement it is not

Required to use fully Qualified name.

Case 2:-

```

import java.util.*;
import java.sql.*;

class Test
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Date d = new Date();
    }
}

```



C.E:- "Reference to Date is ambiguous".

Note:-

even in List Case also we will get the same ambiguity problem.

because it is available in both Util & Sql packages.

Case 3:-

```

import java.util.Date;
import java.sql.*;
class Test
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Date d = new Date();
    }
}

```

order :-

- ✓ ① Explicit class import
- ✓ ② Classes present in Current working directory
- ③ implicit class import.

Conclusion:- While Resolving Class names Compiler will always gives the precedence in the following order,

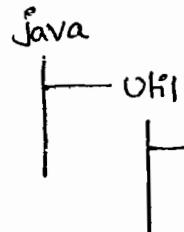
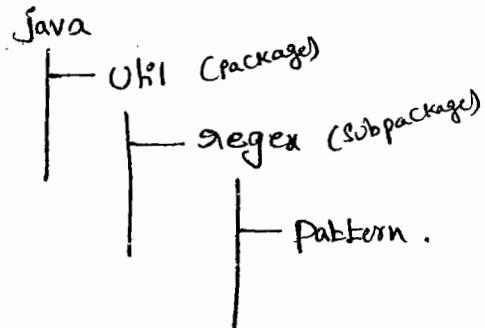
→ order See above

Date } available in both Util & Sql
List }

Case 7 :-

→ When even we are importing a package all classes & interfaces present in that package are available, but not subpackage classes.

Ex:-



→ To use Pattern class which of the following import is required

- * ① import java.*;
- * ② import java.util.*;
- ✓ ③ import java.util.regex.*;
- ✓ ④ import java.util.regex.Pattern;

Case 8 :-

→ The following 2 packages are not required to import because all classes & interfaces present in these 2 packages are available by default to every java program.

- ① java.lang package.
- ② Java default package (Current working directory).

Case 9 :-

→ Import statement is totally compiletime issue if no. of imports increases then compilation will be increased automatically, but there is no effect on execution time.

Static import :-

→ This Concept introduced in 1.5 Version.

→ According to SUN Static import improves Readability of the Code,

But according to World wide programming Experts (Like us) Static imports Reduces the Readability of the Code & creates confusion, it is not recommended to use Static import if there is no specific requirement.

→ Usually we can access static members by using class names, but whenever we are using static import, it is not required to use class name and we can access static members directly.

Ex:-

Without Static import

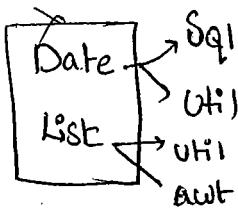
```
class Test
{
    p. s. v. m (String[] args)
    {
        S. o. ln (Math. sqrt (4));
        S. o. ln (Math. random ());
        S. o. ln (Math. max (10, 20));
    }
}
```

With Static import

```
import static java.lang.math.sqrt;
import static java.lang.math.*;
```

```
class Test
```

```
{
    p. s. v. m (String[] args)
    {
        S. o. ln (sqrt (4));
        S. o. ln (random ());
        S. o. ln (max (10, 20));
    }
}
```



* Explain about System.out.println() :-

class Test

{

 p. static String name = "xyz";

}

Test.name.length();

 ↓ It is a method
 present in String class

Static variable

Present in Test class

of the type String

It is a class
name

Class System

{

 p. static PrintStream OUT;

}

System.out.println();

 ↓ It is a method
 present in PrintStream
 class.

It is a class

Present in

java.lang package

Static
variable of
type PrintStream
present in System
class

Explanation:-

→ OUT is a Static variable present in System class hence we can access by using className.

→ But whenever we are using static import it is not required to use class name we can access out variable directly.

import static java.lang.System.out;

Class Test

{

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

{

 out.println("Hello"); Hello

 out.println("Hi"); Hi

}

→ ve perspective (Ambiguity) :-

Ex:- `import static java.lang.Integer.*;`

`import static java.lang.Byte.*;`

Class Test

{

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

{

`s.o.println(MAX-VALUE);`

}

}

C.E:- Reference to MAX-VALUE in ambiguity

Note:-

Two classes Contains a variable or method with Same

Name is Very Common Hence ambiguity problem is also Very Common in Static import.

Ex :-

→ While Resolving static members Compiler will always gives The precedence in The following Order.

① Current class Static members

② Explicit Static import

③ Implicit Static import.

Ex:-

import static java.lang. Integer. MAX-VALUE; → ②

import static java.lang. Byte.*; → ③

Class Test

{

 Static int MAX-VALUE = 999; → ①

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

{

 S. o. p. n (MAX-VALUE);

}

}

→ If we are Commenting Line ① Then Explicit Static import will get Priority Hence we will get Integer class MAX-VALUE is o/p 127.

→ If we are Commenting Lines ① & ③ Then Byte Class MAX-VALUE will be Considered & we will get 127 as o/p.

(-ve point) :-

→ Strictly Speaking usage of Class Name to access static variables & methods improves readability of the code. Hence it is not recommended to use static imports.

Q) Which of the following import statements are valid.

- X ① `import java.lang.math.*;` (we should not use * after the class)
- X ② `import java.lang.math.Sqrt.*;` (we should not use * after the method)
- X ③ `import static java.lang.math;`
- ✓ ④ `import java.lang.maths;`
- ✓ ⑤ `import static java.lang.maths.*;`
- X ⑥ `import static java.lang.math.Sqrt();` → problems
- ✓ ⑦ `import static java.lang.maths.Sqrt;`

Normal import Vs Static import:-

- we can use normal import to import classes & interfaces of a package. when ever we are using general import it is not required to use Fully Qualified Name & we can use short names directly.
- we can use static import to import static variables & methods of a class. when ever we are using static import then it is not required to class name to access static members we can access directly.

Packages

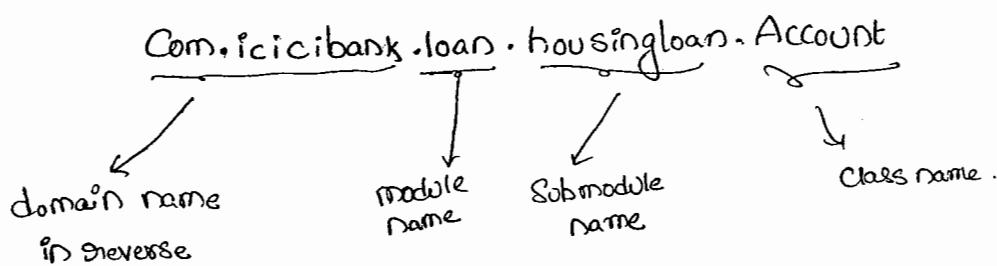
9846 classes are
there in Java
according to 1.6v

Package:-

→ It is an Encapsulation mechanism to group related classes and interfaces into a single module. The main purposes of packages are

- ① To resolve naming conflicts,
- ② To provide security to the classes & interfaces. So that outside persons can't access directly
- ③ It improves modularity of the application.

→ There is one universally accepted convention to name packages i.e. to use internet domain name in reverse.



Ex:-

package com.duvarajobs.itjobs;

public class HydJobs

{

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

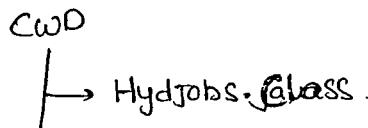
{

 S. o. p. n. c("Getting jobs is very easy");

}

① `javac HydJobs.java`

→ The generated class file will be placed in Current working directory

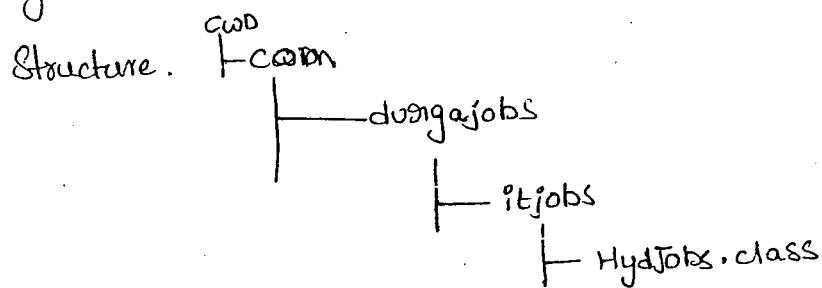


② `javac -d . HydJobs.java`

→ Destination
to place generated
class files

current
working
directory

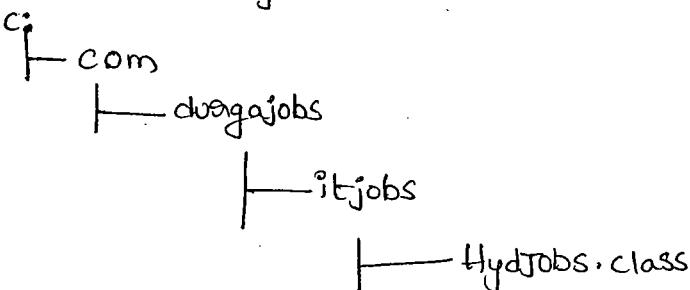
→ generated class file will be placed into Corresponding package



→ If the Specified package Structure is not already available Then
this Command itself will Create that package Structure.

→ As the destination we can use any valid directory

Ex1. `javac -d c: HydJobs.java`



→ If the Specified destination is not ^{already} available then we will get Compile
time Error

Ex1 `javac -d z: HydJobs.java`

138 of 255.

→ If z: is not already available then we will get Compile time Error.

Run

→ Java com.dvargajobs.itjobs.HydJobs ←

Ques:- Getting job is very easy.

Conclusions:-

- ① In Any Java program there should be only At most 1 package statement. If we are taking more than one package statement we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:- ✓ package pack1;
 → package pack1; ←
 Class A
 {
 }
 C.E:- class, interface or enum expected.

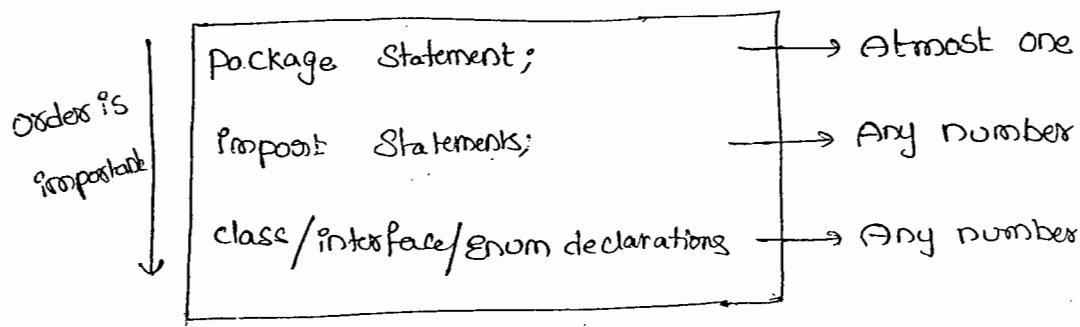
- ② In Any Java program the First non Comment Statement Should be package statement (if it is available).

Ex:- ✓ import java.util.*;

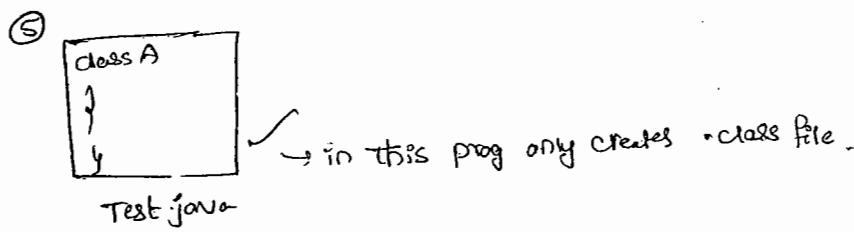
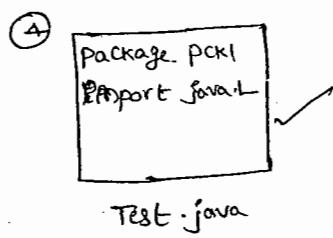
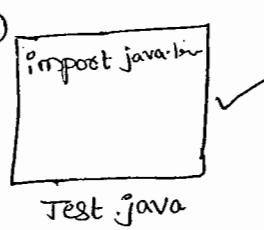
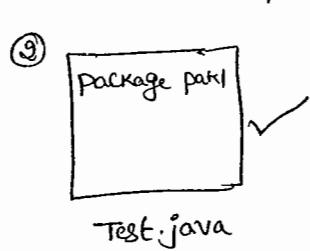
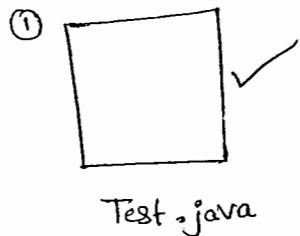
→ package pack1;
 Class A
 {
 }
 C.E:- class, interface or enum Expected.

→ The proper structure of a Java Source file is

78



→ The following are Valid Java programs.



→ An Empty Source file is a Valid Java program.

**** Class modifiers ****

→ whenever we are creating our own java class compulsory we have to provide some information about our class to the JVM

Like,

- Can be
- (1) whether our class accessible from anywhere or not.
 - (2) whether child class creation is possible for our class or not.
 - (3) whether instantiation is possible or not e.t.c.

→ we can specify this information by declaring with appropriate modifier.

→ The only applicable modifiers for top-level classes are

- 1) public
- 2) <default>
- 3) final
- 4) abstract
- 5) Strictfp.

→ If we are using any other modifier we will get Compiletime Error.

Saying "modifier xxxxxxxx not allowed here".

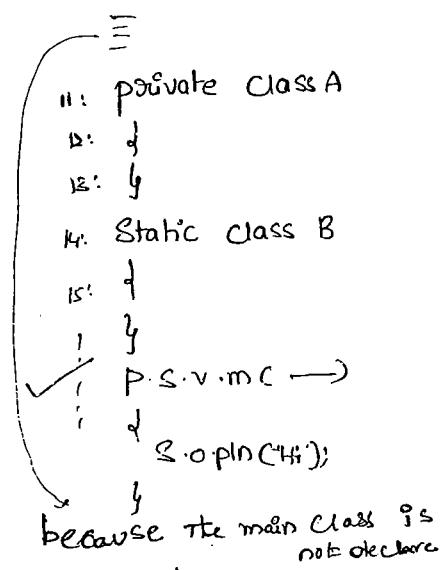
Ex:- private class Test

```
p.s.v.m(____)  
 {  
     int x=0;  
     for(int y=0; y<3; y++)  
     {  
         x=x+y;  
         S.O.Println(x);  
     }  
 }
```

C.E! - modifier private not allowed here

→ But for the Inner classes the following modifiers are allowed

- (1) public
- (2) <default>
- (3) final
- (4) abstract
- (5) strictfp
- (6) private
- (7) protected
- (8) static.



Access Specifiers Vs access modifiers :-

28/04/11

→ In old languages like C & C++ public, private, protected & default

are Considered as access specifiers, & all the remaining like final, Static are Considered as access modifiers.

→ But in Java there is no such type of division all are Considered as access modifiers.

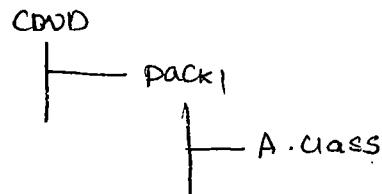
Public classes :-

→ If a class declared as the public then we can access that class from anywhere.

Ex:-

```
Package pack1;  
  
public class A {  
    public void m1()  
    {  
        System.out.println("Hello");  
    }  
}
```

javac -d . A.java



```
package pack2;  
import pack1.A;  
  
class B  
{  
    ↓  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        A a = new A();  
        a.m1();  
    }  
}
```

Comp. javac -d . B.java ↪

Run! java pack2.B ↪

→ If we are not declaring Class A as public, Then we will get Compile-time Error while Compiling B class, Saying "pack1.A is not public in pack1; Can't be accessed from outside Package".

default classes :-

→ If a class declared as default then we can access that class only within that current package i.e. from outside of the package we can't access.

Final modifier :-

- Final is the modifier applicable for classes, methods & variables.
- If a method declared as the final then we are not allowed to override that method in the child class.

Ex:-

```

Class P
|
public void property()
|
S.o.println(" money + Gold + Land");
|
public final void maaay()

```

C.E

Class C extends P

```

public void maaay()
|
S.o.println(" kajal | zisha | atara ");
|

```

C.E! - maaay() in C Cannot override maaay() in P ; overridden method is final .

- If a class declared as the final then we can't create child class

Ex! - final class P

class C extends P

Ex:- final class P

}

}

Class C extends P

}

}

C.E:- Can't inherit from final P.

→ Every method present inside a final class is always final by default.

but Every variable present in final class need not be final.

→ The main Advantage of final keyword is we can achieve Security as no one is allowed to change our implementation.

→ But the main disadvantage of final keyword is we are missing key benefits of Oop's Inheritance & polymorphism (overriding).

Hence, if there is no specific requirement never recommended to use final keyword.

* Abstract modifier :-

→ abstract is the modifier applicable for classes & methods but not for variables.

abstract method :-

→ Even though we don't know about implementation still we can declare a method with abstract modifier. i.e abstract methods can have only declaration but not implementation. Hence, every abstract method declaration should Compulsory ends with ; .

Ex:-

- 1) public abstract void m₁() { }
- 2) public abstract void m₂();

→ Child classes are responsible to provide implementation for parent class abstract methods.

Ex:-

abstract class Vechicle

{

 public abstract int getNoofWheels();

}

Class Bus extends Vehicle

{

 public int getNoOfWheels()

{

 return 6;

}

}

Class Auto extends Vehicle

{

 public int getNoOfWheels()

{

 return 3;

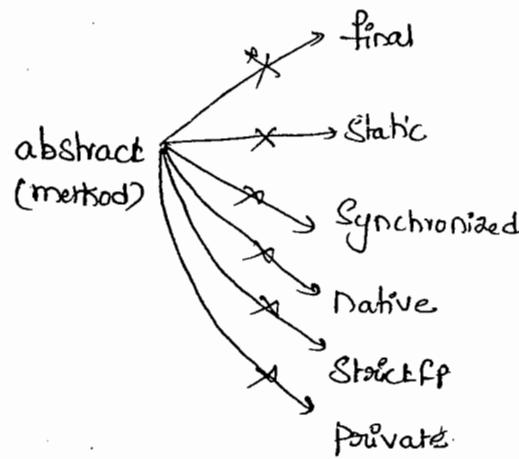
}

}

→ By declaring abstract methods in parent class we can define Guidelines to the child classes which describes the methods those are to be Compulsory implemented by child class.

29/04/11

- abstract modifier never talks about implementation, if any modifier talks about implementation then it is always illegal Combination with abstract.
- The following are various illegal Combinations of modifiers for methods



abstract class :-

- For any Java class if we don't want instantiation Then we have to declare that class as abstract. i.e., for abstract classes instantiation (creation of object) is not possible.

Ex:- abstract class Test

↓

↓

Test t = new Test();

C.E:- Test is abstract; Cannot be instantiated

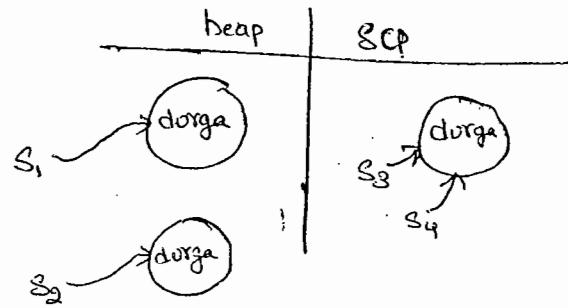
Test t = new Test();

Ex: String s_1 = new String("durga");

String s_2 = new String("durga");

String s_3 = "durga";

String s_4 = "durga";



- 1) notify() & notifyAll()
- 2) Collection & Collections
- 3) equals() & ==
- 4) Comparable & Comparator
- 5) String & StringBuffer
- 6) StringTokenizer & StringTokenizer
- 7) Throw & Throws
- 8) throws & thrown
- 9) HashMap & Hashtable
- 10) enum, Enum, Enumeration
- 11) final, finally, finalizer

✓ 1) Language fundamentals

✓ 2) Operators & Assignments

3) Flow - Control

4) declaration & Access modifier

5) oops concepts

✓ 6) Exception Handling

7) multi-threading

8) Inner classes

9) java.lang package

✓ 10) java.io package

11) Serialization

12) java.util package (Collection frame work)

13) Generics

14) Regular Expressions

✓ 15) G.C

✓ 16) Assertions (r4)

17) I18N

18) enum

19) development

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S

abstract class Vs abstract method :-

77

- If a class Contains atleast one abstract method then Compulsory That class should be declared as abstract otherwise we will get ~~Compile-time Error~~. because, The implementation is not Complete & hence We Can't Create an object.
- Eventhough This class doesnot Contain any abstract method still we can declare the class as abstract. i.e, abstract class Can Contain Zero "0" no. of abstract method.

Ex:- HttpServlet, This class doesn't Contain any abstract method but still it is declared as abstract.

Ex:-

① Class Test

↓

public void m();

↳ C.E:- missing method body, or declare abstract

② Class Test

↓

public abstract void m();

↓

↳ C.E :- abstract methods Can't have a body

③ Class Test

↓

public abstract void m();

↓

C.E :- Test is not abstract and doesn't ~~have~~ abstract method m() in Test.

Ex-4:- Abstract Class Test

```
    }  
    public abstract void m1();  
    public abstract void m2();  
  
}  
class SubTest extends Test  
  
{  
    public abstract void m1(); }  
}
```

C.P.:- SubTest is not abstract and does not override abstract method m1() in Test

→ We can handle these Comptime Errors either by declaring SubTest as abstract or by providing implementation for m1().

Note:-

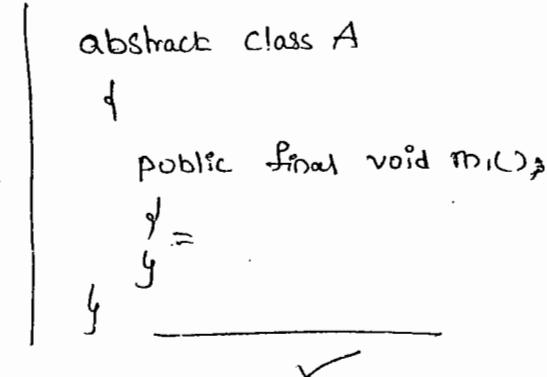
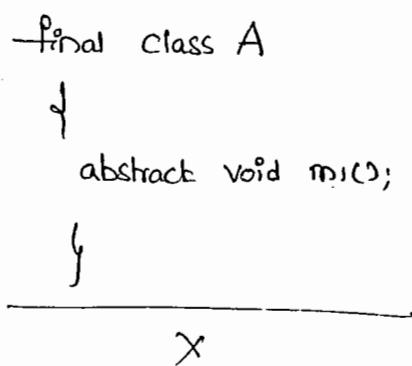
→ The usage of abstract methods, abstract class & interfaces are Recommended & it is always good programming practice.

Abstract Vs Final :-

→ abstract methods we have to override in child classes to provide implementation. whereas final methods can't be overridden. Hence, abstract final combination is illegal combination for methods.

→ For abstract classes we should create child classes to provide proper implementation but for final classes we can't create child class. Hence, abstract final combination is illegal for classes.

→ Final class Can't have abstract methods whereas abstract class can contain final methods.



strictfp (all lower case) modifiers :- (strictfloatingpoint)

- strictfp is the modifier applicable for methods & classes but not for variables.
- if a method declared as strictfp all floatingpoint calculations in that method has to follow IEEE 754 Standard So, that we will get platform independent results.
- strictfp, ^{method} always talks about implementation whereas abstract method never talks about implementation. Hence strictfp-abstract method combination is illegal combination for methods.
- If a class declared as strictfp then every concrete method in that class has to follow IEEE 754 Standard So, that we will get platform independent results.
- abstract - strictfp combination is legal for classes but illegal for methods

Ex:- abstract strictfp class Test

```

    {
    }
  
```

✓

public abstract struct<fp void m(); X (invalid)

Member (variables & methods) modifiers :-

① public members :-

→ If we declare a member as public then we can access that member from anywhere but Corresponding class should be visible (public) i.e., Before checking member visibility we have to check class visibility.

Ex:-

```
Package pack1;  
class A  
{  
    public void m()  
    {  
        System.out.println("Hi");  
    }  
}
```

```
Package pack2;  
import pack1.A;  
class B  
{  
    A a = new A();  
    a.m();  
}
```

→ Even though m() method is public, we can't access m() from outside of pack1 because the Corresponding class A is not declared as public. If both are public then only we can access.

② default members :-

→ If a member declared as the default, then we can access that member only with in the current package & we can't access from outside of the package. Hence, default access is also known as package level access.

③ private members :-

- If a member declared as private then we can access that member only within the current class.
- abstract methods should be visible in child classes to provide implementation whereas private methods are not visible in child classes. Hence private-abstract combination is illegal for methods.

④ protected members : (the most misunderstood modifier in java) :-

- If a member declared as protected then we can access that member within the current package anywhere but outside package only in child classes.

protected = <default> + kids of another package
(only child reference).

- * within the current package we can access protected members either by parent reference or by child reference.

- But from outside package we can access protected members only by using child reference. if we are trying to use parent reference we will get C.E

Ex:-

```
package pack1;
```

```
public class A
```

```
↓
```

```
protected void m1()
```

```
↓
```

S.O..println("The most misunderstood modifier in Java");

```
↓
```

Class B extends A

```
↓
```

P.B.v.m(→)

```
↓
```

✓ A a = new A();

✓ | a.m();

✓ B b = new B();

✓ | b.m();

✓ A a; = new B();

✓ | a.m();

→ The most restricted modifier
is "private"

→ The most accessible modifier
is "public"

→ private < default < protected
< public

→ The recommended modifier for
variables is private

→ The recommended modifier for
methods is public

Package package2;

import pack1.A;

public class C extends A

↓

P-S. v.m(—)

↓

A a = new A();

X a.m();

C c = new C();

✓ c.m();

A a; = new C();

X a.m();

↓

package1
A |
| ~~private~~
| ~~protected~~
| void m();

package2
B extends A
|
C extends B
| ✓

package3
D extends B
| ✓

→ The most restricted

* private < default < protected < public

60

Visibility	private	<default>	protected	public
① Within The Same Class	✓	✓	✓	✓
② From child class of Same Package	✗	✓	✓	✓
③ From non-child class of Same package	✗	✓	✓	✓
④ From child class of outside Package.	✗	✗	✓ But we should use only child class reference	✓
⑤ From non-child class of outside package.	✗	✗	✗	✓

⇒ "Final" Variables :-

- In General for instance & static variables it is not required to perform initialization Explicitly JVM will always provide default values.
- But for the local variables JVM won't to provide any default values Compulsory we should provide initialization before using that variable.

⇒ "Final Instance Variables" :-

- for the normal instance variables it is not required to perform initialization Explicitly JVM will provide default values,
- If the instance variable declared as the final then Compulsory we should perform initialization whether we are using or not otherwise

we will get Compiletime Error

Expt. - Class Test
of
int x;
}

Class Test

final int x;

C.E! Variable x might have not been initialized.

Role:-

for the final instance variables we should perform initialization before Constructor Completion.

→ i.e., the following are various places for this,

① At the time of declaration

Expl. - class Test
|
| final int x=10;
|
|

⑨ Inside instance Block.

Ex:- Class Test

final int x;
{
 x=10; } // instance Block

③ Inside Constructors

Ex:- Class Test
{
final int x;
Test()
{
x=10;

→ Other than these if we are perform initialization anywhere else we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

Class Test



final int x;

public void m1()



x=10; X

C.E! - Cannot assign a value to
final variable x.

final Static Variables:-

- For the normal static variables it is not required to perform initialization explicitly, JVM will always provide default values.
- But for final static variables we should perform initialization explicitly otherwise we will get C.E.

Ex:-

Class Test



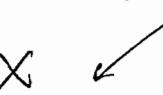
static int x;



Class Test



final static int x;



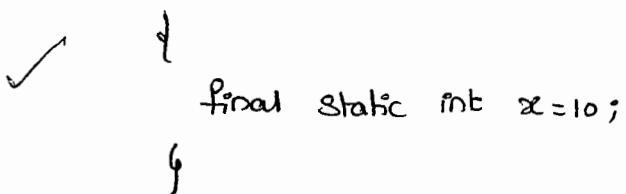
C.E! - Variable x might not have
been initialized.

Rule :-

- * For the final static variables we should perform initialization Before Class loading Completion.
- * i.e., the following are various places to perform this. 158 of 255.

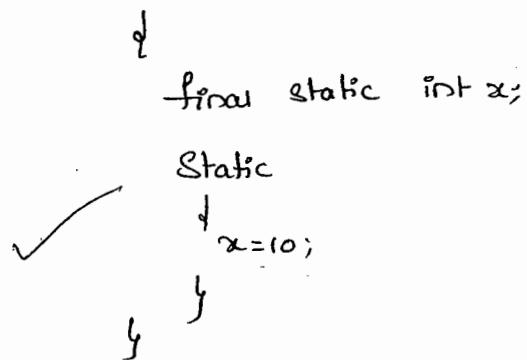
① At the time of declaration

e.g.- Class Test



② Inside Static Block

e.g.- Class Test



→ If we are performing initialization anywhere else we will get Compiletime Error.

Class Test

↳
final static int x;

public void m1()

 ↳
 x=10; X

↳
C.E!- Can't assign a ^{value} variable to final variable x.

iii) Final Local Variables :-

→ for the local variables JVM won't provide any default values.

Compulsory we should perform initialization before using that variable.

Ex:- Class Test

```

    {
        public void main()
        {
            int x;
            System.out.println("Hello");
        }
    }
  
```

Op! - Hello

② Class Test

```

    {
        public void main()
        {
            int x;
            System.out.println(x); X
        }
    }
  
```

C.E! - variable x might not have been initialized.

→ Even though Local variable declared as the final it is not required to perform initialization if we are not using that variable.

Ex! Class Test

```

    {
        public void main()
        {
            final int x;
            System.out.println("Hello Sun"); ✓
        }
    }
  
```

Op! - Hello Sun.

→ The only applicable modifier for local variables is final. If we are using any other modifier we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:- Class Test

```

    {
        public void main()
        {
            static int x = 60; X
            protected int x = 30; X
            160 of 255.
            final int x = 40; ✓
        }
    }
  
```

→ formal parameters of a method Simply access as Local variables of That method. hence, a formal parameter can be declared as final.

→ If we declare a formal parameter as final within the method we Can't change its value otherwise we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

Class Test



P.S.V.mC →



m,(10,20);



Actual parameters

P.S.V.m1 [final int x, int y]



Formal parameters

x=1000; // Can't assign a value to final variable x.
y=2000;

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



Static → Class level

instance → Object level

Static modifier :-

→ Static is the modifier applicable for variables & methods but not for classes (but innerclass can be declared as static).

→ If the value of a variable is varied from object to object then we should go for instance variable. In the case of instance variable for

→ Every object a separate copy will be created.

→ If the value of a variable is same for all objects then we should go for static variables. In the case of static variable only one copy will be created at class level and share that copy for every object of that class.

The begining
first static variable is created at
when class is created.

Ex:- Class Test

{

int x=10;

Static int y=20;

P.S.V.M(—)

}

Test t₁ = new Test();

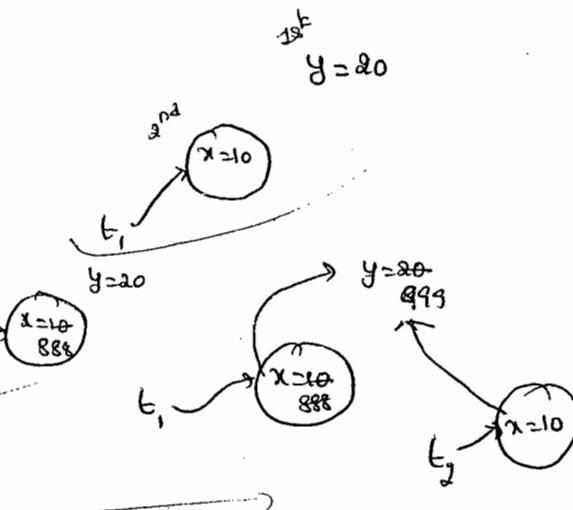
t₁.x = 888; →

t₁.y = 999; →

Test t₂ = new Test();

S.O.println(t₂.x + " --- " + t₂.y);

} 10



for every object a
separate copy will be
created.

- Static members can be accessed from both instance & static areas whereas instance members can be accessed only from instance area directly. i.e., from static area we can't access instance members directly otherwise we will get Compiletime error.

Q) Consider the following declarations

I. int x=10;

II. static int x=10;

III. public void m1()

↓
S.O.println(x);

IV. public static void m1()

↓
S.O.println(x);

→ which of the above we can take simultaneously within the same class.

✓ A) I & IV

✗ B) I & IV. CE! - Non-Static variable x cannot be accessed from static context

✓ C) II & III

✓ D) II & IV

✗ E) I & II

✗ F) III & IV

→ for static methods Compulsory implementation should be available whereas for abstract methods implementation should not be available Hence abstract-static combination is illegal for methods.

→ for static methods overloading concept is applicable Hence within the same class we can declare 2 main methods with different arguments

Ex:- Class Test

↓

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

↓

S.o.pIn(" String[] ");

↓

public static void main(int[] args)

↓

S.o.pIn(" int[] ");

↓ } {

O/P:- String[]

→ But JVM also

→ But Jvm always calls static arguments main method only.

The other main method we have to call explicitly just like a normal method call.

→ Inheritance Concept is applicable for static methods including main() method hence while executing child class if the child does not contain main method then the parent class main method will be executed.

Ex:- Class P



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



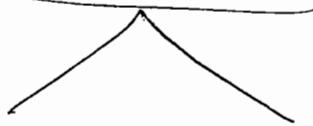
S.o.println ("Parent Class");



Class C extends P



javac p.java



P.class

%p java P

Parent class

%p java C

parent class.

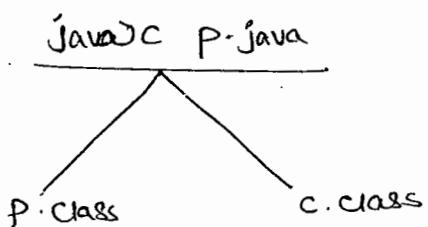
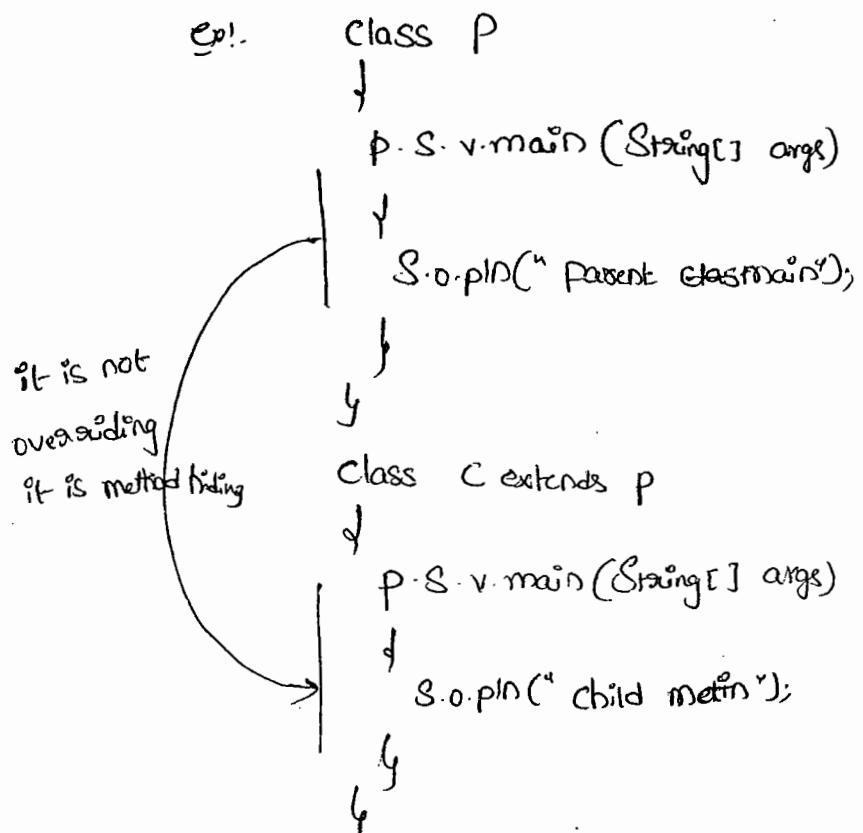
→ It seems that overriding Concept is applicable for static methods but it is not overriding, it is method hiding.

Ex:-

Class P



P.S.V.m (→)



java P ←
parent main

java C ←
child main

native modifier :-

- Native is the modifier applicable only for methods but not for variables and classes.
- The native methods are implemented in some other languages like C & C++ hence native methods also known as "foreign methods".
- The main objectives of native keyword are
 - ① To improve performance of the System.
 - ② To use already existing legacy non-Java code.

Pseudo Code :-

- To use native keyword

Ex:-

```
class Native
```

{

 Static

{

 ③ Load

 native library

 |

 System.loadLibrary("native Library")

}

 ④ Declare

```
    public native void m();
```

 |

 a native method

{

Class Child

↓

```
p.s.v.m(—)
```

{

⑤ Invoke a Native n = new Native();

Native method n.m();

} ;

→ For native methods implementation is already available in other languages and we are not responsible to provide implementation. Hence native method declaration should Compulsory Ends with ";"

e.g. ① class Test

{

 public native void m1();

{

X

}

C.E :- Native methods Can't have a body.

② public native void m1(); ✓

① For native methods implementation should be available in Some other Languages whereas for abstract methods implementation should not be available. Hence abstract-native Combination is illegal Combination for methods.

② Native methods Cannot be declared with Strictfp modifier because There no guarantee that old language follows IEEE 754 Standard.

③ Hence abstract native - Strictfp Combination is illegal for methods.

→ The main disadvantage of native keyword is it breaks platform independent nature of Java. because we are depending on result of platform dependent languages.

④ "Synchronized" modifier :-

- Synchronized is the modifier applicable for methods & blocks.
- we can't declare class & variable with this keyword.
- If a method or block declared as synchronized then at a time only one thread is allowed to operate on the given object.
- The main advantage of synchronized keyword is we can resolve data inconsistency problems. But the main dis-advantage of synchronized keyword is it increases waiting time of thread and effects performance of the system.
- Hence, if there is no specific requirement it is never recommended to use synchronized keyword.

⑤ "transient" modifier :-

- transient is the modifier applicable only for variables & we can't apply for methods & classes.
- At the time of serialization, if we don't want to save the value of a particular variable to meet security constraints, then we should go for transient keyword.
- At the time of serialization JVM ignores the original value of transient variable & default value will be serialization.

⑥ "Volatile" modifier :-

- volatile is the modifier applicable only for variables but not for methods & classes.
- If the value of a variable keep on changing such type of variables we have to declare with volatile modifier.

- If a variable declared as volatile then for every thread a separate local copy will be created.
- Every intermediate modification performed by that thread will take place in local copy instead of master copy.
- Once the value gets finalized just before terminating the thread the master copy value will be updated with local stable value.
- The main advantage of volatile keyword is we can achieve to solve data inconsistency problems.
- But the main disadvantage of volatile keyword is, creating & maintaining a separate copy for every thread, increases complexity of the programming & effects performance of the system. Hence, if there is no specific requirement it is never recommended to use volatile keyword, & it is almost outdated keyword.
- Volatile variable means its value keep on changes whereas as 'final' variable means its value never changes. Hence final-volatile combination is illegal combination for variables.

Conclusion:

- The only applicable modifier for local variables is final.
- The modifiers which are applicable only for variables, but not for classes & methods are: Volatile & transient.
- The modifiers which are applicable only for methods, but not for classes & variables native & synchronized.
- The modifiers which are applicable for top level classes, methods & variables are public, default, final.

modifier	Outer	Inner	methods	variables	blocks	interfaces	enum	Constructors
	classes							
Public	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓
<default>	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓
private	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
protected	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
final	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
abstract	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Static	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Synchronized	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Native	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Struct	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
-transient	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Volatile	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

→ The modifiers which are applicable for inner classes but not for
Outer classes are private, protected, static

Interfaces

- (1) Introduction
- (2) Interface declaration & Implementation
 - (a) extends vs implements.
- (3) Interface methods
- (4) Interface Variables
- (5) Interface Naming Conflicts
 - (i) method Naming Conflicts
 - (ii) Variable " "
- (6) Marker Interface
- (7) Adapter class
- (8) Abstract Class Vs Concrete Class vs Interface.
- (9) diff. b/w abstract class & interface

Interface :-

② Any Service requirement Specification (SRS) is Considered as Interface.

→ from the client point of view ~~as~~ an interface defines the Set of Services what is expecting.

→ from the Service provider point of view an interface defines the Set of Services what is offering.

③ Hence an Interface Considered as Contract b/w Client & Service provider.

Ex:-

→ By using Bank ATM GUI Screen, Bank people will highlight the Set of Services what they are offering At the Same time the same Screen describes the Set of Services what End-user is Expected.

Hence this GUI screen acts as Contract b/w the bank people & customers.

→ with in the Interface we can't write any implementation because it has to highlight just the Set of Services what we are offering or what you are expecting. Hence every method present inside interface should be abstract. Due to this interface is Considered as 100% pure Abstract class

What is an Interface :-

→ Any Service requirement Specification (SRS) \Leftrightarrow Any Contract b/w Client & Service provider (or) 100% pure abstract class is nothing but an Interface.

→ The main Advantages of Interfaces are 172 of 255.

- (i) we can achieve Security, because we are not highlighting our internal implementation.
- (ii) Enhancement will become very easy, because without affecting outside person we can change our internal implementation.
- (iii) Two different Systems can communicate via Interface.
(A Java application can talk with Mainframe System through Interface).

Declaration & Implementation of an Interface :-

→ We can declare an Interface by using Interface keyword, we can implement an Interface by using implements keyword.

Ex:- interface Interf

 |
 void m1(); // by default public abstract void m1();
 void m2();

 |
 abstract class ServiceProvider implements Interf

 |
 → public void m1()
 |
 |
 |

→ If a class implements an interface Compulsory we should provide implementation for every method of that interface otherwise we have to declare class as abstract. Violation leads to Compile-time Error.

→ whenever we are implementing an interface method Compulsory it should be declared as public otherwise we will get CompiletimeError.

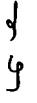
Extends Vs implements :-

1. A class can extend only one class at a time.
2. A class can implement any no. of interfaces at a time.
3. A class can extend a class and can implement any no. of interfaces simultaneously.
4. An interface can extend any no. of interfaces at a time.

Ex:- interface A



interface B



interface C extends A, B



(Q) which of the following is True?

- (1) A class can extend any no. of classes at a time. X
- (2) A class can implement only one Interface at a time. X
- (3) A class can extend a class ^{or} and can implement an interface but not both simultaneously X
- (4) An Interface can extend only one interface at a time X
- (5) An Interface can implement any no. of classes at a time X
- (6) None of the above ✓

Q) Consider the expression

X extends Y — for which of the following possibilities

This Expression is True?

- ① Both should be classes
- ② Both should be interfaces
- ③ Both can be either classes or interfaces
- ④ No restriction.

Ans:

- ① X extends Y, Z
 - (a) X, Y, Z should be interfaces
- ② X extends Y implements Z

X, Y → classes

Z → interfaces

- ③ X implements Y extends Z
- 

Interface methods:-

whether we are declaring or not, every interface method is by default public & abstract

Ex:- interface Interf

```

    |
    |
    |----- Void m1();  

    |  

    |----- public:  

    |
  
```

→ To make this method available for every implementation class.

abstract:-

Because interface methods specifies requirements but not implementation.

Hence the following method declarations are equal inside interface.

- (1) void m1(); ✓
- (2) public void m1(); ✓
- (3) abstract void m1(); ✓
- (4) Public abstract void m1(); ✓

→ As every interface method is by default public & abstract the following modifiers are not applicable for interface methods.

- | | | |
|---------------|---|------------------|
| (1) private | X | (5) static |
| (2) protected | | (6) static fp |
| (3) <default> | | (7) synchronized |
| (4) final | | X |
| (8) native | | |

→ Which of the following method declaration are valid inside interface?

- (1) public void m(); ✓
- (2) public static void m(); X
- (3) public synchronized void m(); X
- (4) private abstract void m(); X
- (5) public abstract void m(); ✓

Interface Variables:-

→ An interface can contain variables. The main purpose of these variables is to specify.

Constants at requirement Level:-

→ Every interface variable is always public, static, final whether we are declaring or not.

interface Inter

 ↓

 int x=10;

 {

public :- To make this variable available for every implementation class.

static :- without existing object also implementation class can access this variable.

final :- implementation class can access this variable but can't modify.

→ Hence inside interface the following declaration are valid & equal.

- 1) int x=10;
- 2) public int x=10;
- 3) public static int x=10;

- 4) public static final int x=10;
- 5) public static int x=10;
- 6) final public int x=10;
- 7) public final int x=10;

g) Static final int $x=10;$

→ As interface variables are public static & final we can't declare with the following modifiers.

- (1) private (3) <default> (5) volatile .
- (2) protected (4) transient

→ for the interface variable compulsorily one should perform initialization at the time of declaration only otherwise will get compile time error.

* Interface Interf

↓
int $x;$ X C.E :- = Expected.
↓

→ which of the following variable declarations are allowed inside interface.

- (1) int $x=10;$ ✓
- (2) int $x;$ X
- (3) private int $x=10;$ X
- (4) public int $x=10;$ ✓

(5) transient int $x=10;$ X

(6) volatile int $x=10;$ X

(7) public static final int $x=10;$ ✓

→ Inside implementation classes we can access interface variables but we can't modify these values.

Ex:-

interface Interf

}

int x=10;

}

Class Test implements Interf

{

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

{

x=888;

X

s.o.println(x);

}

C.E.:

Class Test implements Interf

{

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

{

int x=88;

{

s.o.println(x); 88

✓

Interface Naming Conflicts :-

① Method Naming Conflicts :-

Case:-

→ If Two interfaces contains a method with same signature & same return type in the implementation class we can provide implementation for only one method.

Ex:-

interface Left

/

public void m1();

}

interface Right

/

public void m1();

}

Class Test implements Left, Right



Public void m1()



Case 2:-

→ If Two interfaces Contains a method with same name but different args then, in the implementation class we have to provide implementation for both methods & these methods are Considered as overloaded methods.

Eg:-

Interface Left



Public void m1();



Interface Right



Public void m1(int i);



Class Test implements Left, Right



Public void m1()



Public void m1(int i)



Overloaded
methods



Case 3 :-

→ If Two Interfaces Contains a method with Same Signature but different return types. Then it is impossible to implement both interfaces at a time.

Ex:-

Interface Left



public void m1();



Interface Right



public int m1();



→ We Can't write any Java class which implements both interfaces simultaneously.

② Is It possible A Java class can implement any no. of interfaces simultaneously.

* Yes, Except If Two interfaces Contains a method with same signature but different return types.

③ Variable naming Conflicts :-

Interface Left



int x=888;



Interface Right



int x=999;



Class Test implements Left, Right

{

P.S.v.m ()

{

S.o.println(x);

}

}

C.E. - reference to x is ambiguous.

→ There may be a chance of 2 interfaces Contains available

with same name & may arise variable naming conflicts But

we can resolve these naming conflicts by using interface names.

S.o.p(Left.x) ; 888

S.o.p(Right.x) ; 999

*Marked Interface :-

Ex:- Kenya

→ If an interface wont contain any method & by implementing

that interface if other objects will get ability such type of

interfaces are called marked interface (or). Tag interface or

ability interface.

Ex:- Serializable, Clonable, RandomAccess, Single Thread Model.

→ These interfaces are marked from some ability.

Ex:- By implementing Serializable interface we can send object

across the Net and we can save state of object to a file.

This extra ability is provided through Serializable interface.

- Ex:- By implementing Cloneable interface our object will be in a position to provide exactly duplicate objects.
- Q) Marker interface won't contain any method then how the objects will get that special ability?
- A) JVM is responsible to provide required ability in marker interfaces.
- Q) Why JVM is providing required ability in marker interface?
- A) To reduce complexity of the programming.
- Q) Is it possible to create our own marker interface?
- A) Yes, But customization of JVM is required.

Ex:- Sleepable, Eatble, Jumpable, Lovable, Funnable.

Adapter class :-

→ Adapter class is a simple java class that implements an interface, an interface only with empty implementation.

<pre>interface X { m1(); m2(); ! m1000(); }</pre>	<pre>abstract class Adapter X implements X { m1() {} m2() {} ! m1000() {} }</pre>	<p>If we create an object for this empty result so for this class we declare as abstract by default abstract.</p>
---	---	--

→ If we implement an interface directly ~~as~~ Compulsory we should provide implementation for every method of that interface, whether we are interested or not & whether it is required or not. It increases length of the code, so that readability will be reduced.

Class Test implements X

```

{
    m1() { }
    m2() { }
    m3() {
        ...
    }
    ...
    m100() { }
}
```

If we extends adapter class instead of implementation interface directly then we have to provide implementation of only required method but not all this approach reduce length of the code & improves readability.

⇒ Class Test extends Adapter X

```

{
    m4()
    ...
    m100()
}
```

Concrete class Vs abstract class Vs interface :-

→ we don't know any thing about implementation Just we have requirements Specification, then we should go for interface

Ex:- Servlet.

→ we are talking about implementation but not completely (Just partially implementation) Then we should go for abstract class.

Ex:- Generic-Servlet

Http-Servlet

→ we are talking about implementation Completely & ready to provide service, Then we should go for concrete class.

Ex:- Our own Servlet.

Difference b/w interfaces & abstract class:-

Interface	abstract class
1) If we don't know any thing about implementation just we have requirement specification. Then we should go for interface.	1) If we are talking about implementation but not completely (Partially implementation) then we should go for abstract class.
2) Every method present inside interface is by default public & abstract.	2) Every method present inside abstract class need not be public & abstract. We can take concrete methods also.
3) The following modifiers are not allowed for interface methods: strictfp, protected, static, native private, final, synchronized,	3) There are no restrictions for abstract class method modifiers i.e., we can use any modifier.

- 4) every variable present inside interface is public, static final, by default whether we are declare or not.
- 5) for the interface variables we can't declare the following modifiers private, protected, transient, volatile.
- 6) for the interface variables Compulsory we should perform initialization at the time of declaration. Only
- 7) Inside interface we can't take instance & static blocks.
- 8) Inside interface we can't take constructor.
- 4) abstract class variables need not be public, final, static.
- 5) There are no restriction for abstract class variable modifiers.
- 6) for the abstract class variables there is no restriction like performing initialization at the time of declaration.
- 7) Inside abstract class we can take static block & instance blocks.
- 8) Inside abstract class we can take constructor.

Q) Inside abstract class we can take constructor but we can't create an object of abstract class, what is the need?

A) → abstract class constructor will be executed whenever we are create child class object to perform initialization of parent class instance variable at parent level only and this constructor meant for child object creation only

Q) Inside interface every method should be abstract whereas in abstract class also we can take only abstract methods then what is the need of interface?

A) → Interface purpose we can replace abstract class but it is not a good programming practice we are miss using the role of abstract class.
→ we should bring abstract class into the picture whenever we are talking about implementation.

28/4/11

OOPS Concept

- 1) Data hiding 2
 - 2) Abstraction 2
 - 3) Encapsulation 2
 - 4) Tightly Encapsulated class 3
 - 5) IS-A Relationship 3
 - 6) Has-A Relationship 5
 - 7) method Signature 6
 - * 8) Overloading 7
 - 9) Overriding 10
 - 10) Method hiding 14
 - 11) Static Control flow 18
 - 12) Instance Control flow 22
 - 13) Constructors 24
 - 14) Coupling 32
 - 15) Cohesion 43
 - 16) Type-Casting -40
- polymorphism - 17
- Type-Casting = 40

① Data Hiding :-

- Hiding of the data, So that outside person can't access our data directly.
- By using private modifier we can implement Data Hiding.

Ex:-

Class Account



private double balance = 1000;



- The main Advantage of Data Hiding is we can achieve Security.

② Abstraction :-

- Hiding internal implementation details & just highlight the set of services what we are offering, is called "Abstraction".

Ex:-

- By Bank ATM machine, Bank people will highlight the set of services what they are offering without highlighting internal implementation. This concept is nothing but Abstraction.

- By using interfaces & abstract classes we can achieve abstraction.

- The main Advantages of Abstraction are.

- 1) We can achieve Security as no one is allowed to know our internal implementation.

- 2) Without affecting outside person we can change our internal implementation hence Enhancement will become 191 of 256 easy.

→ The main disadvantage of Encapsulation is it increases the length of the code & slows down execution.

4) Tightly Encapsulated class:-

→ A class is said to be tightly encapsulated iff every data member declared as the private.

→ whether the class contains getter & setter methods are not & whether those methods declared as public or not these are not required to check.

Ex:-

```
Class A
{
    private int balance;
    public int getBalance()
    {
        return balance;
    }
}
```

Q:- Which of the following classes are Tightly Encapsulated.

```
✓ Class A
  |
  | private int x=10;
  |
  ✓ Class B extends A
  |
  | int y=20;
  |
  ✓ Class C extends A
  |
  | private int z=30;
```

q6

→ It improves modularity of the application. meaning?

3) Encapsulation :-

→ Encapsulating data & corresponding methods (behaviour) into a single module is called "Encapsulation".

→ If any Java class follows Data Hiding & Abstraction such type of class is said to Encapsulated class.

Encapsulation = Data Hiding + Abstraction

Ex:-

Class Account

{

 private double balance;

 public double getBalance()

 {

 // validate user

 return balance;

 }

 public void setBalance(double balance)

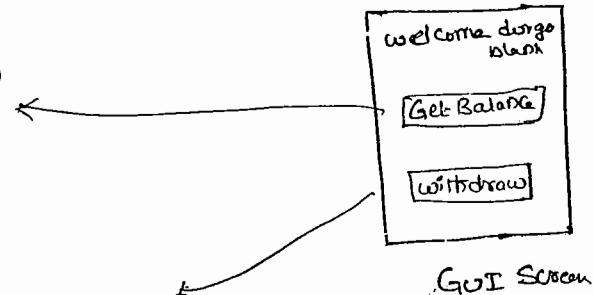
 {

 // validate user

 this.balance = balance;

 }

}



GUI Screen

→ Hiding data behind methods is the Central Concept of Encapsulation

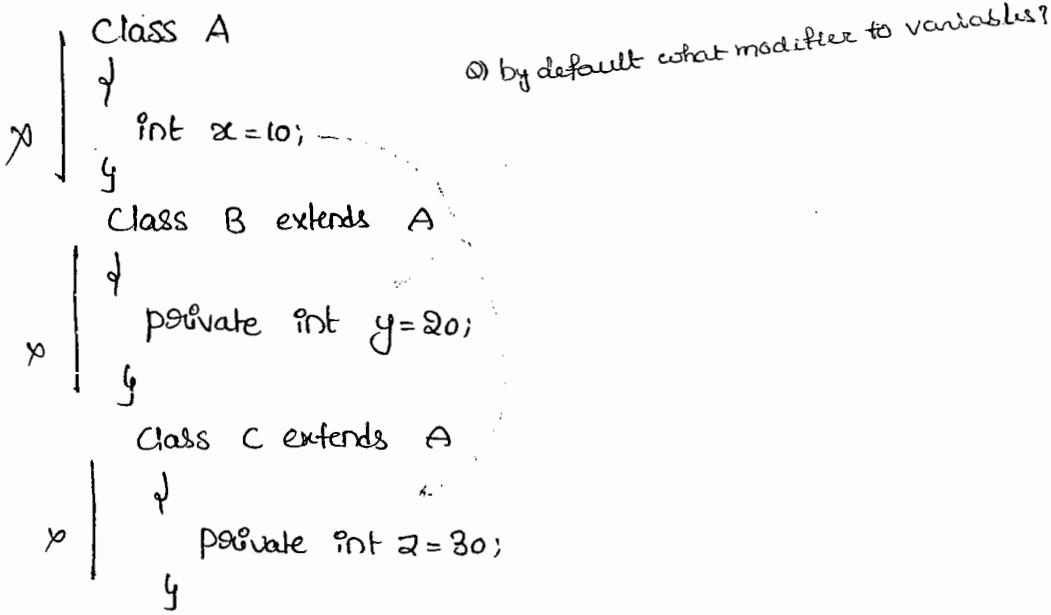
→ The main advantages of Encapsulation are ① We can achieve Security.

② Enhancement will become very easy.

③ Improves modularity of the application.

Ex 3:- Which of the following classes are Tightly Encapsulated.

Ex:-



Conclusion :-

→ If parent class is not tightly Encapsulated then no child class is Tightly Encapsulated.

5) IS-A Relationship :-

→ It is also known as Inheritance

→ By using extends Keyword we can implement IS-A Relationship

→ The main advantage of IS-A Relationship is Reusability of the code.

Ex:- Class P

```

    |
    | public void m1()
    |
    |     |
    |     | ====
    |
    |     |
    |     | y
  
```

Class C extends P

```

    |
    |     |
    |     | public void m2()
    |
    |     |
    |     | y
  
```

Class Test

↓

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

↓

Case 1: P p = new P();

p.m1(); ✓

p.m2(); X → c.e! - Cannot find Symbol

Symbol : method m2()

location: class P

Case 2:

C c = new C();

c.m1(); ✓

c.m2(); ✓

* Case 3:

P p = new C();

p.m1(); ✓

P.p.m2(); X → c.e!

* Case 4:

C c = new P(); X c.e! Incompatible types

found : P

Required : C

Conclusion(1):

① whatever the parent class has by default available to the child. Hence ^{with theon} child class reference we can call both parent & child class methods.

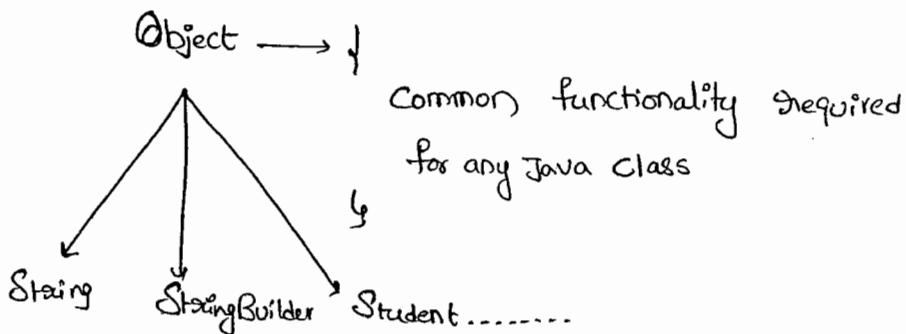
② whatever the child has by default not available to the parent hence on the parent class reference we can call only parent class methods & we can't call child specific methods.

③ Parent class reference can be used to hold child class objects by using that reference we can call only parent class methods but we can't call child specific methods.

④ We can't use child class reference to hold parent class objects.

Ex:-

① The common functionality which is required for any java classes is defined in Object class and by keeping that class as Super class it's functionality by default available to every Java classes.



Ex:- The common functionality which is required for all Exceptions & Errors is defined in Throwable class as Throwable is parent for all Exceptions & Errors, its functionality will be available automatically to every child not required to rewrite.

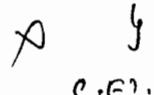
Q) Does 'Throwable' have 'Object' as parent class?
Ans: Yes

→ Java won't provide support for multiple inheritance but through interfaces it is possible.

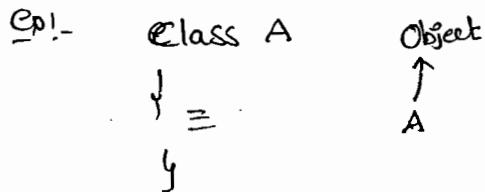
Ex:-

Class A extends B, C

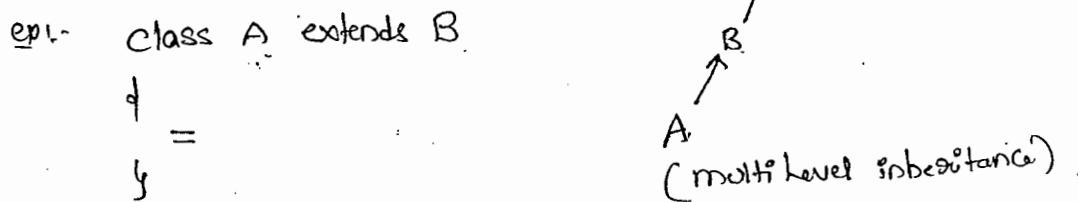
But Interface A extends B, C



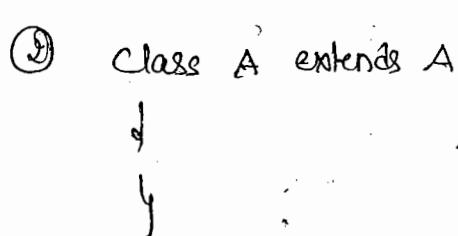
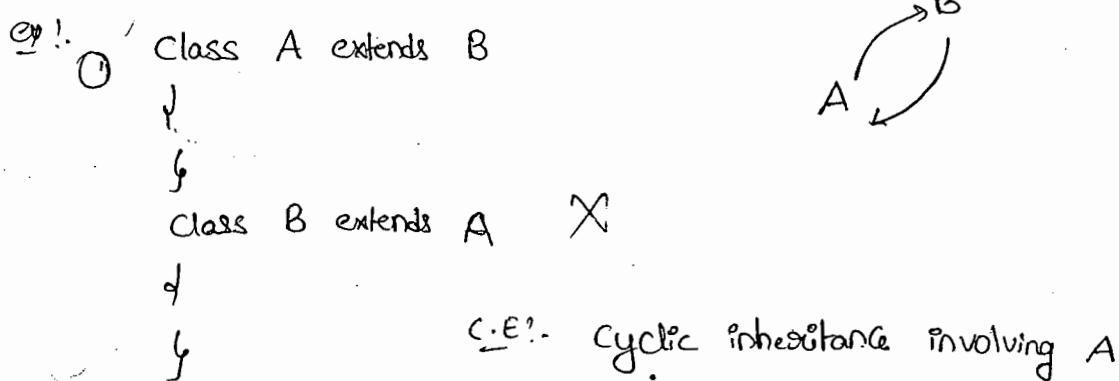
- Every class in Java is the child class of Object.
- If our class doesn't extend any other class then only it is the direct child class of Object.



- If our class extend any other class then our class is not directly child class of Object.



- Cyclic inheritance is not allowed in Java



6) Has - A Relationship :-

- Has-A Relationship is also Known as "Composition or Aggregation".
- There is no Specific Keyword to implement Has-A Relationship the Mostly we are using 'new keyword'.
- The main advantage of Has-A Relationship is Reusability or (Code Reusability)

Ex:-

Class Car

↓

Engine e = new Engine();

{

Class Engine

↓

// Engine Specific functionality

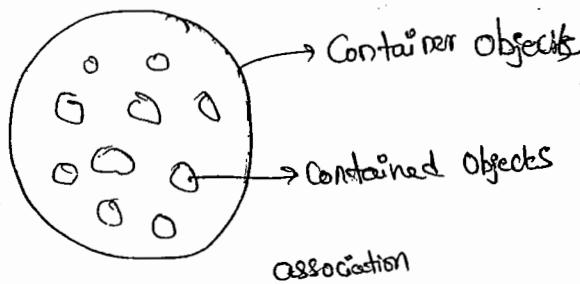
{

Class Car has Engine reference.

- The main disadvantage of Has-A Relationship is it increases dependency b/w the classes and creates maintenance problems.

Composition Vs Aggregation :-

- In the Case of Composition whenever Container objects is destroyed All Contained Objects will be destroyed automatically. i.e, without Existing Container Object there is no chance of existing contained object b/w Container & Contained objects having Strong association

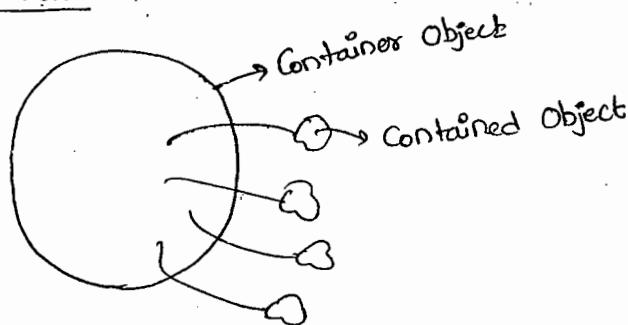


Ex:-

- University is Composed of Several departments
- whenever you are closing University automatically all departments will be closed. The relationship b/w University Object & department object is Strong association which is nothing but Composition.

- Aggregation :-

- whenever Container Object destroyed, There is no guarantee of destruction of Contained Objects ie, without existing Container Object there may be a chance of existing Contained Object i.e, Container Object just maintains References to Contained Objects. This relationship is Called Weak association which is nothing but "Aggregation".



Ex:-

- Several professors will work in the department
- whenever we are closing the department Still there may be a chance of existing professors. The relationship b/w department & professor is called weak association which is nothing but Aggregation.

```

public void m1(int i)
{
    System.out.println("int-arg");
}

public void m1(float f)
{
    System.out.println("float-arg");
}

P.S.V.m(____)
{
    Test t = new Test();
    t.m1(); // no-arg
    t.m1(10); // int-arg
    t.m1(10.5f); // float-arg
}

```

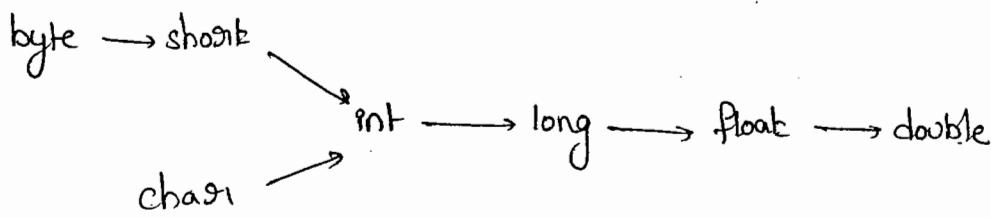
- * → In Overloading method resolution always takes care by Compiler based on reference type. Hence overloading is also Considered as Compiletime polymorphism or Static polymorphism or Early binding.
- In Overloading reference type will play very important role & Runtime Object will be dummy.

Case 1 :-

* Automatic promotion in Overloading :-

- In Overloading method resolution, if the matched method with Specified argument type is not available then Compiler won't raise 200 of 255.

- any Error immediately. If it promotes that assignment to the next level and checks for matched method.
- If the matched method is available then it will be considered and if it is not available then Compiler once again promoted this assignment to the next level.
- This process will be continued until all possible promotions after completing all promotions still if the matched method is not available then only we will get C.E.
- This ~~feature~~ is called Automatic promotion in overloading.
- The following are various possible promotions in overloading.



Case 1 :-

Ex:- Class Test

```

public void m1(int i)
{
    System.out.println("int-arg");
}

public void m1(float f)
{
    System.out.println("float-arg");
}

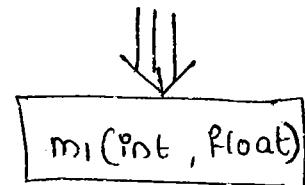
public void m1(String[] args)
{
}
  
```

Test t = new Test();

Method Signature :-

→ method Signature consists of name of the method & argument list.

Ex:- public void m1 (int i, float p)



- In Java return type is not part of method Signature.
- Compiler will always use method Signature while resolving method calls
- Within the same class Two methods with the same signature not allowed. Otherwise we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-

class Test

 public void m1 (int i)

 public int m1 (int i)

 return 10;

m1(int)
is the method Signature.

Test t = new Test()

t.m1(10);

C.E:- m1(int) has already defined
in Test

Overloading

Overloading:-

- Two methods are said to Overloaded iff method names are same but arguments are different.
- Lack of overloading in 'C' increases Complexity of the program.

In C, language if there is a change in method argument type
Compulsory we should go for new method name.

Ex:- $\text{abs}()$ $\rightarrow \text{int}$
 $\text{labs}()$ $\rightarrow \text{long}$
 $\text{fabs}()$ $\rightarrow \text{float}$
 \equiv

- But in Java Two methods having the Same Name with different arguments is allowed & These methods are Considered as Overloaded methods.

Ex:- $\text{abs}(\text{int})$
 $\text{abs}(\text{long})$
 $\text{abs}(\text{float})$
 \equiv

- Having overloading Concept in Java Simplifies The programming

Ex:- Class Test

```
    ↓  
    public void m1()  
    {  
        System.out.println(" no -arg");  
    }
```

Case 1:- In Overloading mode more specific version will get highest priority.
what does it mean?

104

Case 2:-

Ex:- Class Test

↓
public void m1(StringBuffer sb)

↓
System.out.println("StringBuffer - args");

↓
public void m1(String s)

↓
System.out.println("String - version");

↓
public String v1(m1())
By default String
constant of String class
object type
etc integral constant of int
floating literal "Hello"

Test t = new Test();

t.m1(new StringBuffer("duaga")); // StringBuffer - args

t.m1("duaga"); // String version

X t.m1(null);

X // C.E:- Reference m1() is ambiguity.

t.m('a'); // int-arg

t.m(10); // float-arg

t.m(10.5); X c.e.

Cannot find symbol

Symbol: method m (double)

location: class Test

}

}

Case 2:-

→ In overloading method resolution child-argument will get more priority than parent argument.

Eg:-

Class Test

{

① public void m1(Object o)

{

System.out.println("Object Version");

}

② public void m1(String s)

{

System.out.println("String Version");

}

p. S.v.m (—)

{

Test t = new Test();

t.m1(new Object()); // Object-version

t.m1("String"); // String-version (String the obj is object suppose ② statement takes //

t.m1(null); // String-version (String the obj is object of 255.)

{}

Object

↑

String

→ Hence overriding is also known as "Runtime polymorphism (or) dynamic polymorphism (or) late binding".

→ Overriding method resolution is also known as "Dynamic method dispatch".

Rules for Overriding :-

- ① In overriding method names & assignments must be matched i.e., method signatures must be matched.
- ② In overriding return type must be matched, But this rule is applicable until 1.4 version, from 1.5 version onwards Co-variant return types are allowed. according to this, child method return type need not be same as parent method return type. its child classes also allowed.

Ex:-

Class P



Public Object m1()



Class C extends P



Public String m1()



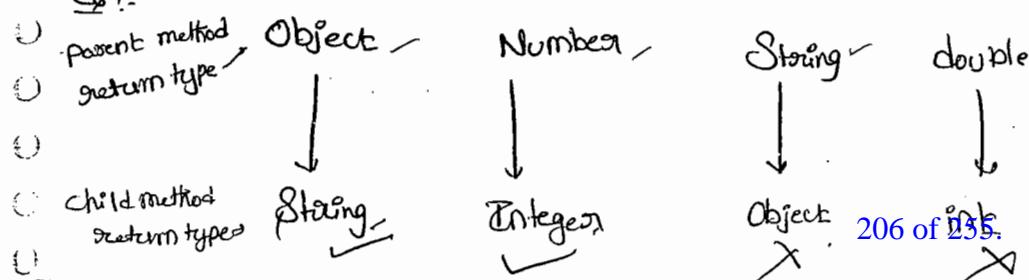
return null;



It is valid in 1.5v,

But invalid in 1.4v

Ex!:-

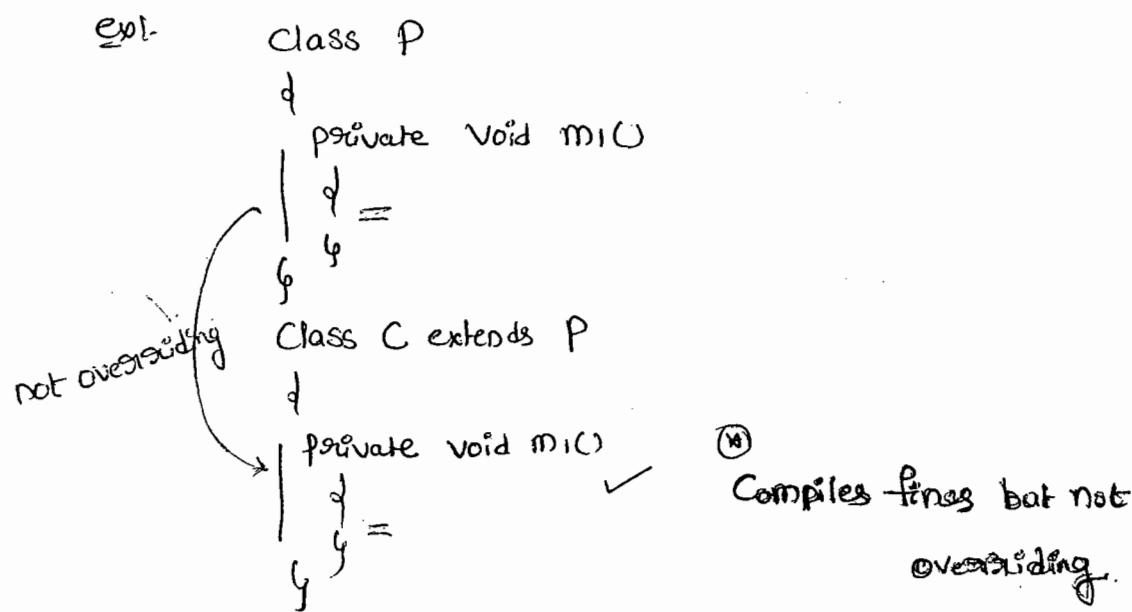


→ Co-variant return type concept is applicable only for object type but not for primitive types.

③ We can't override parent class final method. But we can use it as it is.

④ Private methods are not visible in child classes hence overriding concept is not applicable for private methods.

⑤ → Based on our requirement we can declare the same parent class private method in child class also it is valid but it is not overriding.



→ For parent class abstract methods we should override in child class to provide implementation.

⑦ → We can override parent class non-abstract method as abstract in child class to stop parent class method implementation availability to the child classes.

Ex:- Class P

```

    |
    public void p()
  
```

```

    |
    |
    |
  
```

abstract class C extends P

```

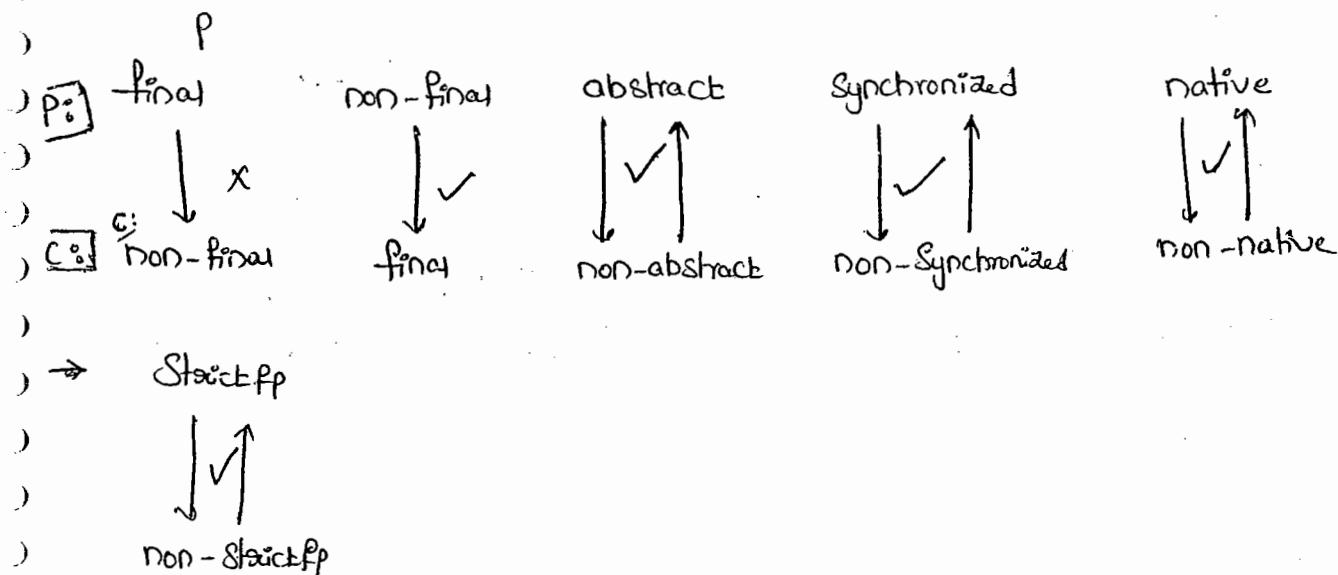
    |
    public abstract void p(); ✓
  
```

```

    |
    |
    |
  
```

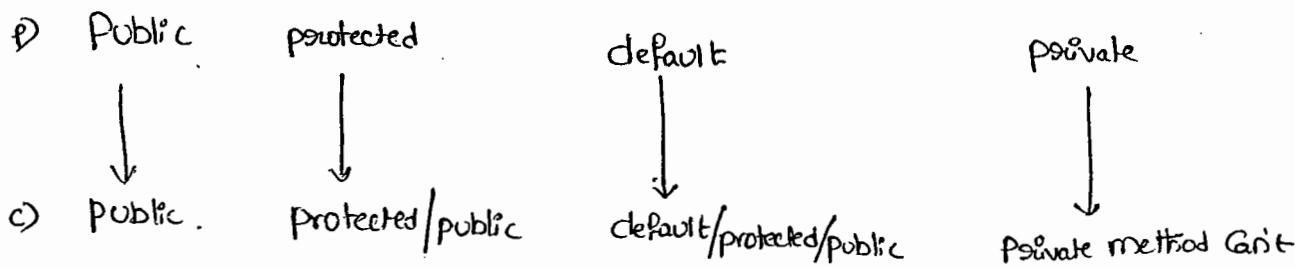
→ The following modifiers won't play any restrictions in overriding

- ① native
- ② synchronized
- ③ strictfp



→ while overriding we can't decrease scope of the modifier
 but we can increase the following are various acceptable overridings

private < default < protected < public



Eg:- Class P

↓
public void m1() { }

}

Class C extends P

↓

protected void m1() X

}

}

C.E.

m1 in C Can't override in C

→ This rule is applicable while implementing interface methods also.

→ Whenever we are implementing any interface method Compulsory it should be declared as public. Because every interface method is public by default.

Ex:- interface Interf

↓

void m1();

Y

Class Test implements Interf

if we declare
public we won't
get any C.E

↓

void m1()

X C.E:-

→ If child class method throws some checked exception then Compulsory Parent class method should throw the same checked exception or its class exception.
Parent, otherwise we will get C.E.

→ But there is no rule for unchecked exception.

Ex:-① Class P



Public void m1()



Class C extends P



Public void m1() throws Exception



C.E!:- m1() in C can't override m1() in P;

Overridden method does not throw exception.

Ex②:-

Ⓐ P: Public void m1() throws IOException

✓ C: Public void m1()

Ⓑ P: Public void m1()

✗ C: Public void m1() throws IOException

Ⓒ P: Public void m1() throws Exception

✓ C: Public void m1() throws IOException

Ⓓ P: Public void m1() throws IOException

✗ C: Public void m1() throws Exception 210 of 255.

- ⑤ ✓ P: public void m1() throws IOException
C: public void m1() throws FileNotFoundException, EOFException

- ⑥ ✓ P: public void m1() throws IOException
✗ C: public void m1() throws EOFException, InterruptedException

- ⑦ ✓ P: public void m1() throws IOException
✓ C: public void m1() throws AE, NPE

- ⑧ ✓ P: public void m1()
✓ C: public void m1() throws AE, NPE

Overriding w.r.t static method :-

→ We Can't override a static method as non-static.

Ex:- Class P

{

 public static void m1()

 |

 ↳

}

static
↓
non-static

Class C extends P

{

 public void m1()

 |

 ↳

}

X

C.E:- m1() can't override m1() in P;

overridden method is static.

→ Similarly, we can't override non-static method as static.

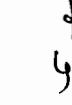
→ If both parent & child class method ~~class~~ are static then

We want to get any C.E it seems to be overriding is happen, but it is not overriding. It is "Method Hiding".

Ex:- Class P

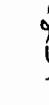


Public static void m1()



Class C extends P

Public static void m1()



-) It is not overriding
- ↪ It is "method hiding"

Method Hiding :-

- All rules of Method Hiding are Exactly Same as Overriding
- Except the following difference.

Method Hiding

- 1) Both methods should be static
- 2) Method Resolution takes care by Compiler based on Reference type.
- 3) It is Considered as Compile-time Polymorphism or Static Polymorphism or Early Binding.

Overriding

- 1) Both methods should be non-static.
- 2) Method Resolution always takes care by JVM based on Runtime Object.
- 3) It is Considered as Runtime Polymorphism or Dynamic Polymorphism or Late Binding.

Ex:-

Class P

↓
public static void m1()

↓
System.out.println("parent");

Class C extends P

↓
public static void m1()

↓
System.out.println("child");

method hiding

Class Test

↓
P.S.V.m1() →

P p = new P();

p.m1(); → parent

C c = new C();

c.m1(); → child

P p1 = new C();

p1.m1(); Parent

}

→ If both methods are non-static then it will become overriding in this case the o/p is: Parent

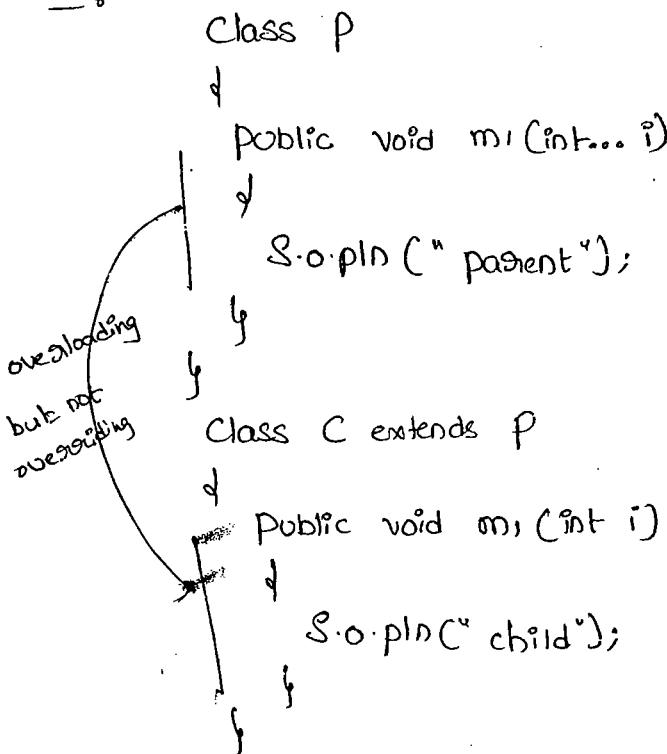
Child

Child

Overshielding w.r.t. Var-arg methods :-

- We can't override a Var-arg method with general method. If we are trying to override it will become overloading but not overriding.
- A Var-arg method should be overridden with Var-arg method only.

Ex:-



Class Test

p.s.v.m →

P p = new P();

P.m1(10); // Parent

C c = new C();

C.m1(10); // child

P p = new C();

P.m1(10); // Parent

→ If both parent & child class methods are Var-a-ing Then it will becomes overriding in this case o/p is parent child child

OVERRIDING w.r.t Variables :-

→ Overriding Concept is not applicable for variables.

→ Variable Resolution always takes care by Compiler based on reference type. Runtime object won't to play any role in variable resolution.

Ex:-

Class P

↓
int x = 888;

both static

Class C extends P

↓
int x = 999;

↓

Class Test

↓

P.S.V.M(→)

↓

P p = new P();

S.o.println(p.x); // 888 ←

C c = new C();

S.o.println(c.x); // 999 ✓

P p1 = new C();

S.o.println(p1.x); 888.

↓
}

both static | both instance | one static & one instance
o/p 888 | o/p 888 | o/p 888

→ whether the variables are static or non-static there is no change in result.

Difference b/w Overloading & Overriding :-

Property	Overloading	OVERRIDING
① method names	must be same	must be same
② arguments	must be different (at least order)	must be same (including order)
③ Method Signature	must be different	must be same.
④ return type	No restrictions	must be same until 1.4v but from 1.5v onwards Co-varient return types are allowed.
⑤ private, static & final methods	Can be overloaded	Can't be overridden
⑥ access modifiers	No restrictions	Scope we can't decrease the scope.
⑦ throws clause	No restrictions	Size & level of checked exceptions we can't increase but we can decrease. But no restrictions for unchecked exceptions.
⑧ method resolution	Always takes care by compiler based on reference type	Always takes care by JVM based on runtime object
⑨ Also known as	Compile-time polymorphism (2) of 255 Static polymorphism (a) Early binding	Runtime polymorphism (a) dynamic polymorphism (b) Late binding.

Note:-

- In Overloading we have to check only method names (must be same) & arguments (must be diff.) All remaining terms like (return type, throws clause, access modifiers etc.) are not required to check.
- But in Overriding we have to check each & every thing.

Q) Consider the following method declaration in parent class
which of the following methods allowed in child class?

P: public void m1(int i) throws IOException

- ① public void m1(int i) *Overriding*
- ② public void m1() throws Exception *overloading*
- ③ public static int m1(double d) throws IOException *overloading*
- C.E X ④ public int m1(int i)
- C.E X ⑤ public synchronized void m1(int i) throws Exception
- overloading ⑥ public static void m1(int... i) throws Exception
- C.E X ⑦ public native abstract void m1().throws Exception.

Polymorphism

↳ poly → many

morphs $\xrightarrow{\text{means}}$ forms

i.e polymorphism means many forms

→ we can use same name to represent multiple forms in polymorphism.

Ex:- → In overriding we can have a method with one type of implementation in parent, but different type of implementation in child class.

→ There are 2 types of polymorphism.

Polymorphism

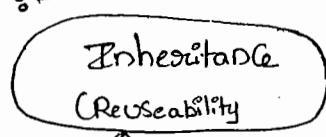
Compile-time polymorphism

Ex:- Overloading
Method Hiding

Run-time polymorphism

Ex:- Overriding.

3 Pillars of OOPS :-



OOPS

Encapsulation
(Security)

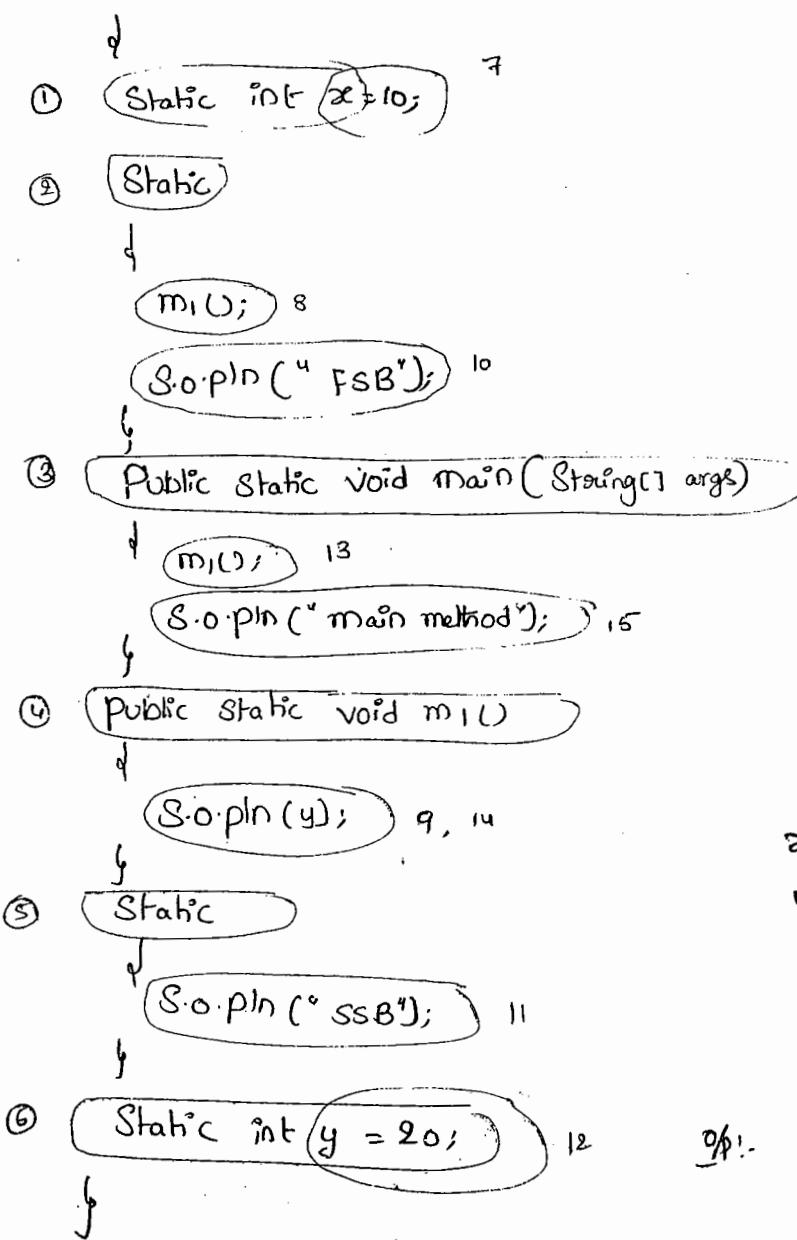
Polymorphism
(Flexibility)

Funny definition of polymorphism :-

→ A boy uses the word FRIENDSHIP to starts LOVE, but girl uses the same word to ~~close~~^{ends}. Same word but different attitudes. This behaviour is nothing but polymorphism.

Static Control flow :-

Ex:- Class Base



$$x = 0 [R\&W]$$

$$y = 0 [R\&W]$$

$$x = 10 [R\&W]$$

$$y = 20 [R\&W]$$

Op:-
0
FSB
SSB
20
main method.

Process:-

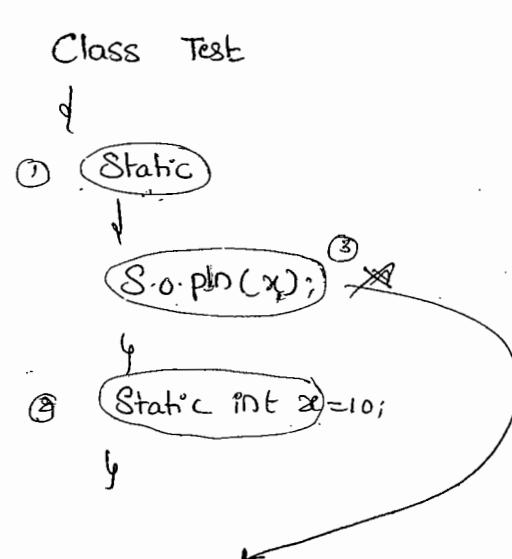
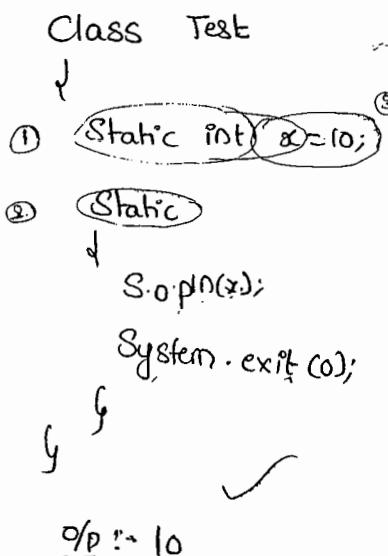
→ whenever we are trying to execute a Java class first that .class file should be loaded, at the time class loading the following actions will be performed automatically.

- ① Identification of static members from Top to bottom. (1 to 6)
 - ② Execution of static variable assignments & static blocks from top to bottom (7 to 12)
 - ③ Execution of main method. (13 to 15)

Read Indirectly write only state (RI WOS)

→ If a variable is in Read indirectly write only state then we can't perform Read operation directly otherwise we will get Compile-time Error saying "Illegal Forward-Reference".

१०



C.E! - Illegal Forward Reference

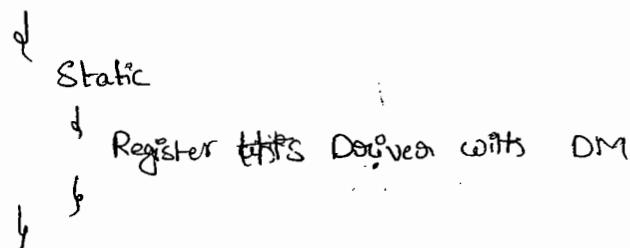
Static block :-

- At the time of class loading if we want to perform any activity we have to define that activity inside static block because static blocks will be executed at the time of class loading.
- Within a class we can take any no. of static blocks but all these static blocks will be executed from top to bottom.

Ex(1) :-

- After loading JDBC driver class we have to register driver with driver manager but every Driver class contains a static block to perform this activity at the time of Driver class loading automatically we are not responsible to perform register explicitly.

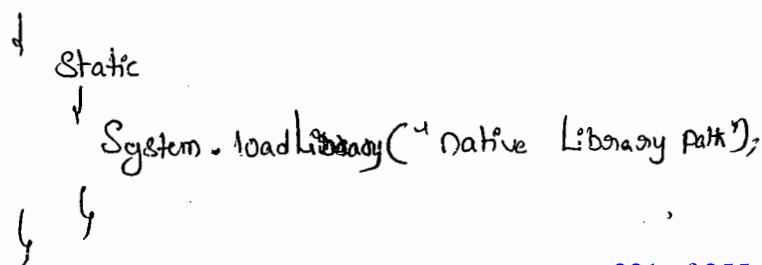
Ex:- Class Driver



Ex(2) :- Advantage:

- At the time of class loading ^{Compulsory} we have to load the corresponding native libraries hence we can define this step inside static block.

Ex:- Class Native



Static Control flow in parents child classes :-

Class Base



① Static int $x=10$; ⑫

② Static



$m_1();$ ⑬



$\&\text{o}\cdot\text{pln}(\text{"Base SB"});$ ⑭

③ Public static void main(—)



$m_1();$

$\&\text{o}\cdot\text{pln}(\text{"Base main"});$



④ public static void $m_1()$



$\&\text{o}\cdot\text{pln}(y);$ ⑮



⑤ Static int $y=20$; ⑯



Class Derived extends Base



⑥ Static int $j=100$; ⑰



$m_2();$ ⑱



$\&\text{o}\cdot\text{pln}(\text{"DFSB"});$ ⑲

③ Public static void main(—)



$m_2();$ ⑳



$\&\text{o}\cdot\text{pln}(\text{"Derived main"});$ ㉑

⑨ Public static void main()

↓

S.o.println(j); ⑯ ⑰

↳

⑩ Static

↓

S.o.p("DSSB"); ⑲

↳

⑪ Static int j=200; ⑳

↳

> Java Derived

O/P:- 0

Base SB

0

DSSB

DSSB

200

Derived main

x=0 [R I WO]

y=0 [R I WO]

i=0 [R I WO]

j=0 [R I WO]

x=10 [R I W]

y=20 [R & W]

i=100 [R & W]

j=200 [R & W]

> Java Base

0

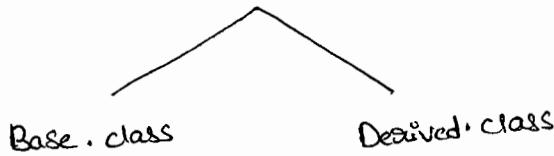
Base SB

20

Base main.

Process:-

> javac Derived.java



> java Derived

① Identification of static members from parent to child [1 to 11]

② Execution of static variable assignments & static blocks from parent to child [12 to 22]

*③ Execution of only child class main method [23 to 25]

(because main() method of parent class is overriding in child class, then child-class main() method executed)

Process :-

→ whenever we are trying to load child class Then automatically parent class will be loaded to make parent class members available to the child class. Hence whenever we are executing child class the following is the flow with respect to static members step.

- (1) Identification of static members from parent to child
- (2) Execution of static variable assignments & static blocks from parent to child.
- (3) Execution of only child class main method. [If the child class won't contain main method Then automatically parent class main() method will be executed].

Note :-

When ever we are loading child class automatically parent class will be loaded. But when ever we are loading parent class child class wont be loaded.

Instance Control flow :-

class Parent

{

③ int x=10; ⑨

④ m(); ⑩

System.out.println("FIB"); ⑫

}

⑤ Parent()

{

System.out.println("Constructor"); ⑯

}

① Public static void main(String args)

{

② Parent p = new Parent();

System.out.println("main");

}

⑥ Public void m()

{

System.out.println(y); ⑪

}

⑦ { → instance block

System.out.println("SIB"); ⑬

}

⑧ int y=20; ⑭

}

x=0 [R I W O]

y=0 [R I W O]

x=10 [R W]

y=20 [R W]

O/P:-

O

FIB

SIB

Constructor
main.

Process :-

→ whenever we are creating an object the following sequence of events will be performed automatically.

- (1) Identification of instance members from top to bottom [1 to 8]
- (2) Execution of instance variable assignments & instance blocks from top to bottom [9 - 14]
- (3) Execution of constructor [15]

Note :-

→ Static control flow is only one time activity and it will be performed at the time of class loading but instance control flow is not one time activity for every object creation it will be executed.

Instance Control flow from parent to child :-

Class Parent

↓

③ int x = 10; ⑯

④ ↓

m1(); ⑯

S.o.pln("parent"); ⑯

}

⑤ Parent()

↓

S.o.pln("parent constructor"); ⑯

}

① public static void main()

{

② Parent p = new Parent();

s.o.println(" Child main"); ③
y

④ public void m1()

{

s.o.println(y); ⑤

y

⑥ int y=20; ⑦

y

Class Child extends Parent

y

⑧ int i=100; ⑨

y

⑩ m2(); ⑪

s.o.println(" CIIIB"); ⑫

y

⑬ Child()

y

s.o.println(" Child Constructor"); ⑬

y

⑭ Public static void main()

y

⑮ Child c = new Child();

y

s.o.println(" Child main"); ⑯

y

⑰ public void m2()

y

s.o.println(j); ⑰

o

Parent

Parent Constructor

o

CIIIB

CSIIIB

Child Constructor

Child main.

113

93

(16) S.o.pIn ("CSIIB"); (26)

int j = 200; (27)

۶۹

Process :-

- whenever we are creating child class object
the following sequence of events will be performed automatically.
 - (1) Identification of instance members from parent to child.
 - (2) Execution of instance variable assignments & instance blocks only in parent class.
 - (3) Execution of parent class Constructor.
 - (4) Execution of instance variable assignments & instance blocks only in child class.
 - (5) Execution of child class Constructor.

>java child

```
> java Parent
```

Constructors :-

- Object Creation is not enough Compulsory we should perform initialization then only that Object is in a position to provide response properly.
- When ever we are creating an object some piece of the code will be executed automatically to perform initialization, this piece of code is nothing but constructor. Hence the main objective of constructor is to perform initialization for the newly created object.

Q:-

Class Student

{

① int rollno;

② String name;

Student (String name, int rollno)

{

this.name = name;

this.rollno = rollno;

}

Public static void main (String[] args)

{

Student s₁ = new Student ("durga", 101);

Student s₂ = new Student ("raghu", 102);

}

}

o
class null.



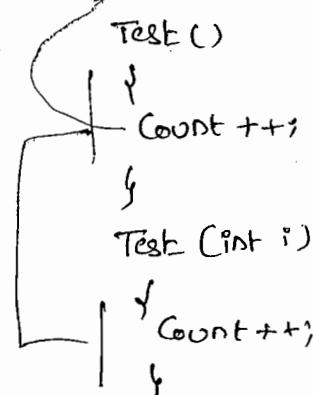
Instance block vs Constructor :-

- At the time of object creation if we want to perform initialization of instance variable then we should go for constructor.
- Other than initialization activity if we want to perform any activity at the time of object creation then we should go for instance block.
- We can't replace constructor with instance block because constructor can take argument whereas instance block can't take arguments.
- Similarly we can't replace instance block with constructor because a class can contain more than one constructor. If we want to replace instance block with constructor then in every constructor we have to write instance block code because at runtime which constructor will be called we can't expect. It results duplicate & creates maintenance problems.

Ex:- class Test

↓
Static int Count = 0;

Only once required



p.s.v.m(—)

↓
Test t₁ = new Test();

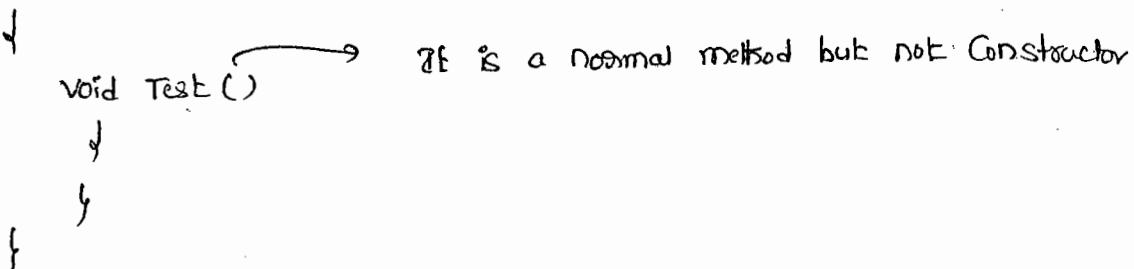
{ } Test t₂ = new Test(0); 230 of 255.

Rules to define Constructors :-

- 1) The name of the class & name of the Constructor must be matched.
- 2) Return type Concept is not applicable for Constructor even void also.

By mistake if we declare return type for the Constructor we won't get any Compile-time (or) Runtime Errors, because Compiler treats it as method.

Ex:- Class Test

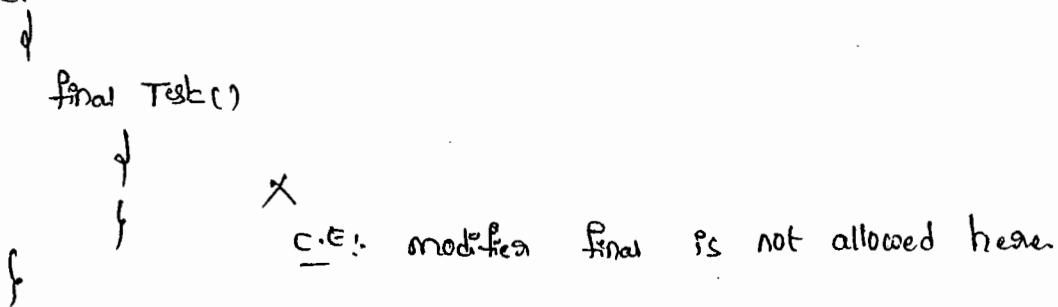


If it is legal (for stupid) to have a method whose name is exactly same as class name).

- (3) The only applicable modifiers for Constructors are

- * public, private, protected, <default> [PPPD], if we are trying to use any other modifier we will get Compile-time Error saying "modifier xxxx is not allowed here".
↳ static / final / Statically - -

Ex:- Class Test



Singleton classes :-

→ for any java class if we are allowed to create only one object

Such type of class is called Singleton class.

Ex:- Runtime, ActionServlet (Struts i.x)

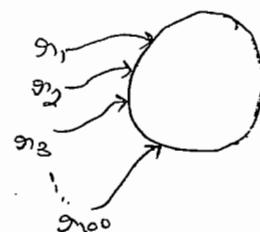
BusinessDelegate (EJB), ServiceLocator (EJB) ---- etc.

→ The main advantage of Singleton is, instead of creating a separate object for every requirement we can create a single object and reuse the same object for every requirement. This approach improves memory utilization & performance of the system.

Runtime $s_1 = \text{Runtime.getRuntime()}$

Runtime $s_2 = \text{Runtime.getRuntime()}$
 ↓
 Class Static method

Runtime $s_{100} = \text{Runtime.getRuntime()}$



Creation of our own Singleton class :-

→ We can create our own Singleton classes also for this we have to use private constructor & factory method.

Ex:- class Test

private static Test t;

private Test()

}

public static Test getInstance()

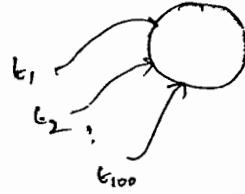
{

```

if (t == null)
{
    t = new Test();
}
return t;
}

public Object clone()
{
    return this;
}

```



Test t₁ = Test.getInstance();

Test t₂ = Test.getInstance();

⋮

Test t₁₀₀ = Test.getInstance();

Test t₁₀₁ = Test.clone();

factory method:-

→ By using class name if we call any method & return same class object. Then that method is consider as factory method.

Ex:-

Runtime r₁ = Runtime.getRuntime();

Dateformat df = DateFormat.getInstance();

↗ factory method

↗ factory method

Test t = Test.getInstance();

↗ factory method

12D
96

→ Similarly we can Create Doubleton, Tripleton ----- xxxton classes.

How to Create Doubleton class :-

Ex:- Class Test

```
|
| private static Test t1;
| private static Test t2;
|
| private Test()
|
| {
|     |
|     |
|     public static Test getInstance()
|     {
|         |
|         if (t1 == null)
|         {
|             t1 = new Test();
|             return t1;
|         }
|         else
|             if (t2 == null)
|             {
|                 t2 = new Test();
|                 return t2;
|             }
|             else
|                 if (math.random() < 0.5)
|                     return t1;
|                 else
|                     return t2;
|     }
| }
```

Rule :-

Default Constructor :-

- If we are not writing any Constructor then Compiler will always generate default Constructor.
- If we are writing atleast one Constructor then Compiler won't generate default Constructor.
- Hence a class can contain either programmer written Constructor or Compiler generated Constructor but not both Simultaneously.

Prototype of Default Constructor :-

- 1) It is always no argument Constructor.
- 2) The access modifier of default Constructor is same as class modifier but this rule is applicable public & <default>.
- 3) It Contains only one line, If it is a no argument Call to Super class Constructor.

```
Test()  
↓  
Super();  
↳
```

Programmer's Code

Compiler generated Code

121
97

(1) class Test

```
↓  
{
```

(1) class Test

```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
Super();  
↓
```

(2) public class Test

```
↓  
{
```

(2) public class Test

```
↓  
public Test()  
↓  
Super();  
↓
```

(3) Class Test

```
↓  
void Test()  
↓  
{
```

It is not a constructor
It is a normal method

(3) Class Test

```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
Super();  
↓  
void Test()  
↓  
{
```

(4) Class Test

```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
{
```

(4) Class Test

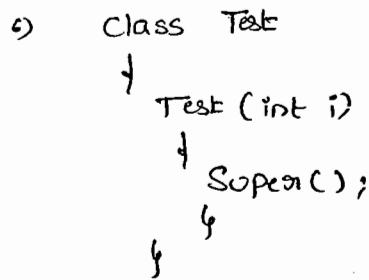
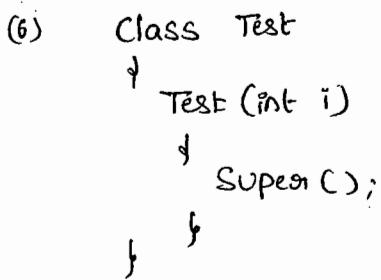
```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
Super();  
↓
```

(5) Class Test

```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
this(10);  
↓  
Test(int i)  
↓  
{  
}
```

(5) Class Test

```
↓  
Test()  
↓  
this(10);  
↓  
Test(int i)  
↓  
Super();  
↓
```



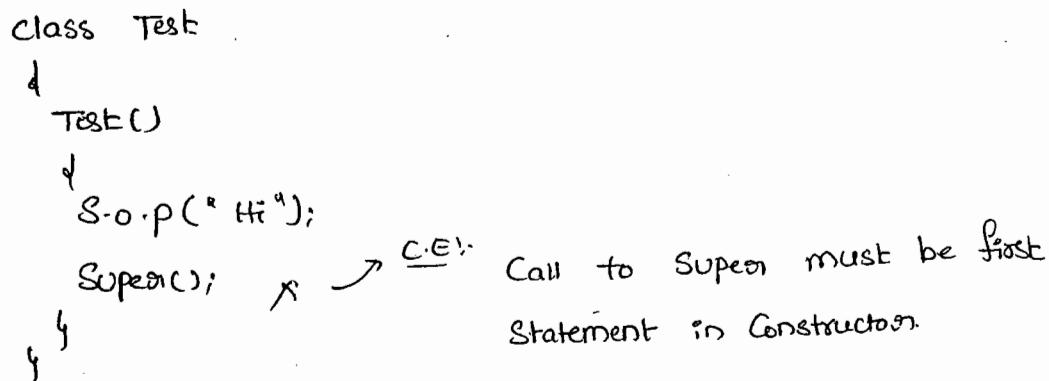
Super & This :-

→ The first Line inside a Constructor should be either Super() or this().

→ If we are not writing anything Compiler will always places Super().

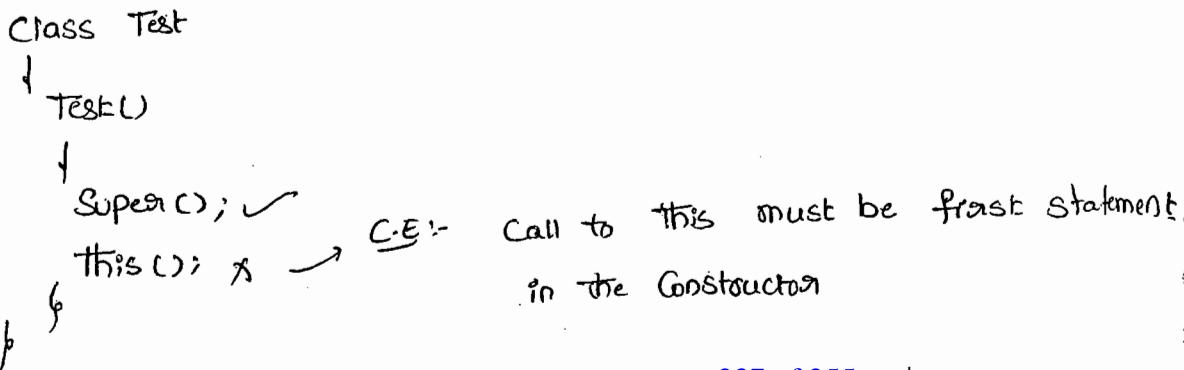
Case(i) :-

we have to keep either Super() or this() only as the first Line of the Constructor.



Case(ii) :-

Within the Constructor we can use either Super() or this() but not both simultaneously.



Case(iii):-

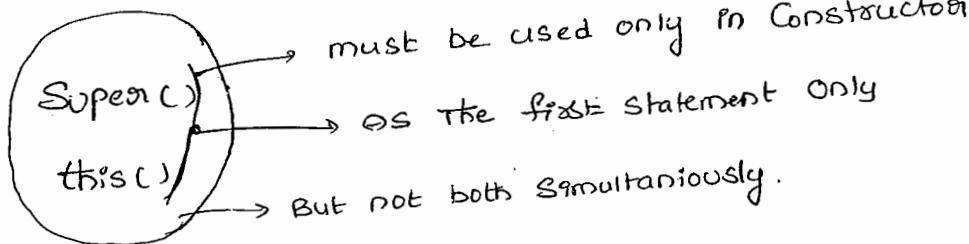
→ we can use Super & this only inside Constructor if we are using any where else we will get Compiletime error.

Ex:- Class Test

```
public void m1()
```

Super(); X → C.E:- Call to Super must be first statement in the constructor

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



this() :- To Call Current class Constructors

Super() :- To Call Parent class Constructors

Compiler provides default Super() but not this().

Super()	Super this
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) These are Constructor calls (ii) we should use only in Constructors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) These are key words to refer Super & Current class instance members ii) we can use any where Except in static area.

Ex:-

Class Test

```
↓  
P.S.V.M( )  
↓  
S.o.pn( Super.hashCode()); X  
↳ CE:- Non-Static variable Super Can't be  
referenced from a Static Context
```

Constructor overloading :-

- A class can contain more than one constructor with same name but with different arguments & these constructors are considered as overloaded constructors.

Ex:-

Class Test

```
↓  
Test(double d)  
↓  
this(10);  
S.o.pn(" double-args");
```

```
↓  
Test(int i)
```

```
↓  
this();  
S.o.pn(" int-args");
```

```
↓
```

```
Test()  
↓  
S.o.p(" No-args");
```

```
↓
```

P.S.V.M(—)

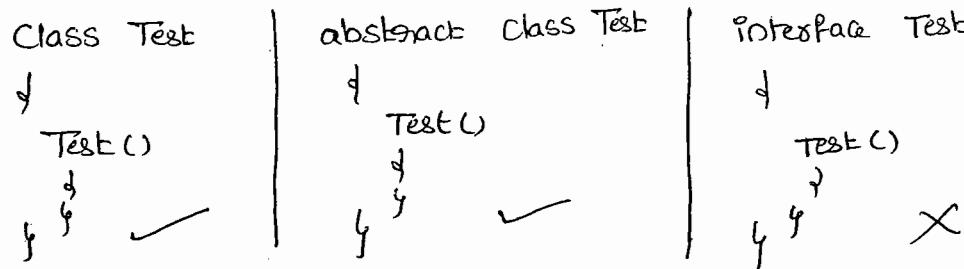
Test t₁ = new Test(10.5); → No-args
 int-args
 double-args

Test t₂ = new Test(10) → No-args
 int-args

Test t₃ = new Test(); → No-args

→ Inheritance & overriding Concepts are not applicable for Constructors.

→ Every class in java including abstract class also can contain Constructor. But interface can't have the constructors.



→ Case(i):-

→ Recursive method call is always Runtime Exception whereas Recursive Constructor invocation is a Compiletime Error.

e.g:-

Class Test

↓
P.S.V.m₁()

↓
m₂();

↓
P.S.V.m₂()

↓
m₁();

P.S.V.m(→)

↓
S.O.P("Hello");

↓
m(); AE: Stack overflow Error

Class Test

↓
Test()

↓
this(10);

↓
Test(int i)

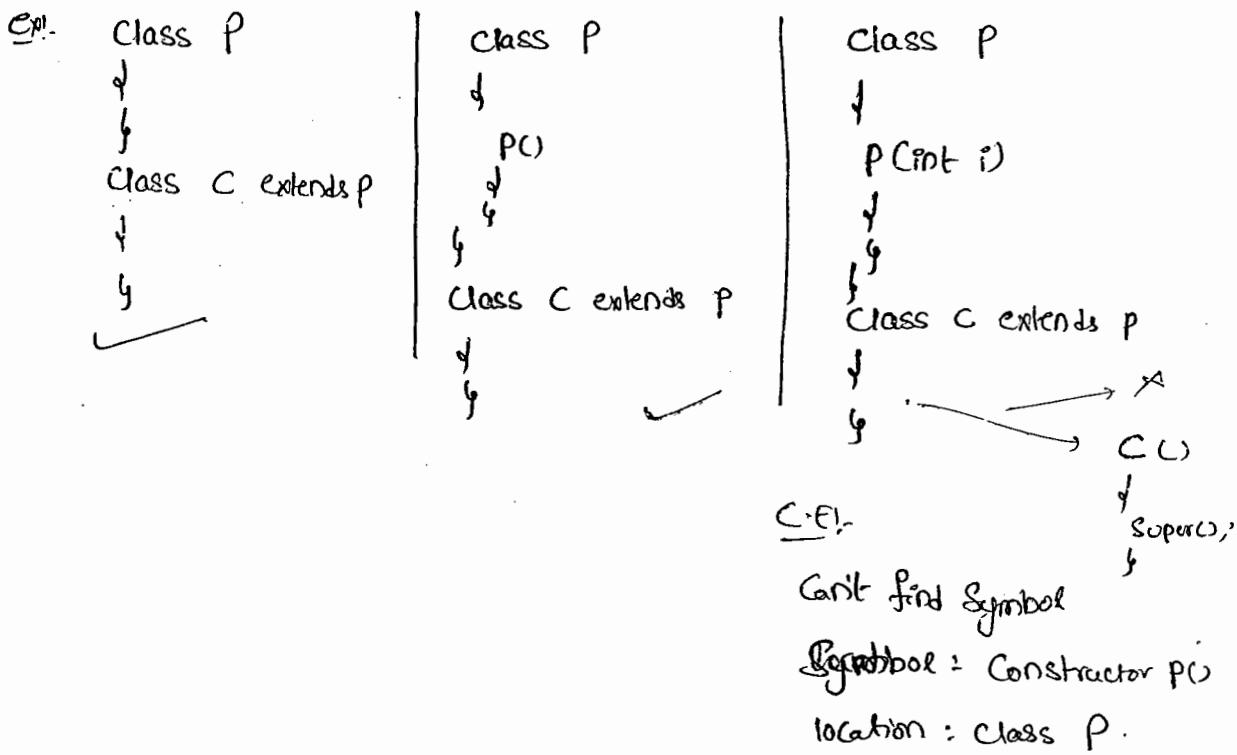
↓
this();

P.S.V.m(→)

↓
S.O.P("Hello");

C.E: Recursive Constructor
invocation.
240 of 255.

Case(ii) :-

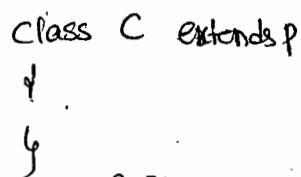
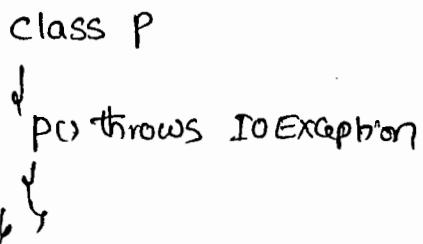


Note:-

- If the parent class contains some Constructors then while writing child class we have to take special care about Constructors.
- Whenever we are writing any argument Constructor it is highly recommended to write no argument Constructor also.

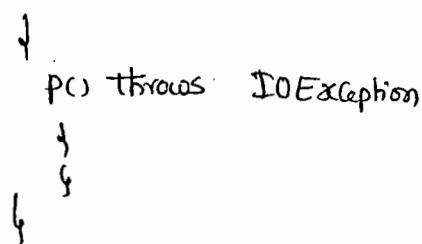
Case(iii) :-

- If parent class constructor throws some checked exception Compulsory Child class constructor should throw same checked exception or its parent otherwise the code won't compile.

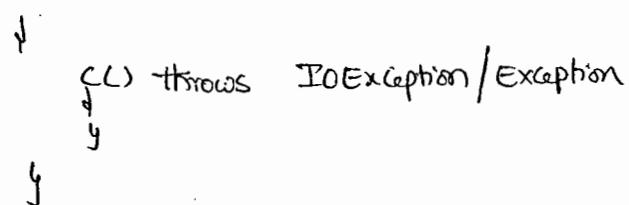


C.E:- unsupported Exception Java.io.
241 of 255 IOException in default constructor()

Ex:- Class P



Class C extends P



Q) Which of the following is True?

- ① Every class Contains Constructors ✓
- ② Only Concrete Classes Can Contains Constructors but not abstract classes X
- ③ The name of the Constructor need not be same as class name X
- ④ Return type is applicable for the Constructor X
- ⑤ The only applicable modifiers for Constructors are public & default X
- ⑥ If we are trying to declare return type for the Constructor we will get Compile-time Error X.
- ⑦ Compiler will always generate default Constructor X
- ⑧ The access modifier of the default Constructor is always default X
- ⑨ The first Line inside every Constructor should be Super X.
- ⑩ The first Line " " Should be Super(this), ✓
- If we are not writing anything compiler will always place this X.

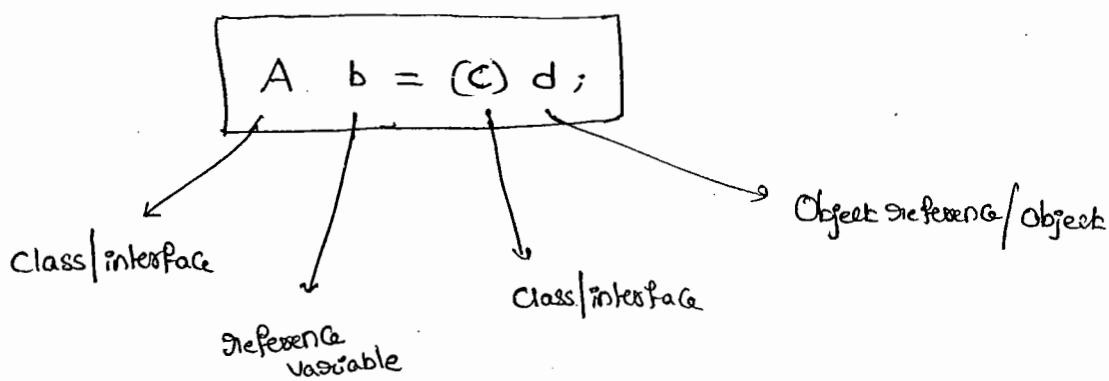
- (i) Interface Can Contains Constructor X
- (ii) Both overloading & overriding Concepts are applicable for Constructor X.
- (iii) Inheritance Concept is applicable for Constructor X

Type-Casting

Type-Casting:-

- Parent class Reference Can be used to hold child class object
- Ex:- Parent p = new Child();
- Similarly, interface reference Can be used to hold implemented class object.
- Ex:- Runnable r = new Thread();

Syntax:-



Compiler rule(i) :-

- C & type of d must have Some relationship (either parent to child or child → parent or Same type) otherwise we will get Compilation Error saying "inconvertible-types - found d type but required C type".

Ex(1) :- Object o = new String("durga");

StringBuffer sb = (StringBuffer) o;

Ex(2) :-

String s = new String("durga");

SB sb = (SB)s; X

C:E:-

Inconvertable types

found : java.lang.String

required : java.lang.SB

Compiler checking rule :-

→ C must be either same or derived type of A otherwise we will get Compiler time Error saying "incompatible types"

found : C

required : A

Ex(1) :-

Object o = new String("durga");

String s = (String) o; ✓

Ex(2) :-

String s = new String("durga");

StringBuffer sb = (Object)s;

C:E:- Incompatable types.

found : Object

required : SB

Runtime Checking

Rule 3 :-

→ The underlying object type of 'a' must be either same or derived type of C, otherwise we will get runtime exception saying "ClassCastException".

Ex:-

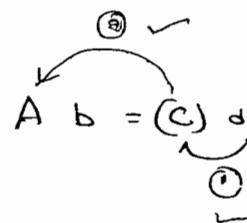
① Object o = new String ("durga");

SB sb = (SB) o; X

Rule ① ✓

② ✓

③ X (R-E):- CCE

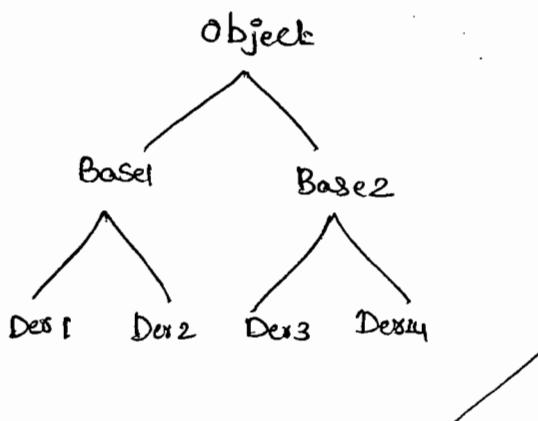


② Object o = new String ("durga");

String s = (String)o; ✓

Rule ① ✓
② ✓
③ ✓

Ex:-



C.E!:- Inconvertible types

found: Base2

Required: Base1

Ex. ① Base2 b = new Der4();

✓ ② Object o = (Base2) b;

X ③ Object o = (Base1) b;

④ Base2 b1 = (Base2) o; → o == b

X ⑤ Base1 b3 = (Der1)(new Der2());

(C.E!:-

✗ Inconvertible types

found: Der2

Required: Der1

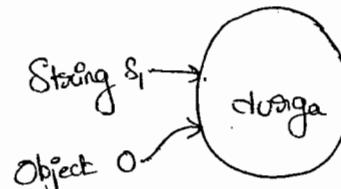
→ Strictly Speaking in type-casting just we are Converting only type to object but not underlying object itself

Ex:-

String s₁ = new String("duaga");

Object o = (Object) s₁;

s.o.println(s₁ == o); true



Ex:-

```

A --> public void m1()
      |
      ↓
      S.o.println("A");
      |
      ↓
B --> public void m1()
      |
      ↓
      S.o.println("B");
      |
      ↓
C --> public void m1()
      |
      ↓
      S.o.println("C");
      |
      ↓
  
```

C c = new C();

c.m1(); → c ↗

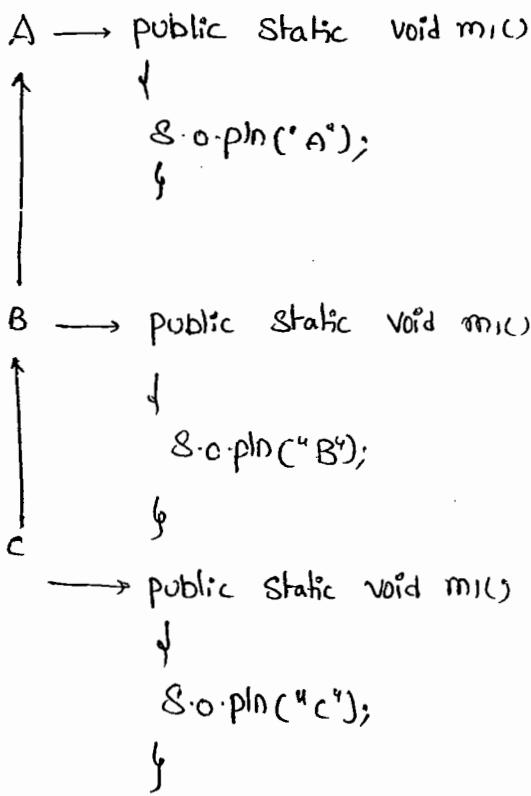
((B)c).m1(); → c ↗ → B b = new C();
 b.m1();

((A)c).m1(); → c ↗

→ A a = new C();

a.m1();

Eg 1:-



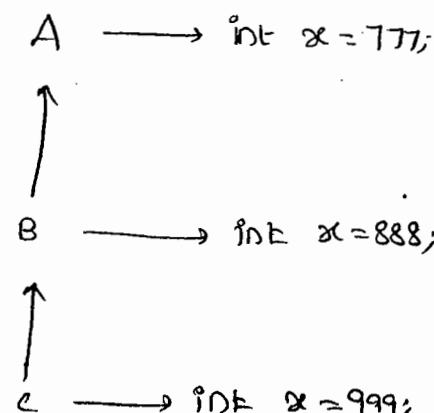
→ C c = new C();

c.m(); // C

→ ((B)c).m(); // B

→ ((A)c).m(); // A

Eg 2:-



C c = new C();

System.out.println(c.x); 999

System.out.println(((B)c).x); 888

System.out.println(((A)((B)c)).x); 777

(because The overriding Concept is not applicable
for variable.)

→ If we declare all Variables as Static then There is no chance to change the O/p.

Note:-

→ whether the Variable is Static or instance Variable Resolution should be done based on Reference type but not based on Running Object.

Coupling

Coupling :-

→ The degree of dependency b/w The Components is Called "Coupling".

Ex:-

Class A

↓
Static int i=B.j;

Class B

↓
Static int j=C.m();

Class C

↓
P.S.V.int m();

↓
Return D.k;

Class D

↓

Static int k=10;

}

→ The above Components are Said to be Tightly Coupled with each other. Tightly Coupling is not Recommended because it has Several Serious disadvantages.

(1) With out effecting ^{surrounding} any Component we can't modify any Component's

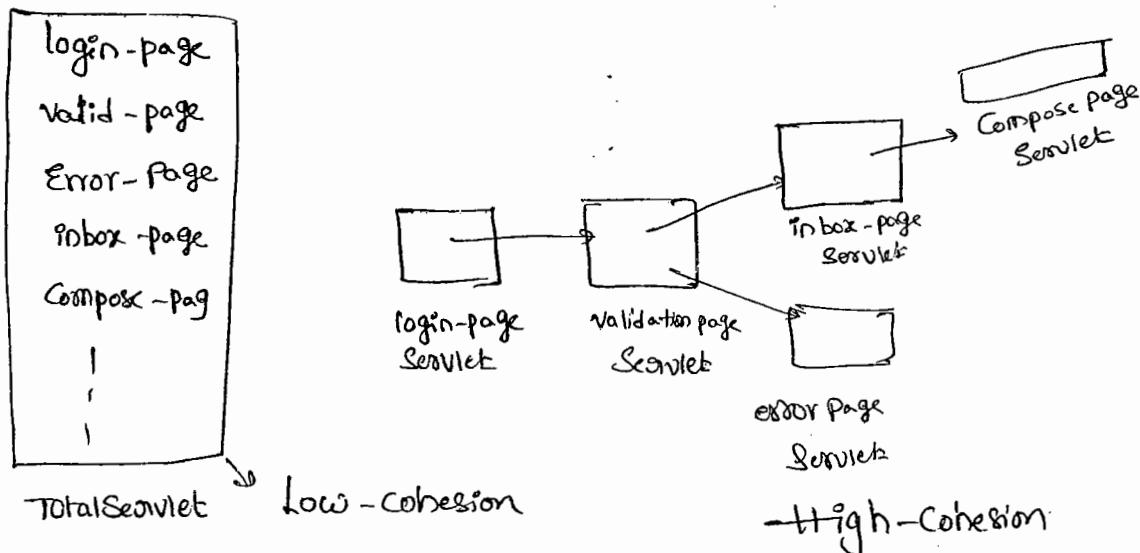
- Hence, enhancement will become difficult.
 - It reduces maintainability.
 - It doesn't promote reusability.
- Hence it is highly recommended to maintain loosely coupling & dependency b/w the components should be as less as possible.

Cohesion

Cohesion :-

- For every component a clear well-defined functionality we have to define, such type of component is said to be follow high-cohesion

Ex:-



- High-cohesion is always a good programming practice which has several advantages.

(1) With out affecting remaining components we can modify any component hence enhancement will become very easy

- (2) It improves maintainability of the application
- (3) It promotes reusability of the code.

Ex:-

→ where ever validation is required we can reuse the same validate Servlet without modifying.

Note:-

Loosely Coupling & high-cohesion are good programming practices.

=====
====

This:

To use the current class reference

means without creating multiple objects, ~~only~~ only one object is created then
call those values from the current class.

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① Collection Framework (1 - 43)

Collection (6 - 24)

Map (25 - 37)

Collections class (38 - 40)

ArrayLists class (41 - 43)

② Generics (44 - 52)

③ Multithreading (53 - 76)

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④

Re

⑤ Regular Expressions (77 - 82)

⑥ Enumeration (83 - 89)

⑦ I18N (90 - 95)

⑧ Development (96 - 101)

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Part-2

12/03/11

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Collection framework

→ An Array is an indexed collection of fixed no. of homogeneous data elements.

* Limitations of object arrays:-

- ① → Arrays are fixed in size. i.e., once we created an array there is no chance of increasing or decreasing size based on our requirement. Hence, to use arrays concept compulsorily we should know the size in advance, which may not possible always.
- ② Arrays can hold only homogeneous data elements. i.e., (same type)

Ex:- `Student[] s = new Student[1000];`

`s[0] = new Student[];` ✓

`s[1] = new Student[];` ✓

`s[2] = new Customer[];` X Ex:- Incompatible types

↳ found: Customer

Required: Student.

→ But we can resolve this problem by using Object-type arrays.

Ex:- `Object[] a = new Object[1000];`

`a[0] = new Student[];` ✓

`a[1] = new Customer[];` ✓

③ Arrays concept not built based on some datastructure. Hence

standard method support is not available for every requirement.

Compulsorily programmer is responsible to write the logic.

→ To resolve the above problems Sun people introduced Collections Concept.

→ Advantages of Collections over arrays :-

- (1) Collections are growable in nature. Hence based on our requirement we can increase or decrease the size.
- (2) Collections can hold both Homogeneous & Heterogeneous objects.
- (3) Every Collection class is implemented based on some data structures. Hence predefined method support is available for every requirement.

dis. of collections :-

→ Performance point of view Collections are not recommended to use. This is the limitation of Collections.

Difference b/w arrays & Collections :-

Array	Collections (AL, VL, LL - ...)
1) Arrays are fixed in size	1) Collections are growable in nature
2) Memory point of view arrays concept is not recommended to use	2) memory point of view Collections concept is highly recommended to use.
3) Performance point of view arrays concept is highly recommended to use.	3) performance point of view Collections is not recommended to use.
4) Arrays can hold only homogeneous data elements.	4) Collections can hold both Homogeneous & Heterogeneous objects.
5) There is no underlying d.s for arrays. Hence predefined method support is not available	5) underlying D.S is available for every Collection class. Hence predefined method support is available. 3 of 401.

→ Arrays can be used to hold both primitives & objects.

→ Collections. Can be used to hold only objects but not for primitives.

Collection :-

→ A group of individual objects as a Single entity is called Collection.

Collection framework :-

→ It defines Several classes & interfaces, which can be used to represent a group of objects as a Single Entity.

Terminology:-

Java	C++
Collection	Container
Collection framework	STL (Standard Template Library)

9-Key interfaces of Collection framework :-

① Collection (Interface):

→ If we want to represent a group of individual objects as a Single Entity then we should go for Collection.

→ In general Collection Interface is Considered as Root Interface of Collection Framework.

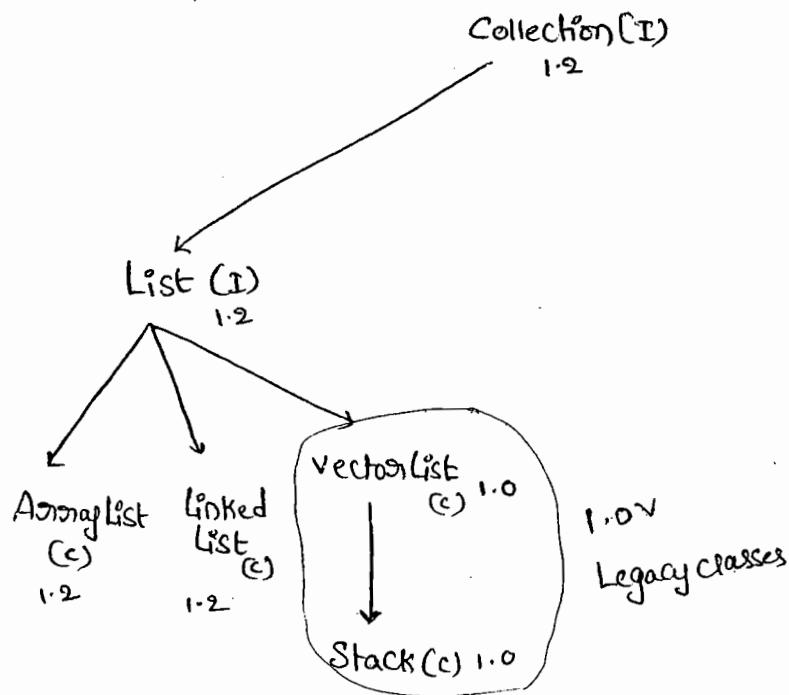
→ Collection Interface defines The most Common methods which can be applicable for any Collection object.

Collection vs Collections :-

- Collection is an interface, Can be used to represent a group of individual object as a Single Entity. where as,
- Collections is an Utility class, present in java.util package, to define Several utility methods for Collections.

②) List (Interface) :-

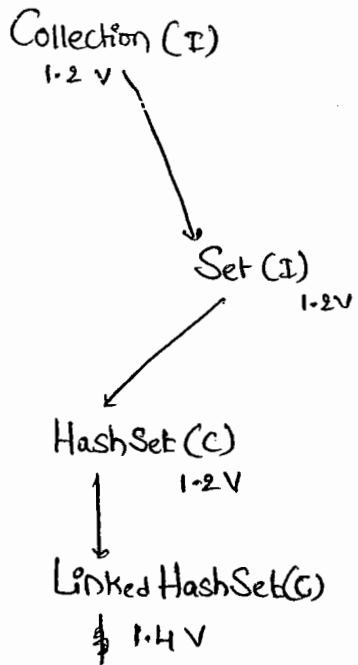
- It is the child Interface of Collection.
- If we want to represent a group of individual objects where insertion order is preserved & duplicates are allowed. Then we should go for List.



- Vector & Stack classes are re-engineered in 1.2 version to fit into Collection framework.

③ Set (Interface):-

- It is the child interface of Collection.
- If we want to represent a group of individual objects where duplicates are not allowed & insertion order is not preserved. Then we should go for "Set".

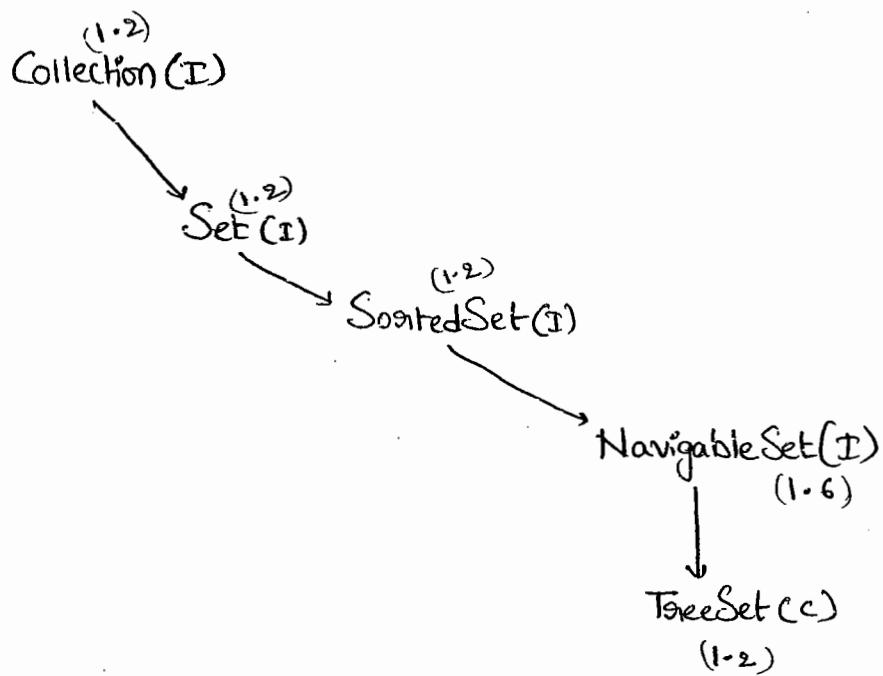


④ SortedSet (I):-

- It is the child interface of Set.
- if we want to represent a group of unique objects, according to individual some sorting order. Then we should go for SortedSet.

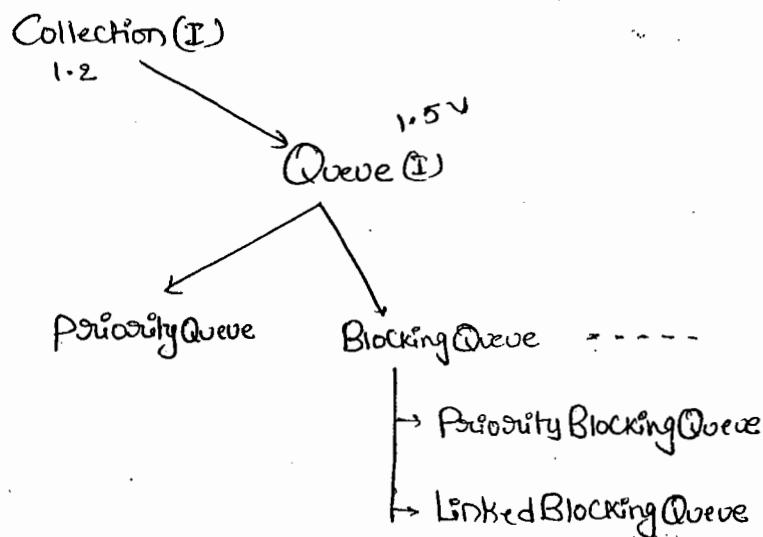
⑤ NavigableSet (I) :-

- It is the child interface of SortedSet, to provide several methods for Navigation purposes.
- It is introduced in 1.6 Version.



⑥ Queue (I) :- (1.5v)

- It is the child Interface of Collection.
- If we want to represent a group of individual objects, prior to processing, Then we should go for Queue.



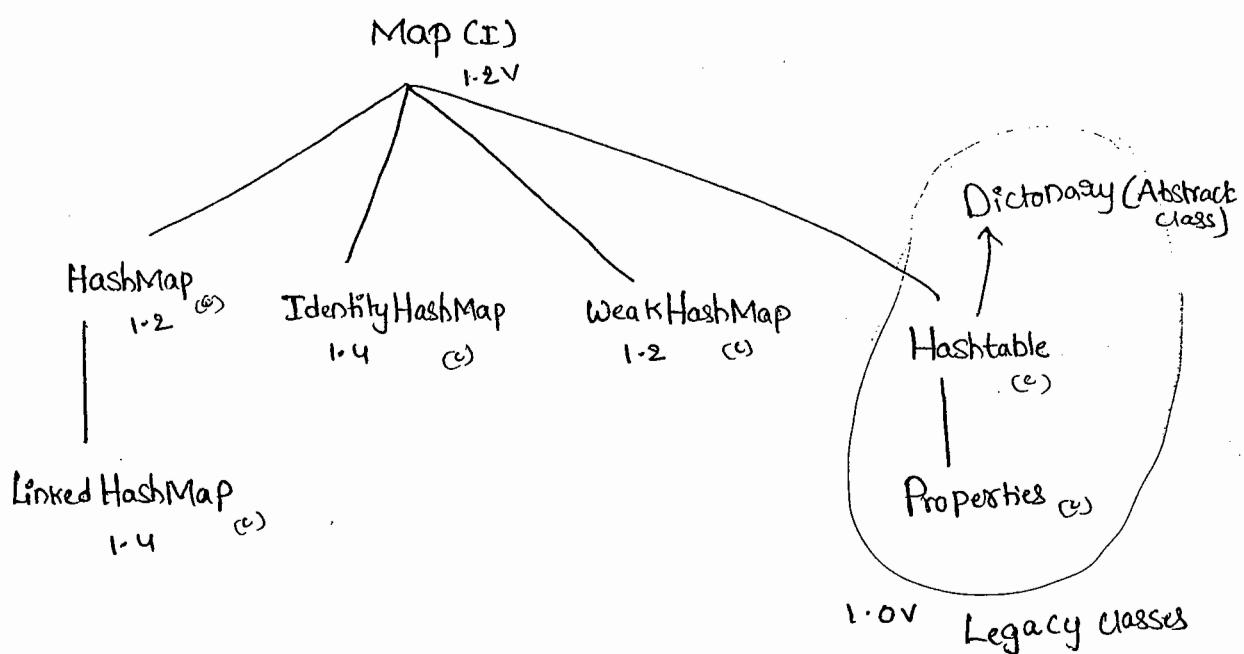
Note:-

- all the above Interfaces (Collection, List, Set, SortedSet, NavigableSet, Queue) meant for representing a group of individual objects.
- If we want to represent a group of objects as key-value pairs Then We should go for Map.

(7) Map(I) :-

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- If we want to represent a group of objects as key-value pairs Then we should go for Map.
- Both Key & value are objects Only.
- Duplicate Keys are not allowed, But values Can be duplicated.



Note:-

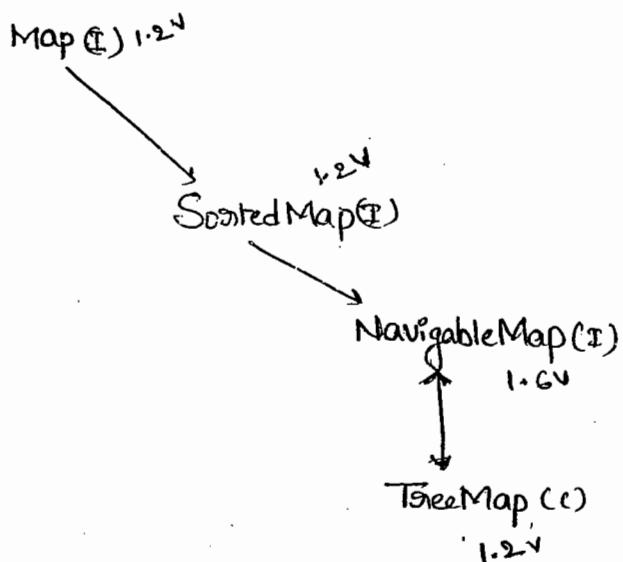
Map is not child Interface of Collection.

(8) SortedMap (I) !

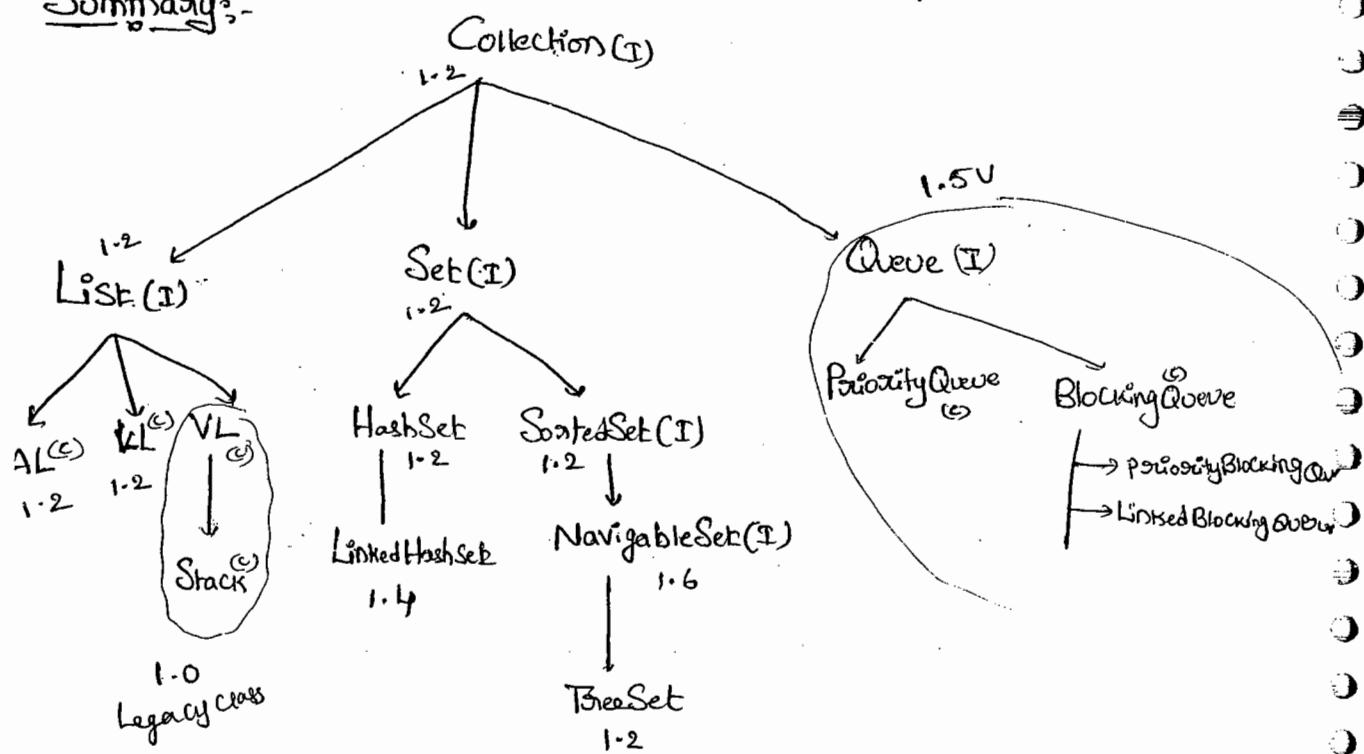
- If we want to represent a group of objects as Key-value pairs according to Some Sorting Order. Then we Should go for SortedMap.
- Sorting Should be done Only based on Keys, but not based-on values.
- SortedMap is child Interface of Map.

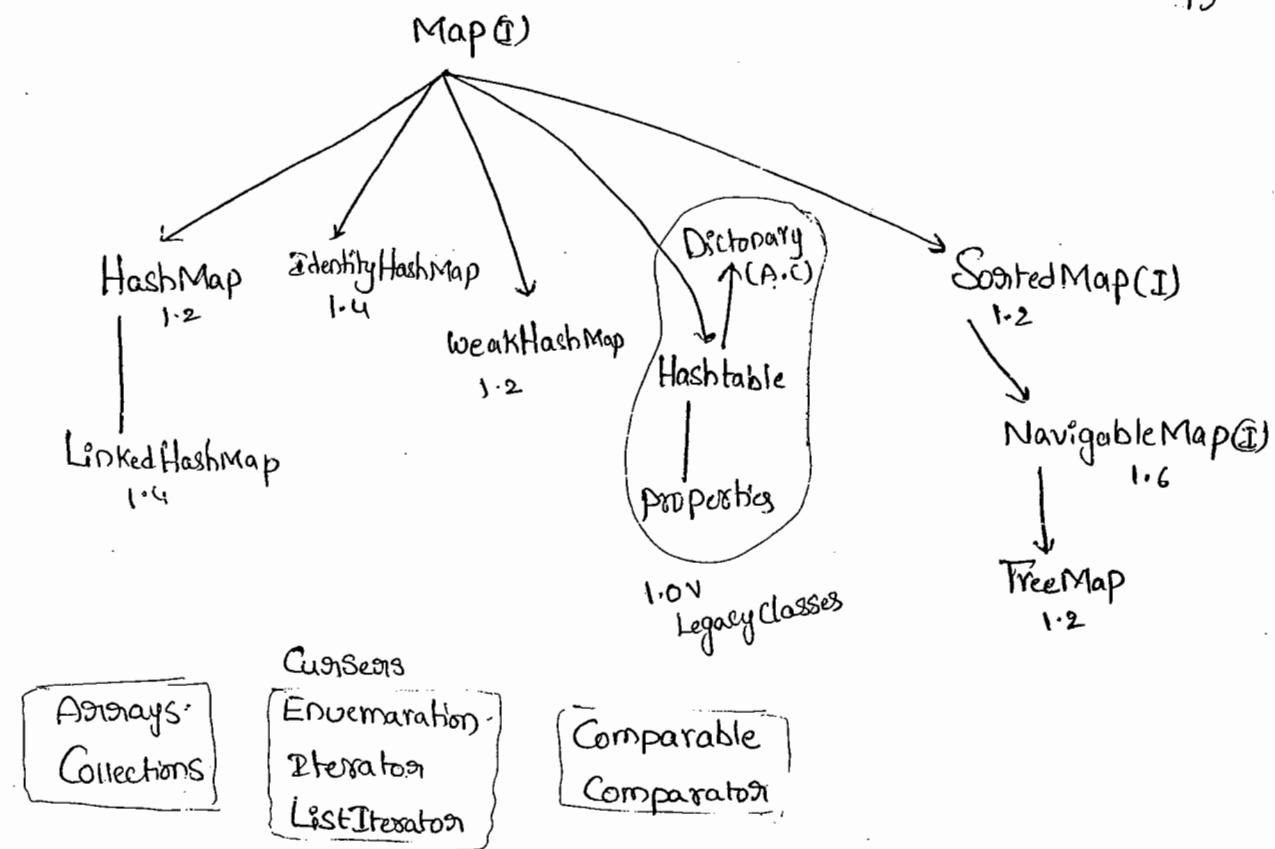
(9) NavigableMap (I):

→ It is the child interface of SortedMap & define several methods for navigation purposes.



Summary:-





→ In the Collection-frame work the following are Legacy characters

- (1) Enumeration(I)
 - (2) Dictionary(A..C)
 - (3) Vector
 - (4) Stack
 - (5) Hashtable
 - (6) Properties
- 1.0v
- classes

Collection frameworks :-

Collection (I) :-

- If we want to represent a group of individual objects as a single entity then we should go for Collection.
- Collection Interface defines the most common methods which can be applied for any Collection object.
- The following is the list of methods present in Collection Interface.

- ① boolean add(Object o)
- ② boolean addAll(Collection c)
- ③ boolean remove(Object o)
- ④ boolean removeAll(Collection c)
- ⑤ boolean retainAll(Collection c)

→ To remove all objects except those present in C.

- ⑥ void clear()
- ⑦ boolean isEmpty()
- ⑧ int size()
- ⑨ boolean contains(Object o)
- ⑩ boolean containsAll(Collection c)
- ⑪ Object[] toArray()
- ⑫ Iterator iterator()

(2) List (I):-

- List is the child Interface of Collection.
- If we want to represent a group of individual objects where duplicate Objects are allowed & insertion Order is preserved. Then we Should go for List.
- Insertion Order will be preserved by means of Index.
- We can differentiate duplicate Objects by using Index. Hence Index place or Very important role in List.
- List Interface defines the following methods
 - ① boolean add(int index, Object o)
 - ② boolean addAll(int index, Collection c)
 - ③ Object remove(int index)
 - ④ Object get(int index)
 - ⑤ Object ^{old}set(int index, Object new)
 - ⑥ int indexOf(Object o)
 - ⑦ int lastIndexOf(Object o)
 - ⑧ ListIterator listIterator()

It Contains 4 classes:-

- (1) ArrayList (c) :-
- (2) LinkedList (c) :-
- (3) VectorList (c) :-
- (4) Stack (c) :-

(i) ArrayList (c):-

- The underlying datastructure for ArrayList is Resizable Array or Growable Array.
- Insertion Order is preserved.
- Duplicate Objects are allowed.
- Heterogeneous Objects are allowed.
- Null insertion is possible.

Constructors :-

① ArrayList Al = new ArrayList();

- Creates an Empty ArrayList Object, with default initial Capacity 10.
- Once AL reaches it's max. capacity then a new AL object will be created with.

$$\text{New Capacity} = \text{Current Capacity} * \frac{3}{2} + 1$$

② ArrayList l = new ArrayList(int. initialCapacity);

- Creates an Empty ArrayList Object with the Specified initial Capacity.

③ ArrayList l = new ArrayList(Collection c);

- Creates an Equivalent ArrayList object for the Given Collection objects i.e, this Constructor is for cloning b/w Collection objects

```

Ep1. import java.util.*;

class ArrayListDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        ArrayList a = new ArrayList();
        a.add("A");
        a.add(10);
        a.add('A');
        a.add(null);
        System.out.println(a); // [A, 10, A, null]
        a.remove(2);
        System.out.println(a); // [A, 10, null]
        a.add(2, "M"); // [A, 10, M, null]
        a.add("N"); // [A, 10, M, null, N]
        System.out.println(a); // [A, 10, M, null, N]
    }
}

```

Note:-

- In Every Collection class toString() is overridden to return its Content directly in the following format.

[obj1, obj2, obj3]

- Usually we can use Collection to store & transfer Objects. to provide support for this requirement Every Collection class implements Serializable & Cloneable Interfaces.

→ ArrayList & Vector classes implements RandomAccess Interface, So that any random element we can access with same speed. Hence, if our frequent operation is gettable operation then best suitable data structure is ArrayList. (Advantage)

→ If our frequent operation is Insertion or deletion, ^{operation} in the middle then ArrayList is the worst choice, because it required several shift operations. (disadvantage).

differences b/w ArrayList & Vector

<u>ArrayList</u>	<u>Vector</u>
① No method is synchronized	① Every method is synchronized
② multiple threads can access ArrayList simultaneously, hence ArrayList object is not threadsafe	② At any point only one thread is allowed to operate on Vector Object at a time. Hence vector Object is ThreadSafe.
③ Threads are not required to wait, & hence performance is high.	③ It increases waiting time of threads & hence performance is low.
④ Introduced in 1.0 version & hence it is non-legacy	④ Introduced in 1.0 version & hence it is Legacy.

Q) How to get Synchronized Version of ArrayList?

- A) → By using Collections Class SynchronizedList() we can get synchronized version of ArrayList.

Public static List SynchronizedList(List l)

e.g:-

ArrayList l = new ArrayList();

List l₁ = Collections.SynchronizedList(l)

↓
Synchronized

↓
Non-Synchronized

→ Similarly we can get synchronized version of Set & Map objects by using the following methods respectively.

① public static Set SynchronizedSet(Set s)

② public static Map SynchronizedMap(Map m)

Note:-

→ If our frequent operation is insertion or deletion in the middle then ArrayList is not recommended. To handle this requirement we should go for LinkedList.

3) **LinkedList** (C) :-

- The underlying datastructure is double **LinkedList**.
- Insertion order is preserved.
- Duplicate objects are allowed.
- Heterogeneous " "
- Null insertion is possible.
- Implements **Serializable** & **Cloneable** interfaces but not **RandomAccess**-interface.
- Best Suitable if our frequent operation insertion or deletion in the middle.
- Worst choice if our frequent operation is retrieval.

Constructors:-

- ① **LinkedList l = new LinkedList();**
→ Creates an Empty **LinkedList** object.
- ② **LinkedList l = new LinkedList(Collection c)**
→ for interConversion b/w Collection objects.

LinkedList Specific methods:-

- Usually we can use **LinkedList** to implements **Stacks** & **Queues** to support this requirements **LinkedList** class define the following Six Specific methods.

- ① void addFirst(Object o);
- ② void addLast(Object o);
- ③ Object removeFirst();
- ④ Object removeLast();
- ⑤ Object getFirst();
- ⑥ Object getLast();

Ex:-

```

import java.util.*;
class LinkedListDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        LinkedList l = new LinkedList();
        l.add("durga");
        l.add(30);
        l.add(null);
        [durga, 30, null]
        l.add("durga");
        [durga, 30, null, durga]
        l.set(0, "Software");
        [Software, 30, null, durga]
        l.add(0, "Venky");
        [Venky, Software, 30, null]
        l.removeLast();
        [Venky, Software]
        l.addFirst("ccc");
        [ccc, Venky, Software]
        System.out.println(l);
        {
            [ccc, Venky, Software, 30, null]
        }
    }
}

```

Vector :-

- The underlying datastructure is Resizable array or growable array.
- Insertion Order is Preserved.
- Duplicate objects are allowed.
- Null insertion is possible.
- Heterogeneous Objects are allowed.
- Implements Serializable, Clonable & RandomAccess Interfaces.
- Best Suitable if our frequent operation is Retrieval & Worst choice if our frequent operation is insertion or deletion in the middle.
- Every method in vector is Synchronized. Hence vector object is ThreadSafe.

Constructors:-

(i) Vector v = new Vector();

→ Creates an Empty Vector object with default initial Capacity 10.

→ Once vector reaches its Max. Capacity a new Vector object will be created with double Capacity.

$$\text{New Capacity} = 2 * \text{Current Capacity}.$$

(ii) Vector v = new Vector(int initialCapacity);

(iii) Vector v = new Vector(int initialCapacity, int incrementalCapacity);

(iv) Vector v = new Vector(Collection c);

Vector Specific methods :-

(10)

(10)

→ To add objects

① add(Object o) → C

② add(int index, Object o) → L

③ addElement(Object obj) → V

→ To remove Elements or objects

① remove(Object o) → C

② removeElement (Object o) → V

③ remove(int index) → L

④ removeElementAt(int index) → V

⑤ clear() → C

⑥ removeAllElements() → V

→ To retrieve elements

① get(int index) → L

② elementAt(int index) → Y

③ firstElement(); → V

④ lastElement(); → V

→ Other methods

① int size();

② int capacity();

* ③ Enumeration elements();

Ex:- `import java.util.*;`

```
class VDemo1
{
    public static void main (String [] args)
    {
        Vector v = new Vector();
        System.out.println(v.capacity());
        for (int i=1; i<=10; i++)
        {
            v.addElement(i);
        }
        System.out.println(v.capacity());
        v.addElement("A");
        System.out.println(v.capacity());
        System.out.println(v);
    }
}
```

Output
10
10
20

`[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ----- 10, "A"]`

`v.size()` // no. of objects

object

`v.removeElement(9)` // `[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, A]`

`v.removeElementAt(3)` // `[1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, A]`

`v.removeAllElements()` // `[]`

④ Stack(c) :- (LIFO)

→ It is the child class of vector Contains only one Constructor

(i) Stack s = new Stack();

Methods:-

(i) Object push(Object o)

To insert an object into the stack

(ii) Object pop();

To remove and returns top of stack.

(iii) Object peek();

To return top of the stack.

(iv) boolean empty();

Returns true when stack is empty.

(v) int search(Object o)

Returns the offset from top of the stack if the object

is available, otherwise returns -1.

Ex:- import java.util.*;

Class StackDemo

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

Stack s = new Stack();

s.push("A");

s.push("B");

s.push("C");

s.pop(); [A B]

s.pop(); (S. Search ("A"));

s.pop(); (S. Search ("Z"));

Ex:-

1	C
2	B
3	A

offset

S.search("A"); 3

S.search("C"); 1

S.search("Z"); -1

S.pop(); [A B]	E
S.pop(); []	E

S.pop(); ?

22 of 401.

Cursors :-

Types of Cursors :-

→ If we want to get objects one by one from the Collection we should go for Cursor.

→ There are 3 types of Cursors available in java.

(i) Enumeration (1.0v)

(ii) Iterator (1.2v)

(iii) ListIterator (1.2v)

(i) Enumeration (1.0v)

→ It is a Cursor to retrieve Objects one by one from the Collection.

→ It is applicable for legacy classes.

→ We can Create Enumeration object by using elements()

```
public Enumeration elements();
```

e.g:-
Enumeration e = v.elements();
 ^
 vector object

→ Enumeration Interface defines the following 2 methods.

(i) public boolean hasMoreElements();

(ii) public Object nextElement();

Ex:- import java.util.*;

```

class EnumerationDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Vector v = new Vector();
        for(int i=0; i<=10; i++)
        {
            v.addElement(i);
        }
        System.out.println(v);  [0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 10]
        Enumeration e = v.elements();
        while(e.hasMoreElements())
        {
            Integer I = (Integer)e.nextElement();
            if(I%2 == 0)
                System.out.println(I);
        }
        System.out.println(v);  [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, ..., 10]
    }
}

```

D/P: [0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 10]

0
2
4
6
8
10

[0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 10]

Limitations of Enumeration :-

- Enumeration Concept is applicable only for Legacy Classes & hence it is not a Universal Cursor.
- By using Enumeration we can get only ReadAccess & we can't perform any remove operations.
- To over come these Limitations SUN people introduced Iterator in 1.2 Version.

Iterator :-

- We can apply Iterator Concept for any Collection object. It is a Universal Cursor.
- While Iterating we can perform remove operation also, in addition to read operation.
- We can get Iterator object by iterator() of Collection Interface.

Iterator it = c.iterator()

Any Collection object

- Iterator Interface defines the following 3 methods.

- (i) public boolean hasNext();
- (ii) public Object next();
- (iii) public void remove();

Eg:-

```

import java.util.*;
class HashSetDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        HashSet h = new HashSet();
        h.add("B");
        h.add("C");
        h.add("D");
        h.add("Z");
        h.add(null);
        h.add(10);
        System.out.println(h.add("Z")); // false
        System.out.println(h); // [null, D, B, C, 10, Z]
    }
}

```

O/P:- false

[null, D, B, C, 10, Z]

Note:- Insertion order is not preserved

(ii) LinkedHashSet :-

- LinkedHashSet is the child class of HashSet.
- It is exactly same as HashSet except the following differences.

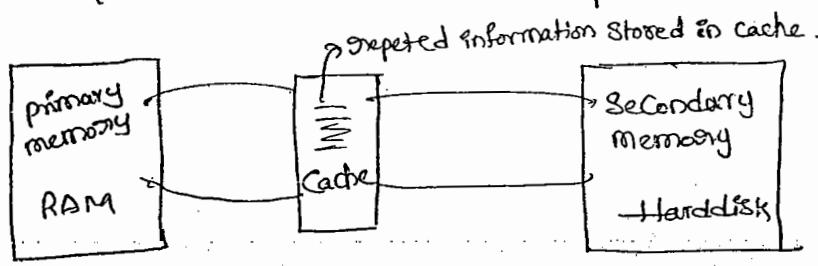
HashSet	LinkedHashSet
i) The underlying D.S is HashTable	i) The underlying D.S is a Combination of HashTable & Linked List
ii) Insertion order is not preserved	ii) Insertion order is preserved.
iii) Introduced in 1.2 v	26 of 401 iii) Introduced in 1.4 v

→ In the above program if we are replacing HashSet with
LinkedHashSet the following is the O/P.

O/P :- [B, C, D, Z, null, 10] i.e., insertion order is preserved.

Note:-

→ The main important application area of LinkedHashSet & LinkedHashMap is implementing Cache applications where duplicates are not allowed & insertion order must be preserved.



ii) SortedSet (I) :-

→ It is the child interface of Set.

→ If we want to represent a group of individual Objects according to some Sorting order. Then we should go for SortedSet.

→ SortedSet Interface defines the following 6 Specific methods

(i) Object first()

→ Returns the first element of SortedSet.

(ii) Object last()

→ Returns last element of SortedSet

(iii) SortedSet headSet(Object obj)

→ Returns the SortedSet whose elements ^{27 of 40} are less than obj.

(v) SortedSet tailSet(Object obj)

145

\geq

→ Returns the SortedSet whose elements are greater than or equal to obj

(vi) SortedSet subSet(Object obj1, Object obj2)

→ Returns the SortedSet whose elements are $\geq obj1$ but $< obj2$

(vii) Comparator Comparator()

→ Returns Comparator object describes underlying Sorting technique

→ If we used default Natural Sorting order Then we will get null.

Eg:-

100
101
103
104
107
109

- ① first() $\rightarrow 100$
- ② last() $\rightarrow 109$
- ③ headSet(104) $\rightarrow [100, 101, 103]$
- ④ tailSet(104) $\rightarrow [104, 107, 109]$
- ⑤ subSet(101, 107) $\rightarrow [101, 103, 104]$
- ⑥ Comparator() $\rightarrow \text{null}$

Notes:-

→ The default Natural Sorting order for the no.'s is ascending order

→ The default Natural Sorting order for Characters & Strings are is alphabetical order (dictionary based order).

TreeSet (c) :-

- The underlying data structure is Balanced Tree.
- Duplicate objects are not allowed.
- Insertion Order is not preserved. because Objects will be inserted according to Some Sorting order.
- Heterogeneous objects are not allowed. otherwise We will get "ClassCastException". & Null insertion is not possible. for MPD.Empty Set.

Constructors :-

- TreeSet t = new TreeSet();
→ Creates an Empty TreeSet object where the Sorting order is default natural Sorting order.
- TreeSet t = new TreeSet(Comparator c)
→ Creates an Empty TreeSet object where the Sorting order is Customized Sorting order Specified by Comparator object.
- TreeSet t = new TreeSet(Collection c)
- TreeSet t = new TreeSet(SortedSet c)

Ex:- import java.util.*;
class TreeSetDemo
{
 p.s.v.m (String [] args)
}

```

TreeSet t = new TreeSet();
    t.add("A");
    t.add("a");
    t.add("B");
    t.add("Z");
    t.add("L");

    //t.add(new Integer(10)); //CCE ClassCastException
    //t.add(null); //→ NPE
    System.out.println(t); [A, B, Z, L, a]
}
}

```

④ Null acceptance :-

- (i) For the Non-Empty TreeSet if we are trying to insert null we will get NullPointerException(NPE).
- (ii) For the Empty TreeSet add the first element null insertion is always possible.
- (iii) But after inserting that null, if we are trying to insert anything else, we will get NullPointerException (NPE).

eg:-

```

import java.util.*;
class TreeSetDemo1
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        TreeSet t = new TreeSet();
        t.add(new StringBuffer("A"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("R"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("L"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("B"));
        System.out.println(t);
    }
}

```

- If we are depending on default natural sorting order Compulsory Objects should be homogeneous & Comparable otherwise we will get ClassCastException (CCE)
- An object is said to be Comparable iff the corresponding class implements Comparable Interface.
- String class & all wrapper classes already implements Comparable Interface whereas StringBuffer doesn't implement Comparable Interface. Hence, In the above Example we got ClassCastException.

Comparable Interface :-

- This Interface present in java.lang package & Contains only one method i.e., compareTo().

public int compareTo(Object obj)

Obj1.compareTo(Obj2)

- Returns -ve iff obj1 has to come before obj2.
- Returns +ve iff obj2 has to come after obj2.
- Returns 0 iff obj1 & obj2 are equal (duplicate)

e.g.: import java.util.*;

class Test

{

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

 { S.o.println("A".compareTo("z")); // -ve -25 }

 S.o.println("z".compareTo("A")); // +ve 15.

 S.o.println("A".compareTo("A")); // 0 0

→ When we are depending on default Natural Sorting order

internally JVM calls `comparable()`.

→ Based on the return-type JVM identifies the location of the element in sorting order.

`Obj1.compareTo(Obj2)`

which object we are trying to add

already existing object in TreeSet.

- returns -ve iff obj1 has to come before obj2.
- returns +ve iff obj1 has to come after obj2.
- returns 0 iff obj1 & obj2 are equal

Eg:-

`TreeSet t = new TreeSet();`

`t.add("z");`

`t.add("k");` → "k".`compareTo(z)`; -ve

`t.add("D");` → "D".`compareTo(k)`; -ve

`t.add("M");` → "M".`compareTo(D)` ⇒ +ve

`t.add("D");` → "M".`compareTo(k)` ⇒ +ve

"M".`compareTo(z)`; → -ve

// `t.add(null);`

`S.out(t);`

[D, k, M, z]

"D".`compareTo(D)` ⇒ 0

ClassCastException, NPE

`null.compareTo("D")` ⇒ RE ⇒ NPE

→ If we are not satisfied with default natural sorting order
③ if the ^{default} natural sorting order is not already available, Then
we can define our own Customized Sorting by using Comparator

- * Comparable method for default natural sorting order.
- * Comparator method for customized sorting order.

Comparator (I) :-

→ Comparator Interface present in `java.util` package & defines the following 2 methods.

① `public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2);`

- returns -ve iff obj1 has to come before obj2
- returns +ve iff obj1 has to come after obj2
- returns 0 iff obj1 & obj2 are equal (Duplicates).

`obj1` ⇒ which object we are trying to add

`obj2` ⇒ already existing object

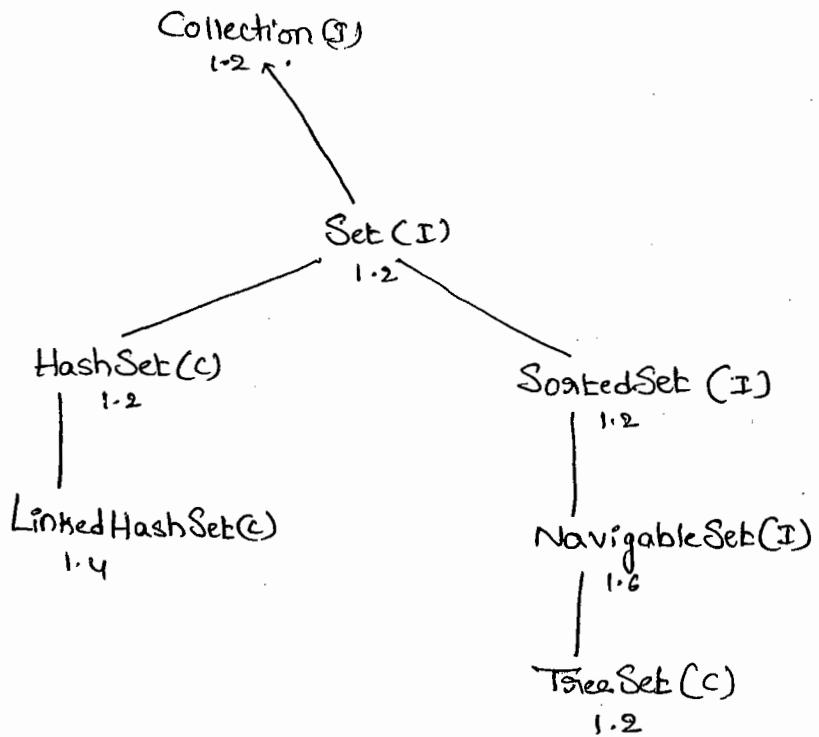
② `public boolean equals(Object obj)`

→ whenever we are implementing Comparator Interface Compulsory we should provide implementation for `compare()`, 2nd method. `equals()` implementation is optional, because it is already available for our class from Object class through inheritance.

② Set (I) :-

→ Set is child Interface of Collection.

→ If we want to represent a group of objects where duplicates are not allowed & insertion order is not preserved, then we should go for Set.



→ Set Interface does not contain any method we have to use

Only Collection Interface method.

(i) HashSet (C) :-

→ The underlying datastructure is HashTable.

→ Duplicate objects are not allowed.

→ If we are trying to add duplicate objects, we won't to get

any C.E or R.E. Add() simply returning false, to hashCode of the objects

→ Insertion order is not preserved & all objects are inserted according

- Heterogeneous Objects are allowed.
- Null insertion is possible (only once) because duplicates are not allowed.
- HashSet Implements Serializable & Clonable Interfaces.

* Constructors:-

- 1) HashSet b = new HashSet();
→ Creates an Empty HashSet object with default default initial capacity 16 & default fillRatio 0.75 (75%).
- 2) HashSet b = new HashSet(int initialCapacity);
→ Creates an Empty HashSet object with the specified initial capacity & default fillRatio is 0.75.
- 3) HashSet b = new HashSet(int initialCapacity, float fillratio);
 0 to 1
- 4) HashSet b = new HashSet(Collection c);

fillratio:-

- After Completing, ^(filling) The Specified ratio Then only a new HashSet object will be Created That particular ratio is called fillratio or load factor.
- The default fillratio is 0.75 but we can customized this value.

```

Eg:- import java.util.*;
class IteratorDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        ArrayList l = new ArrayList();
        for(int i=0; i<=10; i++)
        {
            l.add(i);
        }
        System.out.println(l); [0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 10]
        Iterator it = l.iterator();
        while(it.hasNext())
        {
            Integer I = (Integer)it.next();
            if(I%2 == 0)
            {
                System.out.println(I); 0
                System.out.println(I); 2
                System.out.println(I); 4
                System.out.println(I); 6
                System.out.println(I); 8
                System.out.println(I); 10
            }
            else
            {
                it.remove();
            }
        }
        System.out.println(l); [0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
    }
}

```

Limitations of Iterator :-

- (i) In the Case of Iterator & Enumeration we can always move towards the forward direction & we can't move backward direction.
i.e. These Cursors are Single directional Cursors but not Bidirectional.
- (ii) While performing Iteration we can ~~perform~~ only read & remove operations.

We Can't perform Replacement & Addition of New Objects.

→ To resolve These problem Sun people Introduced ListIterator
in 1.2 Version.

3) List Iterator :-

- ListIterator is the child Interface of Iterator.
- While Iterating Objects by ListIterator we can move either to the forward or to the Backward direction. i.e ListIterator is a Bidirectional Cursor.
- While Iterating By ListIterator we can perform Replacement & addition of new objects also in addition to Read & Remove operations.

→ We can Create ListIterator object by using ~~List~~ of List Interface.

any List object
↓
ListIterator litor = l.listIterator();

→ ListIterator Interface defines the following 9 methods.

- | | |
|----------|---|
| Forward | (i) public boolean hasNext();
(ii) public Object next();
(iii) public int nextIndex(); |
| Backward | (iv) public boolean hasPrevious();
(v) public Object previous();
(vi) public int previousIndex(); |

- ⑦ public void remove();
- ⑧ Public void set(Object new); → replace an object with new object
- ⑨ public void add(Object new); → add new obj.

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
Class ListIteratorDemo
{
```

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

```
LinkedList l = new LinkedList();
```

```
l.add("balakrishna");
```

```
l.add("venky");
```

```
l.add("chiru");
```

```
l.add("nag");
```

```
S.o.println(l); [ balakrishna , venky , chiru , nag ]
```

```
LinkedList
```

```
ListIterator lIt = l.listIterator();
```

```
while(lIt.hasNext())
{
```

```
String s = (String)lIt.next();
```

```
If (s.equals("venki"))
```

```
{
```

```
lIt.remove();
```

```
}
```

```
If (s.equals("chiru"))
```

```
{
```

```
lIt.set("charan");
```

```
}
```

```
If (s.equals("nag"))
```

```
{
```

```
lIt.add("charit");
```

```
}
```

```
S.o.println(l);
```

[Balakrishna , charan , nag , Charit]
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Note!:-

→ Among 3 Cursors ListIterator is the most powerful Cursor,
But it is applicable only for List objects.

Comparison table of 3-Cursors :-

Property	Enumeration (1.0v)	Iterator (1.2v)	ListIterator (1.2v)
① Is it legacy	yes	No	No
② It is applicable only for only for Legacy classes		for any Collection objects	Only for List objects
③ Movement	single direction (only forward)	Single direction (forward)	bi-directional (forward & back-ward)
④ How to get it?	By using elements() - method	By using iterator()	By using ListIterator()
⑤ Accessibility	only read	read & remove	read/remove/ replace/add
⑥ method	hasMoreElements() nextElement()	hasNext() next() remove()	9 methods

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;
class TreeSetDemo3
{
```

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

```
        Tree Integer I1 = (Integer) obj1;
```

```
        Integer I2 = (Integer)
```

```
        TreeSet t = new TreeSet(new myComparator()); → ①
```

```
t.add(20);
```

```
t.add(0); → Compare(0, 20) → +ve
```

```
t.add(15); → Compare(15, 20) → +ve  
→ Compare(15, 0) → -ve
```

```
t.add(5); → Compare(5, 20) → +ve
```

```
t.add(10); → Compare(5, 0) → +ve  
→ Compare(5, 15) → -ve
```

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

```
→ Compare(10, 20) → +ve  
→ Compare(10, 0) → +ve  
→ Compare(10, 15) → +ve  
→ Compare(10, 5) → -ve
```

```
[20, 15, 10, 5, 0]
```

```
class MyComparator implements Comparator
```

```
{
```

```
    public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)
```

```
{
```

```
        Integer I1 = (Integer) obj1;
```

```
        Integer I2 = (Integer) obj2;
```

```
        if(I1 < I2)
```

```
            return +100;
```

```
        else if(I1 > I2)
```

```
            return -100;
```

```
        else
```

```
            return 0;
```

```
}      return(I1 < I2) ? +1 : (I1 > I2 ? -1 : 0);
```

- If we are not passing Comparator object at line ①
Then JVM internally calls compareTo() which is meant for default natural sorting order. In this case the o/p is [0, 5, 10, 15, 20].
- If we are passing comparator object at ① Then over own Compare method will be executed which is meant for customized sorting order. These case the o/p is [20, 15, 10, 5, 0]

Various alternatives of implementing compare():-

```

Class MyComparator implements Comparator
{
    public int compare (Object obj1, Object obj2)
    {
        Integer I1 = (Integer) obj1;
        Integer I2 = (Integer) obj2;

        // Return I1.compareTo(I2) ; ⇒ [0, 5, 10, 15, 20]
        // Return -I1.compareTo(I2) ; ⇒ [20, 15, 10, 5, 0]
        // Return I2.compareTo(I1) ; ⇒ [20, 15, 10, 5, 0]
        // Return -I2.compareTo(I1) ; ⇒ [0, 5, 10, 15, 20]
        // Return -1 ; ⇒ [10, 5, 15, 0, 20] ⇒ Reverse of insertion order
        // Return +1 ; ⇒ [20, 0, 15, 5, 10] ⇒ insertion order.
        // Return 0 ; ⇒ [20]
    }
}

```

* W.A.P To insert String Objects into the TreeSet where the Sorting Order is reverse of alphabetical order.

import java.util.*;

class TreeSetDemo2

{

public static void m(String[] args)

{

TreeSet t = new TreeSet(new myComparator());

t.add("A");

t.add("Z");

t.add("K");

t.add("B");

t.add("a");

S. O. println(t);

Class MyComparator implements Comparator

{

public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)

{

String s1 = (String) obj1;

String s2 = obj2.toString(); ✓

return -s1.compareTo(s2);

}

}

Note:-

→ In objects of StringBuffer there is no Comparator, so we can convert into Strings.

Note:-

~~An object class Comparable
method doesn't contain strings
only contain object type so
objects can be converted into
strings by using type casting~~

* W.a.p to insert String & StringBuffer objects into the TreeSet where the sorting order increasing length order. If two objects having the same length then consider their alphabetical order

A) import java.util.*;

Class TreeSetDemo12

{

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

{

TreeSet t = new TreeSet(new MyComparator());

t.add("A");

t.add(new StringBuffer("ABC"));

t.add(new StringBuffer("AA"));

t.add("XX");

t.add("ABCD");

t.add("A");

S.o.println(t); [A, AA, XX, ABC, ABCD]

}

}

Public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)

{

String s₁ = obj1.toString();

String s₂ = obj2.toString();

int l₁ = s₁.length();

int l₂ = s₂.length();

if (l₁ < l₂)

return -1;

else (l₂ > l₁)

return +1;

else

return s₁.compareTo(s₂);

}

* W-a-p to insert StringBuffer objects into the TreeSet where the sorting order alphabetical order?

```


import java.util.*;
class TreeSetDemo10
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        TreeSet t = new TreeSet(new MyComparator());
        t.add(new StringBuffer("A"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("z"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("k"));
        t.add(new StringBuffer("L"));
        System.out.println(t); // [A, K, L, z]
    }
}

class MyComparator implements Comparator
{
    public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)
    {
        String s1 = obj1.toString();
        String s2 = obj2.toString();
        return s1.compareTo(s2);
    }
}


```

O/P:- [A, K, L, z]

Note:

So, SB can be converted into String

→ In StringBuffer there is no compareTo method

→ If we are depending on default natural sorting order Compulsory

Objects should be Homogeneous & Comparable, otherwise we will get CCE

→ If we are depending on our own sorting by Comparator the objects

Need not be Comparable & Homogeneous,

Comparable Vs Comparator :-

- ① For predefined Comparable classes default natural sorting order is already available if we are not satisfied with that we can define our own Customized Sorting by using Comparator.
- Ex:- String.

- ② For predefined Non-Comparable classes Default Natural sorting order is not available Compulsory we should define Sorting by using Comparator object only.

Ex:- StringBuffer.

- ③ For our own Customized classes to define default natural Sorting order we can go for Comparable & to define Customized Sorting we should go for Comparator.

Ex:- Employee, Student, Customer.

```

import java.util.*;
class Employee implements Comparable
{
    int eid;
    Employee(int eid)
    {
        this.eid = eid;
    }
    public String toString()
    {
        return "E-" + eid;
    }
    public int compareTo(Object obj)
    {
        int eid1 = this.eid;
        Employee e2 = (Employee) obj;
        int eid2 = this.eid;
        if (eid1 < eid2)
            return -1;
        else if (eid1 > eid2)
            return +1;
        else
            return 0;
    }
}
class CompDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
}

```

```
Employee e1 = new Employee(200);
```

```
Employee e2 = new Employee(100);
```

```
Employee e3 = new Employee(500);
```

```
Employee e4 = new Employee(300);
```

```
Employee e5 = new Employee(700);
```

```
TreeSet t1 = new TreeSet();
```

```
t1.add(e1);
```

```
t1.add(e2);
```

```
t1.add(e3);
```

```
t1.add(e4);
```

```
t1.add(e5);
```

```
s.o.println(t1); [E-100, E-200, E-500, E-700]
```

```
TreeSet t2 = new TreeSet(new MyComparator());
```

```
t2.add(e1);
```

```
t2.add(e2);
```

```
t2.add(e3);
```

```
t2.add(e4);
```

```
t2.add(e5);
```

```
s.o.println(t2); [E-700, E-500, E-200, E-100]
```

```
Class MyComparator implements Comparator
```

```
{
```

```
public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)
```

```
{
```

```
Employee e1 = (Employee) obj1;
```

```
Employee e2 = (Employee) obj2;
```

```
} } return e2.compareTo(e1); // 47 of 401. - e1.compareTo(e2);
```

1) W.a.p to insert Employee objects onto the TreeSet where default natural sorting order is ascending order of Salaries. If Two Emp having the same salary then consider alphabetical orders of their names.

* W.a. Comparator class to define customized sorting which is alphabetical order of Employee names. If two employees having the same name then consider descending order of their age.

* Comparison b/w Comparable & Comparator :-

Comparable	Comparator
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) We can use Comparable to define default Natural Sorting order. 2) This interface present in Java.lang package. 3) defines only one method i.e Comparable 4) All wrapper classes & String Class implements Comparable interface 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) We can use Comparator to define Customized Sorting order. 2) This interface present in java.util package. 3) defines Two methods <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) compare() (ii) equals() 4) No predefined class implements Comparator Interface.

Comparison table for Set Implemented Classes.

Property	HashSet	LinkedHashSet	TreeSet
Underlying D.S	Hashtable	Hashtable + Linked List	Balanced Tree
↳ Insertion Order	Not preserved	preserved	Not preserved
↳ Sorting Order	N. A	N. A	preserved
↳ Heterogeneous Objects	allowed	allowed	Not allowed
↳ Duplicate Objects	not allowed	not allowed	not allowed
↳ Null Acceptance	allowed (+)	allowed (-)	for the empty TreeSet add the first element Null insertion is possible, in all other cases we will get NPE

Map (I) :-

- If we want to represent a group of objects as key-value pairs Then we should go for Map. Both Key & Value are Objects.
- Both Key & Values are Objects.
- Duplicate Keys are not allowed, But Values can be duplicated.
- Each Key-value pair is called Entry.

Ex:-

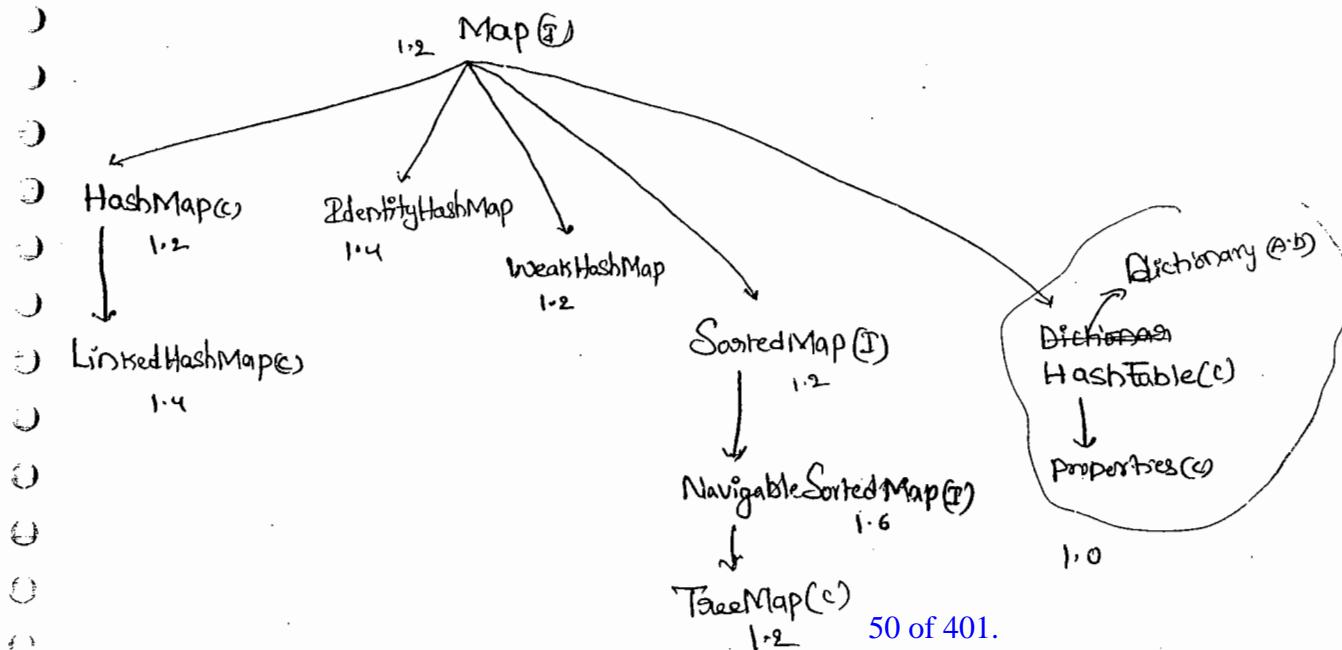
RollNo	Name
101	durga
102	Sainu
103	Ravi
104	Sambu
105	Sundar

Key

entry

value

- There is no relationship b/w Collection & Map.
- *Collection ment for a group of individual objects whereas
- Map ment for a group of key-value pairs.
- Map is not Child interface of Collection.



Methods of Map Interface :-

* ① Object put(Object key, Object value);

→ To add Key-value pair to the map

→ If the Specified Key is already available then Old Value will be replaced with New Value & Old Value will be returned.

② Void putAll(Map m)

→ To add a group of Key-value Pairs.

③ Object get(Object key)

→ Returns the value associated with Specified Key

→ If the Key is not available then we will get Null

④ Object remove(Object key);

⑤ boolean containsKey(Object key)

⑥ boolean containsValue(Object value)

⑦ int size();

⑧ boolean isEmpty();

⑨ Void clear();

① Set keySet();

② Collection values();

③ Set entrySet();

} Collection Views, of the Map.

Entry Interface :

- Each key-value pair is called One Entry
- Without Existing Map Object There is no chance of Entry Object
- Hence, Interface Entry is define inside Map Interfaces.

Code:

```
interface Map
{
    interface Entry
    {
        Object getKey();
        Object getValue();
        Object setValue();
    }
}
```

① HashMap :

- The underlying data structure is HashTable
- Heterogeneous Objects are allowed for both Keys & values.
- Duplicate Keys are not allowed but the values can be duplicated.
- Insertion Order is not preserved because it is based on HashCode of Keys.
- Null Key is allowed (only one)
- Null Values are allowed (any number of times).

- differences b/w HashMap & HashTable :-

HashMap	HashTable
① No method is Synchronized	① Every method is Synchronized
② multiple Threads can operate simultaneously & hence HashMap object is not Thread Safe	② At a time only one Thread is allowed to operate on ^{HashTable} object. Hence it is Thread Safe.
③ Threads are not required to wait & hence relatively performance is high.	③ It increases waiting time of the thread & hence performance is low.
④ Null is allowed for both key & value	④ Null is not allowed for both key & values. otherwise we will get <u>NPE</u>
⑤ Introduced in 1.2 version & it is non-Legacy	⑤ Introduced in 1.0 version & it is legacy

Q) How to get Synchronized Version of HashMap?

A) → By default HashMap object is not Synchronized, but we can get Synchronized Version by using SynchronizedMap() of Collections class.

```
Map m = Collections.synchronizedMap(HashMap hm);
```

Constructor :-

(i) `HashMap m = new HashMap();`

→ Creates an Empty `HashMap` object with default initial capacity level is 16 & default fillRatio 0.75 (75%).

(ii) `HashMap m = new HashMap(int initialCapacity)`

(iii) `HashMap m = new HashMap(int initialCapacity, float fillRatio)`

(iv) `HashMap m = new HashMap(Map m)`

Ex:-

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
class HashMapDemo
```

```
{
```

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

```
{
```

```
        HashMap m = new HashMap();
```

```
        m.put("chiranjeevi", 700);
```

```
        m.put("balaiah", 800);
```

```
        m.put("venkatesh", 1000);
```

```
        m.put("nagarjuna", 500);
```

```
        S.O.println(m); } { venkatesh = 1000, balaiah = 800, chiranjeevi = 700,
```

```
        Nagarjuna = 500 }
```

```
        S.O.println(m.put("chiranjeevi", 1000)); 700
```

```
        Set s = m.keySet();
```

```
        S.O.println(s); [venkatesh, balaiah, chiranjeevi, Nagarjuna]
```

```
        Collection c = m.values();
```

```
        S.O.println(c); [1000, 800, 1000, 500].
```

```
        Set s1 = m.entrySet();
```

```
        Iterator its = s1.iterator(); 54 of 401.
```

```

while (its.hasNext())
{
    Map.Entry m1 = (Map.Entry) its.next();
    System.out.println(m1.getKey() + " --- " + m1.getValue());
    if (m1.getKey().equals("nagarjuna"))
        m1.setValue(10000);
    System.out.println(m1);
}

```

Nagarjuna 500
 Venkatesh 1000
 Balaiyah 800
 Chiranjeevi 1000

ii) LinkedHashMap :-

→ It is the child class of HashMap.

→ It is exactly same as HashMap except the following differences

HashMap	LinkedHashMap
① The underlying D.S is HashTable	① The underlying D.S is HashTable + Linked List
② Insertion Order is not preserved	② Insertion Order is preserved
③ Introduced in 1.2 version	③ Introduced in 1.4 Version

→ In the above program if we are replacing HashMap with LinkedHashMap, The following is the O/P.

{Chiranjeevi = 700, Balaiyah = 800} {Venkatesh = 1000, Nagarjuna = 500}

i.e. insertion order is preserved

Note :-

→ The main application area of `LinkedHashSet` & `LinkedHashMap` is cache applications implementation where duplication is not allowed & insertion order must be preserved.

(iii) IdentityHashMap :-

→ It is exactly same `HashMap` except the following difference.

→ In the case of `HashMap` to identify duplicate keys JVM always uses `equals()`, which is mostly meant for Content Composition.

→ If we want to use `== operator` instead of `equals()` to identify duplicate keys we have to use `IdentityHashMap`. (`== operator` always meant for Reference Composition).

Eg:- `HashMap m = new HashMap();`

`Integer i1 = new Integer(10);`

`Integer i2 = new Integer(10);`

`m.put(i1, "pavan");`

`m.put(i2, "Kalyan");`

`S.o.println(m); } 10 = Kalyan}`



`equals() → Content`
`== → reference`

`i1 == i2 → false`

`i1.equals(i2) → true`

→ In the above code `i1` & `i2` are duplicate keys because `i1.equals(i2)` returns true.

→ If we replace `HashMap` with `IdentityHashMap` Then the o/p is

`{10 = pavan, 10 = Kalyan}`

→ `i1` & `i2` are not duplicate keys because `i1 == i2` returns false.

WeakHashMap

- It is exactly same as HashMap except the following difference.
- In the case of HashMap, Object is not eligible for g.c even though it doesn't have any external references if it is associated with HashMap. i.e., HashMap dominates Garbage Collector (g.c).
- But in the case of WeakHashMap even though object associated with WeakHashMap, it is eligible for g.c, if it does not have any external references. i.e. G.c dominates WeakHashMap.

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class WeakHashMapDemo  
{  
    public static void main (String [] args) throws InterruptedException  
    {  
        HashMap m = new HashMap();  
        Temp t = new Temp();  
        m.put (t, "durga");  
        System.out.println(m); // temp = durga  
        t = null;  
        System.gc();  
        Thread.sleep (5000);  
        System.out.println(m);  
    }  
}
```

Class Temp

```
{  
    public String toString()  
    {  
        return "temp";  
    }  
    public void finalize()  
    {  
        System.out.println("finalize method called");  
    }  
}
```

O/P:
{temp = durga}
{temp = durga}

→ If we replace HashMap with WeakHashMap then the o/p is

```
{temp = durga}
```

finalize method Called

```
}
```

(ii) SortedMap (I) :-

- If we want to represent a group of entries according to some sorting order then we should go for SortedMap. The sorting should be done based on the keys but not based on the values.
- SortedMap interface is the child interface of Map.
- SortedMap interface defines the following 6 specific methods

- ① Object firstKey();
- ② Object lastKey();
- ③ SortedMap headMap(Object key1);
- ④ SortedMap tailMap(Object key1);
- ⑤ SortedMap subMap(Object key1, Object key2);
- ⑥ Comparator comparator();

(iii) TreeMap (II) :-

- The underlying D.S is RED-BLACK Tree,
- Insertion order is not preserved & all entries are inserted according to some sorting order of keys.
- If we are depending on default natural sorting order then the keys should be homogeneous & Comparable. otherwise we will get ClassCastException (CCE).
- If we are defining our own sorting order by Comparator then

The Keys Need not be Homogeneous & Comparable.

- There are no restrictions on values, They Can be Heterogeneous & Non-Comparable.
- duplicate Keys are not allowed but values can be duplicated.

Null Acceptance:-

- for the Empty TreeMap as the first entry with null key is allowed but after inserting that entry if we are trying to insert any other entry we will get NullPointerException (NPE).
- for the NON-Empty TreeMap if we are trying to insert entry with null key we will get NullPointerException (NPE)
- There are no restrictions on null values. i.e., we can use null any no. of times anywhere for Map values.

Constructors :-

- TreeMap t = new TreeMap()
for default natural sorting order.
- TreeMap t = new TreeMap(Comparator c)
for customized sorting order.
- TreeMap t = new TreeMap(Map m)
- TreeMap t = new TreeMap(SelectableMap m)

Eg:-

```

import java.util.*;

class TreeMapDemo3
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        TreeMap m = new TreeMap();
        m.put(100, "zzz");
        m.put(103, "yyy");
        m.put(101, "xxx");
        m.put(104, 106);
        m.put(107, null);
        //m.put("FFFF", "xxx"); //CCE
        //m.put(null, "xxx"); //NPE
        System.out.println(m);
    }
}

```

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 100 = zzz, 101 = xxx, 103 = yyy, 104 = 106, 107 = null \end{array} \right\}$

O/P:-

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 100 = zzz, 101 = xxx, 103 = yyy, 104 = 106, 107 = null \end{array} \right\}$

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
class TreeMapDemo
```

{

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

{

```
TreeMap t = new TreeMap(new MyComparator());
```

```
t.put("xxx", 10);
```

```
t.put("AAA", 20);
```

```
t.put("zzz", 30);
```

```
t.put("LLL", 40);
```

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

{}

```
class MyComparator implements Comparator
```

{

```
public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)
```

{

```
String s1 = obj1.toString();
```

```
String s2 = obj2.toString();
```

```
return s2.compareTo(s1);
```

{}

O/P:-

$\left. \begin{matrix} zzz = 30, \ xxx = 10, LLL = 40, AAA = 20 \end{matrix} \right\}$

Hashtable():

- The underlying datastructure is HashTable.
- Heterogeneous objects are allowed for both keys & values
- Insertion order is not preserved & it is based on HashCode of the keys.
- Null is not allowed for both key & values otherwise we will get NullPointerException (NPE).
- Duplicate keys are not allowed, but values can be duplicated.
- All methods are Synchronized & hence HashTable object is ThreadSafe.

Constructor:

- Hashtable h = new Hashtable();
- Creates an empty Hashtable object with default initial capacity is 11 & default fillratio 75% (0.75).
- Hashtable h = new Hashtable(int initialCapacity);
- Hashtable h = new Hashtable(int ^{initialCapacity,} float fillratio)
- Hashtable h = new Hashtable(Map m);

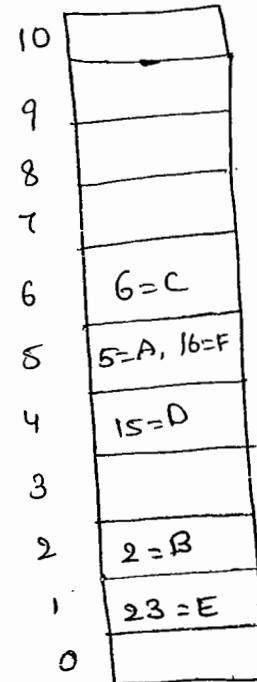
eg:- import java.util.*;

```

Class HashtableDemo
{
    P. S. v. m (String [] args)
    {
        Hashtable h = new Hashtable();
        h.put (new Temp(5), "A");
        h.put (new Temp(2), "B");
        h.put (new Temp(6), "C");
        h.put (new Temp(15), "D");
        h.put (new Temp(23), "E");
        h.put (new Temp(16), "F");
        // h.put ("durga", null); //NPE
        System.out.println(h);
    }
}

```

} { G=C, 16=F, 5=A, 15=D, 2=B, 23=E }



→ from top to bottom & Right to Left

```

Class Temp
{
    int i;
    Temp (int i)
    {
        this.i = i;
    }
    public int hashCode()
    {
        return i;
    }
    public String toString()
    {
        return i + " ";
    }
}

```

* Properties :-

- It is the child class of Hashtable
- In our program if anything which changes frequently (like database usernames, passwords, URL) never recommended to hardcode the value in the Java program. Because for every change, we have to recompile, rebuild, redeploy the application & sometime even server restart also required. Which creates a big business impact to the client.
- We have to configure those variables (properties) inside Properties files & we have to read those values from java code.
- The main advantage of this approach is, If any change in the properties file just redeployment is enough which is not a business impact to the client.

Constructor :-

(i) Properties p = new Properties();

→ In the case of Properties both key & value should be String type

Methods :-

* (i) String getProperty(StringPropertyName)

→ Returns the value associated with specified property.

(ii) String setProperty(String pname, String pvalue);

→ To set a new property.

(iii) String Enumeration getPropertyNames();

* (iv) void load(InputStream is)

→ To load the properties from properties file into java properties object.

(v) void store(OutputStream os, String comment)

→ To update properties from properties object into properties file.

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;
```

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

```
class PropertiesDemo
```

```
{
```

```
    public void main(String[] args) throws IOException
```

```
}
```

```
Properties p = new Properties();
```

```
FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("abc.properties");
```

```
p.load(fis);
```

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

```
String s = p.getProperty("venki");
```

```
s.out.println(s);
```

```
p.setProperty("dag", "999999");
```

```
FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.properties");
```

```
p.store(fos, "Updated by durga for SCJP Demo class");
```

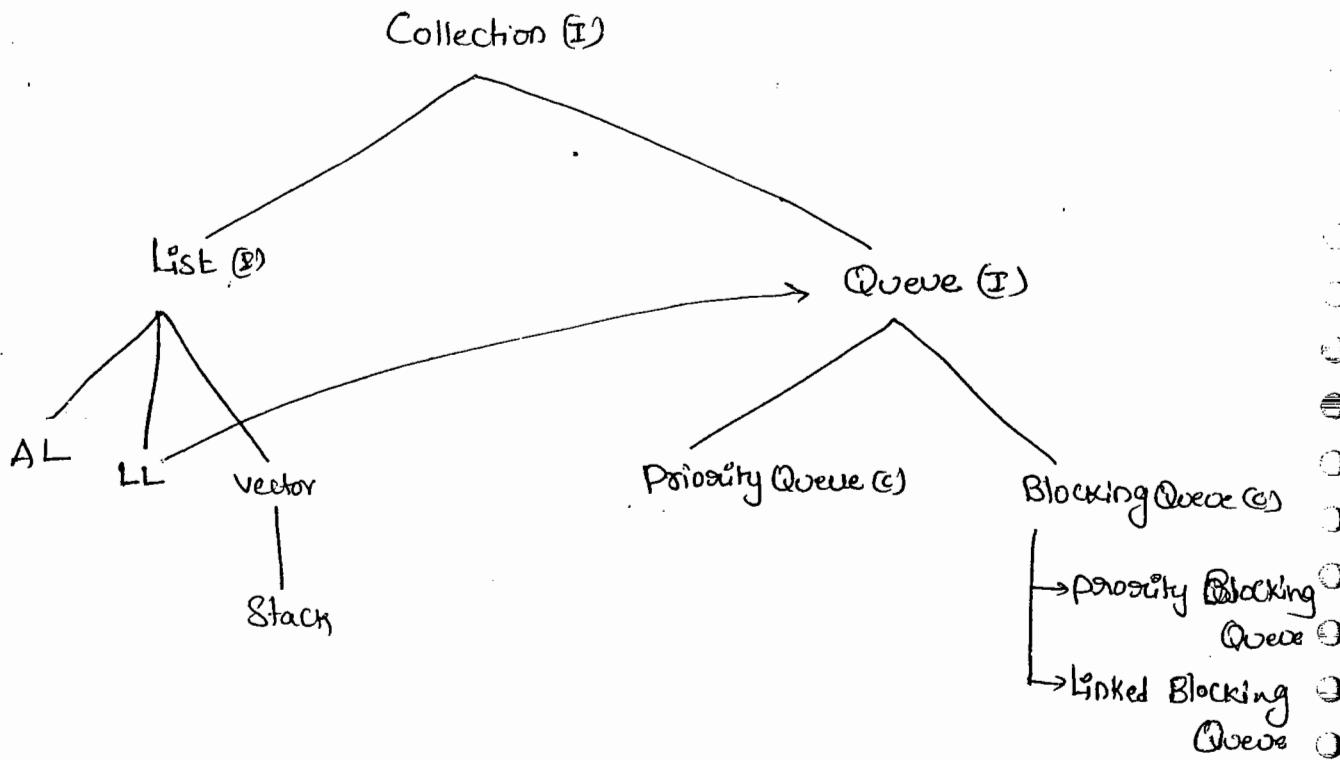
user = scott
venki = 8888
pwd = tiger

abc.properties

1.5 Version Enhancement :-

Queue (I) :-

- It is the child Interface of Collection.
- If we want to represent a group of individual objects for processing. Then we should go for Queue.



- Usually Queue follows FIFO (first in first out), But Based on our requirement we can change our order.
- From 1.5 Version onwards LinkedList implements Queue Interface.
- LinkedList Based implementation of Queue always follows FIFO

Queue Interface methods :-

(i) boolean offer(Object obj)

→ To add an object into the Queue.

(ii) Object peek();

→ To return head element of the Queue. If Queue is Empty then
This method returns null.

(iii) Object element();

→ To return head element of the Queue. If Queue is Empty
then we will get RuntimeException Saying NoSuchElementException

(iv) Object poll();

→ To remove & return head element of the Queue. If Queue
is Empty then this method returns null.

(v) Object remove();

→ To remove & return head element of the Queue, if Queue is
Empty then we will get RuntimeException Saying NoSuchElementException

Priority Queue (C) :-

- This is the Data Structure to hold a group of individual Objects prior to processing According to Some priority.
- The priority can be either default Natural Sorting order or Customized Sorting order.
- If we are depending on default Natural Sorting Compulsory Objects should be Homogeneous & Comparable otherwise we will get ClassCastException.
- If we are defining our own Customized Sorting by Comparator Then the Objects need not be Homogeneous & Comparable.
- Duplicate objects are not allowed.
- Insertion order is not preserved.
- Null insertion is not possible even as first element also.

Constructors :-

(i) Priority Queue q = new Priority Queue();

→ Creates an Empty Priority Queue with default initialCapacity '11'
& Priority Order is default natural Sorting order.

(ii) Priority Queue q = new Priority Queue(int initialCapacity);

(iii) Priority Queue q = new Priority Queue(int initialCapacity, Comparator $\langle \rangle$);

(iv) Priority Queue q = new Priority Queue(Collection $\langle \rangle$ of 40);

(v) Priority Queue $q = \text{new Priority Queue}(\text{SortedSet } s)$

Eg:-

```

import java.util.*;
class PriorityQueueDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Priority Queue q = new Priority Queue();
        System.out.println(q.peek()); //null
        //System.out.println(q.element()); //NSE NoSuchElementException
        for(int i=0; i<=10; i++)
        {
            q.offer(i);
        }
        System.out.println(q); // [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ... 10]
        System.out.println(q.poll()); // 0
        System.out.println(q); // [1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ... 10]
    }
}

```

Eg 2:-

```

import java.util.*;
class PriorityQueueDemo2
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
}

```

```
PriorityQueue q = new PriorityQueue(15, new MyComparator());
```

```
q.offer("A");
```

```
q.offer("Z");
```

```
q.offer("L");
```

```
q.offer("B");
```

```
System.out.println(q); // [Z, L, B, A]
```

```
{ }
```

```
Class MyComparator implements Comparator
```

```
{ }
```

```
public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)
```

```
{ }
```

```
String s1 = (String) obj1;
```

```
String s2 = obj2.toString();
```

```
return s2.compareTo(s1);
```

```
{ }
```

Output: [Z, L, B, A]

* 1.6 Version Enhancements :-

(i) NavigableSet (I) :-

- It is the child interface of SortedSet.
- This interface defines several methods to provide support for navigation for the TreeSet object.
- The following list of various methods present in NavigableSet .

(i) Ceiling(e) :-

→ Returns the lowest element which is $\geq e$

(ii) higher(e) :-

→ Returns the lowest element which is $> e$

(iii) Floor(e) :-

→ Returns highest element which is $\leq e$

(iv) lower(e) :-

→ Returns the highest element which is $< e$

(v) pollFirst() :-

→ Remove & Returns first element

(vi) pollLast() :-

→ Remove & Returns last element.

(vii) descendingSet() :-

→ Returns the NavigableSet in reverse order.

```

Eg: import java.util.*;

class NavigableSetDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        TreeSet<Integer> t = new TreeSet<Integer>();
        t.add(1000);
        t.add(2000);
        t.add(3000);
        t.add(4000);
        t.add(5000);

        System.out.println(t); // [1000, 2000,
        System.out.println(t.ceiling(2000)); // 2000
        System.out.println(t.higher(2000)); // 3000
        System.out.println(t.floor(3000)); // 3000
        System.out.println(t.lower(3000)); // 2000
        System.out.println(t.pollFirst()); // 1000
        System.out.println(t.pollLast()); // 5000
        System.out.println(t.descendingSet()); // [5000, 3000, 2000]
        System.out.println(t); // [2000, 3000, 4000]
    }
}

```

(ii) NavigableMap (I):-

- It is the child interface of SortedMap to define Several method for Navigation purposes.
- The following is the list of methods present in NavigableMap.

(i) ceilingKey(e)

(ii) higherKey(e)

(iii) floorKey(e)

(iv) lowerKey(e)

(v) pollFirstEntry()

(vi) pollLastEntry()

(vii) descendingMap()

Eg:-

```
import java.util.*;  
class NavigableMapDemo  
{  
    public static void main (String [] args)  
    {
```

```
        TreeMap <String, String> t = new TreeMap <String, String>();
```

```
        t.put ("b", "banana");
```

```
        t.put ("c", "cat");
```

```
        t.put ("a", "apple");
```

```
        t.put ("d", "dog");
```

```
        t.put ("g", "gun");
```

```
S.O.println(t); { a=apple, b=banana, c=cat, d=dog , g=gun }
```

`s.o.println(t.ceilingKey("c")); c`
`s.o.println(t.higherKey("e")); g`
`s.o.println(t.floorKey("e")); d`
`s.o.println(t.lowerKey("e")); d`
`s.o.println(t.pollFirstEntry()); a = apple`
`s.o.println(t.pollLastEntry()); g = gun`
`s.o.println(t.desendingMap()); } d = dog , c = cat , b = banana }`
`s.o.println(t); } b = banana , c = cat , d = dog }`
{
}

Collections class

Collections class:-

- It is an utility class present in java.util package
- It defines Several utility methods for Collection implemented class objects

Sorting the elements of a list :-

- Collections class defines the following methods to sort elements of a List.

① Public static void Sort(List l) :-

→ We can use these method to sort according to Natural Sorting Order.

→ In this case Comparsory elements should be Homogeneous & Comparable. otherwise we will get ClassCastException.

→ List should not contain null, otherwise we will get NullPointerException

② Public static void Sort(List l, Comparator c) :-

→ To Sort elements of a List according to Customized Sorting order

Searching the elements of a List :-

- Collections class defines the following method to search elements of a List

① Public static int binarySearch(List l, Object obj)

→ If the List is Sorted according to Natural Sorting Order then we have to use this method.

⑨ public static int binarySearch(List l, Object key, Comparator c)

→ If the List is Sorted according to Comparator Then we have to use This method.

Conclusion :-

- Internally binarySearch method uses BinarySearch algorithm.
- Before Calling binarySearch() method Compulsory The List should be Sorted. otherwise we will get unpredictable results.
- Successful Search returns index.
- Unsuccessful Search returns insertion point
- Insertion point is the Location where we can place element in the Sorted List.
- If the List is Sorted according to Comparator Then at the time of Search also we should pass the Same Comparator Otherwise we will get unpredictable results.

Ex:- To Search elements of list

import java.util.*;

class CollectionsSearchDemo

↓

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

↓

ArrayList l = new ArrayList();

l.add("z");

l.add("A");

l.add("m");

l.add("k");

l.add("a");

S.o.println(l); [z, A, M, k, a]

Collections.sort(l);

S.o.println(l); [A K M Z a]

-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6
A	K	M	Z	a	
0	1	2	3	4	

S.o.println(Collections.binarySearch(l, "z")); 3

S.o.println(Collections.binarySearch(l, "j")); -2

}

Ex:-

import java.util.*;

class CollectionsSearchDemo1

{

P.S.V.M()

) ArrayList l = new ArrayList();

) l.add(15);

) l.add(0);

) l.add(20);

) l.add(10);

) l.add(5);

) S.o.println(l); [15 0 20 10 5]

) Collections.sort(l, new MyComparator());

) S.o.println(l); [20 15 10 5 0]

) S.o.println(Collections.binarySearch(l, 10, new MyComparator())); //2

) S.o.println(Collections.binarySearch(l, 13, new MyComparator())); // -3

) S.o.println(Collections.binarySearch(l, 17)); // -6 unpredictable

}

because it is not passing Comparator,

-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6
20	15	10	5	0	
0	1	2	3	4	

Class MyComparator implements Comparator {

 public int compare(Object obj1, Object obj2)

 {

 Integer i1 = (Integer) obj1;

 Integer i2 = (Integer) obj2;

 return i2.compareTo(i1);

 }

Note :-

→ For the List Contains n elements Range of Successfull Search

① Range of Successfull Search : 0 to n-1

② Range of unsuccessful Search : -(n+1) to -1

③ total Range : -(n+1) to n-1

Ex:-

-1	-2	-3	-4
10	20	30	
0	1	2	

Range of successful Search : 0 to 2

Range of unsuccessful Search : -4 to -1

Total Range : -4 to 2

Reversing the elements of a List:-

→ Collections class defines The following reverse method for this

```
public static void reverse(List l);
```

Ex:- To Reverse elements of List

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
Class CollectionsReverseDemo
```

```
{
```

```
    P. S. v. m(____)
```

```
{
```

```
AL l = new AL();
```

```
l.add(15);
```

```
l.add(0);
```

```
l.add(20);
```

```
l.add(10);
```

```
l.add(5);
```

```
S.o.println(l); 

|    |   |    |    |   |
|----|---|----|----|---|
| 15 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 5 |
|----|---|----|----|---|


```

```
Collections.reverse(l);
```

```
S.o.println(l); 

|   |    |    |   |    |
|---|----|----|---|----|
| 5 | 10 | 20 | 0 | 15 |
|---|----|----|---|----|


```

```
}
```

reverse() Vs reverseOrder():-

- We can use reverse() method to reverse the elements of a list and this method contains List assignment.
- Collections class defines reverse order method also to return Comparator object for reversing original sorting order.

Comparator c₁ = Collections.reverseOrder(Comparator c)

↓
Descending order

↓
Ascending order

- reverseOrder() method can take Contains Comparator assignment whereas reverse() Contains List assignments.

Ex:- To REVERSE ELEMENTS OF LIST

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class CollectionsReverseDemo  
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        ArrayList l = new ArrayList();  
  
        l.add(15);  
        l.add(0);  
        l.add(20);  
        l.add(10);  
        l.add(5);  
  
        System.out.println(l); 

|    |   |    |    |   |
|----|---|----|----|---|
| 15 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 5 |
|----|---|----|----|---|

  
        Collections.reverse(l);  
        System.out.println(l); 

|   |    |    |   |    |
|---|----|----|---|----|
| 5 | 10 | 20 | 0 | 15 |
|---|----|----|---|----|

  
    }  
}
```

Arrays Class

Arrays Class :-

→ It is an utility class present in Util package, To define Several utility methods for Arrays for both primitive Arrays & Object type Arrays.

Sorting the elements of Array :-

→ Arrays class defines the following methods for this.

① public static void Sort(primitive[] p);

→ To Sort elements of ^{primitive} Array According to Natural Sorting order.

② public static void Sort(Object[] a)

→ To Sort elements of Object Array According to Natural Sorting Order.

→ In this Case Compulsory The elements should be Homogeneous & Comparable. Otherwise we will get ClassCastException.

③ public static void Sort(Object[] a, Comparator c)

→ To Sort elements of Object[] according to Customized Sorting order.

Note :-

Primitive Arrays Can be Sorted Only by natural Sorting order

whereas Object Arrays Can be Sorted either by natural Sorting Order or by Customized Sorting Order.

Ex:- To SORT elements of Arrays

ArraysSort Demo.java

```
import java.util.Arrays;  
import java.util.Comparator;  
  
class ArraysSortDemo  
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)
```

```
    {  
        int[] a = {10, 5, 20, 11, 6};
```

```
        System.out.println("primitive Array before Sorting:");
```

```
        for(int ai : a)
```

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

```
        Arrays.sort(a);
```

```
        System.out.println("primitive Array After Sorting:");
```

```
        for(int ai : a)
```

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

```
String[] s = {"A", "Z", "B"};
```

```
System.out.println("Object Array Before Sorting:");
```

```
for(String a2 : s)
```

```
    {  
        System.out.println(a2);  
    }
```

```
        Arrays.sort(s);
```

```
        System.out.println("Object Array After Sorting:");
```

```

for (String a1 : s)
|
|   S.o.println(a1);    ^ B
|
|   {
}

```

Arrays.sort(s, new MyComparator());

S.o.println(" Object Array After Sorting by Comparator: ");

```

for (String a1 : s)
|
|   S.o.println(a1);    ^ B
|
|   {
|   {
}

```

Class MyComparator implements Comparator {

```

public int compare(Object o1, Object o2) {

```

```

    String s1 = o1.toString();

```

```

    String s2 = o2.toString();

```

```

    return s2.compareTo(s1);
}

```

Searching the elements of Array :-

→ Arrays class defines the following search methods for this.

① public static int binarySearch(primitive() p, primitive key)

② public static int binarySearch(Object() o, Object key)

③ public static int binarySearch(Object() o, Object key, Comparator c)

Note:-

All rules of these binarySearch() method are exactly same as Collections class binarySearch() method.

Ex:- `import java.util.*;`

`import static java.util.Arrays.*;`

`class ArraysSearchDemo`

`}`

`P.S.V.m()`

`{`

`int[] a = {10, 5, 20, 11, 6};`

`Arrays.sort(a); // Sort by natural order`

-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6
5	6	10	11	20	
0	1	2	3	4	

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(a, 6)); // 1`

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(a, 14)); // -5`

`String[] s = {"A", "z", "B"},`

`Arrays.sort(s);`

-1	-2	-3	-4
A	z	B	
0	1	2	

`System.out.println(Arrays.binarySearch(s, "z")); // 2`

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(s, "S")); // -3`

`Arrays.sort(s, new MyComparator());`

-1	-2	-3	-4
2	B	A	
0	1	2	

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(s, "z", new MyComparator())); // 0`

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(s, "S", new MyComparator())); // -2`

`S.o.println(Arrays.binarySearch(s, "N")); // unpredictable result`

`}`

`class MyComparator implements Comparator`

`{`

`public int compare(Object o1, Object o2)`

`{`

String $S_1 = O_1.\text{toString}();$

String $S_2 = O_2.\text{toString}();$

return $S_2.\text{compareTo}(S_1);$

}

Converting Arrays to List :-

① Public Static List asList(Object[] a)

- By Using this method we are not Creating an independent List Object just we are Creating List view for the existing Array Object.
- By using List reference if we perform any operation the changes will be reflected to the Array reference. Similarly, By using Array reference if we perform any changes those changes will be reflect to the List.
- By using List reference we can't perform any operation which varies the size, (i.e., add & remove) otherwise we will get RuntimeException saying "Unsupported-Operation-Exception" (UOE).
- By using List reference we can perform replacement operation But replacement should be with the same-type of element only otherwise we will get RuntimeException saying "ArrayStoreException".

Ex:- To view Array IN List FORM.

ArrayListDemo.java

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
Class ArraysAsListDemo
```

```
{
```

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

```
{
```

```
String[] s = {"A", "Z", "B"};
```

```
List l = Arrays.asList(s);
```

```
s[0] = 'K'; // [A, Z, B] [K, Z, B]
```

```
s[0].println(); // [K, Z, B]
```

```
l.set(1, "L"); [K, L, B]
```

```
for (String s1 : s)
```

```
s1.println(); // [K, L, B]
```

```
l.add("duoga"); // USE
```

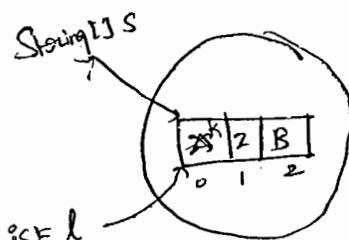
```
l.remove(2); // USE
```

```
l.set(1, "S"); [K, S, B] => [K, S, B]
```

```
l.set(1, 10); // R.E // ArrayStoreException
```

```
}
```

```
}
```



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- 1) Introduction
- 2) Generic Classes
- 3) Bounded types
- 4) Generic methods
- 5) Wild Card Characters ?
- 6) Communication with non-Generic Code.
- 7) Conclusions.

Introduction :

- ⇒ → Arrays are always Safe w.r.t type.
- ⇒ → for Example, if our programme requirement is → to add only String Objects then we can go for String[] array. for this array we can add only String type of objects, by mistake if we are trying to add any other type we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:- String [] s = new String[600];

s[0] = "durga"; ✓

Type-Safe.

s[1] = "paran"; ✓

s[2] = new Student(); X



C.E:- Incompatible types

→ found: Student

required: String

→ Hence In The Case of Arrays we can always give the guarantee about the Type of elements. String[] array Contains only String Objects. (i.e. Strings) due to this arrays are always Safe to use w.r.t type.

→ But Collections are not Safe to use w.r.t type. For Example if our programme requirement is to hold only String Objects & if we are using ArrayList, By mistake if we are trying to add any other type to the List we won't get any Compiletime Error But program may fail at Runtime.

Eg:-

```
ArrayList l = new ArrayList();
```

```
l.add("durga");
```

```
l.add("sainu");
```

```
l.add(new Student());
```

```
;
```

✓ String name1 = (String)l.get(0);

✓ String name2 = (String)l.get(1);

✗ String name3 = (String)l.get(2);



R.E!.. ClassCastException.

→ There is no guarantee that Collection can Hold a particular type of objects. Hence w.r.t type Collections are not Safe to use.

Case 2 :-

→ In the Case of Arrays at the time of retrieval it is not required to perform any TypeCasting.

e.g:-

```
String[] s = new String[600];
```

```
s[0] = "durga";
```

```
String name1 = s[0];
```

TypeCasting is not required.

→ But in the Case of Collections at the time of retrieval Compulsory we should perform TypeCasting otherwise we will get CompiletimeError.

e.g:- ArrayList l = new ArrayList();

```
l.add("durga");
```

```
String name1 = l.get(0);
```

c.e:- Incompatible types

Found: object

Required: String

```
String name1 = (String)l.get(0); ✓
```

→ Hence, in the Case of Collections TypeCasting is mandatory which is a bigger headache to the programmer.

→ To Overcome the above problems of Collections (TypeSafe & TypeCasting) Sun people introduced Generics Concepts in 1.5 Version. Hence The main objectives of Generic Concepts are,

Hence the main objectives of Generics Concepts are,

- To provide Type Safety to the Collections, So that They Can hold Only a particular Type of objects.
 - 2) To Solve Type Casting problems.

→ For Example → Hold only String Type of Objects a Generic Version of ArrayList we can declare as follows.

Base type → `ArrayList < String > l = new ArrayList < String > ();`

→ For this ArrayList we can add only String type of Objects, by mistake if we are trying to add any other type we will get Compiletime Error.
i.e., we are getting Type-Safety.

L.add("duaga"); ✓

L. add ("Sobu"): ✓

L-add ($\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$), ✓

l-add(10); x C_E; - Cannot find Symbol

Symbol : method add (int)

location :- class ArrayList<String>

→ At the time of retrieval it is not required to perform any Type Casting.

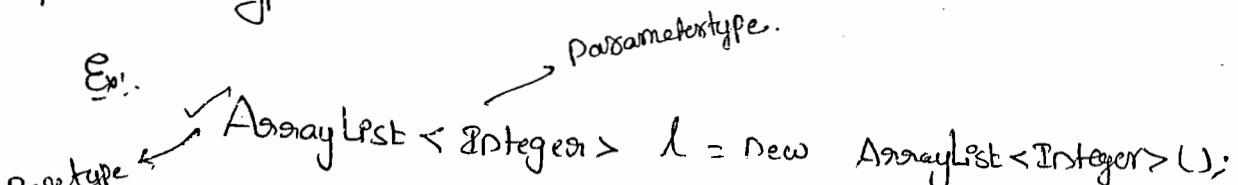
String name = f.get(0); ✓

6

Type Casting is not required

Conclusion 1 :-

- Usage of parent class reference to hold child class objects is considered as polymorphism.
- Polymorphism concept is applicable only for base-type, but not for parameters type.

Ex:- 

Base type Parameter type.

✓ `ArrayList < Integer > l = new ArrayList < Integer >();`

✓ `List < Integer > l = new ArrayList < Integer >();`

✓ `Collection < Integer > l = new ArrayList < Integer >();`

✗ `List < Object > l = new ArrayList < Integer >();`

C.E:- Incompatible types

→ Found : `AL < Integer >`
 Required : `List < Object >`

Conclusion 2 :-

- For the parameter-type we can use any class or interface name.
- We can't use primitive type. Violation leads to Compiletime Error.

Ex:- `ArrayList < int > l = new ArrayList < int >();`

C.E:-

Unexpected type

→ Found : `int`Required : `reference`C.E:-

Unexpected type

→ Found : `int`Required : `reference`

Generic - classes :-

→ Until 1.4V a non-Generic Version of ArrayList class is declared as follows.

Class ArrayList

↓

 add (Object o);

 Object get (int index)

 ↓

→ The argument to the add() method is Object. Hence we can add any type of object due to this we are not getting Type-Safety.

→ The return type of get() method is Object. Hence at the time of retrieving Compulsory we should perform Type Casting.

→ But in 1.5V a Generic Version of ArrayList class is declared as follows.

Class ArrayList < T > Type parameter.

↓

 add < T t >

 T get (int index)

 ↓

→ Based on our runtime requirement Type parameter 'T' will be replaced with Corresponding provided type.

→ For Example, To hold only String type of object we have to Create Generic Version of ArrayList Object as follows.

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

→ for this requirement the corresponding loaded version of ArrayList Class is,

Class ArrayList<String>

↓

`add (String s)`

`String get (int index)`

↓

→ add() method can take String as the argument hence we can add only String type of objects. By mistake if we are trying to add any other type we will get `CompiletimeError`. i.e., we are getting Type-Safety.

→ The return type of get() method is String, Hence at the time of retrieval we can assign directly to the String type variable it is NOT required to perform any TypeCasting.

Note :

i) As the Type parameter we can use any valid java identifier but it is Convention to use "T". ↗

Ex:-

Class AL<x>

Class AL<Dwags>

Q) We can pass any no. of type parameters b/w & need not be one class

Ex:- Class HashMap<k, v>

{

}

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

key type

value type

→ Through Generics we are associating a type-parameter to the classes. Such type of parameterized classes are called Generic - classes.

→ We can define our own Generic classes also.

Ex:-

Class Gen<T>

{

T ob;

Gen(T ob)

{

this.ob = ob;

{

public void show()

{

S.O.P("The type of ob is :" + ob.getClass().getName())

{

public T getOb()

{

return ob;

{

```

Class GenDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Gen<String> g1 = new Gen<String>("durga");
        g1.show(); // the type of ob is : java.lang.String
        System.out.println(g1.getOb()); durga

        Gen<Integer> g2 = new Gen<Integer>(10);
        g2.show(); // the type of ob is : java.lang.Integer
        System.out.println(g2.getOb()); 10
    }
}

```

Bounded Types:-

→ We can bound the type parameters for a particular range by using extends keyword.

Ex:-

```

Class Test<T>
{
}

```

→ As the type parameter we can pass any type hence it is unbounded type.

✓ `Test<String> t1 = new Test<String>();`

✓ `Test<Integer> t2 = new Test<Integer>();`

Ex 2: Class Test<T extends Number>

{

}

→ As the type parameter we can pass either Number type or its child classes. It is bounded type.

✓ Test<Integer> t₁ = new Test<Integer>();

✗ Test<String> t₂ = new Test<String>();

C.E.: Type parameter java.lang.String is not with its bound

→ We Can't Bound Type Parameter By using implements & Super Keywords

Ex:- ① Class Test<T implements Runnable>

X
|
|

✗ ② Class Test<T Super Integer>

|
|

But,

→ implements Keyword purpose we can survive by using Extends keyword only

Ex: Class Test<T extends X>

{

↳ class / interface.

}

→ $X \rightarrow$ Can be either class / interface.

→ If X is a class then as the type parameter we can provide either X type or its child classes.

→ If X is an interface as the type parameter we can provide either X type or its implementation classes.

Ex:-

```
Class Test<T extends Runnable>
{
}
```

✓ Test<Runnable> t₁ = new Test<Runnable>();

✓ Test<Thread> t₂ = new Test<Thread>();

✗ Test<String> t = new Test<String>();

C.E:-

Type parameter java.lang.String is not within its Bound

→ We can bound the type parameter even in combination also.

Ex:-

```
Class Test<T extends Number & Runnable>
```

→ As the type parameters we can pass any type which is the child class of Number & implements Runnable interface.

Ex:- ① Class Test<T extends Runnable & Comparable>

✓ ② Class Test<T extends Number & Runnable & Comparable>

✗ ③ Class Test<T extends Number & Thread>

→ We can't extend more than one class at a time.

➤ ⑤ Class Test < T extends Runnable & Number >

→ we have to take first class & Then interface.

Generic Methods & Wild card character ?

→ ① m₁ (ArrayList<String> l) ✓

→ This method is applicable for ArrayList<String> (ArrayList of only String type).

→ Within the method we can add String-type objects & null to the List if we are trying to add any other type we will get Compilation Error.

Ex:- m₁ (ArrayList<String> l)

↓

l.add("A"); ✓

l.add(null); ✓

l.add(10); ✗

② m₁ (ArrayList < ? extends X > l) ✓

→ we can call this method by passing ArrayList of any-type. But within the method we can't add any-type except null to the List. Because we don't know the type exactly.

③

Ex:-

m₁ (ArrayList<?> l)

↓

l.add(null); ✓

l.add("A"); ✗

l.add(10); ✗

3) $m_1(\text{ArrayList} < ? \text{ extends } x > l) \quad \checkmark$

→ If x is a class then we can call this method by passing

ArrayList of either x type or its child classes.

→ If x is an interface then we can call this method by passing

ArrayList of either x type or its implementation class.

→ In this case also we can't add any type of elements to the list

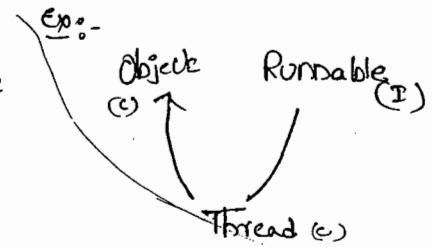
Except null

4) $m_1(\text{ArrayList} < ? \text{ Super } x > l) \quad \checkmark$

→ If x is a class then this method is applicable for ArrayList of either x type or its Super classes.

→ If x is an interface then this method is applicable for ArrayLists of either x type or Super classes of implementation class of x

→ Within the method we can add only x type objects & null to the list



Q) Which of the following declarations are valid?

① $\text{AL} < \text{String} > \quad l = \text{new AL} < \text{String} >();$

② $\text{AL} < ? > \quad l = \text{new AL} < \text{String} >();$

③ $\text{AL} < ?, \text{extends String} > \quad l = \text{new AL} < \text{String} >();$

④ $\text{AL} < ? \text{ Super String} > \quad l = \text{new AL} < \text{String} >();$

⑤ $\text{AL} < ? \text{ extends Object} > \quad l = \text{new AL} < \text{String} >();$

✓ ⑥ AL<? extends Number> l = new AL<Integer>();

✗ ⑦ AL<? extends Number> l = new AL<String>();

C.E!: Incompatible types

found: AL<String>

required: AL<? extends
Number>

✗ ⑧ AL<?> l = new AL<? extends Number>();

✗ ⑨ AL<?> l = new AL<?>();

C.E!: unexpected type

found: ?

required: Class or interface without
bounds.

→ We can define the type parameter either at class-level or
at method-level.

Declaring type parameter at class level!.

class Test<T>

↓

T ob;

✓ public T get()

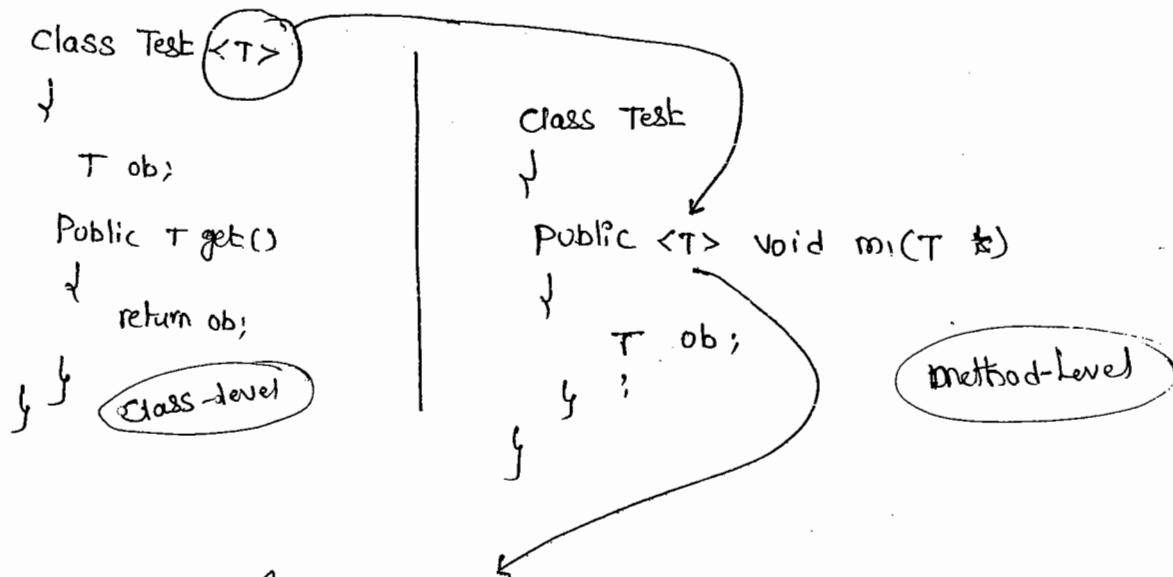
↓

} return ob;

}

Declasing Type parameter at method-level:-

→ we have to declare the type parameter just before return type.



- ✓ ① $<T>$ extends Number
- ✓ ② $<T>$ u Runnable
- ✓ ③ $<T>$ u Number & Runnable
- ✓ ④ $<T>$ extends Runnable & Comparable
- ✗ ⑤ $<T>$ extends Number & Thread
- ✗ ⑥ $<T>$ extends Runnable & Thread

Communication with non-Generic Code :-

→ To provide compatibility with old version Sun people Compromised

The concept of Generics in very few areas. The following is one such area.

Ex:- Class Test

↓
P. S. V. m(String[] args)

AL<String> l = new AL<String>();
l.add("A");

Ex:- Class Test

Generic area

```

    {
        p. s.v.m (—)
    }

    AL<String> l = new AL<String>();
    l.add("A");
    l.add(10); C.E
    m(l);
    S.o.println(l); [A, 10, 10.s, true]
    // l.add(10); C.E
  
```

Non-Generic area

```

    {
        public static void m1(AL e)
        {
            l.add(10); ✓
            l.add(10.s 10.s); ✓
            l.add(true);
        }
    }
  
```

Conclusions :-

- ④ Generics Concepts are applicable only at Completetime to provide type Safety & to resolve type casting problems. At Runtime there is no Suchtype of Concept. Hence the following declarations are equal,

Ex:-

✓

AL l = new AL();	}
AL l = new AL<String>();	
AL l = new AL<Integer>();	

all are equal

105 of 401

Ex:- ArrayList l = new ArrayList<String>();

l.add("A"); ✓

l.add(10); ✓

l.add(true); ✓

System.out.println(l); [A, 10, true]

→ The following two declarations are equal & there is no difference.

both are
equal

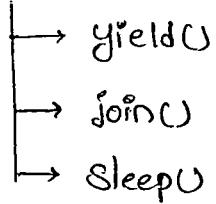
1) AL<String> l = new AL<String>();

2) AL<String> l = new AL();

09/01/2011

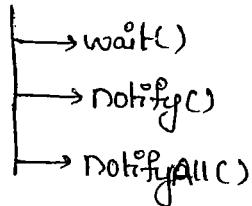
Multithreading

- ① Introduction
- ② The ways to define, instantiate, and start a thread
- ③ Getting & Setting name of a thread
- * ④ Thread Priorities
- ⑤ The methods to prevent thread execution



- * ⑥ Synchronization

- ⑦ Interthread Communication



- ⑧ Deadlock

- ⑨ Daemon threads

Multitasking :-

→ Executing Several tasks Simultaneously is called "multitasking".

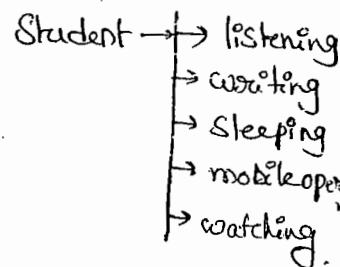
There are 2 types of multitasking.

(1) process - based multitasking.

(2) thread - based multitasking.

Ex:- Students in Class Room.

(i) process-based multi-tasking:-



→ Executing Several tasks Simultaneously, where each task is a Separate independent process, is called process based multitasking.

Ex:- While typing a Java program in editor we can able to listen audio songs by mp3 player in the System. at the same time we can download a file from the net. all these tasks are executing simultaneously & independent of each other.

Hence, it is process-based multitasking.

→ process-based multitasking is best Suitable at "O.S Level".

(ii) thread-based multitasking:-

→ Executing Several tasks Simultaneously where each task is a Separate independent part of The Same program is called "thread based multitasking" & each independent part is called "thread".

→ It is Best Suitable for "programmatic level".

- Whether it is process-based or thread-based the main objective of multitasking is to improve performance of the system by reducing Response time.
- The main important application areas of multithreading are developing video games, multimedia Graphics, implementing animations, ...
- Java provides inbuilt support for multithreading by introducing a Rich API (Thread, Runnable, ThreadGroup, ThreadLocal, ...). Being a programmer we have to know how to use this API and we are not responsible to define that API. Hence, developing multithreading programs is very easy when compared with C++.

(2) The ways to define, instantiate & start a new thread :-

- We can define a thread in the following 2 ways.

- (i) By extending Thread class.
- (ii) By implementing Runnable interface.

Defining a thread by extending Thread class :-

defining a Thread by Extending Thread class:-

Ex:-

Class MyThread extends Thread

```

public void run()
{
    for(int i=0; i<=10; i++)
        System.out.println("child thread");
}

```

Job of Thread

defining a Thread

Executing child thread (MyThread)

Class ThreadDemo

```

public class ThreadDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        MyThread t = new MyThread(); // instantiation of Thread
        t.start(); // starting of a thread

        for(int i=0; i<=10; i++)
            System.out.println("main thread");
    }
}

```

main thread →

child thread →

Two threads →

executing main thread ←

main

Main thread

Child Thread

```

graph TD
    main --> mainThread
    main --> childThread
    subgraph mainThread
        direction TB
        subgraph childThread
            direction TB
        end
    end

```

Case 1:-Thread Scheduling :-

- whenever multiple threads are waiting to get chance for execution which thread will get chance first is decided by Thread Scheduler whose behaviour is JVM vendor dependent. Hence we can't expect exact execution orders & hence exact o/p.
- Thread Scheduler is the part of JVM. due to this unpredictable behaviour of Thread Scheduler we can't expect exact o/p for the above program. The following are various possible o/p.

P-1

main thread	child thread
====	====
====	====
child thread	main thread
====	=====
====	=====
====	=====

P-2

child thread	main thread
====	=====
====	=====
main thread	=====
=====	=====
=====	=====
=====	=====

P-3

child thread	main thread
=====	=====
=====	=====
main thread	=====
=====	=====
=====	=====
=====	=====

P-4

main thread	main
=====	4
=====	4
child	4
=====	4
main thread	=====
=====	=====

Note:-

- whenever the situation comes to multithreading the guarantee in behaviour is very less. we can tell possible o/p but not exact o/p.

Case 2:-Difference b/w t.start() & t.run()

- In the case of t.start() a new thread will be created & thread is responsible to execute run().

- But in the Case of `t.join()` no new Thread will be Created
 & `run` method will be Executed Just like a normal method call.
- In the above program, If we are Replacing `t.start()` with `t.join()`
 the following is the O/P.

O/P:-

Child Thread
Child Thread
↳ times
Main Thread
↳ times



entire O/P produced by only main thread.

Case 3:-

Importance of Thread class `start()` method!

- To Start a Thread, The required mandatory activities (like - Registering Thread with Thread Scheduler) will be performed automatically by Thread class `start()` method. Because this facility, programmer is not responsible to perform this activity & he is just responsible to define job of the Thread. Hence Thread class `start()` plays very important role & without executing that method there is no chance to starting a new Thread.

Ex:-

class Thread

 ↓

 Start()

 ↓

- * 1. Register this thread with Thread Scheduler & perform other initialization activities
- * 2. `run()`

 ↓

Case 4:-

→ If we are not overriding run() method :-

→ if we are not overriding run() method, then thread class run() will be executed which has Empty implementation & Hence we won't get any o/p.

Ex:-

```
class MyThread extends Thread
{
}
class ThreadDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        myThread t = new MyThread();
        t.start();
    }
}
```

O/P:- no o/p pointing ✓

Note:-

* It is highly recommended to override run() to define our job.

Case 5:-

Overloading of run() :-

→ Overloading of the run() is possible, but thread class start() will always call no argument run() only. but the other run() we have to call explicitly just like a normal method call.

Ex:- Class mythread extends Thread

```
    {  
        public void run()  
        {  
            System.out.println("run()");  
        }  
        public void run(int i)  
        {  
            System.out.println("run(int i)");  
        }  
    }
```

Class ThreadDemo

```
    {  
        public static void main(String[] args)  
        {  
            Mythread t = new Mythread();  
            t.start();  
        }  
    }  
o/p:- run()
```

Case 6:-

OVERRIDING OF START()

→ If we override start() then start() will be executed just like a normal method call & no new thread will be created.

Ex:- Class mythread extends Thread

```
    {  
        public void start()  
    }
```

```

S.o.println("Start method")
{
    public void run()
    {
        S.o.println("run");
    }
}

```

```

class ThreadDemo
{
    public String[] args)
    {
        MyThread t = new MyThread();
        t.start();
    }
}

O/P:- Start method.

```

~~Case(F)~~ :-

```

class MyThread extends Thread
{
    public void start()
    {
        Super.start();
        S.o.println("Start method");
    }

    public void run()
    {
        S.o.println("run");
    }
}

```

Class ThreadDemo

```
↓  
p.s.v.m(String[] args)
```

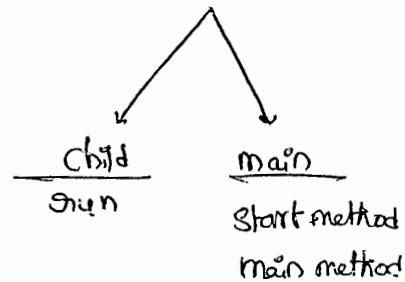
```
↓
```

```
MyThread t = new MyThread();
```

```
t.start();
```

```
s.o.println("main method");
```

```
↓
```



O/P:-

P-1 ✓

P-2 ✓

P-3 ✓

P-4 X

Start method

run

Start method

run

Start method

Main method

Main method

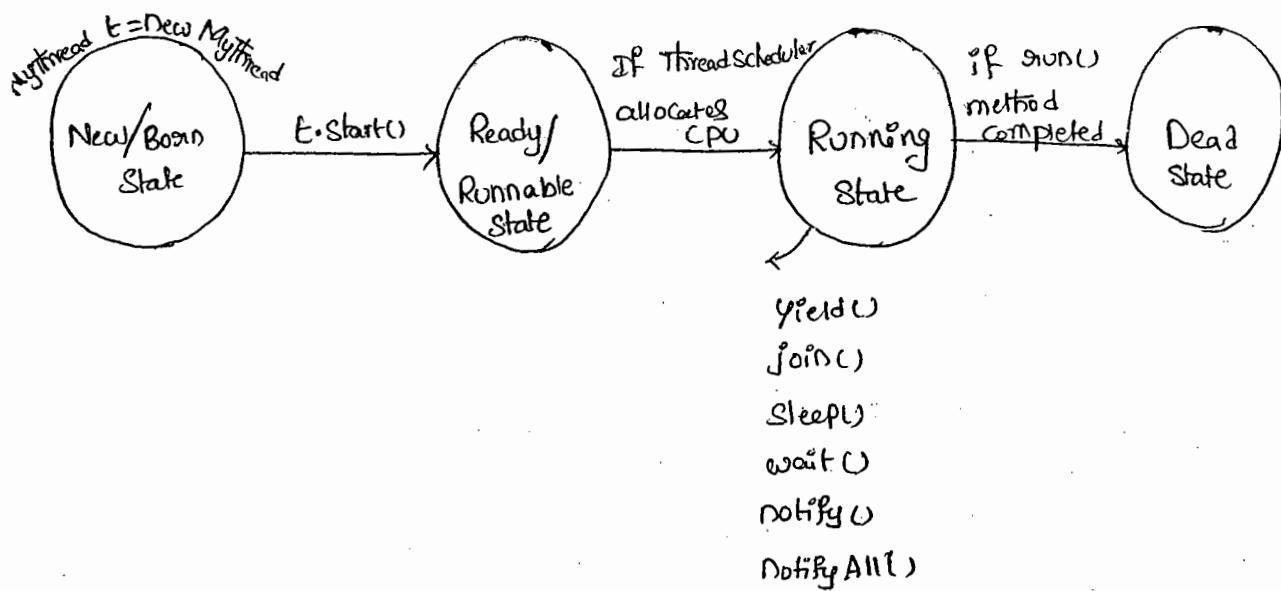
main method

Start method

run

Case-8:-

* Life Cycle of a Thread :-



→ Once we Created a Thread Object then it is Said to be in New State or Born State.

→ If we Call `start()` method then the Thread will be ^{entered} into Ready or Runnable State.

→ If ThreadScheduler allocates CPU, then the thread will entered into Running State.

→ If `run()` method Completes then the thread will entered into DeadState

* Case 9:-

→ After Starting a Thread we are not allowed to Restart the Same Thread once again otherwise we will get Illegal Runtime Exception saying "IllegalThreadStateException".

e.g.

Thread t = new Thread()

t.start();

!

t.start(); X R.E! - IllegalThreadStateException. (ITSE)

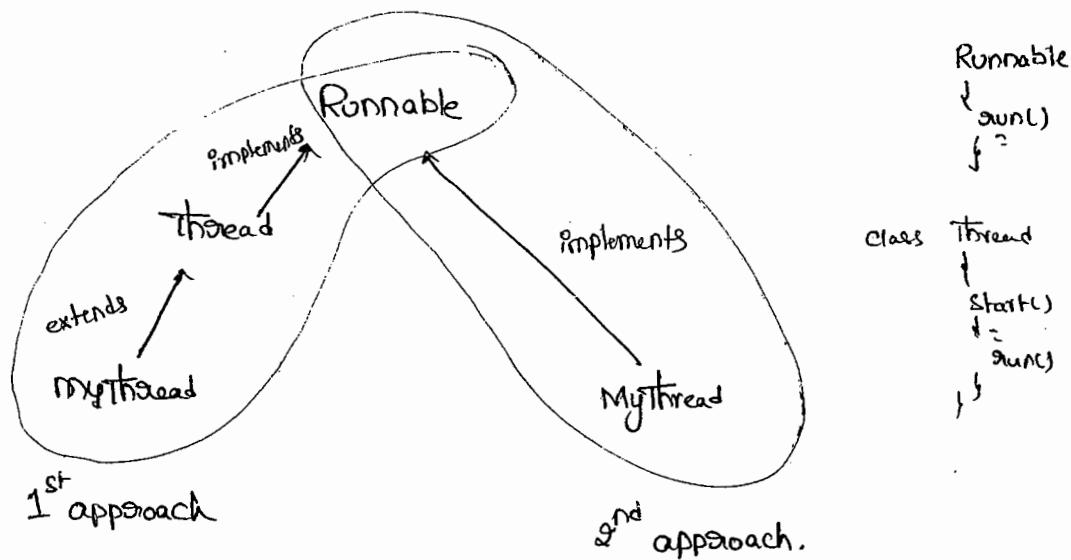
→ Within the `run()` if we Call `super.start()` we will get the Same Runtime Exception.

Note:-

→ It's Never Recommended to override `start()`, but it is highly Recommended to override `run()`.

(2) defining a thread by implementing "Runnable Interface".

- * We can define a thread even by implementing Runnable Interface also.
- * Runnable Interface present in Java.lang package & Contains only one method run() method.



Ex:-

Class MyRunnable implements Runnable

```
public void run()
{
    for(int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
    {
        System.out.println("child Thread");
    }
}
```

Job of Thread

defining a thread

Class Thread Demo

↓

P·S·V·M (Stronger arg)

↓

MyRunnable π = new MyRunnable();Thread t = new Thread(π); $t.start();$

→ target Runnable

→ for (int i=0; $i < 10$; $i++$)

↓

System.out.println("main thread");

↓

{ }

→ We Can't get Exact o/p & we will get mixing o/p

Case Study :MyRunnable π = new MyRunnable();Thread t_1 = new Thread();Thread t_2 = new Thread(π);Case(1) :(i) $t_1.start();$ → A New Thread will be Created which is responsible for Execution
of Thread class run().Case(2) : $t_2.run();$ → No New Thread will be Created & Thread class run() will be
Executed Just Like a Normal method call.

Case 3:- t₂.start():

→ New Thread will be Created which is Responsible for the Execution of MyRunnable run() method.

Case 4:- t₂.run():

→ No New Thread will be Created & MyRunnable run() will be Executed just like a normal method call.

Case 5:- g₁.start():

→ We will get Compiletime Error Saying start() is not available in MyRunnable class

C.E!.. Cannot find Symbol

Symbol : method start()

location : class MyRunnable

Case 6: g₁.run():

→ No New Thread will be Created & MyRunnable run() will be Executed just like a normal method call.

Q1) In which of the above cases a new Thread will be created

A) t₁.start() & t₂.start()

Q2) In which of the above cases MyRunnable class run() will be Executed just like a normal method?

t₂.run() & g₁.run()

Best Approach to define a thread :-

- Among the two ways of defining a thread implements Runnable mechanism is Recommended to use.
- In the first approach, Thread our class always extending Thread class & hence there is no chance of Extending any other class. But in the second approach we can extend some other class also while implementing Runnable interface. Hence 2nd approach is Recommended to use.

Thread Class Constructors :-

- ① Thread t = new Thread();
- ② Thread t = new Thread(Runnable g);
- ③ Thread t = new Thread(String name);
- ④ Thread t = new Thread(Runnable g, String name);
- ⑤ Thread t = new Thread(ThreadGroup g, String name);
- ⑥ Thread t = new Thread(ThreadGroup g, Runnable g);
- ⑦ Thread t = new Thread(ThreadGroup g, Runnable g, String name);
- ⑧ Thread t = new Thread(ThreadGroup g, Runnable g, String name, long stacksize);

Douglas's approach to define a Thread (not recommended to use)

Ex:- Class MyThread extends Thread

```
public void run()
{
    System.out.println("run method");
}
```

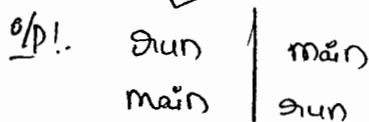
Class Test

```
{ public static void main(String[] args)
{
    MyThread t = new MyThread();
    Thread t1 = new Thread(t);
    t1.start();
    System.out.println("main");
}
```

MyThread t = new MyThread();

Thread t₁ = new Thread(t);

```
t1.start();
System.out.println("main");
```



3) Getting & Setting Name of a Thread:-

- Every thread in Java has some name. It may be provided by the programmer or default name generated by JVM.
- We can get & set name of a thread by using the following methods of Thread class.

(i) public final String getName();
 (ii) public final void setName(String name);

Ex:-

```
Class Test
{
    p.s.v.m (String [] args)
    {
        System.out.println(Thread.currentThread().getName()); // main
        Thread.currentThread().setName("parabag");
        System.out.println(Thread.currentThread().getName()); // parabag
    }
}
```

Note:-

- we can get current executing thread reference by using the following method of Thread class.

public static Thread currentThread();

4) Thread priority:-

- Every thread in Java has some priority but the range of Thread priority is "1 to 10". (1 is least & 10 is highest).
- Thread class defines the following Constants to define some Standard priorities.
 - 1) Thread.MIN_PRIORITY → 1
 - 2) Thread.NORM_PRIORITY → 5
 - 3) Thread.MAX_PRIORITY → 10
 - X 4) Thread.LOW_PRIORITY X
 - X 5) Thread.HIGH_PRIORITY X

- Thread Scheduler will use these priorities while allocating CPU.
- The thread which is having highest priority will get chance first.
- If two threads having same priority then we can't expect exact execution order, it depends on Thread Scheduler.

Default priority:-

- The default priority only for the main thread is 5. But for all the remaining threads it will be inheriting from the parent. i.e whatever the priority parent has - the same priority will be inheriting to the child.

- * Thread class defines the following 2 methods to get & set priority of a thread,

① public final int getPriority();
 ② public final void setPriority(int p);

→ The allowed values are 1 to 10, otherwise we will get IllegalArgumentException.

Ex:-

t.setPriority(5); ✓
 t.setPriority(10); ✓
 ✗ t.setPriority(100); ✗ R.E :- IAE (Illegal Argument Exception).

Ex:-

Class Mythread extends Thread

```

  public void run()
  {
    for(int i=0; i<10; i++)
    {
      System.out.println("child thread");
    }
  }

```

Class ThreadPriorityDemo

```

  public static void main(String[] args)
  {
    Mythread t = new Mythread();
  }

```

// t.setPriority(10); → ①

t.start();

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

System.out.println("main method");

→ If we are Commenting line① Then Both main & child threads having the Same priority (5) & Hence we Can't expect Exact Execution order and Exact o/p.

→ If we aren't Commenting line① then main thread has the priority 5 & child thread has the priority 10 & Hence child thread will be Executed first & Then main thread. in this case the o/p is

child thread
≡ 10 times
main thread
≡ 5 times

* The methods to prevent Thread Execution :-

→ we can prevent a Thread from Execution by using the following methods.

- (i) yield()
- (ii) join()
- (iii) sleep()

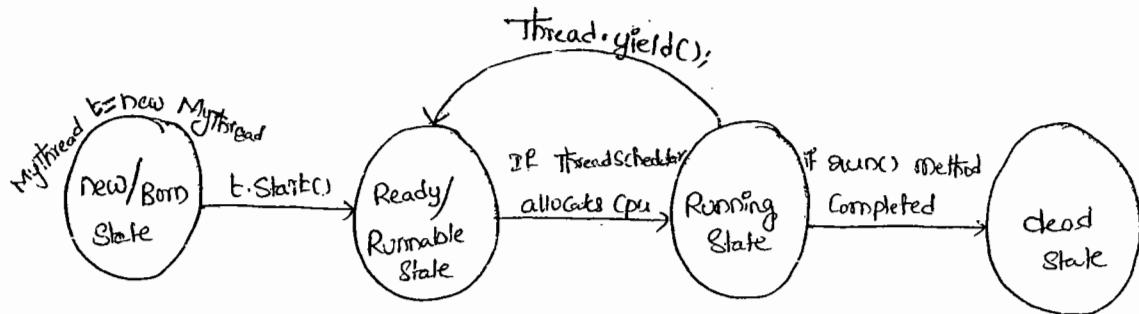
(i) yield() :-

→ yield() method Causes, to pause Current Executing Thread for giving the charge to remaining waiting threads of Same priority.

→ If there are no waiting threads or all waiting threads have low priority then the Same Thread will Continue it's execution once again.

→ Signature of yield method

Public Static void Native void yield()



→ The thread which is yielded, when it will get chance once again for execution is decided by ThreadScheduler. & we can't expect exactly.

Ex: Class Mythread extends Thread

```

public void run()
{
    for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
        Thread.yield(); → ①
    System.out.println("child thread");
}
  
```

```

}
class ThreadYieldDemo
{
  
```

```

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

```

    Mythread t = new Mythread();
  
```

```

    t.start();
  
```

```

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

```

    System.out.println("main thread");
  
```

→ If we are Commenting Line① The both threads will be Executed Simultaneously & We Can't Expect Exact Execution Order.

→ If we are Not Commenting Line① Then the chance of Completing main Thread first is high because child Thread always calls yield().

ii) join() :-

→ If a Thread wants to wait until Completing Some other Thread Then we should go for join() method.

Ex:- (i) Virus fixing (t₁) Cards pointing (t₂) Cards disturbing (t₃)



t₁. join



t₂. join

exp(): -



→ If Thread t₁ Executes t₂.join() Then t₁ thread

will entered into waiting state until t₂ Completes.

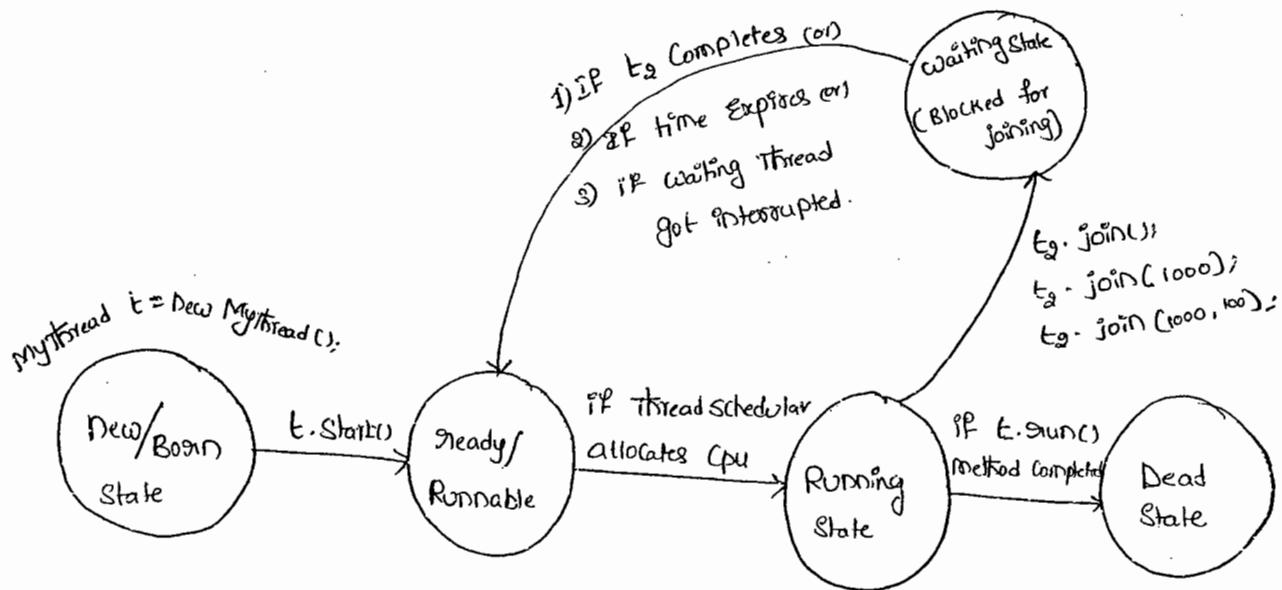
Once t₂ Completes then t₁ will Continue its execution.

(i) public final void join() throws InterruptedException

(ii) public final void join(long ms) throws InterruptedException

(iii) public final void join (long ms, int ns) throws InterruptedException,

→ join() method is Overloaded and @every join() throws InterruptedException. Hence, when ever we are using join() Compulsory we should handle InterruptedException, either by try-catch or by throws Other wise we will get Compiletime Error.



Class MyThread extends Thread

```

public void run()
{
    for(int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
    {
        System.out.println("Githa Thread");
        try
        {
            Thread.sleep(2000);
        }
        catch(InterruptedException e)
        {
        }
    }
}
  
```

Class ThreadJoinDemo

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

```

MyThread t1 = new MyThread();
t1.start();
t1.join(); → ①
  
```

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

```
{}
```

```
System.out.println("Rama Thread");
```

```
}
```

```
{ } { }
```

→ If we are Commenting Line① Then both threads will be Executed Simultaneously and we Can't Expect Exact Execution Order. And Hence we can't Expect Exact o/p.

→ If we are not Commenting Line① then main thread will wait until Completing child thread. Hence in this case the o/p is Expected.

O/P:-
SitaThread 10 times
≡
RamaThread 10 times
≡

(iii) Sleep() :-

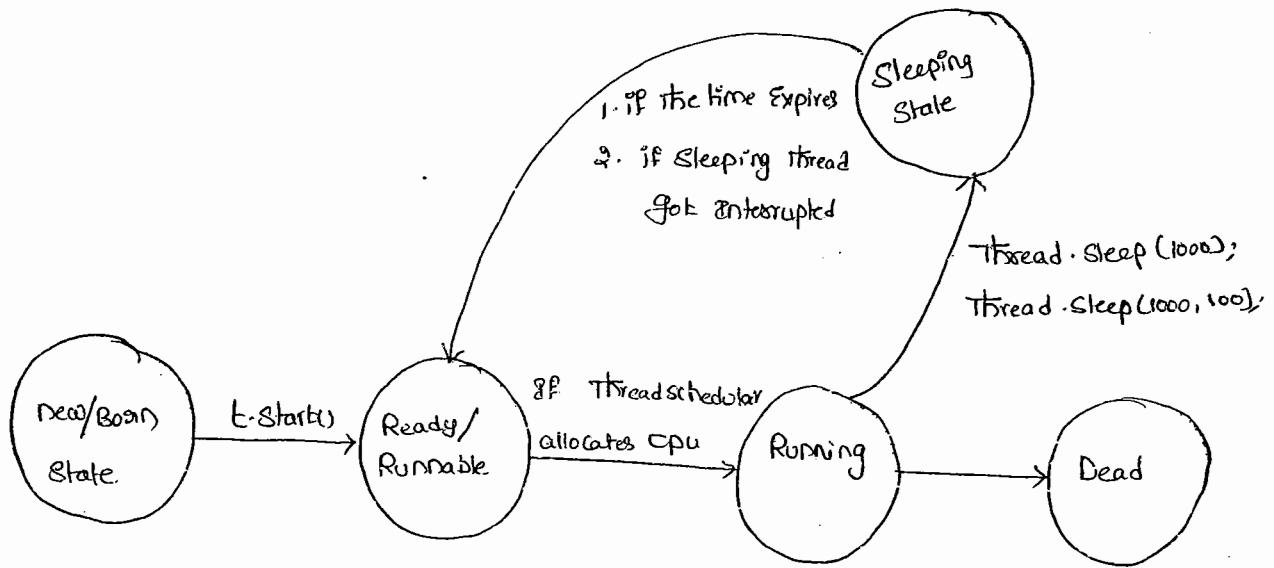
→ If a Thread don't want to perform any operation for a particular amount of time (Just pausing) Then we should go for Sleep().

- 1) Public Static void Sleep(long ms) throws InterruptedException
- 2) Public Static void Sleep(long ms, int ns) throws InterruptedException

→ whenever we are using Sleep method Compulsory we should handle InterruptedException otherwise we will get CompleteTime Error.

Static: because sleep method calls Thread.Sleep() means class name

t.start(); t, is object so it is instance Non-Static



Ex:- Class Test

P. S. v. m(String[] args) throws InterruptedException

S.o.println(" Durga");

Thread.Sleep(5000);

S.o.println(" Software");

Thread.Sleep(5000);

S.o.println(" Solutions");

}

Interruption of a Thread :-

- * A Thread can interrupt another sleeping or waiting thread.
- * for this Thread class defines interrupt() method.

```
public void interrupt()
```

Ex:- Class MyThread extends Thread

```
    {
```

```
        public void run()
```

```
    {
```

```
        try
```

```
            for (int i=0; i<100; i++)
```

```
                System.out.println("Lazy thread");
```

```
            Thread.sleep(5000);
```

```
        }
```

```
    } catch (InterruptedException e)
```

```
        System.out.println("I got Interrupted");
```

Class InterruptDemo

```
{
```

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

```
        MyThread t = new MyThread();
```

```
        t.start();
```

```
        → t.interrupt(); → ①
```

```
        System.out.println("end of main");
```

→ If we are Commenting line ① Then main Thread Won't Interrupt

Child Thread Hence both threads will be executed until Completion

→ If we are not Commenting line ① Then main Thread Interrupts the Child Thread ~~hence child thread wont cont~~ causes Interrupted Exception.

→ In This Case the o/p is

O/P:- I am Lazy Thread

I got Interrupted

End of main

Note:-

mayn't

→ We can't See the impact of interrupt call immediately.

→ When ever we are Calling interrupt() method, if the target Thread is not in Sleeping or waiting state then there is no impact immediately. Interrupt Call will wait until target Thread entered into Sleeping or waiting State. Once target Thread entered into Sleeping or waiting state the interrupt call will impact the target Thread.

* Comparison table for yield(), join(), Sleep() :-

Property	yield()	join()	Sleep()
① Purpose ?	to pause current executing thread to give the chance for the remaining threads of same priority.	if a thread want to wait until completing some other thread then we should go for join	If a thread don't want to perform any operation for a particular amount of time (pausing) go for sleep()
② Static	Yes	No	Yes
③ Is it overloaded	No	Yes	Yes
④ Is it final	No	Yes	No
⑤ Is it throws Unhandled Exception	No	Yes	Yes
⑥ Is it native method	Yes	No	Sleep (long ms) ↳ Native Sleep (long ms, int ms) ↳ Non-Native

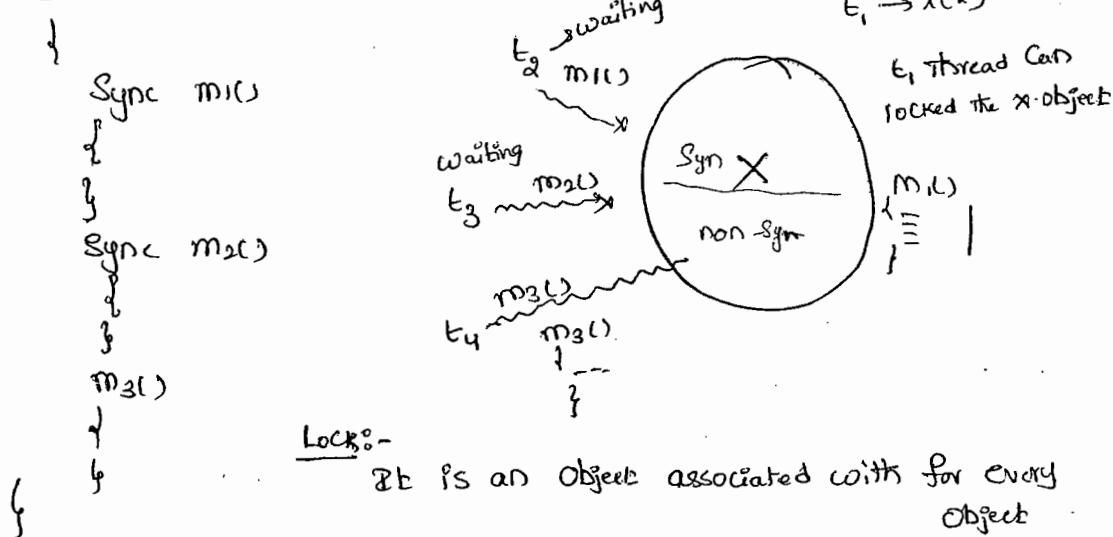
Synchronization :-

- Synchronized is the modifier applicable only for methods & blocks
{ We can't apply for classes & variables.
- If a method or block declared as Synchronized then at a time
Only one thread is allowed to execute that method or block on the
given object.
- The main advantage of Synchronized key-word is we can resolve
data inconsistency problem.
- The main limitation of Synchronized keyword is it increases
Waiting time of the threads & effects performance of the system.
Hence if there is no specific requirement it's never recommended to
use Synchronized key-word.
- Every object in Java has a unique lock synchronization concept
internally implemented by using this Lock concept. whenever we are
using synchronization then only Lock concept will come into the picture.
- If a thread wants to execute any Synchronized method on the given
object, first it has to get the lock of that object. Once a thread
get a lock then it's allowed to execute any Synchronized method
on that object.
- Once Synchronized method completes then automatically the lock will be
released.

→ While a thread executing any synchronized method on the given object the remaining threads are not allowed to execute any synchronized method on the given object ~~simultaneously~~.

But remaining threads are allowed to execute any non-synchronized methods simultaneously (lock concept is implemented based on object but not based on method).

Ex:- Class X



Ex:-

```
Class Display
{
    public void wish(String name)
    {
        for (int i = 0 ; i < 10 ; i++)
        {
            System.out.print("Good morning: ");
            try
            {
                Thread.sleep(3000);
            }
            catch (IE e) { }
        }
    }
}
```

```

S.o.println(name);
}
}

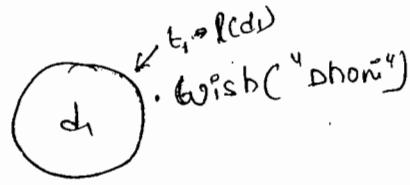
class MyThread extends Thread
{
    Display d;
    String name;

    MyThread(Display d, String name)
    {
        this.d = d;
        this.name = name;
    }

    public void run()
    {
        d.wish(name);
    }
}

class SynchronizedDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Display d1 = new Display();
        MyThread t1 = new MyThread(d1, "Dhoni");
        MyThread t2 = new MyThread(d1, "Yuvraj");
        t1.start();
        t2.start();
    }
}

```



→ If we are not declaring `wish()` method as Synchronized then both threads will be Executed Simultaneously & we can't expect Exact O/P we will get irregular O/P.

O/P:-

Goodmorning; Goodmorning : Dhoni
Goodmorning : Yuvraj
" : Dhoni
"

→ If we declare `Wish()` method as Synchronized then threads will be Executed One by one So that we will get regular O/P.

O/P:- Goodmorning : Dhoni
! lotimes
Goodmorning : Yuvraj
! lotimes

Case Study :-

`Display d1 = new Display();`

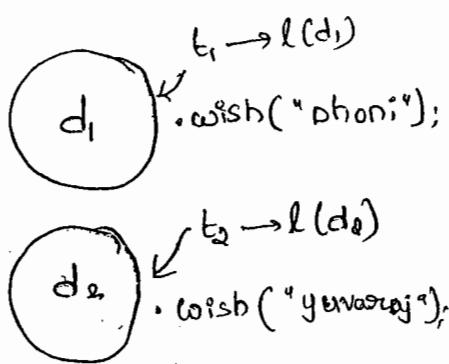
`Display d2 = new Display();`

`MyThread t1 = new MyThread(d1, "Dhoni");`

`MyThread t2 = new MyThread(d2, "Yuvraj");`

`t1.start();`

`t2.start();`



→ Even though `wish()` method is Synchronized we will get irregular O/P in this case. Because, the Threads are operating ~~on~~ different Objects.

Reason:-

→ Whenever multiple threads are operating on same Object then only Synchronization play the role. If multiple threads are operating on multiple Objects then there is no impact of Synchronization.

Classlevel Lock :-

- Every class in Java has a unique lock,
- If a thread wants to Execute a Static Synchronized method then it required classlevel lock.
- While a thread executing a Static Synchronized method then the remaining threads are not allowed to execute any Static Synchronized method of that class simultaneously but remaining threads are allowed to execute the following methods simultaneously.
 - ✓ 1. Normal Static Methods.
 - ✓ 2. Normal instance methods.
 - ✓ 3. Synchronized instance methods.

Ex:-

Class X

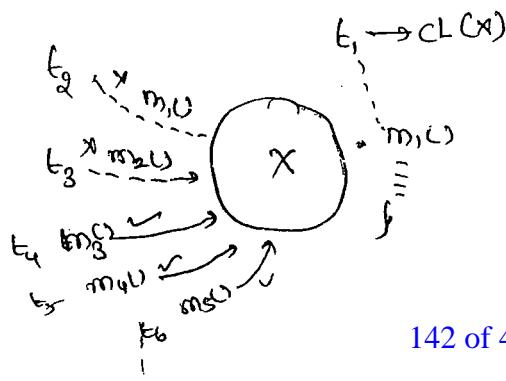
 |
 Static Syn m1()

 |
 Static Syn m2()

 |
 Syn m3()

 |
 Static m4()

 |
 m5()



Note:-

- There is no link between Object Level lock & Class Level Lock both are independent of each other.
- ClassLevel lock is different & ObjectLevel lock is different.

Synchronized Block :-

- If very few lines of code requires synchronization then it is never recommended to declare entire method as synchronized, we have to declare those few lines of code inside synchronized block.
- The main advantage of synchronized block over synchronized method is, it reduces the waiting time of the threads & improves performance of the system.

Ex(1) :-

- We can declare synchronized block to get current object lock as follows.

```
Synchronized (this)
{
    :
    :
    :
}
```

- If thread got lock of current object then only it is allowed to execute this block.

Ex(2) :-

- To get lock of a particular object b we can declare synchronized block as follows.

୨୦୩୮

Synchronized(b)

→ If thread gets lock of 'b' then only it is allowed to execute that blocks.

Ex(3): -

→ To Get Class level lock we can declare Synchronized block as follows.

Synchronized(classname.class)

二

→ If thread got Classlevel lock of classname (ex Display) class

Then only it is allowed to execute that block.

Ex(4) p. 1

Synchronized block concept is applicable only for Objects & classes

but not for permutations otherwise we will get Completetime Error.

```
int x=10;
```

Synchronized (x)

2
4

C.E! - Unexpected type

-found: int

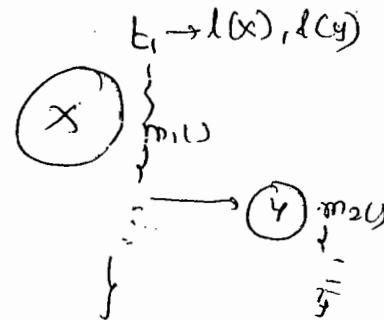
Required : Preference

→ Every object in java has a unique lock, But a thread can acquire more than one lock at a time (ofcourse from diff. objects)

Ex:- Class X

```
{  
Syn m1();  
{  
--  
y y = new Y();  
y.m2();  
}  
}
```

Class Y
↓
Syn m2();
{
--
y
}



FAQ:-

- ① Explain about Synchronized Keyword & What are Various Advantages & disadvantages?
- ② what is Object lock & when it is required?
- ③ While a thread executing an instance synchronized method on the given object then is it possible to execute any other synchronized method simultaneously by other threads? Ans. Not possible
- ④ what is Class Level Lock & when it is required.
- ⑤ what is the diff. b/w Object lock & class Level locks
- ⑥ what is the advantage of synchronized block over synchronized method
- ⑦ How to declare synchronized block to get class level locks?
- ⑧ What is Synchronized Statement? (Interview people created terminology)

⇒ The statements present in synchronized method & synchronized blocks are called as synchronized statement.

30/04/11

Inter Thread Communication :-

→ Two threads will communicate with each other by using wait(), notify(), notifyAll() methods. The thread which requires updation it has to call wait() method. The thread which is responsible to update it has to call notify() method.

→ Wait(), notify(), notifyAll() methods are available in Object class but not in Thread class. Because threads are required to call these method on any shared object.

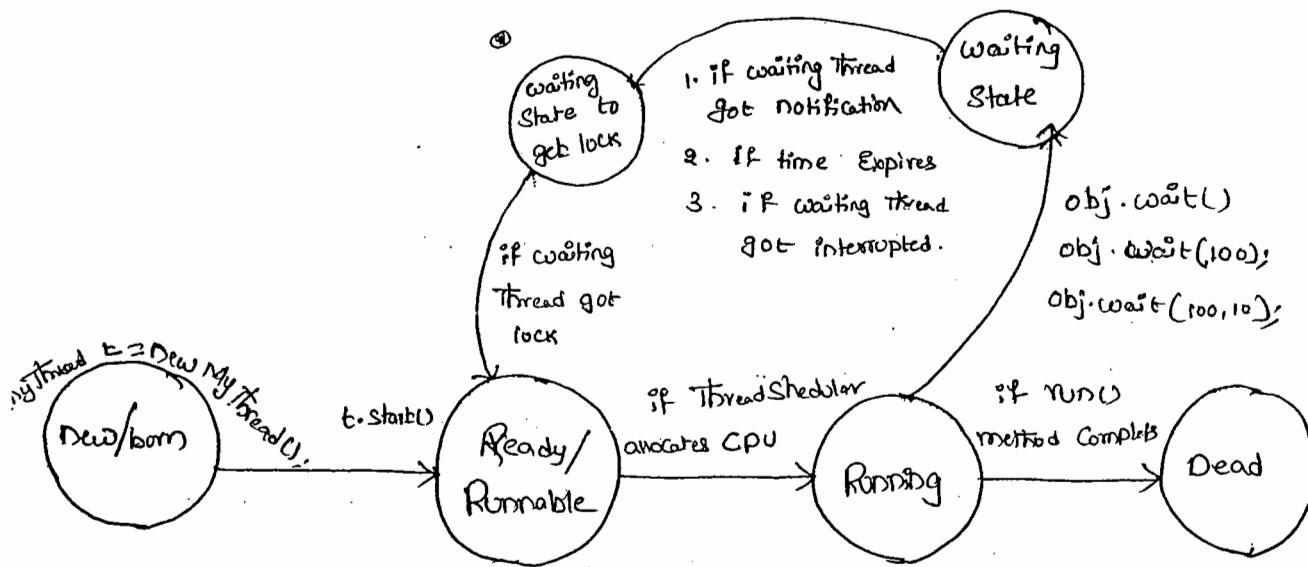
* If a thread wants to call wait(), notify(), & notifyAll() methods compulsorily the thread should be owner of the object. i.e., the thread has to get lock of that object. i.e., the thread should be in the synchronized area.

→ Hence, we can call wait(), notify(), notifyAll() methods only from synchronized area otherwise we will get runtime exception saying "IllegalMonitorStateException".

→ If a thread calls wait() method it releases the lock immediately and entered into waiting state. A thread releases the lock of only current object but not all locks. After calling notify() and notifyAll() methods thread releases the lock but may not immediately. Except these wait(), notify(), notifyAll() there is no other case where thread releases the lock.

method	is Thread releases lock?
yield()	No
join()	No
sleep()	No
wait()	Yes
notify()	Yes
notifyAll()	Yes

- 1) public final void wait() throws IE
- 2) public final native void wait(long ms) throws IE
- 3) public final void wait(long ms, int ns) throws IE
- 4) public final native void notify()
- 5) public final native void notifyAll()



Ex:

Class ThreadA

↓

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

↓

ThreadB b = new ThreadB();

b.start();

Synchronized (b) → Thread.sleep(1000);

↓

① S.o.println("main thread trying to call wait()");

b.wait(); // b.wait(1000);

④ S.o.println("main thread got notification");

⑤ S.o.println(b.total);

↓

↓

Class ThreadB extends ThreadA

↓

int total=0;

public void run()

↓

Synchronized (this)

↓

② S.o.println("child thread starts notification");

for(int i=1 ; i<100 ; i++)

↓

total = total + i;

↓

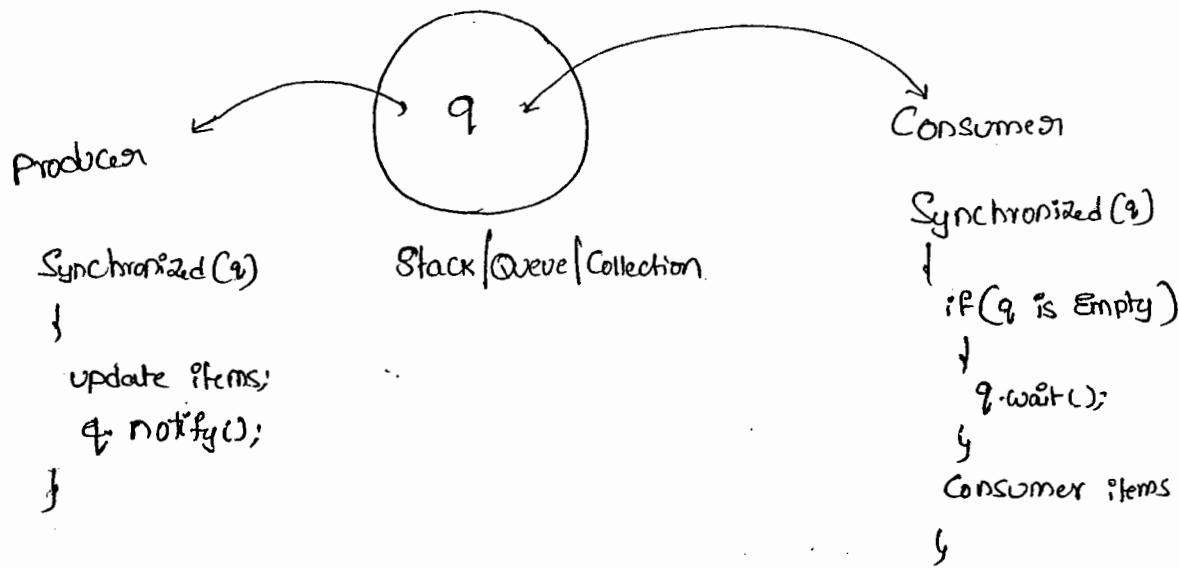
③ S.o.println("child thread trying to give notification");
this.notify();

148 of 401

O/P:- main Thread Calling wait method
 Child thread stands
 Child giving notification
 Main Thread got notification
 So So

Ctrl+C
XGN

Producer-Consumer problem:-



- Consumer has to Consume items from the Queue
- If Queue is Empty, he has to Call `wait()` method.
- producer has to produce items into the Queue.
- After producing the items, he has to Call `notify()` method so that all waiting Consumers will get notification.

notify() vs notifyAll():

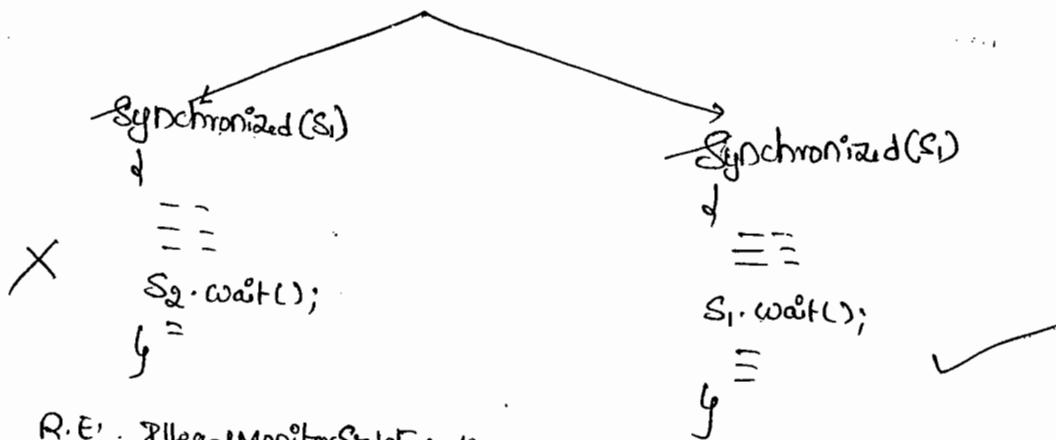
- We can use `notify()` → to notify only one waiting thread. But which waiting thread will be notified we can't expect exactly. All remaining threads have to wait for further notifications.
- But in the case of `notifyAll()` all waiting threads will be notified but the threads will be executed one by one.

*Note:-

- On which object we are calling `wait()`, `notify()` & `notifyAll()`, we have to get the lock of that object.

Stack `s1 = new Stack();`

Stack `s2 = new Stack();`



DeadLock :-

- If two threads are waiting for each other for ever, Such type of situation is called "Deadlock".
- There are no resolution techniques for deadlock but several prevention techniques are possible.

Ex:-

class A

{

 public synchronized void foo(B b)

{

 System.out.println("thread1 starts execution foo");

 try

 {

 Thread.sleep(1000);

 }

 catch(IE e)

 {

 }

 System.out.println("thread1 trying to catch b's last()");

 b.last();

 }

 public synchronized void last()

 {

 System.out.println("inside A this is last()");

 }

}

Class B

```

↓
Public synchronized void bar(A a)
{
    System.out.println("thread2 starts bar");
    try {
        Thread.sleep(5000);
    }
    catch (InterruptedException e) {
        System.out.println("thread 2 trying to call a's last");
        a.last();
    }
}
Public synchronized void last()
{
    System.out.println("inside B this is last");
}

```

Class DeadLock extends Thread

```

↓
A a = new A();
B b = new B();
DeadLock()
↓
this.start();
a.foo(b); // executed by main thread
{

```

```

Public void run()
{
    b.bar(a); // executed by child thread
    p.s.v.m(____).
}
new DeadLock()

```

Q.P :-

Thread1 Starts execution of Poornima's method

Thread2 Starts execution of bairi's method

Thread1 trying to call b's last()

Thread2 trying to call a's last()

...
...

→ Synchronized keyword is the only one reason for deadlock
hence while using synchronized keyword we have to take very
much care.

* DeadLock Vs Starvation :-

→ In the case of deadlock waiting never ends.

→ A long waiting of a thread which ends at certain point of time
is called "Starvation".

Ex :-

least priority thread has to wait until completing all the threads
but this long waiting should compulsorily ends at certain point of
time.

→ Hence, a long waiting which never ends is called "DeadLock", where
as a long waiting which ends at certain point of time is called "Starvation".

Daemon Threads :-

→ The threads which are executing in the background are called

'Daemon threads'. Ex:- Garbage Collector

→ The main objective of Daemon threads is to provide support for other non-Daemon threads.

→ We can check whether the thread is Daemon or not by using "isDaemon() method".

public final boolean isDaemon()

→ We can change Daemon nature of a thread by using setDaemon() method

public final void setDaemon(boolean b)

→ We can change Daemon nature of a thread before starting only. If we

are trying to change after starting a thread we will get RuntimeException

Saying "IllegalState^{-Thread-}Exception".

→ Main thread is always Non-Daemon & it's not possible to change ~~its~~ Daemon nature.

Default nature :-

→ By default main thread is always non-daemon but for all the remaining threads Daemon nature will be inheriting from parent to child. i.e., if the parent is Daemon, child is also Daemon & if the parent is Non-Daemon then child is also non-Daemon.

→ whenever the last non-Daemon thread terminates all the Daemon threads will be terminated automatically.

Ex:-

Class MyThread extends Thread

{

 Public void run()

{

 For (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)

{

 S.o.println("Lazy Thread");

 try {

 Thread.sleep(2000);

}

 Catch (InterruptedException e) { }

}

}

Catch

Class Test

{

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

{

 MyThread t = new MyThread();

 t.setDaemon(true); → ①

 t.start();

 S.o.println("end of main");

}

→ If we are Commenting Line ① Then both main & child threads are non-Daemon & hence both will be executed until their completion.

→ If we are not Commenting Line① Then main thread is non-Daemon & child Thread is Daemon. Hence when ever main thread terminates automatically child thread will be terminated.

How to kill a Thread :-

→ A Thread Can Stop or Kill another Thread by using Stop() method then automatically running Thread will entered into Dead State. It is a deprecated method & hence not recommended to use.

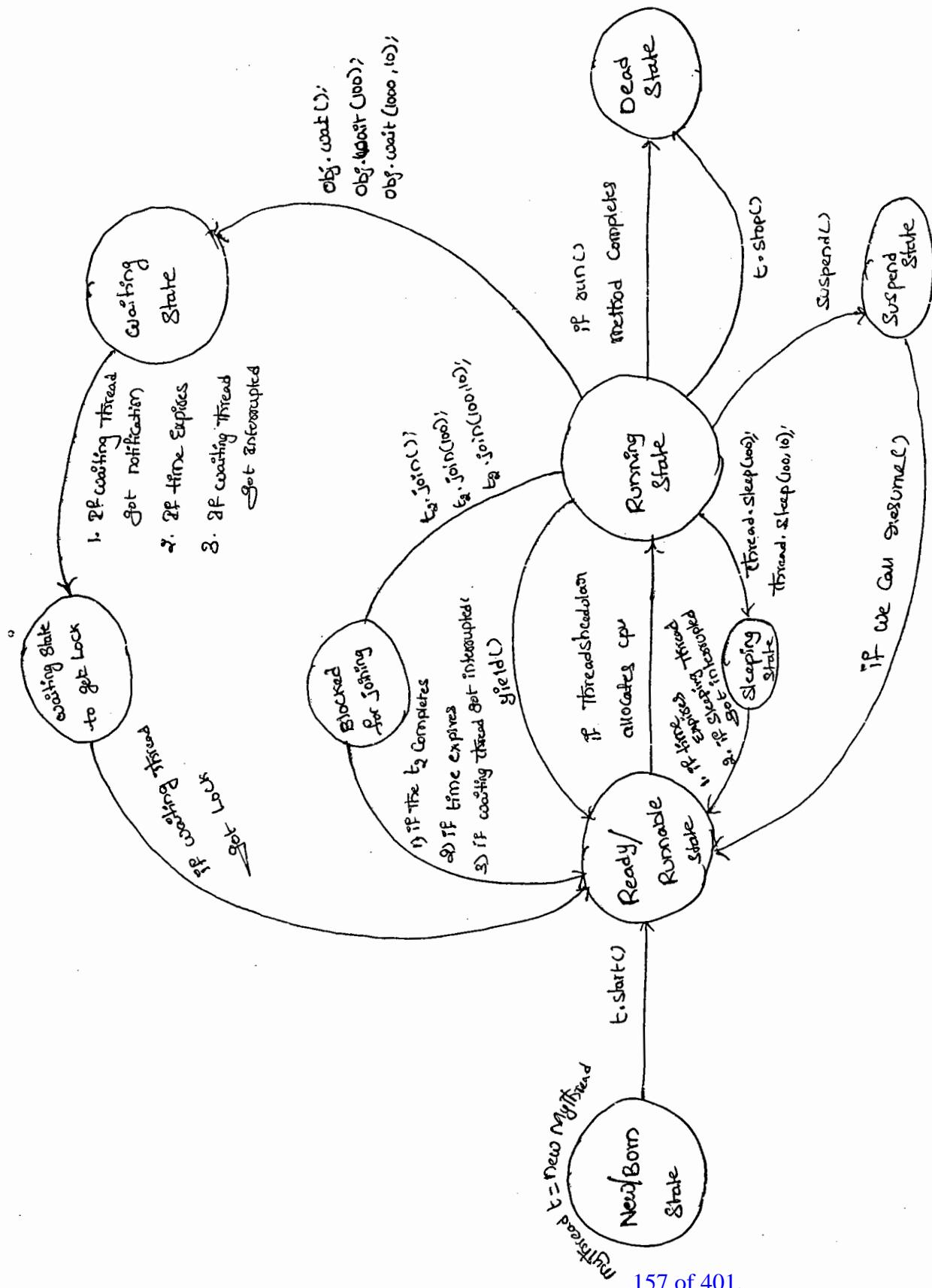
public void Stop();

Suspending & Resuming a Thread :-

→ A Thread Can Suspend another Thread by using Suspend() method.
 → A Thread Can Resume a Suspended Thread by using Resume() method.
 → Both These methods are Deprecated methods & hence not recommended to use.

Q) What is a Green Thread?

Q) What is ThreadLocal?



Case 4 :-

916

9

class Test

{

 public void m1(int i, float f)

{

 System.out.println("int - float version");

}

 public void m1(float f, int i)

{

 System.out.println("float - int version");

}

 P.S.v.m(____)

{

 Test t₁ = new Test();

 t₁.m1(10, 10.5f);

 t₁.m1(10.5f, 10);

X t₁.m1(10, 10); X C.E! - reference to m1() is ambiguous

X t₁.m1(10.5f, 10.5f); X C.E! -

}

Can not find symbol.

Symbol: method m1(float, float)

Location: Class Test.

Case 5 :-

Class Animal

{

}

Class Monkey extends Animal

{

}

Class Test

{

public void m1(Animal A)

{

S.o.println("Animal Version");

}

public void m1(Monkey m)

{

S.o.println("monkey version");

}

P.S. V. m1()

{

Test t = new Test();

Animal a = new Animal();

t.m1(a); // Animal version

Monkey m = new Monkey();

t.m1(m); // monkey-

Animal a1 = new Monkey();

t.m1(a1); // Animal

{

:

→ In Overloading method resolution always takes care by Compiler based on reference type and Runtime Object never play any role in Overloading.

Overriding :-

03/05/11

→ "Whatever the parent has by default available to the child. If the Child not satisfied with parent class implementation Then child is allowed to redefine its implementation in its own way." This process is called "Overriding".

→ The parent class method which is overridden is called overridden method & the child class method which is overriding is called overriding method.

Ex:- Class P

```
public void property()
{
    System.out.println("Cash + Gold + Land");
}
```

overridden method → Public void marry()

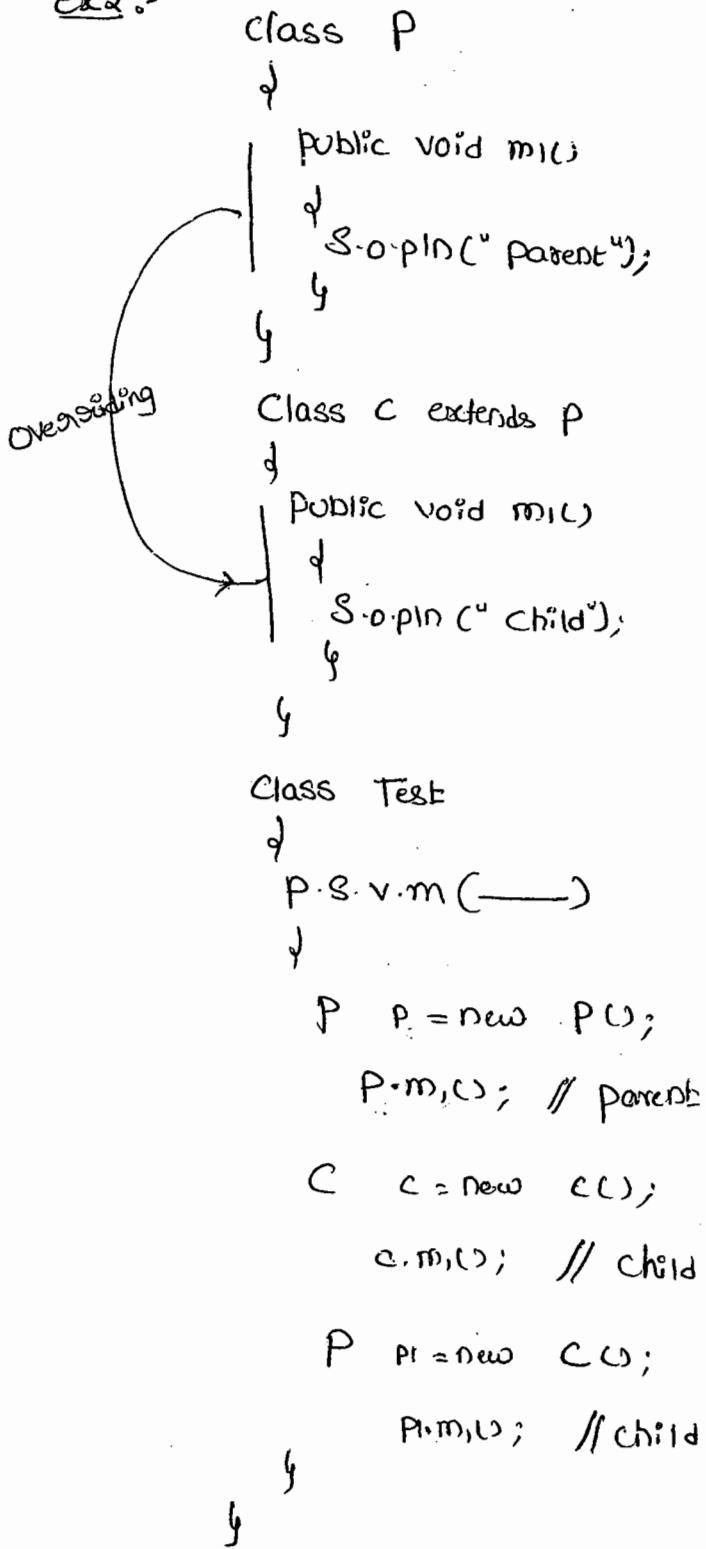
```
{ System.out.println("Subba Laxmi"); }
```

overriding → Class C extends P

```
Public void marry()
```

```
{ System.out.println("Kajal | Zisha | Gaura | 4me"); }
```

Ex :-



→ In overriding the method resolution always takes care by JVM based on runtime object & in overriding difference type never play any role.

11/04/11

Regular Expressions

→ Any group of Strings according to a particular pattern is called "Regular Expression".

Ex: ① We can write a Regular Expression to represent all valid mail-ids.

By using that Regular Expression we can validate whether the given mail-id is valid or not.

② We can write a Regular Expression to represent all valid Java identifiers.

→ The main Application areas of Regular Expressions are

1. We can implement Validation mechanism.

2. We can develop pattern matching applications.

3. We can develop translators like Compilers, interpreters etc.

4. We can use for designing digital Circuits

5. We can use to develop Communication protocols like TCP by IP, UDP etc.

Ex: import java.util.regex.*;

```
class RegExDemo
```

```
{
```

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

```
{
```

```
        Pattern P = Pattern.compile("ab"),
```

```
        Matcher m = P.matcher("abbbabbcbdbab"),
```

```
while(m.find())
{
    System.out.println(m.start() + " --- " + m.end() + " --- " + m.group());
}
```

O/P:-
0 --- 2 ... ab
4 --- 6 ... ab
10 --- 12 ... ab

Pattern class:-

- A pattern Object represents Compiled Version of Regular Expression
We Can Create a pattern object by using compile() of pattern class .

Pattern p = Pattern.compile("String regularExpression");

Matcher Class:-

- A Matcher object Can be used to match character Sequence against a Regular Expression. We Can Create a Matcher Object by using matcher() of pattern class

Matcher m = p.matcher("String target");

Important methods of matcher class:-

(1) boolean find();

- It attempts to find next match & if it is available Returns True otherwise Returns false .

(ii) int start();

→ Returns Start index of the match

(iii) int end();

→ Returns end index of the match

(iv) String group();

→ Returns the matched pattern

Character classes :-

① $[a-z]$ → Any lower case alphabet Symbol

② $[A-Z]$ → Any upper " "

③ $[a-zA-Z]$ → Any alphabet Symbol

④ $[0-9]$ → Any digit from 0 to 9

⑤ $[abc]$ → either a or b or C

⑥ $[^abc]$ → Except a or b or C.

⑦ $[0-9a-zA-Z]$ → Any alpha numeric character.

Ex:-

Pattern p = Pattern.compile("a");

Matcher m = p.matcher("a3b@cuZ#");

while(m.find())

{

S.o.println(m.start() + " --- " + m.group());

}

$x = [ab]$

0 --- a

2 --- b

$x = [a-z]$

0 --- a

2 --- b

4 --- c

6 --- z

$x = [0-9]$

1 --- 3

5 --- 4

$x = [0-9a-zA-Z]$

0 --- a

1 --- 3

5 --- 4

6 --- z

166² of 401_b
a --- c

Predefined-character class :-

Space character $\longrightarrow \backslash s$
 $[0-9] \longrightarrow \backslash d$
 $[a-zA-Z] \longrightarrow \backslash w$
 Any character $\longrightarrow \cdot$

Ex:-

Pattern p = pattern.compile ("x");

Matcher m = p.matcher ("a3zu@ K7#");
 $\begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{matrix}$

while (m.find())

{

s.o.println(m.start() + " --- " + m.groups());

}

$x = \backslash d$	$x = \backslash w$	$x = \backslash s$	$x = \cdot$
1 ----- 3	0 --- a	5 -----	0 - a
3 ----- 4	1 --- 3		1 - 3
7 ----- 7	2 --- z		2 - z
	3 -- 4		3 - 4
	6 --- k		4 - @
	7 --- 7		5 -
			6 - t
			7 - #
			8 -

Quantifiers:-

→ We can use Quantifiers to specify no. of characters to match

Ex:-

- 1) $a \longrightarrow$ exactly one a
- 2) $a^+ \longrightarrow$ atleast one a
- 3) $a^* \longrightarrow$ Any no. of a 's
- 4) $a^? \longrightarrow$ atmost one a

Ex:- Pattern p = Pattern.compile("a");
 Matcher m = p.matcher("abaabaaaab");
 while(m.find())
 ↓
 System.out.println(m.start() + "----" + m.group());
 }

<u>X=a</u>	<u>X=a+</u>	<u>X=a*</u>	<u>X=a?</u>
0 ---- a	0 --- a	0 ---- a	0 ---- a
2 --- a	2 --- aa	1 -----	1 ----
3 --- a	5 --- aaa	2 ----- aa	2 ----- a
5 --- a		4 -----	3 --- a
6 --- a		5 ----- aaa	4 -----
7 --- a		8 -----	5 ----- a
		9 -----	6 ----- a
			7 ----- a
			8 -----
			9 -----

Split method (B) :-

Pattern class Contains split() method → to Split given String according to a regular expression.

Ex:- Pattern p = pattern.compile("//");
 String[] s = p.split("Durga software Solutions");
 for(String s1 : s)
 ↓
 System.out.println(s1); // Durga
 Software
 Solutions

Ex(3):

Pattern p = Pattern.compile("ll."); "ll."

String[] S = p.split("www.designJobs.com");

for (String s_i: S)

{

S.println(s_i); ^{OPR} www
 designJobs
 com

}

String class split() method:-

→ String class also Contains split() to Split the given String against a Regular Expression

Ex:-

String s = "www.designJobs.com";

String[] S_i = s.split("ll.");

for (String s_j: S_i)

{

S_i.println(s_j); www
 designJobs
 com

}

Note:-

Pattern class split() can take target String as argument whereas as String class split() can take regular expression as argument.

StringTokenizer :-

- We can use StringTokenizer to divide the target String into Stream of Tokens according to the
- StringTokenizer class presenting in java.util package.

Ex:-

① StringTokenizer st = new StringTokenizer ("Durga Software Solutions");
 while (st.hasMoreTokens())

```

  {
    System.out.println (st.nextToken());      op!-
    Durga
    Software
    Solutions
  }
```

Note:- The default regular Expression is Space

② StringTokenizer st = new StringTokenizer ("1,00,000", ",");

```

  while (st.hasMoreTokens())
  {
    System.out.println (st.nextToken());      op!-
    1
    00
    000
  }
```

Ques
 1
 00
 000

Ex1:- Write a Regular Expression ^{to represent} The Set of all valid identifiers in Java language.

Rules: (i) The length of each identifier is atleast 2

(ii) The allowed characters are a to z

A to Z

0 to 9

+

(iii) The first character should not digit

R.E:- $[a-zA-Z.][a-zA-Z0-9.]^*$ $\underbrace{[a-zA-Z0-9.]}_{a} \underbrace{^*}_{x^*} \underbrace{(A)}_{(a)}$ $x.x^* = x^+$
 $[a-zA-Z.][a-zA-Z0-9.]^+$

```
import java.util.regex.*;
```

```
class RegExDemo2
```

```
{
```

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

```
{
```

```
        Pattern p = Pattern.compile("[a-zA-Z.][a-zA-Z0-9.]^+");
```

```
        Matcher m = p.matcher(args[0]);
```

```
        if(m.find() && m.group().equals(args[0]))
```

```
{
```

```
            System.out.println("Valid Identifier");
```

```
}
```

```
        else
```

```
{
```

```
            System.out.println("Invalid Identifier");
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

2/8
81

Q) W.A. RE to represent all valid mobile numbers

Rules:- (1) mobile no contains 10 digits

(2) The first digit should be 7 to 9

RegEx:- [7-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9]

(1)

[7-9] {1} d {9}

Q) W.A. regular Expression to represent all valid mail-id's

Rules:

(1) The set of allowed characters in mail-id are 0 to 9, a-z, A-Z, ., -

(2) Should starts with alphabet symbol

(3) Should contain atleast one symbol.

RegEx:-

[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9.-]* @ [a-zA-Z0-9]+ ([.][a-zA-Z])⁺

RegEx:-

@ gmail.com

" @ (gmail | yahoo | hotmail) [.] com

Ex:-

import java.io.*;

import java.util.regex.*;

class MobileExtractor

{

P.S. v.m(String[] args) throws IOException

{

PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter("mobile.txt");

BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("input.txt"))

```
String line = br.readLine();
```

```
Pattern p = Pattern.compile("[7-9][0-9]{9}");
```

```
while (line != null)
```

```
{
```

```
Matcher m = p.matcher(line);
```

```
while (m.find())
```

```
{
```

```
pw.println(m.group());
```

```
}
```

```
line = br.readLine();
```

```
}
```

```
pw.flush();
```

```
,
```

```
}
```

P) W.a.p → to Extract mail-ids from the given file where mail-ids are mixed with some raw data ?

→ In the above Example Replace Regular Expression with the following mail-id Regular Expression.

$$[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9]^* @ [a-zA-Z0-9]^+([.][a-zA-Z]^*)^+$$

P) W.a.p → to display all text files present in the given directory ?

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

```
import java.util.regex.*;
```

```
Class FileNameExtractor
```

```
{
```

```

public static void main (String[] args) throws IOException
{
    int count = 0;

    Pattern p = Pattern.compile ("^ [a-zA-Z0-9 -]+[.]txt$");
    File f = new File ("D:\\duvaga_classes");

    String[] s = f.list();
    for (String si : s)
    {
        Matcher m = p.matcher(si);
        if (m.find() && m.group(0).equals(si))
        {
            count++;
            System.out.println(si);
        }
    }
    System.out.println (count);
}

```

P) W.A.P to delete all .bak files present in D:\\duvaga\\class

```

import java.io.*;
import java.util.regex.*;
class FileNamesDeleter
{
    public static void main (String[] args) throws IOException
    {
        int count = 0;
        Pattern p = Pattern.compile ("^ [a-zA-Z0-9 -]+[.]bak$");
    }
}

```

```
File f = new File("D:\\durga-classes");
String[] s = f.list();
for(String s1 : s)
{
    Matcher m = p.matcher(s1);
    if(m.find() && m.group().equals(s1))
    {
        count++;
        System.out.println(s1);
        File f1 = new File(f, s1);
        f1.delete();
    }
}
System.out.println(count);
}
```

====

Enumeration (enum)

15/5/11

219
83

→ We can use enum to define a group of named Constants

Ex! ① enum month

{

JAN, FEB, MAR ----- DEC; → optional.

}

② enum Bear

{

KF, KO, RC, FO; → optional

}

→ By using enum we can define our own datatypes

→ enum Concept introduced in 1.5v.

→ When compared with old languages enum Java's enum is more powerfull.

Internal Implementation of enum :-

→ enum Concept internally implemented by using class Concept.

→ every enum Constant is a reference variable to enum type object.

→ every enum Constant is always public static final by default.

Ex:-

enum Month

{ JAN, FEB, ---- DEC; }

class Month

public static final Month JAN = new Month();

public static final Month FEB = new Month();

Month JAN



public static final Month DEC = new Month();

Declaration and usage of enum :-

Ex:-

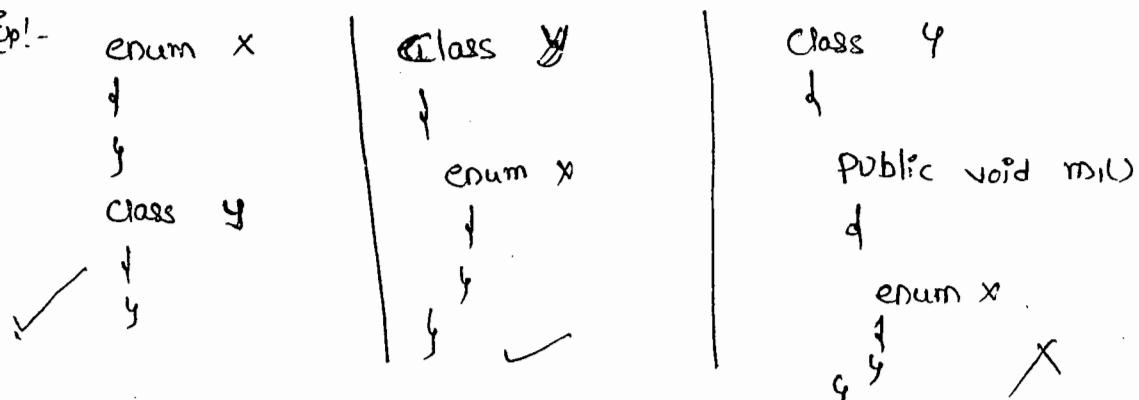
```
enum Bear
{
    KF, KO, RC, FO;
}

class Test
{
    p. s. v. m(Strange args)
    {
        Bear b, = Bear.KF;
        S.o.p(b); // KF
    }
}
```

→ We can declare enum either with in the class or outside of the class but not inside a method.

→ If we are trying to declare enum with in a method we will get Compiletime Error.

Ex:-



C.Q. - enum types must not be local

- if we declare enum outside the class the applicable modifiers are public, default, static fp.
- if we declare enum with in a class the applicable modifiers are public, default, staticfp, private, protected, static.

enum Vs Switch Statement :-

- until 1.4v the allowed datatypes for switch argument are byte, short, char, int.
- But from 1.5v onwards in addition to above the corresponding wrapped classes & Byte, short, char, Integer, + enum type also allowed

Switch ()

1.4 v	1.5 v	1.7 v
byte short char int	Byte Short Character Integer → enum	String

- From 1.5 Version onwards we can use enum as argument to switch statement.

Ex:-

```

enum Beer
{
    KF, KO, RC, FO;
}

class Test
{
}

```

P. S. V. m(→)

}

Beer b_i = Beer. R_C;

Switch (b_i)

{

Case KF:

S.o.pn(" ZE is childean's brand");

break;

Case KO:

S.o.pn(" ZE is too late");

break;

Case RC:

S.o.pn(" ZE is challengers brand");

break;

Case FO:

S.o.pn(" Buy one get one");

break;

default :

S.o.pn(" other brands not recommended to take");

}

Q.P. - ZE is challengers brand.

→ If we are passing enum-type as argument to Switch Statement
every Case label should be a valid enum constant.

ex:- enum Beer
 {
 KF, KO, RC, FO;
 }
 Beer b; = Beer.KF;

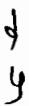
 switch(b){
 case KF: //
 case KO: //
 case RC: //
 case KALYANI: X ^{C-E} unQualified Enumeration Constant name
 }
 }
 }
 required

enum Vs Inheritance :-

- Every enum in Java is direct child class of `java.lang.Enum`
 - As every enum is always extending `java.lang.Enum` there is no chance of extending any other enum (because Java won't provide support for multiple inheritance).
 - As every enum is always final implicitly we can't create child enum for our enums.
 - Because of above reasons we can conclude inheritance concept is not applicable for enums explicitly.
 - But enum can implement any no. of interfaces at a time.

Eg:- ①

enum X



enum Y extends X

X



C.E.:-

Cannot inherit from final X

enum types not extensible

②

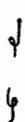
enum X extends java.lang.Enum



X

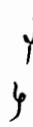
C.E.:-

③ enum X



Class Y extends X

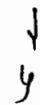
X



C.E1:- Cannot inherit from final X

C.E2:- enum types are not extensible

④ Class X



enum Y extends X

X

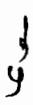


C.E.:-

⑤ Interface ~~X~~



enum Y implements X



java.lang.Enum :-

- Every enum in Java should be always direct child class of java.lang.Enum class.
- The power of enum is inheriting from this class only to our enum classes.

(JavaP java.lang.
Enum)

- It is an abstract class & direct child class of Object class.
- This class implements Comparable & Serializable interface. hence every enum in Java is by default Serializable and Comparable.

Values() method :-

- We can use Values() method to list out all values of enum.

Eg. Beer[] b = Beer.Values();

Ordinal() method :-

- Within the enum the order of constants is important.
- We can specify its order by using ordinal value.
- We can find ordinal value of enum constant by using ordinal method.

public int ordinal();

- Ordinal value is zero-based.

Eg:-

```
enum Beer
{
    KP, KO, RC, FO;
}
```

```
class Test
```

```
↓  
p. S. v. m (String[] args)
```

```
↓  
Beer[] b = Beer.values();
```

```
for (Beer b1 : b)
```

```
↓  
S. o. p (b1 + " --- " + b1.ordinal());
```

```
↓
```

O/P :-

```
KF --- 0  
KO --- 1  
RC --- 2  
FO --- 3
```

Enum class Constructors & Speciality of Java enum :-

→ When compared with old languages enum, Java enum is more powerful because in addition to constants we can take variables, methods, constructors etc... which may not possible in old languages. This extra facility is due to internal implementation of enum concept which is class based.

→ Inside enum we can declare main() method & hence we can invoke enum class directly from command prompt.

Ex:- `enum Fish`

```
↓  
STAR, GOLD, GUPPY, APOLLO, KILLER, ↴ mandatory.
```

```
p. S. v. m (String[] args)
```

```
↓  
S. o. p (" ENUM MAIN METHOD");
```

```
↓
```

> Javac fish.java

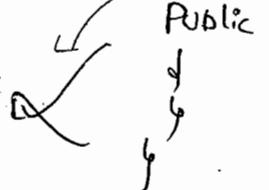
> Java Fish

O/P:- Enum main method.

→ In addition to Constant if we want to take any extra members Compulsory list of constants should be in the 1st Line & should ends with ,

Ex:- ① enum Color

↓
RED, GREEN, BLUE,
Public void m1()



② enum Color

↓
Public void m1()
↓
↓

• RED, GREEN, BLUE;



③ enum Color

↓
RED, GREEN, BLUE,
public void m1()



④ enum Color

↓
Public void m1()
↓
↓



⑤ enum Color

↓
↓



→ Inside enum without having Constant we can't take any Extra members, but Empty enum is always valid.

Ex:-

enum Color

↓
Public void m1()
↓
↓



enum Color

↓
↓



Enum Class Constructors :-

- Within Enum we can take Constructors also.
- Enum class Constructors will be executed automatically at the time of Enum class loading. Hence because Enum Constants will be created at the time of class loading only.
- We can't invoke Enum Constructors explicitly.

Ex:-

```
enum Beer
{
    KF, KO, RC, FO;
}

Beer();
{
    System.out.println("Constructor");
}

class Test
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Beer b1 = Beer.KF;
        System.out.println(b1);
    }
}
```

Output:-

```
Constructor
Constructor
Constructor
Constructor
KF
```

→ We Can't Create Objects of Enum explicitly & hence we Can't Call Constructors directly.

Beer b = new Beer(); X

C.E! -

Enum types may not be instantiated.

Ex:- enum Beer

{

KF(75), KO(90), RC(70), FO,

int price;

Beer(int price)

{

this.price = price;

}

Beer()

{

this.price = 65;

}

Public int getPrice()

{

return price;

}

Class Test

{

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

{

Beer() b = Beer.values();

for (Beer b₁ : b)

{

S.o.println(b₁ + "...." + b.getPrice());

}

KF → p.s.f. Beer KF = new Beer();

KF(100) ⇒ p.s.f. Beer KF = new Beer(100);

KF(500, "Gold", "Bitter")

⇒ p.s.f. Beer KF = new Beer(100,

"Gold", "Bitter")

O/P. KF ---- 75

KO ---- 90

RC ---- 70

FO ---- 65

- Within the enum we can take instance & static methods but we can't to take abstract methods
- every enum Constant represents an object hence whatever methods we can apply on ~~normal Java~~ object we can apply those on enum constants also.

Ex:-

- Q) Which of the following Expressions are valid
- ✓ ① Beer.F.equals(Beer.R) // ~~sp~~ True
 - ✓ ② Beer.F.hashCode() // ✓
 - ✓ ③ Beer.F == Beer.R → False
 - X ④ Beer.F > Beer.R
 - ✓ ⑤ Beer.F.ordinal() > Beer.R.ordinal

Case(1):-

```
Package pack1;
public enum Fish {
    STAR, Guppy, Apollo;
}
```

```
Package pack2;
class Test1 {
    P.S.V.m();
}
```

```
S.o.pn(STAR);
```

```
import static pack1.Fish.STAR;
```

(a)

```
import static pack1.Fish.*;
```

Package pack3;

Class Test2



P·S·V·M(→)



Fish f = Fish.STAR;

S·O·P·L·N(f);



import pack1.Fish;

(a)

import pack1.*;

package pack4;

Class Test3



P·S·V·M(→)



Fish f = Fish.STAR;

S·O·P·L·N(Guppy);



import pack1.Fish (a)

import pack1.*;

import static pack1.Fish.Guppy;

(a)

import static pack1.Fish.*;

Case :-

enum Color



BLUE, RED



public void info()



S·O·P·L·N("Dangerous Color");



GREEN;

public void info()



S·O·P·L·N("Universal Color");



```
class Test
{
    p. s. v. m (→)
```

```
    Color [] C = Color.values();
```

```
    for (Color c1 : C)
```

```
        c1.info();
```

Op :- Universal Color
Dangerous Color
universal Color.

Enum vs Enum vs Enumeration :-

enum :-

→ It is a keyword which can be used to define a group of named constants.

Enum :-

→ It is a class present in java.lang package which acts as a base class for all Java enums

Enumeration :-

→ It is an Interface present in java.util package, which can be used for retrieving objects from Collection one by one.

Internationalization (I18N)

I18N :-

- various countries follow various conventions to represent dates & no's etc.
- Our application should generate locale specific responses like for India people the response should be in terms of Rs. (Rupees) & for the U.S people the response should be in terms of dollars (\$). The process of designing such type of web application is called "Internationalization" (I18N).
- We can implement I18N by using the following classes

- ① Locale
- ② NumberFormat
- ③ DateFormat

Locale :-

- A Locale object represents a Geo-graphic Location

Constructors :-

- We can create a Locale object by using the following constructor.

- (1) Locale l = new Locale(String language); java.util.Locale
- (2) Locale l = new Locale(String language, String country);

- Locale class defines several constants to represent some standard locales. We can use these locales directly without creating our own.

e.g:- Locale.US

Locale.ENGLISH

Locale.ITALIAN

Locale.UK

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Note:

- Locale class is the first class present in java.util package
- It is the direct child class of Object it implements Cloneable & Serializable interfaces.

Important methods of Locale class:

- ① public static Locale getDefault();
- ② public static void setDefault(Locale l);
- ③ public String getLanguage(); en
- ④ public String getDisplayLanguage(); english
- ⑤ public String getCountry(); us
- ⑥ public String getDisplayCountry(); unitedstates
- ⑦ public static String[] getISOCountries();
- ⑧ public static String[] getISOLanguages();
- ⑨ public static Locale[] getAvailableLocales();

Ex:-

```

import java.util.*;

class LocaleDemo1
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Locale l1 = Locale.getDefault();
        System.out.println(l1.getCountry() + " --- " + l1.getLanguage());
        System.out.println(l1.getDisplayCountry() + " --- " + l1.getDisplayLanguage());

        Locale l2 = new Locale("pa", "IN");
        Locale.setDefault(l2);

        String[] s3 = Locale.getISOLanguages();
        for (String s4 : s3)
        {
            System.out.println(s4);
        }

        String[] s4 = Locale.getISOCountries();
        for (String s5 : s4)
        {
            System.out.println(s5);
        }

        Locale[] s = Locale.getAvailableLocales();
        for (Locale s1 : s)
        {
            System.out.println(s1.getDisplayCountry() + " --- " + s1.getDisplayLanguage());
        }
    }
}

```

NumberFormat Classes :-

→ Various Countries follow various conventions to represent Number by using NumberFormat Class we can format a number according to a particular Locale.

→ NumberFormat class present in java.text package & it is an abstract class. Hence we can't Create NumberFormat Object directly.

X NumberFormat nf = new NumberFormat();

Creating NumberFormat object for the default Locale :-

→ NumberFormat class defines the following methods for this

- ① Public static NumberFormat getInstance();
- ② Public static NumberFormat getCurrencyInstance();
- ③ Public static NumberFormat getPercentInstance();
- ④ Public static NumberFormat getNumberInstance();

Getting NumberFormat object for a Specific Locale :-

→ We have to pass the corresponding Locale object as argument to the above methods

- Ex:-
- ① Public static NumberFormat getCurrencyInstance(Locale l);

!

→ Once we got NumberFormat Object we can format & parse numbers by using the following methods of NumberFormat class

- ① public String format(long e);
- ② public String format(double d);

→ To format (a) Convert java Specific number form to Locale Specific String form.

- ③ Public Number parse(String s) throws ParseException

→ To Convert Locale Specific String form to java Specific Number form.

Ex:-

W.A.P to represent a Java number in Italy Specific form.

(P) import java.text.*;

import java.util.*;

Class NumberFormatDemo2

{

P.S.v.m(—).

{

double d = 123456.789;

NumberFormat nf = NumberFormat.getInstance(Locale.ITALY);

S.o.println("Italy Form is: " + nf.format(d));

}

Q:- Italy form is: 123.456,789

Expt:- W.A.P to represent a Java number in India, UK &

U.S Currency forms.

```
import java.text.*;
```

```
import java.util.*;
```

Class NumberFormatDemo3

}

P.S.V.M(—)

}

```
double d = 123456.789;
```

```
Locale india = new Locale("pa", "IN");
```

```
NumberFormat nf1 = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(india);
```

```
S.o.println("India notation is...." + nf1.format(d));
```

```
NumberFormat nf2 = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.US);
```

```
S.o.println("US notation is...." + nf2.format(d));
```

```
NumberFormat nf3 = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.UK);
```

```
S.o.println("UK notation is...." + nf3.format(d));
```

}

}

O/P:- India Notation is INR 123,456.79

US Notation is \$ 123,456.79

UK Notation is £ 123,456.79

Setting Maximum & minimum integer & fraction digits.

→ NumberFormat class defines the following methods to set maximum & minimum fraction & integer digits.

- ① public void SetMaximumFractionDigits(int n);
- ② public void SetMinimumFractionDigits(int n);
- ③ public void SetMaximumIntegerDigits(int n);
- ④ public void SetMinimumIntegerDigits(int n);

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Ex:-

NF nf = NF.getInstance();

- ① nf.setMaximumFractionDigits(2);
S.o.println(nf.format(123.4567)); // 123.45
- nf.format(123.4); // 123.4
- ② nf.setMinimumFractionDigits(2);
S.o.println(nf.format(123.4567)); // 123.4567
S.o.println(nf.format(123.4)); // 123.40
- ③ nf.setMaximumIntegerDigits(3);
S.o.println(nf.format(123456.234)); // 123456.234
S.o.println(nf.format(12.3456)); // 12.3456
- ④ nf.setMinimumIntegerDigits(3);
S.o.println(nf.format(123456.234)); // 123456.234
S.o.println(nf.format(12.3456)); // 012.3456

Dateformat class :-

- Various Countries follow various Conventions to represent Date.
- By using DateFormatt class we can format the DATE according to a particular Locale.
- DateFormat class is an abstract class & present in java.text package.

Getting DateFormat object for Default Locale :-

DateFormat class defines the following methods for this

- ① public static DateFormat getInstance();
 - ② public static DateFormat getDateInstance();
 - ③ public static DateFormat getDateInstance(int Style);
- ↓
DateFormat · Full → 0
DateFormat · LONG → 1
DateFormat · MEDIUM → 2
DateFormat · SHORT → 3

Getting DateFormat object for the Specific Locale :-

- ① Public Static DateFormat getDateInstance(int style, Locale l);
- Once we got DateFormat Object we can format & parse dates by using the following methods.

- ① Public String format(Date d);

→ To Convert Java Date form to Locale Specific String form

Note:-

Default Style is Medium & Most of the Cases default Locale is US

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② Public Date parse(String s) throws ParseException

To Convert Locale Specific Date Form to java Date Form.

Ex:-

W-a-P To display System Date in all possible Styles of U.S format

```
import java.util.*;
```

```
import java.text.*;
```

```
Class DateFormatDemo
```

```
{
    P.S.V.m(-----)
```

```
    S.o.pn("full form:" + DateFormat.getDateInstance(0).format(new Date()));
```

(2)

```
// DateFormat df = DateFormat.getDateInstance(0);
```

```
S.o.pn(df.format(new Date()));
```

```
S.o.pn("Long form:" + DF.getDateInstance(1).format(new Date()));
```

```
S.o.pn("medium form:" + DF.getDateInstance(2).format(new Date()));
```

```
S.o.pn("Short form:" + DF.getDateInstance(3).format(new Date()));
```

```
}
```

```
{}
```

O/P:- full form: Thursday, February 2, 2010

Long form: February 18, 2010

Medium form: Feb 18, 2010

Short form: 2/18/10

Ex 9).

① w.a.p to display System Date US, UK & Italy form.

```
S.o.println("US form:" + DF.getDateInstance(0, Locale.US).format(  
    new Date()));  
S.o.println("UK form:" + DF.getDateInstance(0, Locale.UK).format(new Date()));  
S.o.println("ITALY form:" + DF.getDateInstance(0, Locale.ITALY).format(new Date()));
```

%p.

US form : Tuesday, May 18, 2010

UK form : Tuesday, 18 May 2010

ITALY form: martedì 18 maggio 2010

Getting DateFormat object to represent both DATE & TIME?

- ① Public static DateFormat getDateInstance();
- ② Public static DateFormat getDateInstance(int datestyle, int timestyle);
- ③ Public static DateFormat getDateInstance(int datestyle, int timestyle, Locale);

Ex).

```
S.o.println("US form :" + DateFormat.getDateInstance(0, 0, Locale.US)  
    .format(new Date()));
```

%p.

US form : Tuesday, May 18, 2011 9:53:45 AM GMT : +5:30

Note: Default style is medium & most of the cases ²⁰¹ of ₄₀₁ Locale is US

Development

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javac :-

We can use this Command to Compile a Single or group of .java files.

Syn:-

```
javac [Options] A.java /  
          ↴  
          -d      A.java B.java  
          -source  
          -cp  
          -classpath  
          -version
```

java :-

We can use java Command to run a .class file

Syn:- java [Options] A ↴
 ↴
 -ea | -esa | -da | -dsa
 -version
 -cp / -classpath
 -D

Note:- We can compile a group of .java files at a time whereas we can run only one .class file at a time.

Classpath :-

→ Classpath describes the location where required .class files are available.

→ JVM will always use Classpath to locate the required .class file.

→ The following are various possible ways to Set the Classpath.

① Permanently by using Environment variable classpath.

→ This classpath will be preserved after system restart also

② At Command prompt level by using Set Command.

Set classpath = %classpath%; D:\path >

→ This classpath will be applicable only for that particular Command prompt window only. Once we close that Command prompt automatically classpath will be lost.

③ At Command Level by using -cp option

java -cp D:\path > Test ←

→ This classpath is applicable only for this particular Command.

Once Command execution completes automatically classpath will be lost.

* Among the above 3 ways the most commonly used approach is
Setting classpath at Command Level.

Ex:- Class Test

↓
p. s. v. m (—)

↓
S. o. p. n ("classpath Demo");

↓

D:\Durgaclasses > javac Test.java ←
> java Test ←

Op:- Classpath Demo

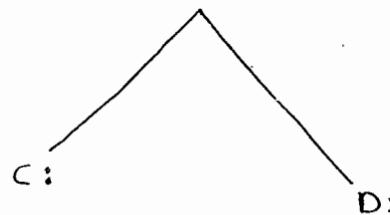
X D:\ java Test ← R.E:- NoClassDefFoundError

✓ D:\> java -cp D:\Durgaclasses Test ← ✓
Op:- classpathDemo

✓ Q:\> java -cp D:\Durgaclasses Test ←
Op:- classpathDemo 203 of 401.

Note!

If we set classpath explicitly then we can run Java program from any location but if we are not setting the classpath then we have to run java program only from current working directory.

Ex :-

```

public class fresher
{
    public void m1()
    {
        System.out.println("I want job");
    }
}
  
```

```

class Company
{
    p.s.v.m();
}
  
```

```

fresher f = new fresher();
f.m1();
  
```

```

System.out.println("Getting JOB is very
easy .. not required to
work");
  
```

C:\> javac fresher.java ✓

D:\> javac Company.java ✗

C.E:- Cannot find symbol

Symbols: Class fresher

location: Class Company

D:\> javac -cp c: Company.java ✗

X D:\java Company ←

R.E:- NoClassDefFoundError: fresher

X D:\java -cp c: Company ←

R.E:- NoClassDefFoundError: Company 204 of 401.

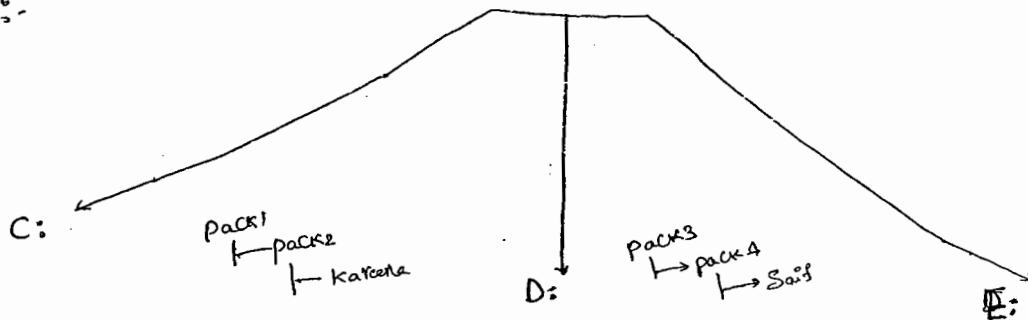
✓ D:\ java -cp D:\;C:\ Company (or) D:\java -cp .;C:\ Company

O/P :- I wan Job

Getting Job is very easy... not required to worry.

✓ E:\ java -cp D:\;C:\ Company

Ex:-



Package pack1.pack2;

Public class Kareena

{

 Public void m1()

}

S.o.println("Hello Saif Can u

Please set hello
 --func");

g

y

Package pack3.pack4;

Propose: pack1.pack2.Kareena

Public class Saif

{

 Public void m1()

{

 Kareena k = new Kareena();

 k.m1();

S.o.println("Not possible..AS I am

 in Saif class");

 }

import pack3.pack4.
 .Saif;

Class Durga

{

 P.S.V.m1();

{

 Saif s = new Saif();

 s.m1();

 S.o.println("Can

 I help U");

}

✓ C:\> java -d. Kareena

✗ D:\> java -d. Saif.java

C:\> Cannot find Symbol

Symbol: Class Kareena

Location: Class Saif

✓ D:\>java -cp c: \d . Saif.java

✗ E:\>javac Durga.java

C.E: Cannot find Symbol

Symbol: class Saif

Location: class Durga

✓ E:\>javac -cp D: Durga.java

✗ E:\>java Durga ←

R.E: NoClassDefFoundError : Saif

✗ E:\>java -cp D: Durga ←

R.E: NoClassDefFoundError : Durga

✗ E:\>java -cp .;D: Durga

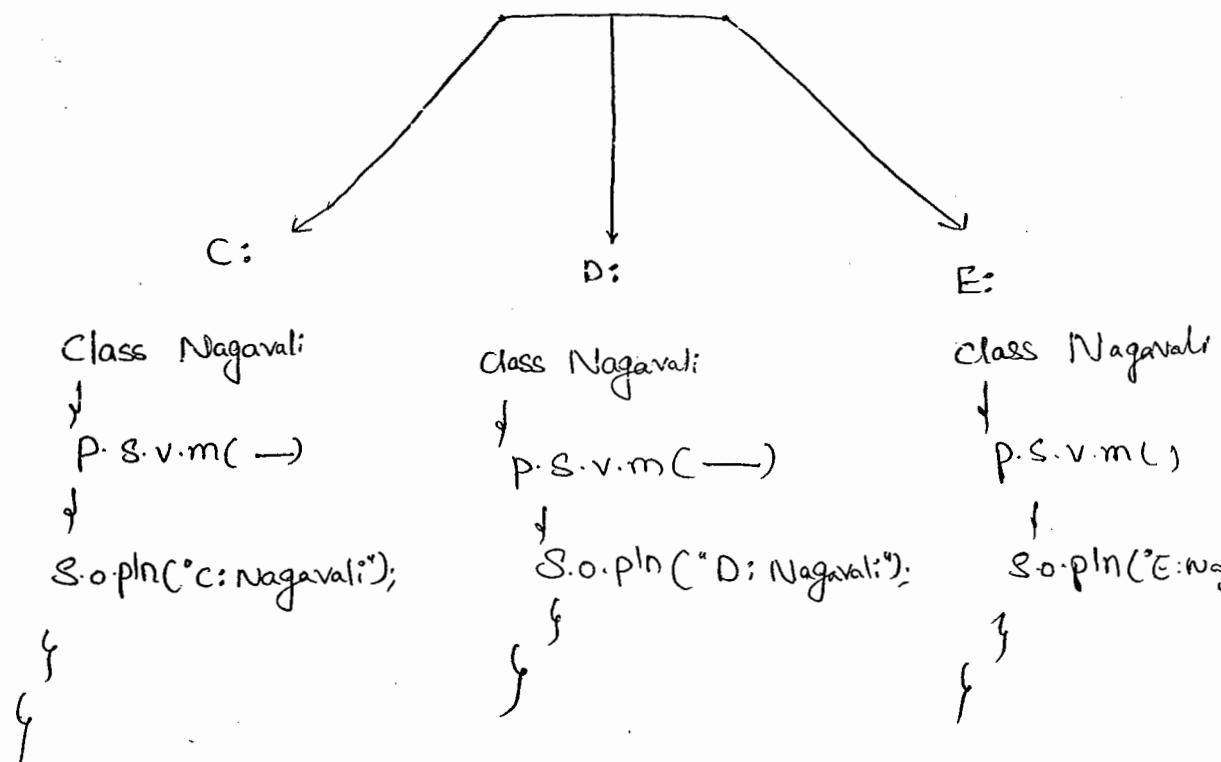
R.E: NoClassDefFoundError : Durga

✓ E:\>java -cp E:;D;;c: Durga

Note:-

- ① Compiler will check only one level dependency whereas JVM will check all levels of dependency
- ② If any folder structure created because of package statement it should be mentioned through import statement only. & Base package location we have to update in classpath.
- ③ Within the classpath the order of locations is very important for the required .class file, JVM will always search the locations from top of 401

Left → Right in classpath. Once JVM finds the required file then the rest of the classpath won't be searched.



C:\> javac Nagavali.java ✓

D:\> javac Nagavali.java ✓

E:\> javac Nagavali.java ✓

C:\> java Nagavali ✓

o/p C: Nagavali

D:\> java -cp C:; D:; E: Nagavali ←

o/p C: Nagavali

D:\> java -cp E:; D:; C: Nagavali ←

o/p!- E: Nagavali

D:\> java -cp D:; E:; C: Nagavali ←

o/p! D: Nagavali

JAR file :-

237 99

→ If Several dependent files are available then it is never recommended to set each class file individually in the classpath we have to group all those .Class file into a single Zip file. & we have to make that Zip file available in the class path. This zip file is nothing but JAR file.

Ex:-

To develop Servlet all required .class files are available in Servlet-api.jar. we have to make this jar file available in the classpath then only Servlet will be compiled.

Jar vs War vs EAR :-

① Jar :- (Java archive file)

→ It Contains a group of .class files

② War :- (Web archive file)

→ It represents a web application which may contain Servlets, JSPs, HTMLs, CSS file, JavaScripts, e.t.c..

③ EAR :- (Enterprise archive file)

→ It represents an enterprise application which may contains Servlets, JSPs, EJBs, JMS Components e.t.c.

Various Commands :-

① To Create a jar file.

jar -cvf durga.jar A.class B.class C.class
* class

② To extract a jar file.

jar -xvf durga.jar

③ To Display table of contents of a jar file.

jar -tvf durga.jar

Ex:-

```
public class DurgaColorfullCalc
{
    public static int add(int x, int y)
    {
        return x+y;
    }
    public static int add(int x, int y)
    {
        return 2*x*y;
    }
}
```

C:\> javac DurgaColorfullCalc.java ✓

C:\> jar -cvf durgacalc.jar DurgaColorfullCalc.class

class Bakara

{

 p.s.v.m(—)

}

 s.o.println(DuengaColorfulCalc.add(10, 20));

 s.o.println(DuengaColorfulCalc.multiply(10, 20));

}

}

X D:\> javac Bakara.java

X D:\> javac -cp c: Bakara.java

✓ D:\> javac -cp c:\duengacalc.jar Bakara.java

✓ D:\> javac -cp ;c:\duengacalc.jar Bakara.

Q.P:-
200
400

Note:-

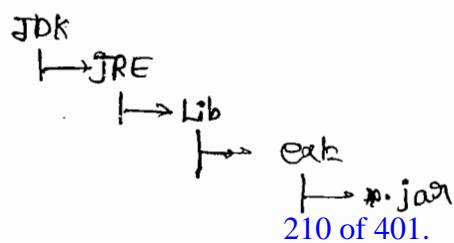
→ whenever we are placing a jar file in the classpath

Compulsory name of the jar file we should include, Just Location

is not enough.

Short cut way to place jar file :-

→ If we are placing the jar file in the following location then it is not required to set classpath explicitly by default if it is available to Jvm & Java Compiler.



System properties :-

- For every System persistence information will be maintain in the form of System properties. These may include o.s name, Virtual machine version, User Country . e.t.c....
- we can get System properties by using `getProperties()` method of System class

Ex:- Demo program to print all System properties.

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class Test  
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        Properties p = System.getProperties();  
        p.list(System.out);  
    }  
}
```

- we can Set System property from the Command prompt by using `-D` option

ex:- Java -D^{Space is not allowed}
name=SCJP Test

↓
name of the property

↓
Value of the property

Q) JDK vs JRE vs JVM :-

93rd 101

JDK : (Java development kit) :-

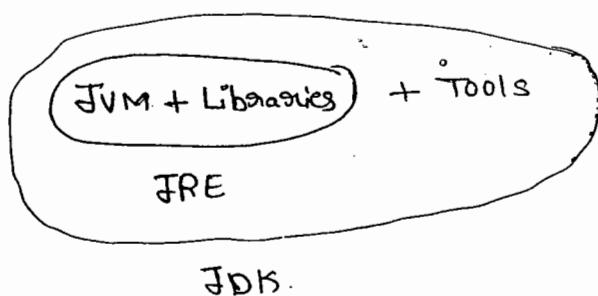
- To develop & run Java application The required environment provided by JDK.

JRE :- (Java Runtime Environment) :-

- To run Java application The required environment provided by JRE

JVM :-

- This machine is responsible to execute Java program.



$$\text{JDK} = \text{JRE} + \text{Tools}$$

$$\text{JRE} = \text{JVM} + \text{Libraries}.$$

Note:-

- On Client machine we have to install JRE, whereas on the developer's machine we have to install JDK.

diff. b/w path & classpath :-

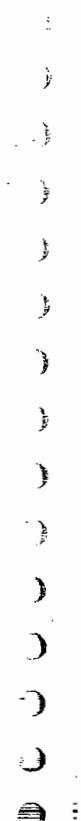
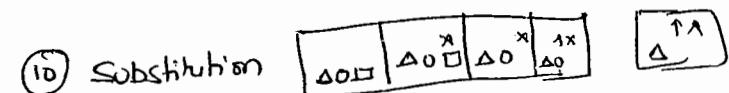
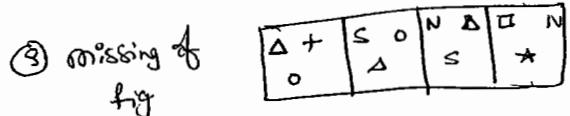
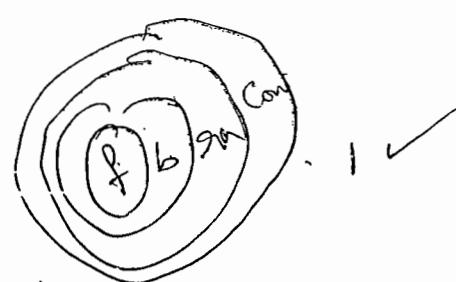
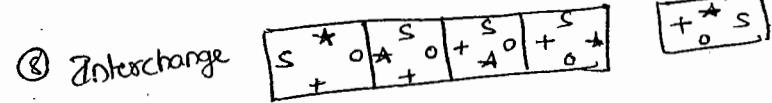
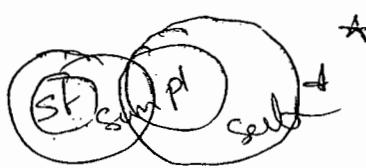
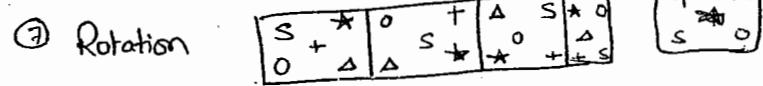
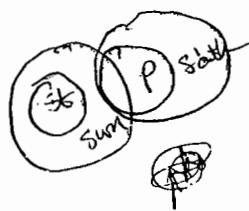
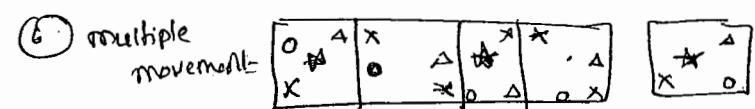
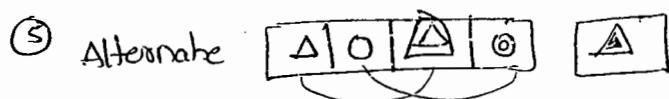
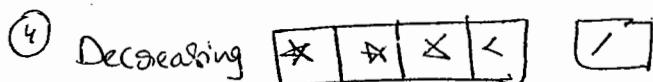
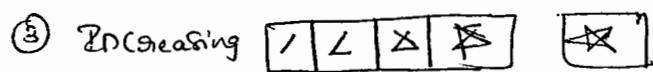
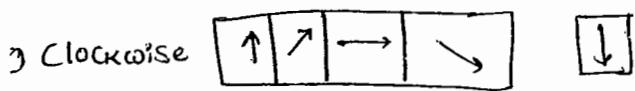
- We can use classpath to describe the location where required class files are available.
- If we are not setting the classpath Then our program won't be run.

Path :-

- we can use path variable to describe the location where required Binary executables are available.
- If we are not setting path variable then java & javac Commands won't work.

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miracle

- 1.5V → Autoboxing & Unboxing -
→ generic;
→ varargs -
→ for-each
→ enum
→ Annotations ✓
→ Queue ✓
→ static imports { not recommended ✓
→ Co-varic of return types.

Walk
↓
Jogging
↓
Running
↓
Sprinting

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Ex 2 :-

Class Test

↓
p.s.v.m(String[] args)

}

one object
eligible for
G.C

Student s = m();

}

p.s.Student m()

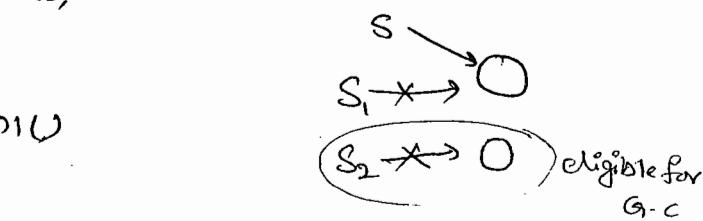
↓

Student s₁ = new Student();

Student s₂ = new Student();

return s₁;

}



$s_1 \rightarrow \circ$

$s_2 \rightarrow \circ$

$s \rightarrow \circ$

$s_1 \not\rightarrow \circ$ ∵ $s_2 \rightarrow \circ$

Ex 3 :-

Class Test

↓

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

}

Two objects
eligible for
G.C

m();

↓

p.s.Student m()

↓

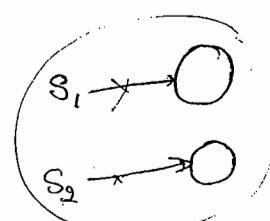
Student s₁ = new Student();

Student s₂ = new Student();

return s₁;

}

}



eligible for G.C

2) Reassigning the Reference Variable:

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→ If an object is no longer required then reassigned its reference variables to some other objects then that old object automatically eligible for G.C.

Ex:-

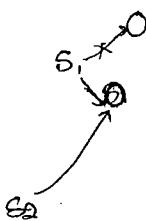
Student S₁ = new Student();
no object eligible for G.C. → S₁ → O | old objects
Student S₂ = new Student();

one object eligible for G.C.

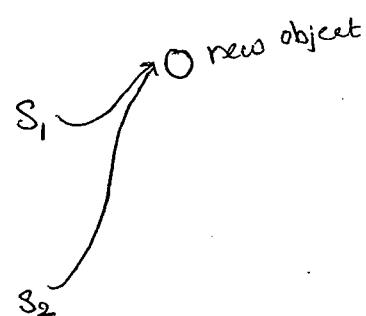
Two objects eligible

S₁ = new Student();

S₂ = S₁;



S₁ → O | old objects
S₂ → O



3) Objects Created Inside a method :-

→ The Objects which are created inside a method are by default eligible for G.C after completing that method.

Ex:-

class Test
↓
p.s.v. main(String [] args)

2 objects eligible for G.C.

m₁();

p.s.v. m₁()

↓
Student S₁ = new Student();
↓ Student S₂ = new Student();

221 of 401.

26/02/11

Garbage Collection

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- 1) Introduction.
- 2) Various ways to make an object eligible for G.C.
- 3) The methods for requesting JVM to run garbage collector.
- 4) Finalization..

Garbage Collector :-

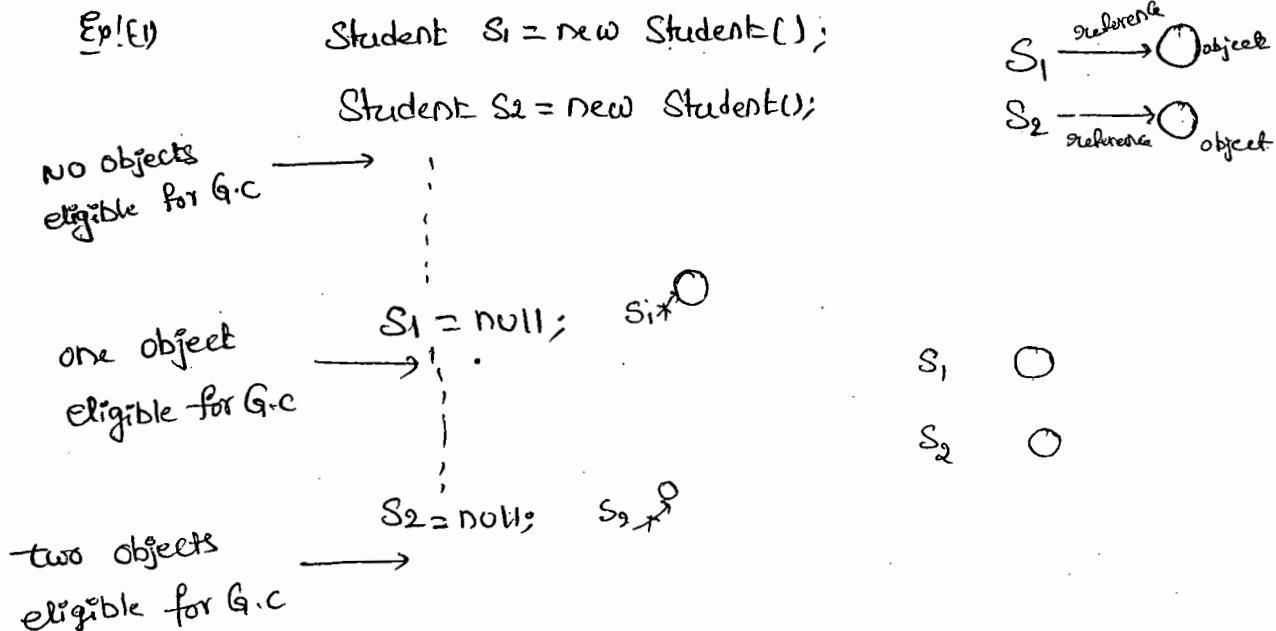
- In old languages like C++, creation & destruction of object is responsibility of programmer only.
- Usually programmer taking very much care while creating objects & his neglecting destruction of useless objects. due to this neglectance at ^{Certain} second point of time for the creation of new object sufficient memory may not be available & entire program will be collapsed due to memory problems.
- But in Java, programmer is responsible only for creation of objects and He is not responsible for destruction of useless objects.
- Sun people provided one assistant which is always running in the background for destruction of useless objects. due to this assistant the chance of failure java program with memory problem is very rare. This assistant is nothing "Garbage Collection".
- Hence, the main objective of Garbage Collector is to "destroy useless objects".

The Various ways to make an object eligible for G.C:-

- Even though programmer is not responsible to destroy useless object, it is always a good programming practice to make an object eligible for G.C if it is no longer required.
- An object is said to be eligible for G.C, if it doesn't contain any references.
- The following are various possible ways to make an object eligible for G.C.

(i) Nullifying the Reference Variable :-

- If an object is no longer required then assign null to all its references, then automatically that object eligible for G.C.



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4) Island of isolation :-

Ex:- Class Test

Test i;

P-S-V. main (String Delays)

{

Test t₁ = new Test();

Test t₂ = new Test();

Test t₃ = new Test();

No objects
eligible for
G.C

→ !

t₁. i = t₂;

t₂. i = t₃;

t₃. i = t₁;

⋮

t₁ = null;

⋮

t₂ = null;

⋮

t₃ = null;

3 objects
eligible for
G.C

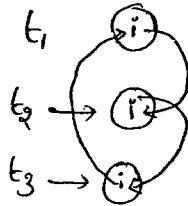
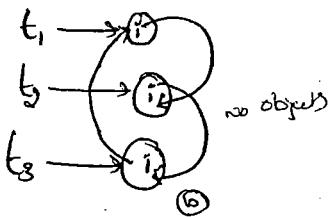
→

↓

t₁ → ①

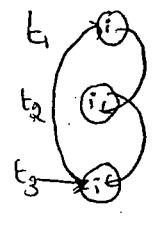
t₂ → ① no objects

t₃ → ① ②



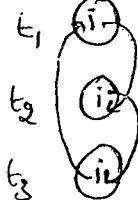
(No)
objects

①



(No)
objects

②



(3 objects)

③

Note:-

→ If an Object doesn't have any reference Then it is always eligible

for Garbage Collector.

→ Even though object having ^{the} reference still it is eligible for

G.C Sometimes (Island of isolation)

The methods for requesting JVM to Run Garbage Collector:-

- Whenever we are making an object eligible for G.C it may not be destroyed by G.C immediately whenever JVM runs garbage collector then only that object will be destroyed.
- We can request JVM to run garbage collector programmatically whether JVM accepts our request or not there is no guarantee.
- The following are various ways for this requesting JVM to run G.C.

(1) By System class :-

- System class contains a static method G.C, for this

System.gc();

(2) By Runtime class :-

- By using Runtime object a Java application can communicate with JVM
- Runtime class is a Singleton class hence we can't create Runtime object by using constructor.
- we can create a Runtime object by using factory method getRuntime.

Runtime r = Runtime.getRuntime();

- Once we got Runtime object we can apply the following methods on that object.

(a) freeMemory() returns free memory in the heap,

(b) totalMemory() " total " of the heap (HeapSize)

(c) G.C() → for requesting JVM to Run garbage collector,

Ques:- class RuntimeDemo

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

Runtime r = Runtime.getRuntime();

S.o.println(r.totalMemory());

S.o.println(r.freeMemory());

```
for (int i=1; i=10000; i++)
```

}

Date d = new Date();

d → O

d=null;

d O

S.o.println(r.freeMemory());

r.gc();

System.out.println(r.freeMemory());

4

Q) Which of the following is the proper way of requested JVM to run

g.c?

✓ 1) System.gc(); (System is static method)

* 2) Runtime.gc(); (Runtime is instance method)

* 3) (new Runtime()).gc(); (gc is applicable only static method)

✓ 4) Runtime.getRuntime().gc();

Note:- gc present in the System class is a static method, where as

gc present in the Runtime class is instance method & recommended to
use System.gc();

Finalization :-

- Just before destroying any object, garbage collector always calls finalize() method to perform clean-up activities on that object.
- finalize() method declared in Object class with the following declaration.

protected void finalize() throws Throwable.

Case(1) :-

- Garbage Collector always calls finalize() on the object which is eligible for G.C just before destruction, then the corresponding class finalize() will be executed. If String object eligible for G.C then String class finalize() will be executed, but not Test class finalize method.

Ex:- class Test

```
    {  
        p.s.v.m(String[] args)  
        {  
            String s = new String("durga");  
            s = null;  
            System.gc();  
            System.out.println("end of main");  
        }  
        public void finalize()  
        {  
            System.out.println("finalize method called");  
        }  
    }
```

O/p :- end of main

→ In the above Example String object is eligible for g.c. Hence
String class finalize() method got executed which has Empty implementation. g13

→ If we are replacing String object with Test object, Then Test class
finalize() will be executed.

→ In this case the o/p is ① finalize method called
End of main (a)
② End of main
finalize method Called.

Case 2 :-

→ we can call finalize() explicitly in this case it will be executed
just like a normal method call & object won't be destroyed.
→ But before destruction of object G.C always call finalize().

Ex:- Class Test

```
p-s-v-m (String [] args)
{
    Test t = new Test();
    t.finalize();
    t.finalize();
    t=null;
    System.gc();
    System.out.println("End of main");
}
public void finalize()
{
    System.out.println("Finalize method Called");
}
```

o/p:
Finalize method Called
Finalize method Called
End of main
Finalize method Called

→ In the above program finalize() got executed 3 times, & times
Explicitly by the programmer & one time by the Garbage Collector.

Note:-

- Before destruction of Servlet object Web Container always calls destroy method, to perform clean-up activities. But
- It is possible to call destroy() explicitly from init() & service()
In this case it will be executed just like a normal method call and Servlet Object won't be destroyed.

Case(3) :-

- If we are calling finalize() explicitly & while executing that finalize(), if any exception raised & uncaught, then the program will be terminated abnormally.
- If G.C calls finalize() & while executing that finalize(), if any exception raised is uncaught no corresponding catch block then Jvm simply ignores that uncaught exception & rest of the program will be executed normally.

Q:- class Test

```
    p.s.v.m (String [] args)
    {
        Test t = new Test();
        t.finalize(); → Line①
        t = null;
        System.gc();
        S.o.pln("end of main");
    }
```

```

public void finalize()
{
    System.out.println("finalize method called");
    System.out.println(100);
}
  
```

→ If we are not Comment Line①, then we are Calling the finalize()

Explicitly and the program will be terminated abnormally.

→ If we are Commenting Line①, then G.C calls finalize() & the raised

A.E is ignored by JVM. Hence in this Case the o/p is

Op! end of main!

finalize method Called.

Q) Which of the following Statement is True?

X) While executing finalize() all exceptions are ignored by JVM.

Q) While " " only uncaught exceptions ignored by JVM.
no caught block

Conclusion:

→ on any object G.C calls finalize() only once.

Note:

→ The Behaviour of G.C is vendor dependent & hence we can't expect
Explicitly because of this, we can't answer]

Ex Class finalizeDemo

Static finalizeDemo s;

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

finalizeDemo f = new finalizeDemo();

s.o.println(f.hashCode());

f=null;

System.gc();

Thread.sleep(5000);

System.out.println(s.hashCode());

S=null;

System.gc();

Thread.sleep(5000);

s.o.println("End of main method");

}

Public void finalize()

{

s.o.println("Finalize method Called");

S=this;

}

%:- 4072869

finalize method Called

4072869

End of main method.

Note:- The behaviour of the G.C is vendor dependent & hence we can't exactly because of this we can't answer the following questions

- ① When JVM runs G.C exactly.
- ② What is the Algorithm followed by G.C.?
- ③ In which order G.C destroys the Objects.
- ④ Whether G.C destroys all eligible objects or not etc.

Note:- We can't tell exact algorithm followed by G.C, but most of the cases it is mark & sweep Algorithm.

Memory leaks:-

- If an object having the reference then it is not eligible for G.C, even though we are not using that object in our program.
- Still it is not destroyed by the G.C.. Such type of object is called "Memory leaks". (i.e., Memory Leak is a useless object which is not eligible for G.C.)
- We can detect memory leaks by making useless objects for G.C explicitly & by invoking G.C programmatically.



These are monitoring tools for memory leak.

(20) Assertions (1.4 version)

- (1) Introduction
- * (2) Assert as Key-word & identifier
- (3) Types of assert statements
- (4) Various Runtime flags
- (5) Appropriate & Inappropriate use of assertions
- (6) Assertion Errors.

Assertions:

- Very Common way of debugging is using S.o.p statements. But the problem with S.o.p's is after fixing the problem Compulsory we should delete these S.o.p's otherwise these S.o.p's ^{will be} executed at Runtime and effects performance & disturbs logging.
- To resolve this problem Sun people introduced Assertions Concept in 1.4 version. Hence the main objective of assertions is to perform debugging.
- The main Advantage of assertions over Sof is after fixing the Problem it is not required to delete assert statements because assertions will be disabled automatically at runtime. based on our requirement we can enable & disable assert statements & By default assertions are disabled.
- Assertions Concept is applicable for development & test environment But not for production Environment.

Assert as a Keyword & identifier :-

g4b

→ Assert Keyword Introduced in 1.4 Version, Hence from 1.4 version onwards

We Can't use assert as identifier. But Before 1.4 we can use assert as identifier

Ex:- class Test
{
 p.s.v.m (String [] args)
 {
 int assert = 10;
 S.O.println(assert);
 }
}

✗ J) Javac Test.java

C.E:- as of release 1.4, 'assert' is a keyword, and may not be used as an identifier.

Use -Source 1.3 or lower, to use 'assert' as an identifier.

✓ J) Javac -Source 1.3 Test.java

Java Test ↴
 ↳
 10

Types of Assert Statement :-

→ There are 2 types of Assert Statement

(1) Simple Version

(2) Augmented Version

(1) Simple Version :-

→ assert(b); b → should be boolean-type

→ If b is true, then our assumption satisfied & rest of the program will be executed normally.

→ If b is false, then our assumption fails. The program will be terminated by raising runtime exception saying assertionError. So, that we can able to fix the problem.

Ex:- Class Test

{

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

}

int x = 10;

///

assert(x > 10);

///

s.o.pn(x);

}

① Javac Test.java ✓

② Java Test ✓

10

* ③ Java -ea Test ↳

R.E: Assertion Error.

(2) Augmented Version :-

2nd

→ we can augment some description by using augmented version to the Assertion Error.

assert(b) : d;
↓
Should be boolean type
any description, Can be any type but recommended to use String type.

Ex:- class Test

{

 public static void main(String[] args)

{

 int x=10;

 assert(x>10) : "Here x value should be >10 but it is not";

 System.out.println(x);

}

① Java Test.java ✓

② Java Test ↴
 10

③ Java -ea Test ↴

R.E: Assertion Error: Here x value should be >10 but it is not.

Conclusion(1) :-

assert(e₁) : e₂;

→ e₂ will be evaluated iff e₁ is false. i.e if e₁ is True, then e₂ won't be evaluated.

Ex:- Class Test

```

    {
        public void m(String[] args)
        {
            int x=10;
            assertEquals(x==10); //++x;
            assertEquals(x>10); ++x;
            System.out.println(x);
        }
    }
  
```

- ✓ javac Test.java ↵
- ✓ java Test ↵
10
- ✓ java -ea Test ↵
10

assert (x>10); ++x;

Javac Test.java

java Test

10

java -ea Test

R.E: AssertionError@11

Conclusion(2) :-

assert(e1) : e2 ;

→ As e2 we can take a method call also but void type method calls are not allowed.

Ex:- Class Test

```

    {
        public void m(String[] args)
        {
            int x=10;
            assertEquals(x>10); m();
            System.out.println(x);
        }
        public static int m()
        {
            return 888;
        }
    }
  
```

✓ Javac Test.java ↵

✓ java Test ↵

10

✓ java -ea Test

R.E: AssertionError@11

→ If m() return type is void, then we will get ~~Compiletime Error~~
Saying "void type not allowed here." 248

4) Various Runtime Flags:-

- ① -ea :- To enable assertions in Every non-System class
- ② -enableassertions :- It is Exactly Same as -ea
- ③ -da :- To disable assertions in Every non-System class
- ④ -disableassertions :- Same as -da
- ⑤ -esa :- To enable assertions in every System class.
- ⑥ -enableSystemassertions :- It is exactly Same as -esa.
- ⑦ -dsa :- To disable assertions in Every System class.
- ⑧ -disableSystemassertions :- It is Same as -dsa.

Ex(1):-

Java -ea -esa -da -esa -esa -ea -dsa

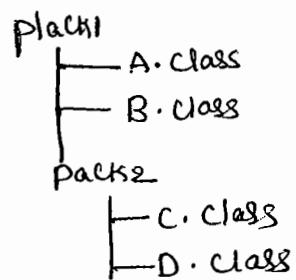
<u>NON System Class</u>	<u>System Class</u>
✓	✓
✗	✗
✓	✗

→ We Can Use These flags in together & all these flags Executed from Left to Right.

Ex(2):-

- ① Java -ea:pack1.A
- ② Java -ea:pack1.B -ea:pack1.pack2.D
- ③ java -ea -da:pack1.B

Ex:-



→ To enable assertions in only A class

① `java -ea:pack1.A`

→ To enable assertions in Both B & D classes

`java -ea:pack1.B -ea:pack1.pack2.D`

→ To enable assertions in every non-system class ~~except~~ B

`java -ea -da:pack1.B`

→ To enable assertions in every class of pack1 & its Sub packages

`java -ea:pack1...`

→ To enable assertions in everywhere ~~with~~ in pack1 Except pack2.

`java -ea:pack1... -da:pack1, pack2...`

b) Appropriate & Inappropriate use of assertions :-

i) It is always inappropriate to mix programming logic with assert statement because there is no guarantee of execution of assert statement at runtime.

Ex:-

```
withdraw(int x)
{
    if(x < 100)
    {
        throw new IAG();
    }
}
```

proper way

```
withdraw(int x)
{
    assert(x >= 100);
}
```

inappropriate.

2) In our program if there is any place where the control not allowed to reach then it is the best place to use assert statement. 249

Ex:- switch(x)

}

Case1: S.o.println("JAN");

break;

Case2: S.o.println("feb");

break;

⋮

Case12: S.o.println("Dec");

break;

default:

assert(false);

}

R-E: A-E can be displayed.

- 3) It is always Inappropriate to use assertions for validating public method assignments.
- 4) It is always Appropriate to use assertions for validating private method assignments.
- 5) It is always Inappropriate to use assertions for validating Command-Line assignments because these are assignments to public main().

6) Assertion Error:-

- It is the child class of Error & Hence it is unchecked.
- It is legal to catch Assertion Error by using try-catch but it is stupid kind of activity.

Ex:- class Test

{

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

```

Ex:- class Test
{
    p.s.v.m( String[] args)
    {
        int x=10;
        try
        {
            assert(x>10);
        }
        catch( AssertionException e )
        {
            System.out.println("I am Stupid ... b'z I am Catching
                                AssertionException");
            System.out.println(x);
        }
    }
}

```

Note!

→ It is possible to enable assertions either class wise or package wise

Exception Handling

1. Introduction
2. Runtime Stack mechanism.
3. Default Exception Handling.
4. Exception Hierarchy.
5. Customized Exception Handling by Try-Catch.
6. Control flow in Try-Catch.
7. Methods to print exception information.
8. Try with multiple Catch blocks.
9. finally.
10. difference b/w final, finally & finalize.
11. Various possible Combinations of Try-Catch-finally.
12. Control-flow in Try-Catch-finally.
13. Control-flow in Nested Try-Catch-finally.
14. Throws.
15. Throws
16. Exception Handling Keywords Summary.
17. Various possible Compile time Errors in Exception handling.
18. Customized Exception.
19. Top-10 Exceptions.

Exception :-

→ when unwanted, unexpected Event that disturbs normal flow of program is called "Exception".

Ex:- Sleeping Exception, Type mismatched Exception, File not found - Exception.

→ It is highly recommended to handle Exceptions, the main objective

of exception handling is "Gracefull termination of the program".

→ Exception handling does not mean repairing an exception, we have

to define alternative way to Continue rest of the program normally,

this is nothing but "Exception Handling".

Ex:-

If our programming requirement is to read data from the file located at London & at runtime if that file is not

available our program should not be terminated abnormally.

We have to provide a local file to Continue rest of the program

normally. This is nothing but exception handling.

SyD:- Try

↓
read data from London file

{

Catch(FileNotFoundException e)

↓

use local file and Continue rest of the program.

normally

}

Runtime Stack mechanism :-

- For Every Thread JVM will Create a RuntimeStack.
- All the method call performed by the Thread will be stored in the Stack.
- Each Entry in the Stack is called "Activation Record or Stack frame".
- After Completing Every method Call JVM deletes The Corresponding entry from the Stack.
- After Completing all method calls, Just before Terminating The Thread JVM destroys the Stack.

Ex:-

Class Test

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

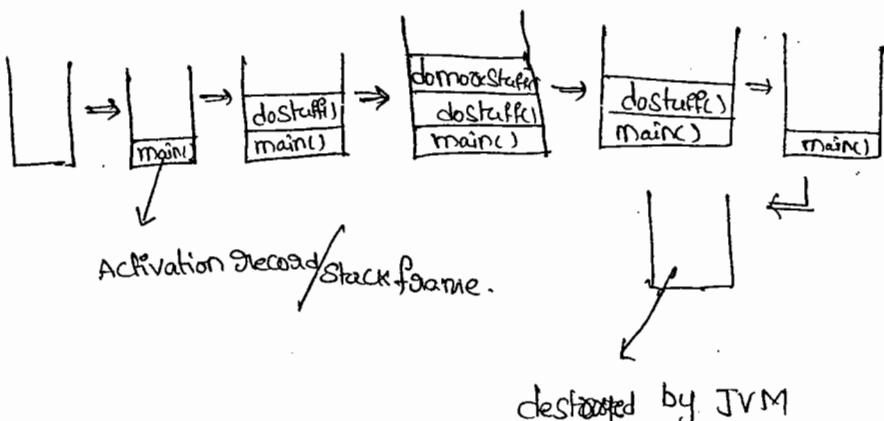
↓
dostuff();
{

P.S.V.dostuff()

↓
doMoreStuff();
{

P.S.V.domorestuff()

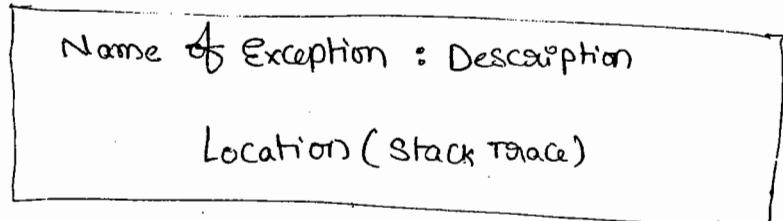
S.o.println("don't Sleep");
}



default Exception handling in Java :-

- If any exception raised, the method in which it is raised is responsible to create exception object by including the following information.
 1. Name of Exception
 2. description of Exception.
 3. location of Exception (Stack trace)
- After creating exception object, method handles that exception object to the JVM.
- JVM checks whether the method contains any exception handling code or not.
- If the method contains any exception handling code, then it will be executed and continue rest of the program normally.
- If it doesn't contain handling code, then JVM terminates that method abnormally & removes corresponding entry from the stack.
- JVM identifies the caller method & checks whether called method contains any handling code or not. If the called method doesn't contain any handling code, then JVM terminates that called method also abnormally & removes corresponding entry from the stack.
- This process will continue until `main()` & if the `main()`,^{also} doesn't contain handling code JVM terminates the `main()` also abnormally & removes corresponding entry from stack.

- Just before terminating the program abnormally JVM handovers the responsibility of Exception handling to the default Exception handler.
- Default Exception handler just print exception information to the console in the following format.



15/01/11 :-

Class Test

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

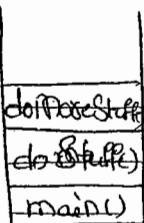
doStuff();

P.S.V.doStuff()

doMoreStuff();

P.S.V.~~doMoreStuff()~~

S.O.pn(10/0);



Runtime Stack

name of exception
description

Exception in thread "main" : java.lang.AE : / by zero

at Test.domoreStuff()

at Test.dostuff()

at Test.main()

} stack trace.

Exception hierarchy:-

→ Throwable class acts as a root for entire Java Exception hierarchy.

It has the following 2 child classes

1. Exception

2. Error

1. Exception :-

→ most of the cases Exceptions are caused by our program & these are Recoverable.

2. Error :-

→ most of the cases Errors are not caused by our program these are due to lack of system resources.

→ Errors are NON-Recoverable.

Checked vs un-checked Exceptions?

→ The Exceptions which are checked by Compiler for smooth execution of the program at Runtime are called 'checked exception'.

Ex:- HalfTicketMissing Exception,

PenNotWorking Exception,

FileNotFoundException.

→ The Exceptions which are not checked by Compiler are called 'un-checked Exceptions'.

Ex:- BombBlast Exception.

ArithmaticException, StackOverflowException.

→ Whether Exception is checked or unchecked Composability it should
Runtime only. There is no chance of occurring at Compile time.

→ Runtime Exception and its child classes

→ Errors & its child classes are unchecked Exceptions & all remaining
are Checked Exceptions

Partially checked vs fully checked :-

→ A checked Exception is said to be fully checked iff all its child classes
also checked.

Ex:- IOException

→ A checked Exception is said to be partially checked iff Some of its
child classes are unchecked.

Ex:- Exception.

Q) Which of the following are checked

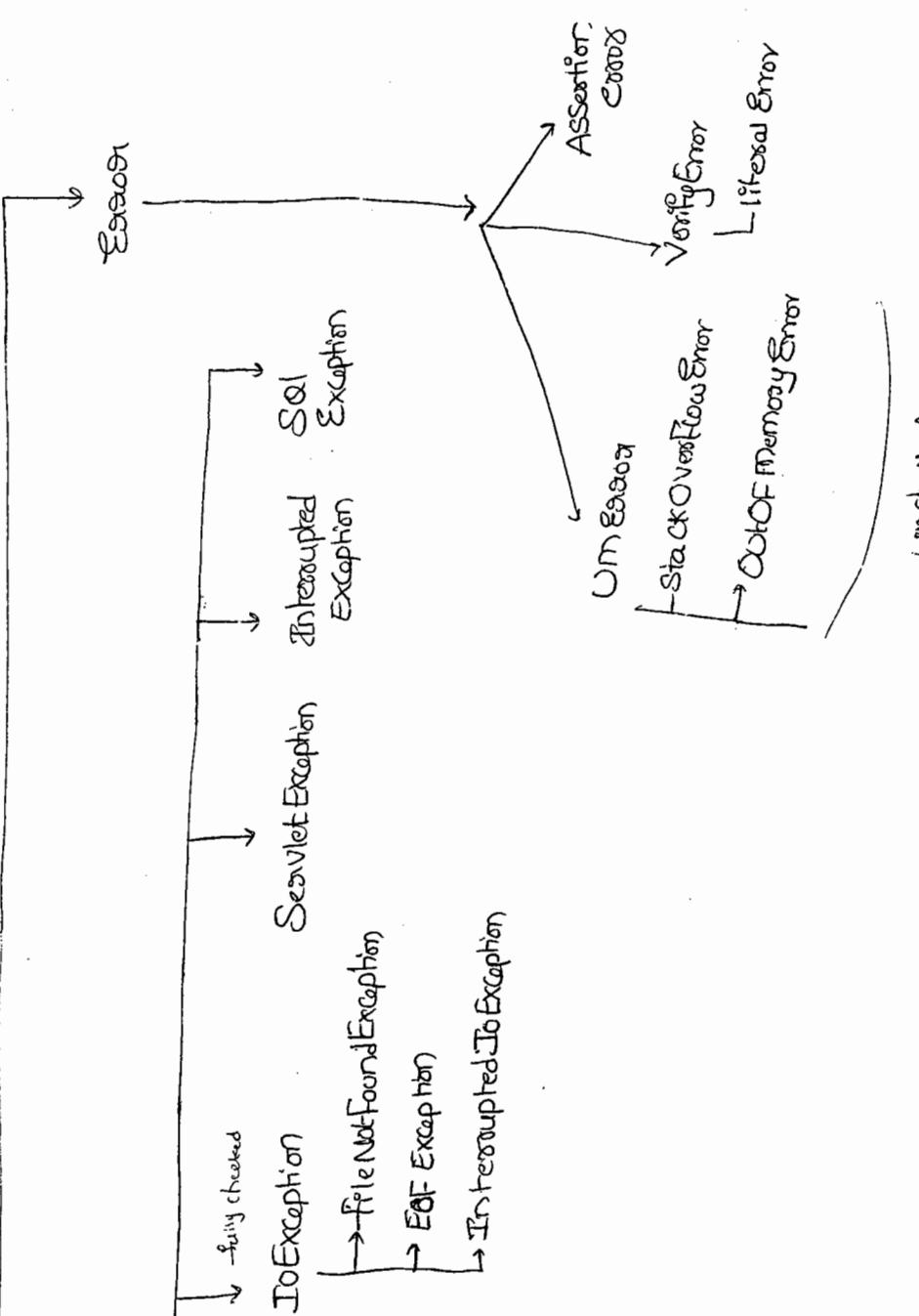
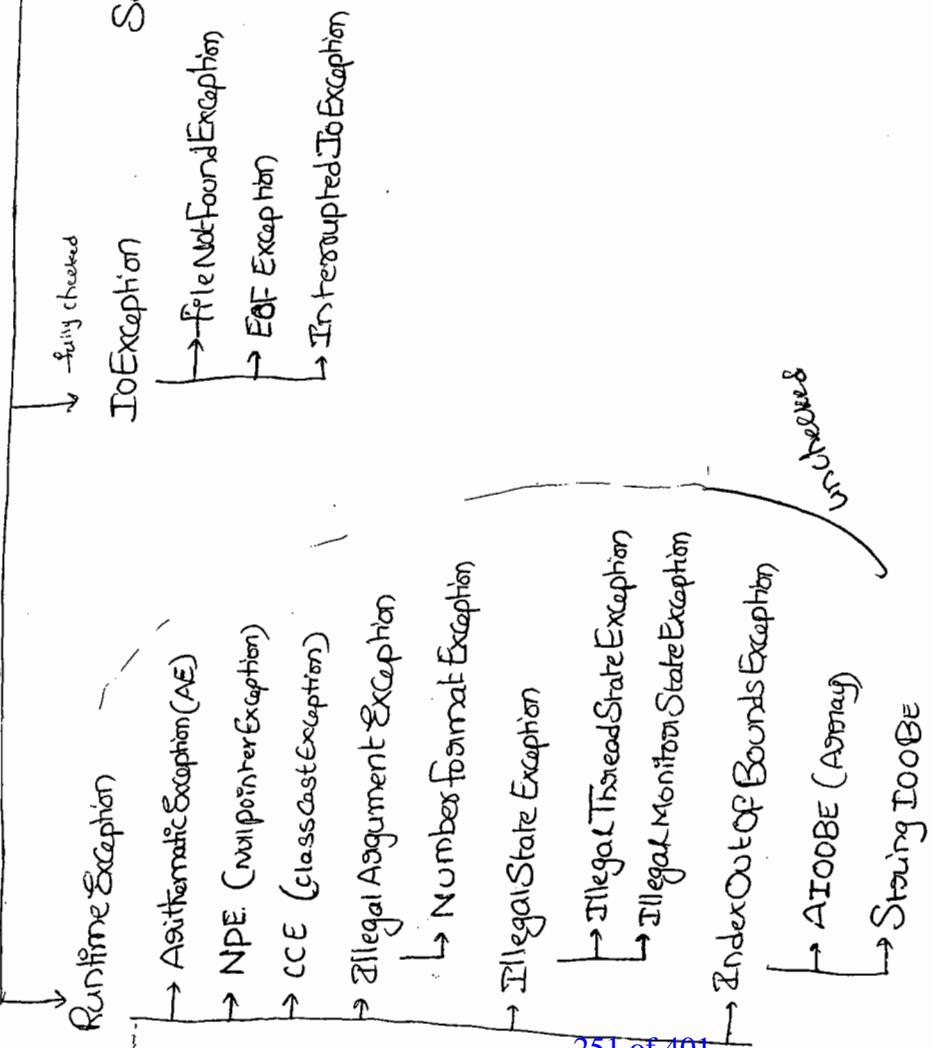
- 1) IOException : fully checked
- 2) Error : unchecked
- 3) Throwable : partially checked
- 4) NullPointerException : unchecked
- 5) InterruptedException : fully checked
- 6) SQLException : fully checked.

Note:-

→ In Java the only partially checked Exceptions are 1. Exception
2. Throwable.

Throwable

Exception (partially checked exception)



Customized Exception Handling by Try-Catch:-

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→ We can maintain risky code within the Try block & corresponding handling code inside Catch block.

```
Try
{
    Risky Code;
}
Catch (xxx e)
{
    handling code.
}
```

Class Test

```
P.S.V.M (String [] args)
{
    S.o.println("State1");
    S.o.println(10/0);
    S.o.println("State3");
}
O/P :-
State1
R.E :- A.E : 1 by zero.
Abnormal termination
```

Class Test

```
P.S.V.M (String [] args)
{
    S.o.println("State1");
    Try
    {
        S.o.println(10/0);
    }
    Catch (AE e)
    {
        S.o.println(10/2);
    }
    S.o.println("State3");
}
O/P :-
State1
5
State3
Normal termination
```

Control flow in Try-Catch :-

```
try
{
    State1;
    State2;
    State3;
}
Catch(*** e)
{
    State4;
}
State5;
```

Case 1:-

→ If There is no Exception 1, 2, 3, 5 statements are Normal termination

Case 2:-

→ If the exception raised at Statement 2 & Corresponding Catchblock matched, 1, 4, 5 are normal terminations

Case 3:-

→ If an exception raised at Statement 2 & the Corresponding Catchblock not matched, 1 followed by Abnormal Termination.

Case 4:-

→ If an exception raised at Statement 4 or Statement 5 it is always A-N-T

Abnormal
Termination

Note:-

→ Within the Try block if anywhere an exception raised then rest of the try block won't be executed even though we handled that exception. Hence, it is recommended to take only

Risky Code within the Try block. & Length of the Try block should be as less as possible.

2. If an Exception is raised at any Statement which is not part of Try
Then it is always Abnormal termination.

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Various Methods to print Exception Information :-

16/02/11

→ Throwable class defines the following methods to print Exception information.

(1) printStackTrace():

→ This method prints Exception information in the following format.

Name of Exception : description followed by
Stack trace

(2) toString():

→ It prints Exception information in the following format.

Name of Exception : description

(3) getMessage():

→ This method prints only description of the Exception.

description

Ex:-

class Test

{

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

}

 try

{

 S.o.pn(10/0);

}

 Catch(A.E e)

{

 e.printStackTrace();

}

 S.o.p(e); (or) S.o.println(e.toString()); → A.E : 1 by zero

 S.o.println(e.getMessage());

}

A.E : 1 by zero

at test.main()

A.E : 1 by zero

1 by zero.

Note:-

→ default Exception handler internally uses printStackTrace().

Try with Multiple Catch blocks :-

→ The way of handling an exception is varied from exception to exception
hence for every exception it is recommended to take, separate
catch block.

Ex:-

try

{

}

Catch(exception e)

{

}



(but not recommended.)

Ex(8):-

```
try
{
    ==
    ==
}
```

Catch(A&E e)

{
 Perform these Arithmetic operations;
}

Catch(FileNotFoundException e)

{
 Use local file;
}

Catch(NPE e)

{
 Use Another resource
}

Catch(Exception e)

{
 default Exception handles;
}

Highly recommended

- Hence Try with multiple Catch blocks is possible & highly recommended to use.
- If Try with multiple Catch blocks present then order of Catch blocks is very important and it should be from child to parent.
- If we are taking from parent to child then we will get Compile time error saying, "Exception xxxx has already been caught"

Child-to parent is follows

```

try
{
    ...
}
X
Catch(Exception e)
{
    ...
}
Catch(A·E e)
{
    ...
}
}

```

```

try
{
    ...
}
Catch(A·E e) ✓
{
    ...
}
Catch(Exception e)
{
    ...
}

```

C·E :- Exception java.lang.A·E has already been Caught

finally Block :-

- It is never recommended to define Clean-up code with in the ^{Try} block because there is no guarantee for the execution of every statement.
- It is never recommended to define Clean-up code with in the Catch-block, because it won't be executed if there is no exception.
- We required a place to maintain clean-up code which should be executed always irrespective of whether exception raised or not raised & whether handle or not handle, such type of place is nothing but finally-block.
- Hence, the main purpose of finally-block is to maintain clean-up code which should be executed always.

```

Ex:- try
{
    risky code;
}
catch(XXX e)
{
    handling code;
}
finally
{
    clean-up code;
}

```

Ex@:-

```

class Test
{
    public void main(String [] args)
    {
        try
        {
            System.out.println("try");
        }
        catch(AE e)
        {
            System.out.println("catch");
        }
        finally
        {
            System.out.println("finally");
        }
    }
}

```

O/P:- try
finally

```

class Test
{
    public void main(String [] args)
    {
        try
        {
            System.out.println("try");
            System.out.println("10/0");
        }
        catch(AE e)
        {
            System.out.println("catch");
        }
        finally
        {
            System.out.println("finally");
        }
    }
}

```

O/P:- Try
catch
finally

```

class Test
{
    public void main(String [] args)
    {
        try
        {
            System.out.println("try");
            System.out.println("10/0");
        }
        catch(NullPointerException e)
        {
            System.out.println("catch");
        }
        finally
        {
            System.out.println("finally");
        }
    }
}

```

O/P:- try
finally
Abnormal

Return vs Finally:-

→ Finally block dominates return statement also. Hence, if there is any return statement present inside Try or Catch block, first finally will be Executed & then return Statement will be Considered.

Ex:- class Test

```
{  
    public static void main(String [] args)  
    {  
        try  
        {  
            System.out.println("try");  
            return;  
        }  
        catch(ArithException e)  
        {  
            System.out.println("catch");  
        }  
        finally  
        {  
            System.out.println("finally");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

O/P:- try

finally

* There is only one situation where the finally-block won't be Executed is, when ever JVM shutdown. i.e. when ever we are Using System.exit(0)

(*) Ex:- Class Test

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```
{  
    p.s.v.m (String [] args)  
    {  
        tag  
        {  
            System.out.println("tag");  
            System.exit(0);  
        }  
        catch (AE e)  
        {  
            System.out.println("catch");  
        }  
        finally  
        {  
            System.out.println("finally");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

O/P:- tag

* Difference b/w final, finally & finalize :-

final :-

- It is a modifier applicable for classes, methods & variables.
- If a class declared as final, then child class creation is not possible.
- If a method declared as final, then overriding of that method is not possible.
- If a variable declared as the final, then reassignment is not allowed because, it is a Constant. (changing the value)

Finally :-

→ PE is block always associated with try-catch to maintain clean-up code which should be executed always irrespective of whether exception raised or not raised & whether handled or not handled.

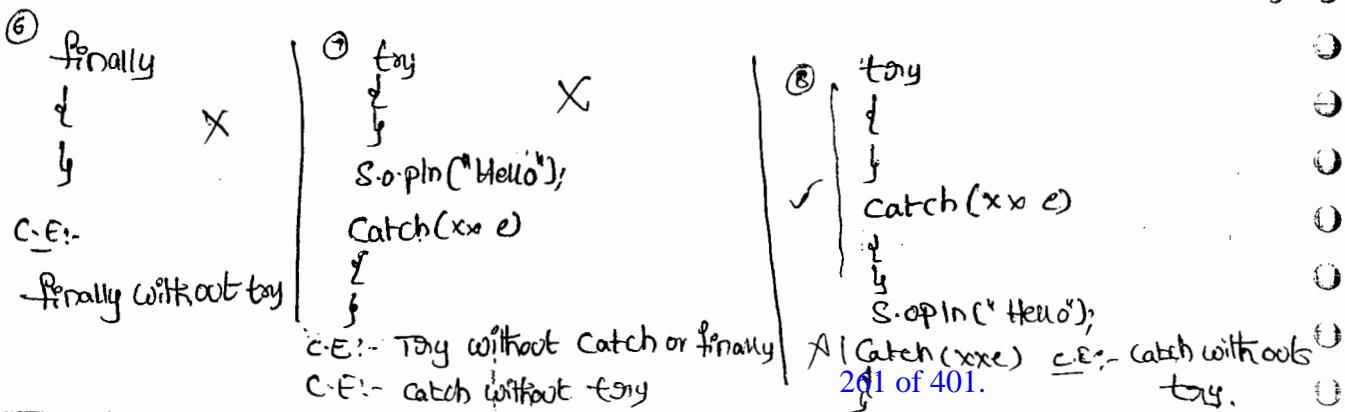
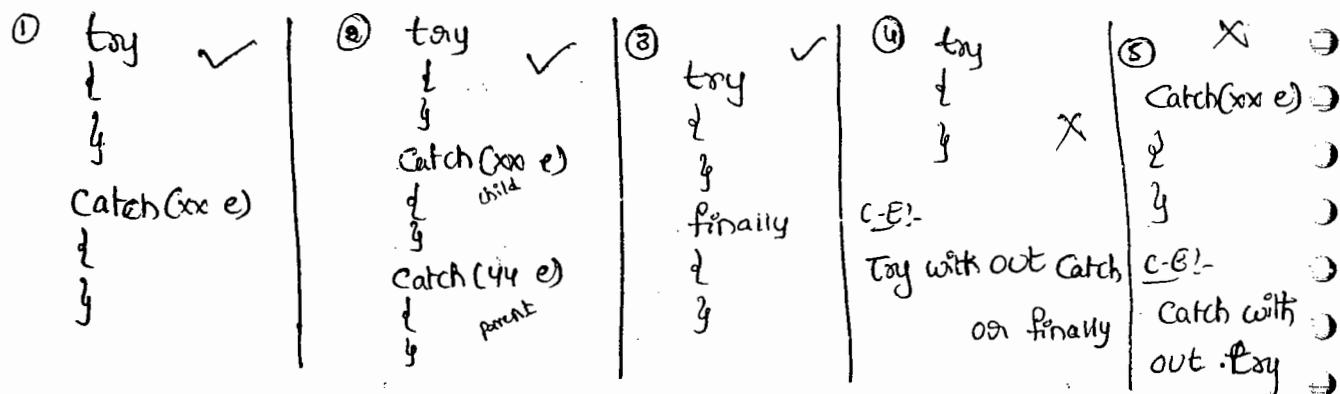
- finalize :-

→ It is a method which should be Executed by Garbage Collector before destroying any object to perform clean-up activities.

Note:-

→ When Compose with `finalize()`, it is highly recommended to use `finally` block to maintain clean-up code. Because, we can't expect exact behaviour of the Garbage Collector.

Various possible Combinations of try-catch-finally :-



```

⑨ try
  {
    {
      Catch(xx e)
    }
    System.out.println("Hello");
  } finally
  {
    {
  }
}

```

C-E! - finally without try

```

⑩ try
  {
    {
      Catch(xx e)
    }
    finally
  } finally
  {
    {
  }
}

```

C-E! - finally without try

```

⑪ try
  {
    {
      Catch(AE e)
    }
    finally
  } finally
  {
    {
  }
}

```



```

⑫ try
  {
    {
      Catch(exception e)
    }
    Catch(AE e)
  }
}

```

C-E!
Exception Java.lang.AE has
already been Caught

```

⑬ try
  {
    {
      Catch(AE e)
    }
    Catch(AE e)
  }
}

```

C-E!
Exception Java.lang.AE has
already been Caught

```

⑭ try
  {
    {
      try
        {
          Catch(yy e)
        }
    }
}

```



```

⑮ try
  {
    {
      Catch(xx e)
    }
    finally
  }
  try
  {
    {
  }
}

```

Rejected

✓

```

⑯ try
  {
    {
      try
        {
          catch(xx e)
        }
    }
}

```

C-E! - try without catch or
finally

✓

```

⑰ try
  {
    {
      finally
    }
  } Catch(x e)
}

```

C-E! - catch without try.

Control-flow in try-catch-finally :-

```
try
{
    State 1;
    State 2;
    State 3;
}
Catch (xxx e)
{
    State 4;
}
finally
{
    Statement 5;
}
Statement 6;
```

Case 1 :-

→ If there is no Exception, then 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, normal termination.

Case 2 :-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 2 & the Corresponding Catch-block matched. 1, 4, 5, 6, normal termination.

Case 3 :-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 2 & The Corresponding Catch-block not matched. 1, 5, Abnormal termination.

Case 4 :-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 4, then it is always abnormal termination but before that finally block to be Executed.

Case 5 :-

→ If an Exception raised at State5 or State6, it is always abnormal termination.

Control flow in Nested try-catch-finally :-

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try

{

State 1;

State 2;

State 3;

try

{

State 4;

State 5;

State 6;

}

Catch(xx e)

{

State 7;

}

finally

{

State 8;

}

} State 9;

Catch(yy e)

{

State 10;

}

finally

{

State 11;

}

State 12;

Case 1:-

→ If there is no Exception, Then 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, Normal termination

Case 2:-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 2 and Corresponding Catch block Matched. Then 1, 10, 11, 12, Normal termination

Case 3:-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 2 and Corresponding Catch blocks not matched. Then 1, 11, Abnormal termination.

Case 4:-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 5 & Corresponding innerCatch has matched 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, Normal termination.

Case 5:-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 5 & Corresponding innerCatch has not matched but outer Catch has matched. Then 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, Normal

Case 6:-

→ If an Exception raised at State 5 & inner & outer Catch blocks are not matched Then 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 11, Abnormal

Case 7:-

→ If an Exception raised at State 7 & Corresponding Catch blocks matched Then 1, 2, 3, ..., 8, 10, 11, 12, Normal

Case 8:-

→ If an Exception raised at Statement 7 & The Corresponding Catch not matched Then 1, 2, 3, ..., 8, 11, Abnormal

Case 9:-

- If an Exception raised at State 8 & Corresponding Catch matched
Then 1, 2, 3 ..., 10, 11, 12, Normal

Case 10:-

- If an Exception raised at State 8 & Corresponding Catch has not matched.
Then 1, 2, 3 ..., 11, Abnormal

Case 11:-

- If an Exception raised at State 9 & Corresponding Catch matched.
Then 1, 2, 3, ..., 8, 10, 11, 12, Normal

Case 12:-

- If an Exception raised at State 9 & Corresponding Catch block not matched Then 1, 2, 3, ..., 8, 11, Abnormal

Case 13:-

- If an Exception raised at State 10 it is always Abnormal termination
but before the finally-block will be executed.

Case 14:-

- If an Exception raised at State 11 or State 12 it is always Abnormal termination.

10/2/11

Throw :-

→ Sometimes we can Create Exception Object manually & hand-over that object to the JVM Explicitly by using throw keyword.

throw New ArithmeticException("1/ by zero");

To hand-over our Created
Exception object to the JVM manually.

↓
Creation of A.E object Explicitly

→ Hence, the main purpose of throw key-word is to hand-over our Created Exception object manually to the JVM.

→ The Result of following two programs is Exactly Same.

Class Test

{

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

{

S.o.pn(10/0);

}

Class Test

{

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

{

throw New ArithmeticException("1/by
zero");

}

}

→ In this Case A.E object Created internally & hand-over that object automatically by the main().

→ In this Case we Created A.E object and we hand-over it to the JVM manually by using throw-keyword.

→ In General, we can use throw keyword for customized Exceptions 263

Case 1:-

→ If we are trying to throw null reference, we will get NullPointerException

```
class Test
{
    static A.E e;
    p.s.v.m(String [] args)
    {
        throw e;
    }
}
```

R.E:- NPE

```
class Test
{
    static A.E e = new A.E();
    p.s.v.m(String [] args)
    {
        throw e;
    }
}
```

R.E:- A.E

Case 2:-

→ After throw statement we are not allowed to write any statement directly otherwise we will get ~~Compile time~~ Compiletime error saying "unreachable statement".

```
class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String [] args)
    {
        System.out.println("Hello");
        System.out.println("Hello");
    }
}
```

R.E!:- AE / by zero

```
class Test
{
    p.s.v.m(String [] args)
    {
        throw new A.E(" / by zero");
    }
}
```

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

C.E!:- unreachable Statement.

Case 3 :-

→ We can use throw keyword only for throwable type otherwise we will get Compiletime Error saying Incompatible State types.

Class Test



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



 throw new Test();



C.E :- Incompatible Types

 Found : Test

 Required : Java.lang.Throwable

Class Test extends RuntimeException



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



 throw new Test();



R.E :-

Exception in Thread

Main : Test

Throws :-

→ In our program, if there is any chance of raising Checked Exception

Compulsory we should handle it, otherwise we'll get Compiletime Error

Says "unreported Exception xxxx must be Caught or declare to be thrown".

Eg !:- class Test



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



 Thread.sleep (5000);



C.E !:- unreported Exception java.lang.IE must be caught

→ we can handle this by using the following two ways.

(1) By using Try-Catch

(2) " " throws

(1) By using Try-Catch:-

Class Test

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

{
try

{
Thread.sleep(5000);

{
Catch (I.E e)

✓

}
}

(2) By using throws keyword! -

→ we can use throws keyword to delegate the responsibility of exception handling to the ~~handler~~ caller method.

Class Test

{
p.s.v.m (String [] args) throws IE

{
Thread.sleep(5000);

✓

}
}

- Hence, the main purpose of throws keyword is to delegate responsibility of exception handling to the caller methods in the case of checked exception, to convince compiler.
- In the case of unchecked exceptions, it is not required to use throws keyword.

Eg:- class Test

```
{  
    p.s.v.m (String [] args) throws IE  
    {  
        doStuff();  
        p.s.v.doStuff() throws IE  
        {  
            doMoreStuff();  
            p.s.v.doMoreStuff() throws IE  
            {  
                Thread.sleep(5000);  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```



- In the above program, If we are removing any throws keyword, the code won't be compiled. Compulsory we should use 3 throws statements.

18/10/11

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We can use throws keyword only for Throwable types

otherwise we will get Compile-time Error Saying, incompatible types

class Test

↓

X p.v.m() throws test

↓

↓

↓

C.E! - incompatible type

found = Test

Required : java.lang.Throwable

✗

class Test extends ~~Throwable~~ Exception

↓

p.v.m() throws Test

↓

↓

↓

✓

→ Case(1) :-

class Test (checked)

```

    ↓
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    ↓
    throw new Exception();
    ↓
    ↓
  
```

C.E: unreported Exception java.lang.

Exception must be Caught at declared

to be thrown.

→ As Exception is checked Compulsory

We should handle either by Try-Catch

or by throws keyword

class Test (unchecked)

```

    ↓
    p.s.v.m(String[] args)
    ↓
    throw new Error()
    ↓
    ↓
  
```

R.E! - Exception in thread "main"

java.lang.Error.

→ As Error is unchecked, it is

not required to handle by Try-Catch or by throws

Case 2!

→ In our program, if there is no chance of raising an Exception
 Then, ~~it is~~ we can't define Catch blocks for that Exception.
 Otherwise we will get Compiletime Error, but this rule is applicable
 for only fully checked Exceptions.

Eg:

```
try
{
  System.out.println("Hello");
}
catch(AE e)
{
}
}
Hello
```

```
try
{
  System.out.println("Hello");
}
catch(Exception e)
{
}
}
Hello
```

```
try X
{
  System.out.println("Hello");
}
catch(IOException e)
{
}
}
C-E!
```

```
try X
{
  System.out.println("Hello");
}
catch(InterruptedException e)
{
}
}
C-E!
```

```
try ✓
{
  System.out.println("Hello");
}
catch(Early e)
{
}
}
Hello
```

C-E! → Exception java.lang.NoException is never thrown in body of corresponding try Statement.

Keywords for Exception:

try
 catch
 finally
 throw
 throws

Exception Handling Keywords Summary:-

- 1) try :- To maintain Risky Code.
- 2) Catch :- To maintain Handling Code.
- 3) Finally :- To maintain Clean-up Code.
- 4) throw :- To hand-over Our Created Exception Object to the JVM Manually.
- 5) throws :- To delegate The Responsibility

Various Possible Compiletime Errors in Exception Handling:-

- ① Exception xxxx has already been Caught (try with multiple Catches)
- ② Unrepeated Exception xxxx must be Caught or declared to be thrown
- ③ Exception xxxx is never thrown in body of Corresponding try Statement
- ④ try without Catch or Finally
- ⑤ finally without try
- ⑥ Catch without try
- ⑦ Unreachable Statement
- ⑧ Incomplatable types

found : Test

Required : Java.lang.Throwable.

Customized Exceptions:

→ To meet our programming requirement sometimes we have to create our own exceptions. Such types of exceptions are called "Customized Exceptions".

Eg: TooYoungException, TooOldException, InsufficientFundsException etc.

Class TooYoungException extends RuntimeException

{

TooYoungException(String s)

{

Super(s);

}

Class TooOldException extends RuntimeException

{

TooOldException(String s)

{

Super(s);

}

class Test

{

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

{

int age = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);

if (age > 60)

{

throw new TooYoungException("Plz wait some more time" || "Age is already crossed marriage age").

}

else if (age < 18)

{

throw new TooYoungException("Ur age is already crossed marriage age...
age...
275 of 401 chance of getting married").

else

↓

S.o.println("you will get match details by mark");

}

}

Note:-

→ It is highly recommended to keep our Customized Exception class as unchecked, i.e. we have to Extend Runtime Exception Class but Not Exception Class while defining our customized Exceptions.

Top-10 Exceptions :-

21-02-11

→ Based on the Source, who triggers the Exception, all Exceptions are divided into 2 types.

1. JVM Exceptions

2. programmatic Exceptions.

1. JVM Exceptions :-

→ The Exceptions which are raised automatically by the JVM when even a particular Event occurs are called JVM Exceptions.

Ex:- (i) ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

(ii) NullPointerException.

2. programmatic Exceptions :-

→ The Exceptions which are raised Explicitly either by the programmer or by the API developer are called programmatic Exception.

Ex:- IllegalAssignmentException, NumberFormatException.

① ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException :-

→ It is the child class of RuntimeException & hence it is unchecked.

→ Raised automatically by the JVM, whenever we are trying to access array element with out of range index.

Ex:- `int [] a = new int[10];`

`s.o.println(a[0]);` O ✓

`s.o.println(a[100]);` RE:- AIOOBE

② NullPointerException :-

→ It is the child class of RuntimeException and hence it is unchecked.

→ Raised automatically by the JVM, whenever we are trying to access perform any operation on null.

Ex:- `String s = null;`

`s.o.p(s.length());` RE:- NPE

③ StackOverflowError :-

→ It is the child class of Error and hence it is unchecked.

→ Raised automatically by the JVM, whenever we are trying to perform recursive method invocation.

Ex:- Class Test

↓
p.s.v.m m1()

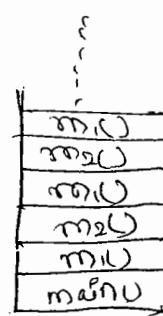
↓
m2();

↓
p.s.v.m m2()
↓ m1(); ?

p.s.v.m (String c) args)

↓
m1();

↓



R.E:- SOFE.

(4) NoClassDefFoundError :-

- It is the child class of Error and hence it is unchecked.
- Raised automatically by the JVM, whenever JVM unable to find required class.

Ex:- Java Sainu ↪

- If Sainu.class file is not available then we will get R.E Saying No Class Def Found Error.

(5) ClassCastException :-

- It is the child class of RuntimeException and hence it is unchecked.

- Raised automatically by JVM whenever we are trying to typecast parent object to the child type.

Ex:-

\checkmark	<pre>String s = new String("durga"); Object o = (Object) s;</pre>
--------------	---

String Object o = new Object(); String s = (String) o;	X
---	---

R.E! - CCE

(6) ExceptionInInitializerError :-

- It is the child class of Error and hence, it is unchecked.
- Raised automatically by the JVM, if any exception occurs while performing initialization for static variables and ^{while} executing static blocks.

Ex:-

Class Test

{

 Static int i = 10/0;

}

R.E:-

ExceptionInInitializationError

Caused by java.lang.ArithDivByZero.

Class Test

{

 Static

 String s = null;

 s = new String(s.length());

}

R.E:- ExceptionInInitializationError

Caused by java.lang.NPE

④ IllegalAssignmentException:

→ It is the child class of R.E & hence it is unchecked.

→ Raised Explicitly by the programmer or by API developer

to indicate that a method has been invoked with invalid assignment

Ex:-

Thread t = new Thread();

t.setPriority(10); ✓

t.setPriority(100); X R.E: IAE

⑤ NumberFormatException

→ It is the child class of R.E & hence it is unchecked.

→ Raised Explicitly by the programmer or by API developer

to indicate that we are trying to Convert String to number type
but the String is not properly formatted

Ex:- ✓ int i = Integer.parseInt("10");

✗ int i = Integer.parseInt("Ten"); NFE



⑨ IllegalStateException :-

→ IE is the child class of RuntimeException and hence, it is unchecked.

→ Raised Explicitly by the programmer or by the API developer to indicate that a method has been invoked at inappropriate time.

Ex:-

Once Session Expires we can't call any method on that object otherwise we will get IllegalStateException.

Ex(1):

```
| HttpSession Session = req.getSession();
| System.out.println(Session.getId()); 123456789 ✓
```

Ex(2):

```
Thread t = new Thread();
```

```
t.start(); ✓
```

```
|  
|  
| t.start(); R.E: IllegalStateException.
```

→ After Starting a thread, we are not allowed to restart the same thread, otherwise we will get R.E: IllegalStateException

10) AssertionError:

- It is the child class of Error & hence it is unchecked.
- Raised Explicitly either by the programmer or by API developer to indicate that ~~a method has~~ assert statement fails.

Ex:- `Assert(false);`

R.E:- Assertion Error.

Exception/Error	Raised by
1. AIOBE	
2. NPE	
3. SOFE	JVM automatically
4. NoClassDefFoundError	(JVM Exception)
5. ClassCastException	
6. ExceptionInInitializerError	
7. IllegalArgumentExcepton	
8. NumberFormatExcepton	Either programmer or API developer Explicitly
9. IllegalStateException	(Programmatic Exceptions)

Exception Propagation-

- The process of delegating the Responsibility Exception handling from one method to another method by using throws keyword is called Exception propagation.

Inner classes

difficult or doubtful situation.

- Sometimes we can declare a class inside another class, Such type of classes are called Innerclasses:
- Innerclasses Concept introduced in Java 1.1 version to fix GUI bugs as the part of Eventhandling.
- But Because of powerfull features & benefits of Innerclasses slowly programmers started using even in regular coding also.
- without existing one type of object if there is no chance of existing another type object, then we should go for Inner class concept.

Ex(1):-

- without existing Car object, if there is no chance of existing wheel object then we should go for Inner classes.
- we have to declare wheel class with in the Car class.

```
class Car
```

```
{
```

```
    class Wheel
```

```
{
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

- ②:- without Existing Bank object there is no chance of existing Account object, Hence we have to define account class inside Bank class.

```
class Bank
```

```
{
```

```
    class Account
```

```
{
```

(3) → A map is a collection of Key Value pairs and each Key-value pair is called Entry. without existing map object there is no chance of existing Entry object. hence interface Entry is define inside Map interface.

Interface Map

{

 interface Entry

{

}
 }

Note:-

→ The Relationship b/w Outer & Inner classes is not parent to child Relationship. It is has-A Relationship.

→ Based on the purpose & position of declaration all inner classes are divided into 4 types

- 1) Normal (or) Regular Inner classes.
- 2) Method Local Inner classes
- 3) Anonymous Inner classes (without class name)
- 4) Static Nested classes

^{with} \Rightarrow
Note:-

From Static Nested Class we can access only static members of outer Class directly. But in normal Inner classes we can access both static & non-static members of outer class directly.

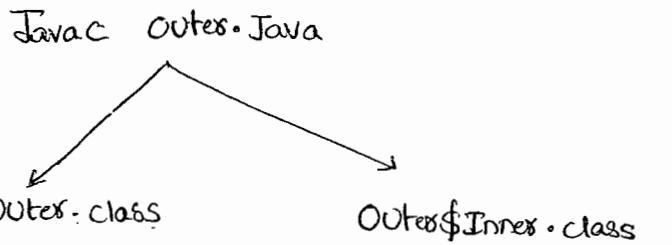
Normal or Regular Inner class :-

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→ If we declare any named class directly Inside a class without static modifier, Such type of class is called "Normal or Regular Inner Class".

Ex(1) :-

```
class Outer  
{  
    class Inner  
    {  
    }  
}
```



Java Outer ←

R.E:- NoSuchMethodError : main

Java Outer\$Inner

R.E:- NoSuchMethodError : main

Ex(2) :-

```
class Outer  
{  
    class Inner  
    {  
    }  
    public static void main(String [] args)  
    {  
        System.out.println("Outer class main method");  
    }  
}
```

%!> Javac Outer.java

Java Outer ←

%!> outer class main method.

Java Outer\$Inner ←

%!> NoSuchMethodError : main.

Ex(3) :-

→ Inside Inner classes we can't declare static members hence it is not possible to declare main method & hence we can't invoke inner class directly from command prompt.

Eg:- class Outer

{

 class Inner

 {

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

X

 s.o.p("inner class method");

 }

}

Javac Outer.java

C.E:- Inner classes can't have static declarations

Ques:-

Accessing Inner class code from static area of outer class:-

Eg:-

class Outer

{

 class Inner

 {

 p.s.v.m()

 }

 s.o.p("Inner class method");

}

}

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

{

 Outer o = new Outer();

 Outer.Inner i = o.new Inner();

 285 of 401.

```
i. m1();
}
```

Q1. Javac Outer.java ↴

java Outer ↴

Inner class method.

```
Outer o = new Outer();
Outer.Inner i = o.new Inner();
i.m1();
```

Acessing Inner class Code from Instance Area of Outer Class:-

Eg. class Outer

```
{
    class Inner
    {
        p. v. m1()
        {
            System.out.println("Inner class method");
        }
    }
}
```

```
p. v. m2()
```

```
Inner i = new Inner();
```

```
i. m1();
```

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

```
Outer o = new Outer();
```

```
} o.m2();
```

Accessing Inner class Code from Outside of Outer Class

Eg:

Class Outer

{

Class Inner

{

p.v.m1();

{

s.o.pn("Inner class method");

{

}

Class Test

{

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

{

Outer o = new Outer();

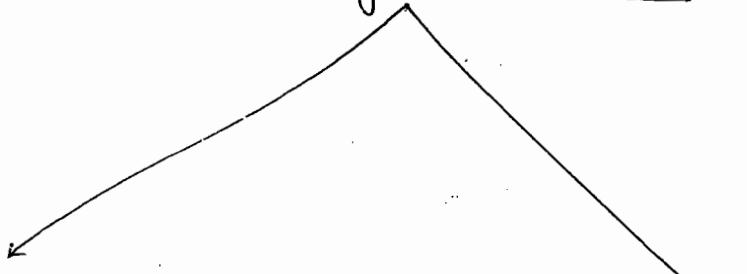
Outer.Inner i = o.New

Inner();

i.m1();

{

Accessing Inner Class Code



from static area of Outer class

(a)

from outside of Outer class

Outer o = new Outer();

Outer.Inner i = o.New Inner();

i.m1();

Inner i = new Inner();

i.m1();

Outer o = new Outer();

→ from the Inner class we can access all members of outer class
(both static & non-static) directly.

Q73

Ex:- Class Outer

 {
 static int x=10;

 int y=20;

 Class Inner

 {
 public void m1()

 System.out.println(x); 10

 System.out.println(y); 20

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

 {
 new Outer().new Inner().m1();

%P:-
 10
 20

→ Within the Inner class this always pointing to Current Inner class object.

→ To refer Current Outer class object we have to use "Outerclassname.this".

Outerclassname.this.

Ex:-

```

Ex:- class Outer
{
    int x=10;

    class Inner
    {
        int x=100;
        public void m1()
        {
            int x=1000;
            System.out.println(x); 1000
            System.out.println(this.x); 100
            System.out.println(Outer.this.x); 10
        }
        public static void main(String[] args)
        {
            NewOuter().newInner().m1();
        }
    }
}

```

→ For the Outer classes (Top-level classes) the applicable modifiers are public, <default>, final, abstract, Strictfp.

But for the Inner classes & in addition to above the following modifiers are also applicable.

<i>only for Outer classes</i>	public	private	<i>= Inner classes</i>
	default	protected	
	final	static	
	abstract		
	strictfp		

2) Method Local Inner classes :-

- Sometimes we can declare a class inside a method such type of classes are called "Method Local Inner classes".
- The main purpose of method Local Inner class is to define method Specific functionality.
- The Scope of method Local Inner class is the method in which we declared it. That is from outside of the method we can't access method Local Inner classes.
- As the Scope is very less, this type of Inner classes are most rarely used Inner classes.

Ex:

```

Class Test
{
    public void m1()
    {
        class Inner
        {
            public void sum( int x, int y)
            {
                System.out.println("Sum is :" + (x+y));
            }
        }
        Inner i = new Inner();
        i.sum(10, 20);
        i.sum(100, 200);
        i.sum(1000, 2000);
        i.sum(10000, 20000);
    }
}
  
```

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

}

 Dew Test().m1();

}

}

Q1:- Sum is 30

Sum is 300

Sum is 3000

Sum is 30000

→ We can declare Inner class either in Instance method or in Static Method.

→ If we declare Inner class inside Instance method then we can access Both static & non-static variables of outerclass directly from that Inner class.

→ If we declare Inner class inside static method then we can access Only static members of outerclass directly from that Inner class.

Ex:- class Test

{

 int x=10;

 static int y=20;

 public void m1()

 if static is there

 {

 class Inner

 {

 System.out.println(x); 10

 System.out.println(y); 20

 }

 Inner i = new Inner();

 i.m2();

Q1:-

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

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{

new Test().m1();

y

O/P:-

10, 20

* From method Local Inner Class we can't access Local variables of the method in which we declared it. But if that local variable declared as the final Then we can access.

Eg:-

class Test

{

int x=10;

public void m1()

{

int y=20;

→ if we declare final
(final int y=20;)

O/P:- x=10
y=20

class Inner

{

public void m2()

{

System.out.println(x);

System.out.println(y);

}

Inner i=new Inner();

i.m2();

O/P:-

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

{

new Test().m1();

↓

C.E:- Local variable y is
accessed from with inner
class; needs to be declared
final.

→ If we declare y as final Then we won't get any Compilation Error.

%pl-
x = 10
y = 20

24/02/11:

Q) Consider the following Code

```
class Test
{
    int x=10;
    static int y=20;
    public void m1()
    {
        int i=30;
        final int j=40;
    }
}
```

```
class Inner
{
    public void m2()
    {
    }
```

→ Line①

```
}
```

→ At line① which Variables we can access ① x ✓
 ② y ✓
 ③ i ✗
 ④ j ✓

Note:- If declare m1() as Static Then at Line① which variables we can access as y, j .

⑤ If we declare `m2()` as static, then which variable ^{we can} access Line ①

We will get C.E. because Inside Inner classes we can't have static declarations.

→ The only applicable modifiers for method Local Inner classes are final, abstract, strictfp,

(3) Anonymous Inner Class :-

→ Sometimes we can declare a class without name also. Such type of Nameless Inner classes are called Anonymous Inner classes.

→ This type of Inner classes are most commonly used type of Inner classes.

→ There are 3 types of Anonymous Inner classes.

1. Anonymous Inner class that extends a class.

2. " " " implements an interface.

3. " " " defined inside method assignments.

⑥ Anonymous Inner class that extends a class :-

Ex:- Class Popcorn

 Public void taste()

 {

 S.o.println("Salty");

 }

 // 100 more methods

 }

Class Test

{

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

 {

Popcorn p = new Popcorn

{

 Public void taste()

 {

 S.o.println("Sweetly");

 }

P.taste(); Sweetly

Popcorn p₁ = new Popcorn();

p₁.taste(); Salty.

Note:-

- ① The internal class name generated for Anonymous Inner class is "Test\$1.class".
- ② Parent class reference can be used to hold child class object but by using that reference we can call only methods available in the Parent class & we can't call child specific methods. In the anonymous inner classes also we can define new methods but we can't call these methods from outside of the class because these are we are depending on parent reference. This methods just for internal purpose only.

Analysis:-

```
popcorn p = new Popcorn();
```

→ Just we are creating an object of Popcorn class.

```
→ Popcorn p = new Popcorn()  
    {  
    };
```

→ We are creating child class for the Popcorn & for that child class we are creating an object with parent reference.

```

80. class Test
{
    p.s.v.m (String [] args)
    {
        Thread t = new Thread()
        {
            p.v.run()
            {
                for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
                {
                    System.out ("child Thread");
                }
            }
        };
        t.start();
        for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)
        {
            System.out ("main Thread");
        }
    }
}

```

→ In the above Example both main & child threads will be Executed Simultaneously & hence we can't ~~get~~ exact output.

(b) Anonymous Inner Class That Implements an Interface!

Ex:-

Class Test

{

P·S·V·m (String [] args)

{

Runnable a = new Runnable()

{

public void run()

{

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

{

S·o·pIn ("child thread");

}

};

thread t = new Thread(a);

t.start();

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

{

S·o·pIn ("main Thread");

};

→ it is an object of Runnable

(c) Anonymous Inner Class that define Inside method assignment

Eg:- Class Test

↓
Public static void main (String [] args)

↓
New Thread (new Runnable)

↓
public void run()

↓
for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)

↓

S. o. p ("child thread - i");

↓
}). start();

↓
for (int i=0 ; i<10 ; i++)

↓

S. o. p (" main thread - i");

↓

General class Vs Anonymous Inner class:-

- A General class Can Extend ONLY one Class at a time. whereas as Anonymous Innerclass also Can extend only one Class at a time.
- A General class Can implement any no. of Interfaces whereas Anonymous Innerclass Can implement only one Interface at a time.
- A General class Can Extend another Class & Can Implement an interface Simultaneously. whereas as Anonymous Inner class Can extend another or Can implement an interface but not both Simultaneously.

Static Nested classes:-

- Some times we Can declare Inner class with Static modifier. Such type of Inner classes are called "Static Nested classes".
- In the normal Inner class, Inner class object always associated with outer class object.
- i.e., without existing outer class object, There is no chance of existing Inner class object.
- But Static Nested class object is not associated with Outer class object i.e without existing outer class object There may be a chance of existing Static Nested class object.

Ex:- class Outer

{
 Static class Nested

 {
 Public void m1()

 }
 S.o.p("Static Nested class method");

28
public static void main(String[] args)

}

Outer.Nested n = new Outer.Nested();

n.m1()

}

→ Within the Static Nested Class we can declare static members including main() also. Hence it is possible to invoke Nested Class directly from Command prompt.

Ex:-

Class Outer

{

 Static class Nested

{

 Public static void main(String[] args)

{

 System.out.println("Static Nested class main method");

}

{

 Public static void main(String[] args)

{

 System.out.println("Outer class main method");

}

{

javac Outer.java ↵

Java Outer ↵

Outer class main method

Java Outer\$Nested ↵

Static Nested class main method

→ From the Normal Inner class both Static & Non-static members directly.
but from, Static Nested class we can access only static members of outer class directly.

Ex:-

```
class Outer
```

```
{
```

```
    int x=10;
```

```
    static int y=20;
```

```
    static class Nested
```

X

```
{
```

```
        p.v.m1();
```

```
{
```

```
        System.out.println(x); // → C.E :- Non-Static variable x can't be
```

```
        System.out.println(y); //
```

referenced from static class Nested Content

```
{
```

```
}
```

Q diff b/w Normal Innerclass & Static Nested Class ?

Innerclass

Static Nested class

- 1) Inner class object is always associated with Outer class object.
i.e without existing Outer class object there is no chance of existing Inner class object
- 2) Inside Normal Inner class we can't declare static members
- 3) Inside normal Inner class we can't declare main() and hence it is not possible to invoke inner class directly from command prompt

- 1) Static Nested class object is not associated with Outer class object,
i.e, without existing Outer class object there may be a chance of existing Static Nested class object.
- 2) Inside Static Nested class we can declare static members.
- 3) Inside Static Nested class we can declare main() & hence we can invoke Static Nested class directly from Command prompt

Java.lang package

g8)

→ The most commonly required classes & Interfaces which are required for writing any java program whether it is simple or complex, are encapsulated into a separate package which is nothing but lang package.

→ It is not required to import lang package explicitly because by default it is available to every java program.

→ The following are some of the commonly used classes in lang package

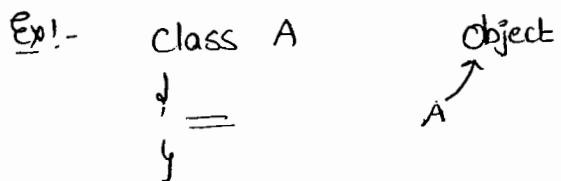
- ① Object
- ② String
- ③ StringBuilder
- ④ StringBuffer
- ⑤ Autoboxing classes (Auto boxing & Auto unboxing)

① Object :-

→ The most common methods which are required for any java object are encapsulated into a separate class which is nothing but object class.

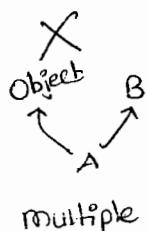
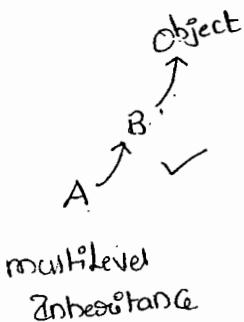
→ SUN people made this class as parent for all Java classes so that its methods are by default available to every Java class automatically.

→ Every class in java is the child class of object either directly or indirectly, if our class don't extend any other class then only our class is direct child class of object.



→ if our class extends any other class then our class is not direct Child class of Object. It extends Object class indirectly.

Ex:- Class A extends B



→ Object class defines the following 11 methods

- (1) public String toString();
 - (2) Public native int hashCode();
 - (3) public boolean equals(Object o);
 - (4) protected native Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException;
 - (5) public final Class getClass();
 - (6) protected void finalize() throws Throwable;
 - (7) public final void wait() throws InterruptedException;
 - (8) public final native void wait(long ms) throws IE;
 - (9) public final native void wait(long ms, int ns) throws IE;
 - (10) public final native void notify();
 - (11) public final native void notifyAll();
- 303 of 401.

① toString() method :-

- We can use this method to find String representation of an Object
- Whenever we are trying to print any object reference internally `toString()` method will be executed.

Ex:-

Class Student {

}

String name;

int rollno;

Student (String name, int rollno)

{

this.name = name;

this.rollno = rollno;

}

P.S.V.m (String args)

{

Student s₁ = new Student ("durga", 101); ✓

Student s₂ = new Student ("Satya", 102); ✓

s₁.println(); $\xrightarrow{\text{to}}$ s₁.toString(); Student @ 3625a5

s₂.println(); Student @ 19821f.

}

- In the above Case Object class `toString()` method got executed which is implemented as follows.

public String toString()

{

return getClass().getName() + "@" + Integer.toHexString(hashCode());

}

Student @ 3e25a5

→ If

→ Classname@hexadecimal String representation of hash code.

→ To provide our own String representation we have to override toString() in our class which is highly recommended.

→ whenever we are trying to print Student Object reference to return his name & Roll Number we have to override toString() as follows

public String toString()

{

// return Name;

// return Name + "----" + roll no;

// return "This is Student with name:" + name + ", with rollno:"
+ roll no;

}

→ In String, StringBuffer & all wrapper classes toString() method is overridden to return proper String form. Hence, it is highly recommended to override toString() method in our class also.

Ex:- Class Test

860

```
↓  
P.S.V.M  
public String toString()  
{  
    return "Test";  
}
```

```
public . S. V. M(—)
```

```
Test t = new Test();
```

```
String s = new String("durga");
```

```
Integer i = new Integer(10);
```

```
s.o.println(t); test
```

test @ a235a4

```
s.o.println(s); durga
```

```
i.o.println(i); 10
```

```
{ }
```

(ii) hashCode():

→ For every object JVM ~~will always~~ will assign one unique id.

Which is nothing but hashCode.

→ JVM uses hashCode, will saving objects into hashtable or hashSet or hashmap

→ Based on our requirement we can generate hashCode by overriding hashCode() method in our class.

→ If we are not overriding hashCode() method then Object class

`hashCode()` method will be executed which generates hashCode based on Address of the Object But whenever we are overriding `hashCode()` method Then hashCode is no longer related to Address of the Object.

→ Overriding `hashCode()` method is said to be proper iff for every object we have to generate a unique number.

Ex:- Case ①:-

Class Student

↓

==
==
==

public int hashCode()

↓

return 100;

↓

↓
↓

Case ②:-

Class Student

↓

==
==
--

public int hashCode()

↓

return *rollno;

↓

↓
↓

Case ii:- It is improper way of overriding `hashCode()` because we are generating same hashCode for every object

Case i:-

It is proper way of overriding `hashCode()` because we are generating a different hashCode for every object

toString() Vs hashCode() :-

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Eg:-

Class Test

{

int i;

Test(int i)

{

this.i = i;

}

p.s.v.m(—)

{

Test t₁ = new Test(10);

Test t₂ = new Test(100);

S.o.p(t₁); Test@1a3b2b

S.o.p(t₂); Test@2a4b2a

}

{

Object → toString()

↓

Object → hashCode()

0-15

0

1

2

3

a(10)

b(11)

c(12)

d(13)

e(14)

f(15)

$$16 \begin{array}{r} | \\ 100 \end{array} \xrightarrow{6 - 4}$$

64

10

Eg (2): Class Test

{

int i;

Test(int i)

{

this.i = i;

}

public int hashCode()

{

return i;

}

p.s.v.m(—)

{

Test t₁ = new Test(10);

Test t₂ = new Test(100);

S.o.p(t₁); Test@a

S.o.p(t₂); Test@64

{

{

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Ex 3:-

```
class Test  
{  
    int i;  
  
    Test (int i)  
    {  
        this.i = i;  
    }  
  
    public int hashCode()  
    {  
        return i;  
    }  
  
    public String toString()  
    {  
        return i + " ";  
    }  
  
    public static void main (String args)  
    {  
        Test t1 = new Test (10);  
        Test t2 = new Test (100);  
  
        System.out.println (t1);      10  
        System.out.println (t2);      100  
    }  
}
```

Test → toString()

Note:-

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- If we are giving opportunity to Object class to `toString()` method than it will call internally `hashCode()` method.
- If we are giving opportunity to our class `toString()` method than it may not call `hashCode()` method.

③ equals() method :-

- We can use `equals()` method to check equality of two objects

public boolean equals(Object o)

Ex:- Class Student

↓
String name;

int rollno;

Student (String name, int rollno)

↓
this.name = name;

this.rollno = rollno;

}

P. S. v. m (_____)

↓

Student S₁ = new Student ("durga", 101);

Student S₂ = new Student ("pavan", 102);

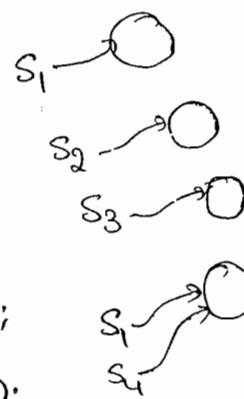
Student S₃ = new Student ("durga", 101);

Student S₄ = S₁;

S.o.println (S₁.equals(S₂)); false

S.o.println (S₁.equals(S₃)); false

↓ S.o.println (S₁.equals(S₄)); true



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→ In the above Case Object class .equals() method will be executed which is always meant for Reference Comparison (Address Comparison).

→ i.e., if two references pointing to the same object then only .equals() method returns true. This behaviour is exactly same as == operator.

→ If we want to perform Content Comparison instead of reference Comparison we have to override .equals() method in our class.

→ Whenever we are overriding .equals() method we have to consider the following things,

(1) What is the meaning of equality

(2) In the case of diff. type of objects (Heterogeneous) equals method should return false but not ClassCastException.

(3) If we are passing null assignment over .equals method should returns false but not a NullPointerException.

→ The following is the valid way of overriding equals() method in Student class.

e.g. public boolean equals(Object o)

↓
try

String name1 = this.name;

int rollno1 = this.rollno;

Student s2 = (Student)o;

Student name2 = s2.name;

int rollno2 = s2.rollno;

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```
if( name1.equals(name2) && rollno1 == rollno2)
```

```
    }
```

```
    return true;
```

```
}
```

```
else
```

```
    }
```

```
    return false;
```

```
}
```

```
Catch(CCE e)
```

```
    }
```

```
    return false;
```

```
}
```

```
Catch(NPE e)
```

```
    }
```

```
    return false;
```

```
}
```

```
Student s1 = new Student("durga", 101);
```

```
Student s2 = new Student("pavan", 102);
```

```
Student s3 = new Student("durga", 101);
```

```
Student s4 = s1;
```

```
s.o.println(s1.equals(s2));      False
```

```
s.o.println(s1.equals(s3));      True
```

```
s.o.println(s1.equals(s4));      True
```

```
s.o.println(s1.equals("durga"));      False
```

```
s.o.println(s1.equals(null));      False
```

Short way of writing equals() method :-

```
public boolean equals(Object o)
```

```
}
```

```
try
```

```
{
```

```
Student s2 = (Student)o;
```

```
if (name.equals(s2.name) && rollno == s2.rollno)
```

```
return true;
```

```
else
```

```
return false;
```

```
Catch (CCCE e)
```

```
{
```

```
return false;
```

```
}
```

```
Catch (CCCE e)
```

```
{
```

```
return false;
```

```
}
```

```
} }
```

Relationship b/w == operator & .equals() method :-

→ If $s_1 == s_2$ is True, then $s_1.equals(s_2)$ is always True.

→ If $s_1 == s_2$ is False, then we can't expect about $s_1.equals(s_2)$ Exactly.
It may returns True or False.

→ If $s_1.equals(s_2)$ returns True, we can't conclude anything about $s_1 == s_2$.
It may returns either True or False.

→ If $s_1.equals(s_2)$ is false, then $s_1 == s_2$ is always False.

differences b/w == operator & .equals() method :-

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== operator

.equals()

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">① It is an operator applicable for both primitives & object references.② In the case of object references, == operator is always meant for reference comparison. i.e., if two references pointing to the same object, then only == operator returns true.③ We can't override == operator for content comparison.④ In the case of heterogeneous type objects, == operator gets causes compiletime error saying incompatible types.⑤ For any object reference g_1, $g_1 == null$ is always false. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">① It is a method applicable only for object references but not for primitives.② By default .equals() method present in Object class is also meant for reference comparison only.③ We can override .equals() method for content comparison.④ In the case of heterogeneous objects .equals() method simply return false & we won't get any compiletime or runtime error.⑤ For any object reference g_1, $g_1.equals(null)$ is always false. |
|---|---|

Note:-

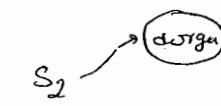
- Q) what is the difference b/w Double Equal operator (`==`) & `equals()`
- `==` Operator is always meant for Reference Comparison, whereas `equals()` method meant for Content Comparison.

Ex:-

String `s1` = new String("durga");



String `s2` = new String ("durga");



`Sopln (s1 == s2)`; false

`Sopln (s1.equals(s2))`; true

→ In String, ~~All other~~ classes `equals()` is overridden for Content Comparison.

→ In String Buffer class `equals()` is not overridden for Content Comparison hence object class `equals()` got executed which is meant for reference Comparison.

→ In wrapper class `equals()` is overridden for Content Comparison

Contract b/w `equals()` & `hashCode()`:

1. If two objects are equal by `equals()` Compulsory their `hashCodes` must be same.

2. If two objects are not equal by `equals()` then there are no restrictions on `hashCode()`, they can be same or different.

3. If `hashCodes` of 2 objects are equal, then we can't conclude above `equals()`, it may return `True` or `false`.

4. If hashcodes of 2 objects are not equals then we can always conclude .equals() returns false.

Conclusion :

→ To satisfy the above contract b/w .equals() and hashCode(), whenever we are overriding .equals() compulsary we should override hashCode().

→ If we are not overriding we won't get any compile time & run-time errors.

→ But it is not a good program practice.

Q) Consider the following .equals()

```
public boolean equals(Object obj)
{
    if (!obj instanceof Person)
        return false;
    Person p = (Person) obj;
    if (name.equals(p.name) & (age == p.age))
        return true;
    else
        return false;
}
```

Q) Which of the following hashCode() are said to be properly implemented.

X ① public int hashCode()
{
 return 100;
}

X ④ public int hashCode()
↓
return age + (int)height;
}

✓ ⑤ public int hashCode()
↓
return name.hashCode() + age;

X ⑥ public int hashCode()
↓
return (int)height;

⑦ public int hashCode()
↓
return age + Name.length();
}

Note:-

To maintain a contract b/w `equals()` and `hashCode()`, whatever the parameters we are using while overriding `equals()` we have to use the same parameters while overriding `hashCode()` also.

Clone():-

→ The process of creating exactly duplicate objects is called cloning.

→ The main objective of cloning is to maintain backup.

① We can get cloned object by using `clone()` of `Object` class.

protected native Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException

Class Test implements Cloneable

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int i = 10;

int j = 20;

P.S.V.m() throws CloneNotSupportedException

Test t₁ = new Test();

Test t₂ = (Test) t₁.clone();

t₂.i = 888;

t₂.j = 999;

S.o.println(t₁.i + " --- " + t₁.j);

}

S.o.println(t₁.hashCode() == t₂.hashCode()); // false

S.o.println(t₁ == t₂); // false.

→ We can call clone() only on Cloneable objects.

→ An object is said to be Clonable iff the corresponding class implements

Clonable interface. Clonable interface presently java.lang package &

doesn't contain any methods. It is a marker interface.

Deep cloning & shallow cloning:-

→ The process of creating just duplicate reference variable but not

duplicate object is called Shallow cloning.

→ The process of creating exactly duplicate independent objects is by

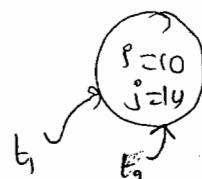
by default considered as deep cloning.

e.g:- Test t₁ = new Test();

Test t₂ = t₁; // shallow cloning

Test t₃ = (Test) t₁.clone(); // Deep cloning

shallow cloning



By default cloning means
deep cloning.

j=10
j=14
318 of 401

String class

27/05/11

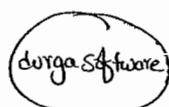
Case(1) :-

Immutable

String s = new String("durga");

s.concat("software");

s.toString(); durga



→ Once we created a String object we can't perform any changes in the existing object. If we are trying to perform any changes with those changes a new object will be created. This behaviour is nothing but "Immutability of String object".

mutable

SB s = new SB("durga");

s.append("software");

s.toString(); // durgaSoftware



→ Once we created a StringBuffer object we can perform any changes in the existing object. This behaviour is nothing but "mutability of StringBuffer object".

getClass():

This method returns run-time class definition of an object.

Eg:- Test ob = new Test();

s.println("Class Name: " + ob.getClass().getName());

Case(2) :-

ggD

String s₁ = new String("durga");

String s₂ = new String("durga");

s._o.println(s₁ == s₂); false

s._o.println(s₁.equals(s₂)); true

String^{buffer} sb₁ = new StringBuffer("durga");

SB sb₂ = new SB("durga");

s._o.println(sb₁ == sb₂); false

s._o.println(sb₁.equals(sb₂)); false

→ In String class .equals() method

is overridden for Content Comparison.

Hence .equals() method returns

true if Content is same even though

Objects are different.

→ In StringBuffer class .equals() method

is not overridden for Content

Comparison. Hence Object class

.equals() method will be executed

which is meant for Reference Comparison

due to this .equals() method returns

false even though Content is same

if Objects are different

Case(3) :-

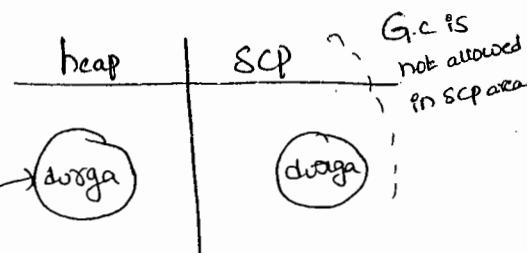
* What is the difference b/w following?

Ex)

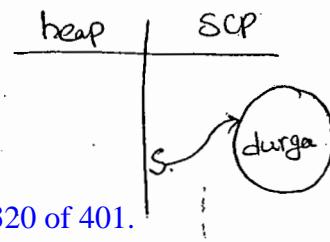
String s = new String("durga");

String s = "durga";

→ In this Case two objects will be created one is in heap, & the other is in SCP. and 's' is always pointing to heap object



→ In This Case only one object will be created in SCP and 's' is always pointing to that Object



Note:-

- ① G.C is not allowed to access in SCP area hence even though Object doesn't have any reference variable still it is not eligible for G.C. if it is present in SCP area.
- ② All Objects present on SCP will be destroyed automatically at the time of JVM shutdown.
- ③ Object Creation in SCP is always optional. First JVM will check if any object already present in SCP with required Content or not. If it is already available then it will reuse existing object instead of creating new object. If it is not already available then only a new object will be created. Hence, there is no chance of two objects with the same content in SCP. i.e., Duplicate objects are not allowed in SCP.

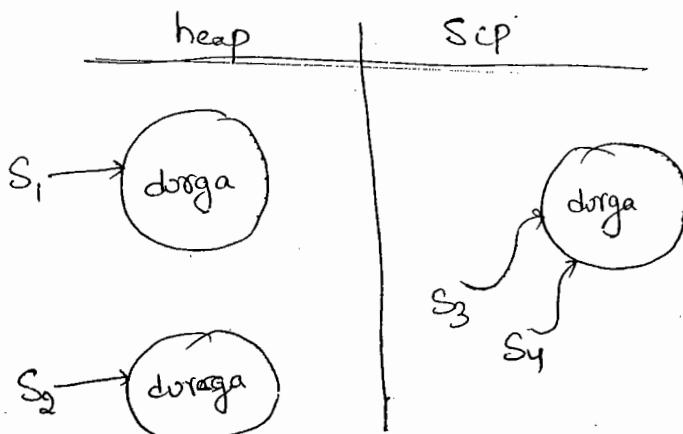
Ex @:

String s₁ = new String ("durga");

String s₂ = new String ("durga");

String s₃ = "durga";

String s₄ = "durga";



Ex(3):-

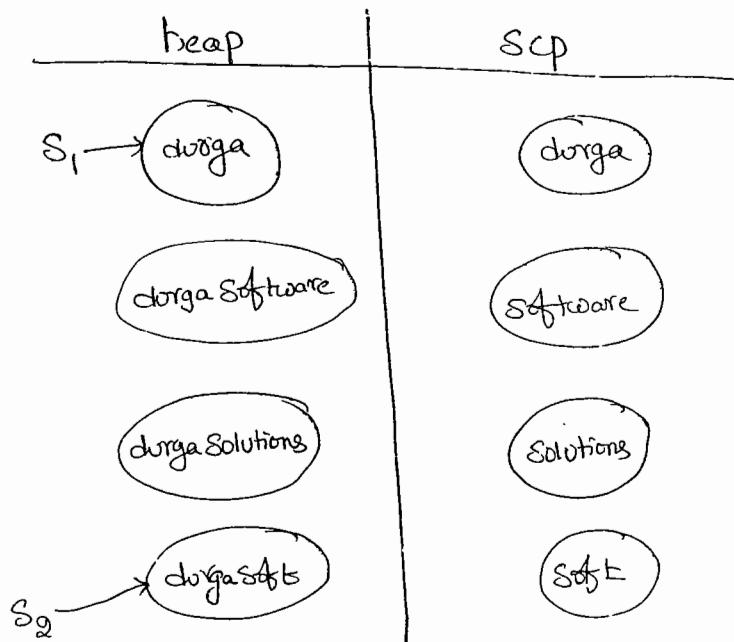
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String s₁ = new String ("durga");

s₁. concat ("software");

s₁. concat ("solutions");

String s₂ = new s₁. concat ("soft");

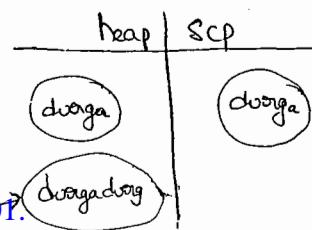


Note:-

- for every String Constant Compulsorily One object will be created in SCP area.
- Because of some Runtime operation if an object is required to created that object should be created only on heap but not in SCP

Ex(4):-

String s = "durga" + new String ("durga");



Ex3:-

String $s_1 = \text{"Spring";}$

String $s_2 = s_1 + \text{"Summer";}$

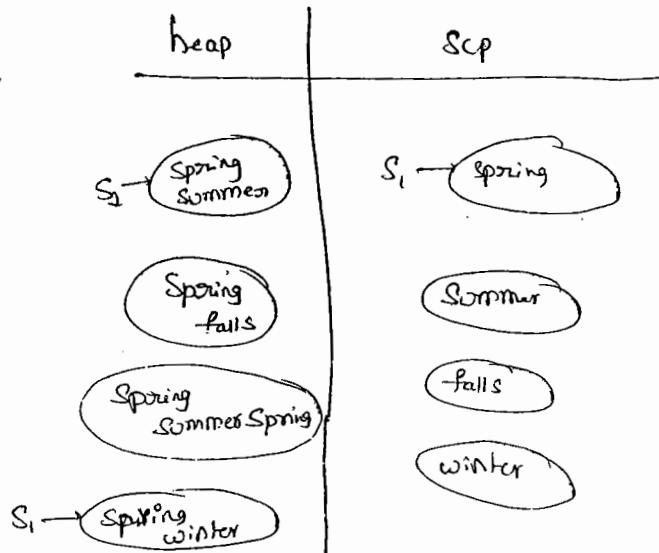
$s_1.\text{Concat}(\text{"falls");}$

$s_2.\text{Concat}(s_1);$

$s_1 += \text{"winter";}$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1);$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_2);$



Expl.- Note:-

Final String $s = \text{"Stringhu";}$, s is a Constant

String $s = \text{"Stringhu";}$ s is a normal variable.

Expl.-

String $s = \text{new String}(\text{"you can't"} \dots$

String $s_1 = \text{new String("you Cannot change me!");}$

String $s_2 = \text{new String(" you Cannot change me!");}$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_2);$ false

String $s_3 = "you cannot change me!",$

String $s_4 = " You Cannot change me!";$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_4);$ true

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_3);$ false

String $s_5 = "you Cannot" + "change me!";$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_3 == s_5);$ true

String $s_6 = "you Cannot";$

String $s_7 = s_6 + "change me!";$

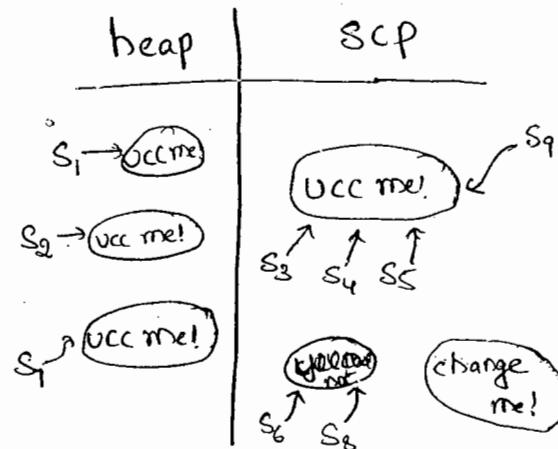
$s_0.\text{println}(s_3 == s_7);$ false

final String $s_8 = "you Cannot";$

String $s_9 = s_8 + "change me!";$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_3 == s_9);$ true

$s_0.\text{println}(s_6 == s_8);$ true



Interning of String :-

→ By using heap object reference if you want to get corresponding SCP object reference then we should go for `intern()`.

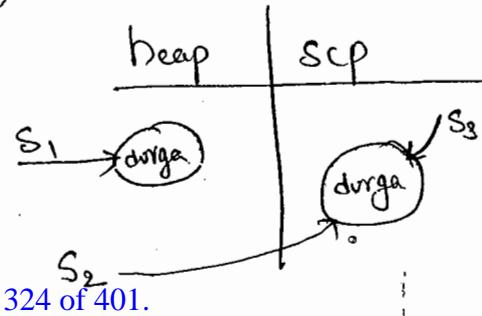
Ex:- String $s_1 = \text{new String("durga");}$

String $s_2 = s_1.\text{intern();}$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_2);$ false

String $s_3 = "durga";$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_2 == s_3);$ true

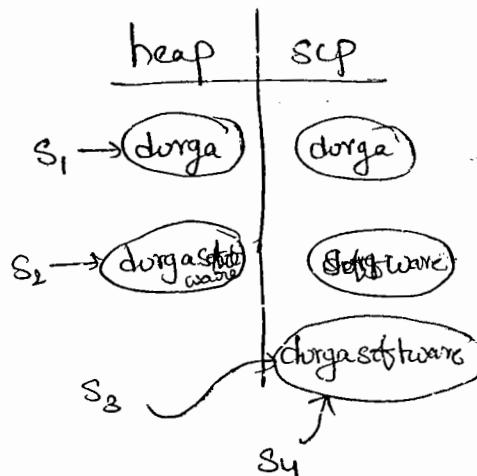


→ If the corresponding object not available in SCP, then intern()
Creates that object & returns it.

Ex:-

```

String s1 = new String("durga");
String s2 = s1.concat("software");
String s3 = s2.intern();
String s4 = "durgaSoftware";
s.o.println(s3 == s4); true
    
```



Constructors of the String class :-

- ① String s = new String();
- ② String s = new String(String Constant);
- ③ String s = new String(StringBuffer sb);
- ④ String s = new String(char[] ch);

Eg:- char[] ch = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'}

String s = new String(ch);

s.o.println(s); abcd

- ⑤ String s = new String(byte[] b)

Eg:- byte[] b = {100, 101, 102, 103};

String s = new String(b);

s.o.println(s); defg

Important methods of String class :-

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① public char charAt (int index);

Eg:- String S = "durga";

S.o.println(S.charAt[3]); g

S.o.println(S.charAt[30]); R.E:- StringIndexOutOfBoundsException.

② public String concat (String s);

Eg:- String S = "durga";

S = S.concat ("software");

// S = S + "software";

// S != "Software";

S.o.println(s); durgasoftware

→ The overloaded +, += operators also meant for Concatination Only

③ public boolean equals (Object obj) meant for Content Comparison where the Case is also important.

④ public boolean equalsIgnoreCase (String s) meant for Content Comparison where the Case is not important.

Ex:- String S = "JAVA";

S.o.println (S.equals ("Java")); false

S.o.println (S.equalsIgnoreCase ("java")); true

Note:- In General to perform Validation of User name we have to go for equalsIgnoreCase method where the Case is not important. whereas to perform password validation we use equals where the Case is important.

⑤ public String substring(int begin); returns the substring from begin index to End of the String.

⑥ public String substring(int begin, int end); returns the substring from begin index to End-1 index.

Ex:- String s = "abcdefg";

s.println(s.substring(3)); defg

s.println(s.substring(2,6)); cdef

⑦ public int length();

Eg:- String s = "aabbb";

s.println(s.length()); → C-E: Can't find symbol

✓ s.println(s.length()); s

Symbol: variable length

location: class java.lang.String

Note:-

length variable applicable for arrays whereas length() is applicable for string objects.

⑧ public String replace(char old, char new);

Eg:- String s = "aabbb";

s.println(s.replace('a', 'b')); bbbbbb

⑨ public String toLowerCase();

⑩ public String toUpperCase();

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⑩ Public String trim();

→ To remove the blank spaces present at beginning & end of the String

But not blankspaces present at middle of the String.

⑪ Public int indexOf(char ch);

→ It returns index of first occurrence of the specified character

⑫ Public int lastIndexOf(char ch);

* Importance of String Constant pool (Scp):

Voter Registration form

Name of Consistency : chpet.

Name : Srinivas

Fathername : SitaRamaiah

Age : 22

DOB :

H.NO : 9-133

Street : Rammagar

Substreet : Rammagar

City : Ganapavaram

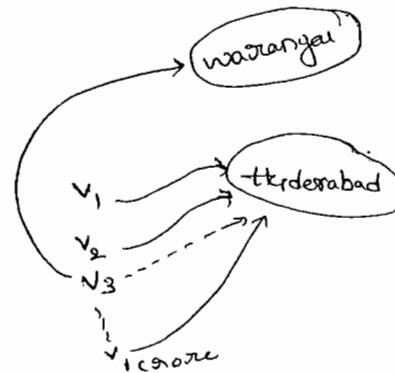
District : Guntur

State : A-p

Country : India

PIN : 522619

Identification Name : XXXXX
XXXXX



- In our program if any String object required to use repeatedly, it is not recommended to create a separate object for every requirement. This approach reduces performance & memory utilization.
- We can resolve this problem by creating only one object & share the same object with all required references.
- This approach improves memory utilization & performance. we can achieve this by using String Constant pool.
- In SCP, a single object will be shared for all required references. Hence the main advantages of SCP are memory utilization & performance will be improved.
- But the problem in this approach is, as several references pointing to the same object by using one reference, if we are perform any change all remaining references will be impacted.
- To resolve these SUN people declare String objects as immutable.
- According to that once we created a String object we can't perform any change in the existing object. If we are trying to perform any change with
So, that there is no effect on remaining references
- Hence, "The main disadvantage of SCP is we should compulsorily maintain String objects as immutable".

Q) why Scp like Concept is defined only for String object

But not for StringBuffer?

→ In any Java program, The most Commonly used Object

is String. Hence with respect to memory & performance

Special arrangement is required, for this Scp Concept is required.

→ But StringBuffer is not Commonly used Object. Hence a Special Concepts like Scp is not required.

Q) What are the Advantages of Scp?

A)

→ Instead of Creating a Separate object for every requirement we can Create only one object in Scp & we can reuse the same object for Every requirement. So that performance & memory utilization will be increased.

Q) What is the disAdvantage of Scp?

A)

→ Compulsory we should make String objects as immutable.

Q) Why String objects are immutable whereas StringBuffer Objects are mutable?

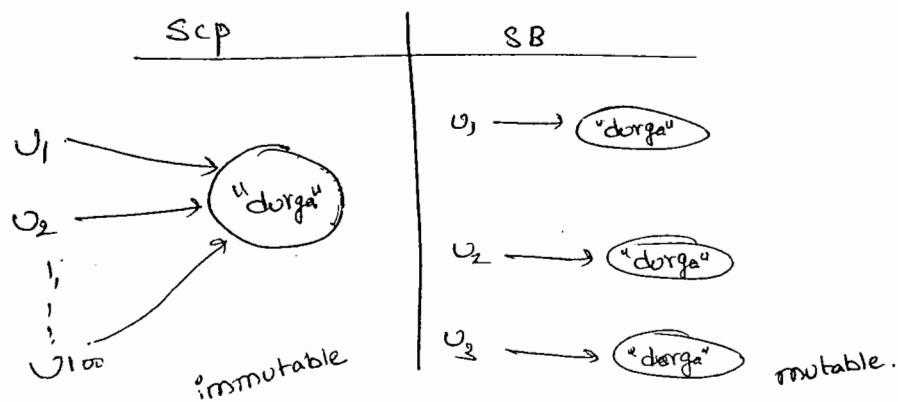
A)

→ In the Case of String Several references can Pointing to the Same object. By Using one reference, if we are performing any change in the Existing object the remaining references will be impacted. to resolve this problem SUN people declared

as String objects are immutable. According to this once we created a String object we can't perform any changes in the existing object.

If we are trying to perform any changes, with those changes a new object is created. i.e. Scp is the only reason why the String objects are immutable.

→ But in case of StringBuffer for every requirement compulsory, a separate object will be created. Reusing the same StringBuffer object, there is no chance. Is one StringBuffer object if we are performing any change there is no impact of remaining references. Hence we can perform any changes in the StringBuffer object & StringBuffer objects are mutable.



10/03/11

Q) Is it possible to Create our own immutable class?

A) Yes,

Note:

→ Once we Created a String Object we Can't perform any changes in the existing object. If we are trying to perform any change with those changes a new object will be created on the heap.

→ Because of our runtime method call if there is a change in Content then only new object will be created. 331 of 401.

→ If There is no change in Content Existing object Only will be reused.

Ex①

String $s_1 = "durga";$

String $s_2 = s_1.\text{toUpperCase}();$

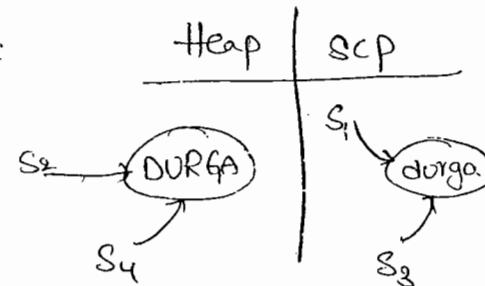
String $s_3 = s_1.\text{toLowerCase}();$

String $s_4 = s_2.\text{toUpperCase}();$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_2); \text{ false}$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_3); \text{ true}$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_2 == s_4); \text{ True}$

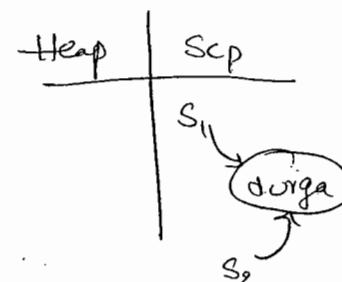


Ex②:-

String $s_1 = "durga";$

String $s_2 = s_1.\text{toString}();$

$s_0.\text{println}(s_1 == s_2); \text{ True}$



Creation of Our Own Immutable Class :-

→ We Can Create Our own immutable classes also.

→ Once we Created an object we Can't perform any change in the existing object. If we are trying perform any change with those changes a new object will be Created.

→ Because of our Runtime method Call if there is no change in the Content Then Existing object Only will be returned.

Ex:-



Q:- final class Test

}

private int i;

Test (int i)

↓

this.i = i;

}

public Test modify (int i)

↓

if (this.i == i)

return this;

return (new Test(i));

}

}

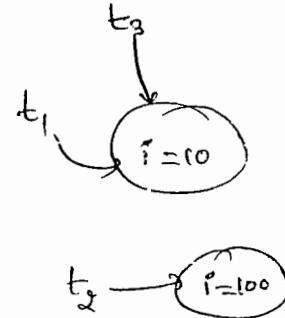
Test t₁ = new Test(0);

Test t₂ = new Test(100);

Test t₃ = new Test(0);

S.o.pn(t₁ == t₂); false.

S.o.pn(t₁ == t₃); true



Q) In Java which objects are immutable?

A)

(1) String objects ?

(2) All wrapper objects are immutable

String Buffer :-

- If the Content will change frequently then it is never recommended to go for String. Because for every change Compulsory a New object will be created.
- To handle this requirement Compulsory we should go for String Buffer where all changes will be performed in existing object only instead of creating new object.

Constructors :-

- ① StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();
- Creates an Empty StringBuffer object with default initial Capacity 16.
- Once StringBuffer reaches its max. capacity a new SB object will be created with,
- $$\text{New Capacity} = (\text{Current Capacity} + 1) * 2$$

Ex:-

```

StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();
S.o.println(sb.capacity()); // 16
sb.append("abcdefghijklmno");
S.o.println(sb.capacity()); // 16
sb.append("q");
S.o.println(sb.capacity()); // 34

```

(2) `StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer(int initialCapacity);`

→ Creates an Empty SB object with Specified InitialCapacity

(3) `StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer(String s);`

→ Creates an equivalent SB object for the given String with,

$$\text{Capacity} = 16 + \text{s.length};$$

Important Methods of StringBuffer class:

(1) `public int length();`

(2) `public int capacity();`

(3) `public char charAt(int index);`

Ex:- `StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("doggo");`

`s.o.println(sb.charAt(3)); g`

`s.o.println(sb.charAt(30)); } R.E!- StringIndexOutOfBoundsException
s.o.println(sb.charAt(5)); }`

Exception.

(4) `public void setCharAt(int index, char ch);`

→ To Replace the character Locating at Specified index with the Provided Character.

(5) `public StringBuffer append(String s)`

`append(int i)`

`append(boolean b)`

`(double d)`

`(Object o)`

overloaded methods

Ex:- StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();

sb.append("pi value is");

sb.append(3.14);

sb.append("it is exactly");

sb.append(true);

s.o.println(sb);

ans

⑥ public StringBuffer insert(int index, String s);
(int index, String s);
(" boolean b);
(" double d);

}

Ex:- StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("durga");

sb.insert(3, "ainu");

s.o.println(sb); duraainuga.

⑦ public StringBuffer delete(int begin, int end);

→ To delete the characters present at begin index to end-1 index

⑧ public StringBuffer deleteCharAt(int index);

→ To delete the character located at Specified index.

⑨ public StringBuffer reverse();

Eg:- SB sb = new SB("durga");

s.o.println(sb.reverse()); adurg

⑩ public void setLength(int Length);

⑯ public void setLength(int Length);

Eg:- StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("durga123456");
sb.setLength(8);
S.o.println(sb); durga123

⑰ public void ensureCapacity(int Capacity);

→ To ~~set~~ the Capacity based on our requirement.

Eg:- StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();

System.out.println(sb.capacity()); 16

sb.ensureCapacity(2000);

System.out.println(sb.capacity()); 2000

⑲ public void trimToSize()

→ To release extra allocated free memory. after calling this method, Length & Capacity will be equal.

Eg:- StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();

sb.ensureCapacity(2000);

sb.append("durga");

sb.trimToSize();

S.o.println(sb.capacity()); 5

StringBuilder :-

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- Every method present in StringBuffer is Synchronized, Hence at a time only one Thread is allowed to access StringBuffer object.
It Increases waiting time of The Threads & effects performance of the System.
- To resolve this problem SUN people introduced StringBuilder in 1.5 version.
- StringBuilder is exactly same as StringBuffer (including methods & Constructors) except the following differences:

(*)

StringBuffer	StringBuilder
① Every method is Synchronized.	① No method is Synchronized.
② SB object is Thread Safe. Because SB object can be accessed by only one Thread at time.	② StringBuilder is not Thread Safe Because it can be accessed by multiple threads simultaneously.
③ Relatively performance is - Low	③ Relatively performance is high.
④ Introduced in 1.0 Version	⑤ Introduced in 1.5 Version

* String Vs StringBuffer Vs StringBuilder :-

- If the Content ^{will not} only change frequently Then we should go for String
 - If Content will change frequently & ThreadSafety is required. Then we should go for StringBuilder.
 - If Content will change frequently & ThreadSafety is not required. Then we should go for StringBuffer.

Method chaining :-

- for most of the methods in String, StringBuffer & StringBuilder
The return type is same type only. Hence after applying a method
on the result we can call another method with forms method chaining

$m_1() \cdot m_2() \cdot m_3() \cdot m_4() \cdot m_5() \cdots$

- In method chaining all methods will be executed from left to right.

Ex :- `StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();`

```
Sb.append("duang").insert(2,"xyz").reverse().del  
delete(2,7).append("solution");
```

S.o.pln (sb); /agdsolutions

final vs immutable :-

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- If a reference variable declared as the final then we can't reassign that reference variable to some other object.

Ex:-

```
final StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("durga");
```

```
sb = new StringBuffer("Software");
```

Err:- Can't assign a value to final variable sb.

- Declaring a reference variable as final we won't get any immutability value, in the corresponding object we can perform any type of change even though reference variable declared as final.

Ex:-

```
final StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("durga");
```

```
sb.append("Software");
```

```
s.o.println(sb); durgasoftware
```

- Hence final variable & Immutability both concepts are different.

* Wrapper Classes :-

→ The main objectives of wrapper classes are

- (i) To wrap primitives into object form, so that we can handle primitives just like objects.
- (ii) To define several utility methods for the primitives.

Constructors of wrapper classes (o):

Creation of wrapper objects :-

→ Almost all wrapper classes contains two Constructors, one can take corresponding primitive as argument & the other can take String as argument.

Ex:- ✓ | Integer I = new Integer(10);

 | Integer I = new Integer("10");

✓ | Double D = new Double(10.5);

 | Double D = new Double("10.5");

→ If the String is not properly formatted then we will get R.E
NFE (NumberFormatException).

Ex:-

Integer I = new Integer("10E"); R.E! - NFE

→ Float class contains 3 Constructors one can take float primitive,

and the other can take String & 3rd one can take double argument.

Ex:- 1) `Float F = new Float(10.5F);` ✓

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2) `Float F = new Float("10.5F");` ✓

3) `Float F = new Float(10.5);` ✓ → double

* Character class Contains only one Constructor which can take char primitive as assignment.

Ex:- 1) `Character ch = new Character('a');` ✓

2) `Character ch = new Character("a");` ✗

* Boolean class Contains two Constructors one can take Boolean primitive as the assignment & other can take String as assignment.

→ If we are passing boolean primitive as assignment the only allowed values are true, false. by mistake if we are providing any other we will get CompiletimeError.

Ex:- ✓ `Boolean B = new Boolean(true);`

✗ `Boolean B = new Boolean(T3uel);`

→ If we are passing String assignment to the Boolean Constructor then the case is not important & Content also not important.

→ If the Content Case insensitive String ~~not case~~, otherwise it is treated as false.

Ex:- (1) `Boolean b = new Boolean("true");` ✓ true

(2) `Boolean b = new Boolean("True");` ✓ true

(3) `Boolean b = new Boolean("TRUE");` ✓ true

(4) `Boolean b = new Boolean("durga");` ✓ false

(5) `Boolean b = new Boolean("342 of 4019 &");` ✓ false

342 of 4019

Wrapper classes

Corresponding Constructor arrangement

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

Q): Which one is True & false

(1) Boolean b₁ = new Boolean("yes");

(2) Boolean b₂ = new Boolean("no");

S.o.println(b₁.equals(b₂)); → true

S.o.println(b₁ == b₂); → false

S.o.println(b₁); false

S.o.println(b₂); false.

Note :-

30P

→ In Every wrapper class `toString()` is overridden to return its Content.

→ In Every wrapper class `equals()` is overridden from Content Comparison.

Utility Methods :-

There are 4 methods

(i) `valueOf()`

(ii) `xxxValue()`

(iii) `parseXXX()`

(iv) `toString()`

⇒ (i) `valueOf()` :-

methods

→ We can use `valueOf()`, for Creating wrapper object as Alternative to Constructor.

Form :-

→ Every wrapper class Except Character Class Contains a Static `valueOf()` method for Converting for Converting String to the wrapper Object.

Public static wrapper `valueOf(String s)`

e.g. `Integer I = Integer.valueOf("10");` ✓

`Boolean b = Boolean.valueOf("true");` ✓

`Double D = Double.valueOf("10.5")` 344 of 401.

form(8) :-

→ Every Integral type wrapper class (Byte, Short, Integer, Long)

Contains the following valueOf() method → to Convert Specified Radix String form to Corresponding Wrapper object.

Public Static wrapper valueOf(String s, int radix);

Eg:-

Integer I₁ = Integer.valueOf("1010", 2);

S.o.println(I₁); 10

Q to 36

base-10: 0-9

base-11: 0-9, A

base-16: 0-9, A-F

base-17: 0-9, A-G

base-36: 0-9, A-Z

10 + 26

= 36

Integer I₂ = Integer.valueOf("1111", 2);

S.o.println(I₂); 15

form(3) :-

→ Every wrapper class including Character class Contains the following valueOf() to Convert primitive to Corresponding wrapper Object

Public static wrapper valueOf(primitive p);

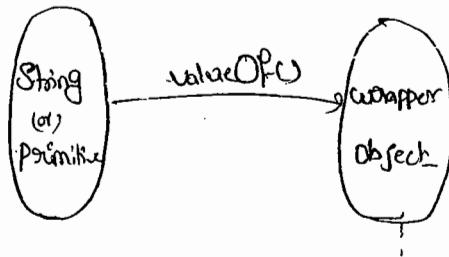
Eg:-

1) Integer I = Integer.valueOf(10); ✓

2) Character ch = Character.valueOf('a'); ✓

3) Boolean B = Boolean.valueOf(true); ✓

Note:-



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(ii) xxxValue() :-

→ We can use xxxValue() methods to convert wrapper object to primitive.

→ Every Number type wrapper class contains the following size() xxxValue() methods.

→ The Methods are

```

public byte byteValue();
public int intValue();
public short shortValue();
public long longValue();
public float floatValue();
public double doubleValue();

```

e.g.:-

(i) Double D = new Double(130.456);

S.o.println(D.byteValue()); -126

S.o.println(D.shortValue()); 130

S.o.println(D.intValue()); 130

S.o.println(D.longValue()); 130

S.o.println(D.floatValue()); 130.0

S.o.println(D.doubleValue()); 130.0

}

charValue() :-

→ Character class contains CharValue method to convert Character object to the ~~char~~ char primitive.

→ Public char charValue();

Eg:- Character ch = new Character('@');
 char ch1 = ch.charValue();
 System.out.println(ch1); '@'

booleanValue()!

→ Boolean Class Contains booleanValue() to find boolean primitive for the given boolean Object.

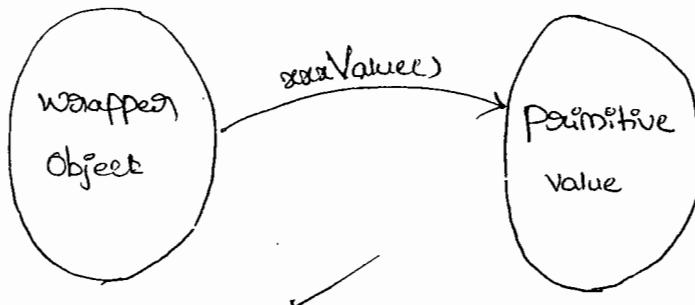
public boolean booleanValue();

Eg:- Boolean B = Boolean.valueOf("durga");
 boolean b = B.booleanValue();
 System.out.println(b); -false.

Note:-

→ Total 38 ($= 6 \times 6 + 1 + 1$) xxxValue() are available.

$$\begin{array}{r} 6 \times 6 = 36 \\ + 1 \\ + 1 \\ \hline = 38 \end{array}$$



(iii) parseXXX() :-

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→ We Can Use parseXXX() to Convert String to Corresponding Primitive.

Form :-

→ Every Wrapper Class Except Char Class Contains the following parseXXX() to Convert String to Corresponding Primitive.

Public static primitive parseXXX(String s);

Eg:-

int i = Integer.parseInt("10");

double d = Double.parseDouble("10.5");

long l = Long.parseLong("10l");

Boolean b = Boolean.parseBoolean("durga"); op. false

Form 2:-

→ Every Integral type Wrapper Class Contains the following parseXXX() to Convert Specified Radix String to Corresponding primitive.

Eg:-

Public static primitive parseXXX(String s, int radix);

Eg:-

int i = Integer.parseInt("1111", 2);

So. $\ln(i)$; 15

2 to 86.

Note:-



(iv) `toString()` :-

→ We can use `toString()` to Convert Wrapper Object or Primitive to String.

Form(1) :-

→ Every wrapper class Contains the following `toString()`, to Convert Wrapper Object to String type.

public String toString();

→ It is the Overriding Version of Object class `toString()`.

Eg:-

① Integer I = new Integer(10);
Sopn(I.toString()); 10 ✓

Form 2 :-

→ Every wrapped class Contains a Static `toString()`, to Convert Primitive to String form.

public static String toString(primitive p);

✓ String s = Integer.toString(10);

✓ String s = Boolean.toString(true);

Form(3) :-

→ Integer & Long Classes Contains `toString()` to Convert Primitive to Specified Radix String form.

public static String toString(primitive p, int radix);

Eg. String s = Integer.toString(15, 2);
s.o.p(); 1111 2 to 36

Form 4:-

→ Integer & Long classes contains the following toXXXString()

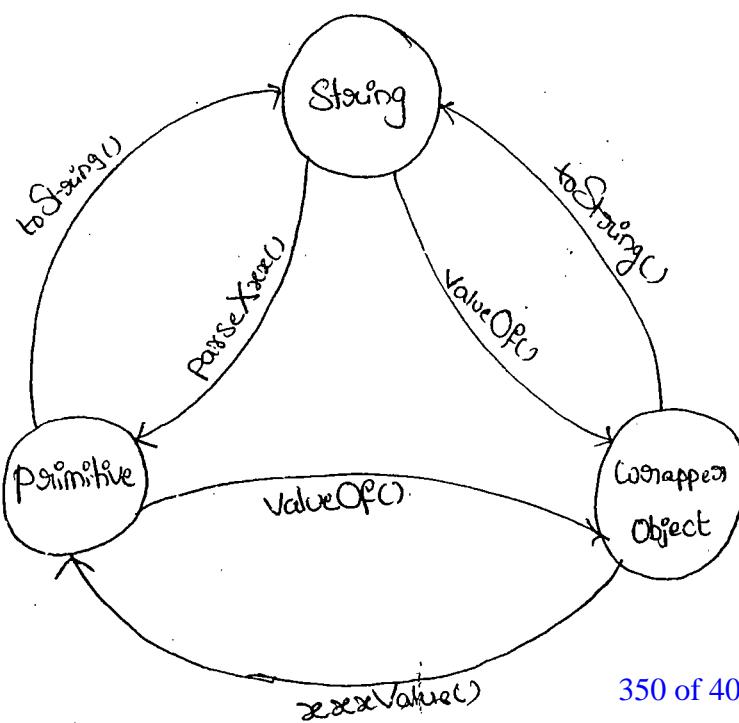
1. public static String toBinaryString(primitive p);
2. public static String toOctalString(primitive p);
3. public static String toHexString(primitive p);

Ex. String s = Integer.toHexString(123)

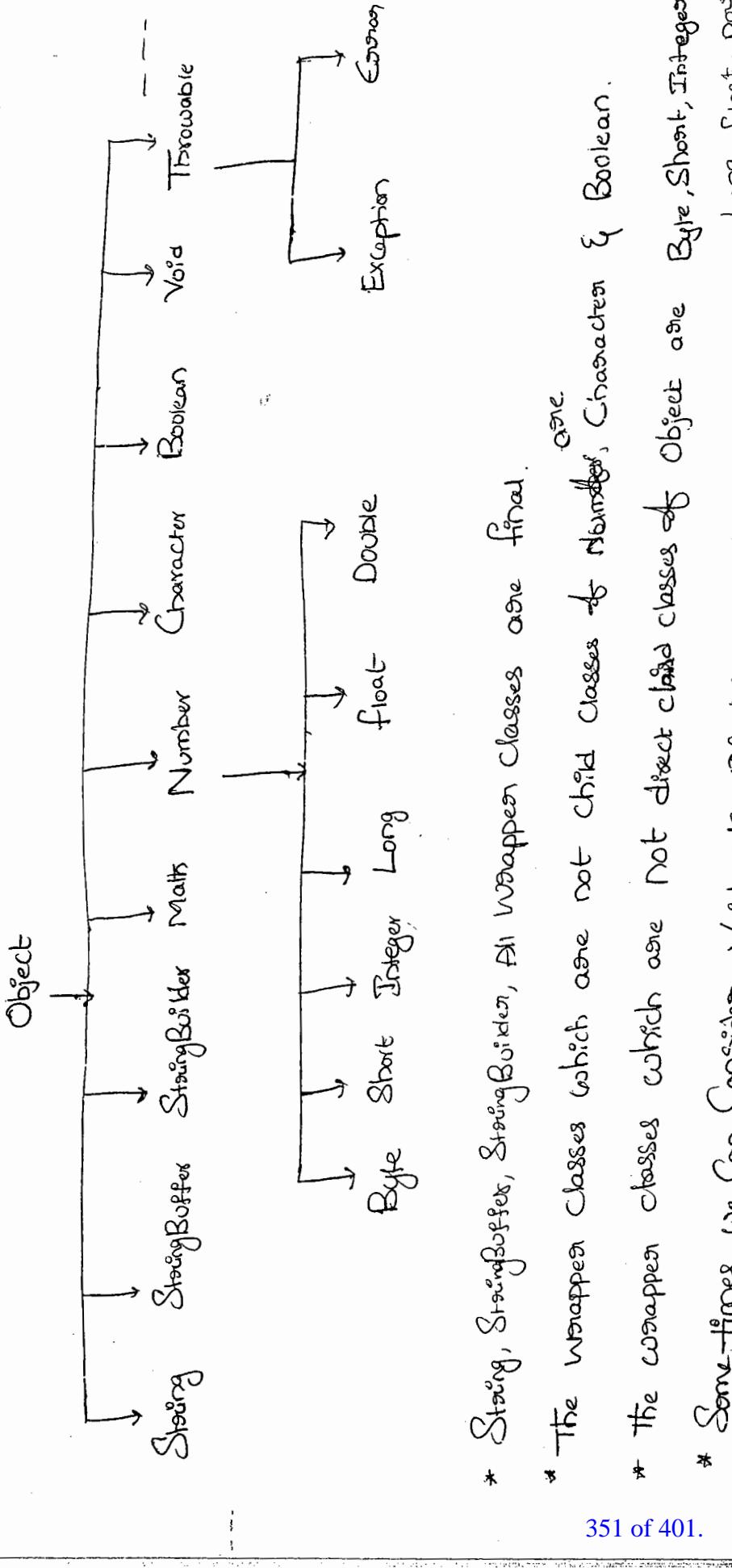
s.o.p(); "7b"

$$\begin{array}{r} 16 \longdiv{123} \\ 7 - 6 \end{array}$$

Dancing b/w String, Unwrapped Object, & Primitive Value:-



Partial hierarchy of java.lang package :-



- * String, StringBuffer, StringBuilder, All Wrapper Classes are final.
- * The wrapper classes which are not child classes to Number, Character & Boolean.
- * The wrapper classes which are not direct child classes of Object are Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, Double.
- * Sometimes we can consider Void also as wrapper Classes
- * In addition to String object all wrapper objects are Immutable.

16-3-11

Auto boxing & Auto unboxing :- (1.5v)

305

→ Until 1.4 version we can't provide primitive value in the place of wrapper objects & wrapper objects in the place of primitive. All the required conversions \Rightarrow should be performed explicitly by the programmer.

Ex:-

① ArrayList $l = \text{new ArrayList}();$
 $l.add(10); \times \underline{\text{C.E.}}$

② Integer $I = \text{new Integer}(10);$
 $I.add(I); \checkmark$

③ Boolean $B = \text{new Boolean}(\text{true});$

$\text{if}(B)$
↓
 $S.\text{println}("Hello");$ Incompatible types
 ↓
 found : Boolean
 required : boolean

boolean $b = B.\text{booleanValue}();$
 $\text{if}(b) \quad$
 ↓
 $S.\text{println}("Hello"); \checkmark$
}

→ But from 1.5 Version onwards in the place of wrapper objects we can provide primitive value & in the place of primitive value we can provide wrapper objects. All the required conversions will be performed automatically by the ^{352 of 401} compiler. These automatic

Conversions are called Autoboxing & Auto-unboxing.

Autoboxing:-

→ Automatic Conversion of primitive value to the wrapper object by Compiler is called "Autoboxing".

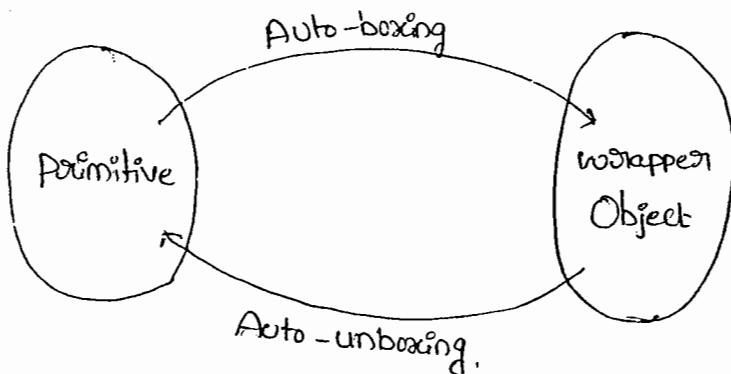
Ex:- $\text{Integer } I = 10;$ [Compiler Converts `int` to `Integer` automatically by Autoboxing]

Auto-unboxing:-

→ Automatic Conversion of wrapper object to the primitive type by Compiler is called "Auto-unboxing".

Ex:- $\text{int } i = \text{new Integer}(10);$ [Compiler Converts `Integer` to `int` automatically by Auto-unboxing]

Note:-



Ex:- $\text{Integer } I = 10;$

↳ after Compilation This Line will become

`Integer I = Integer.valueOf(10);`

i.e., Autoboxing Concept internally implemented by using `valueOf()`

Ex@:-

30b

Integer I = New Integer(10);

int i = I;

→ After Compilation this Line will become

```
    int i = I.intValue();
```

i.e., Autounboxing Concept internally implemented by using valueOf().

Exam purpose:-

Ex(1) y.

Class Test

۱۹

Static Integer I = 10; → ① A.B

P-S-V.m (String[3 args])

१

int i = 1; ⑨. A-U.B

$m_1(i)$;

→ ③

P.S.V.M. (Integer I)

1

int k = 1; → ④ A B

S.0.pln(k); 10

4

Note :-

→ Because of Autoboxing & Auto-unboxing, from 1.5 version onwards

There is no diff. b/w primitive Value & wrapper Object. we can use interchangeably.

Ex 2 :-

```

class Test
{
    static Integer I=0;
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        int i = I;
        System.out.println(i); //0
    }
}
int i = I.intValue();

```

class Test

```

class Test
{
    static Integer I;
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        int i = I;
        System.out.println(i); → R.E. - NPE
    }
}
int i = I.intValue()
↓
NULL

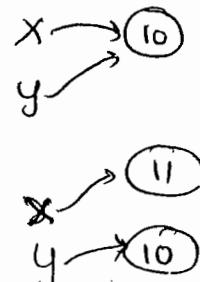
```

Ex 3 :-

```

Integer x = 10;
Integer y = x;
x++;
✓ System.out(x); 11
✓ System.out(y); 10
✓ System.out(x==y); false

```



Note :-

because if we want to change after creating an object, then that new changed object is created with the same reference name.

Ex 4 :-

① Integer X = new Integer(10);

Integer Y = new Integer(10);

System.out(x==y); false ✓

② Integer X = new Integer(10);

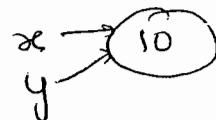
Integer Y = 10;

System.out(x==y); false ✓ 355 of 401.

③ Integer $x = 10;$

Integer $y = 10;$

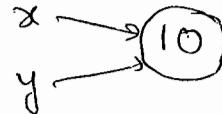
$\text{System.out.println}(x == y);$ true ✓



④ Integer $x = 100;$

Integer $y = 100;$

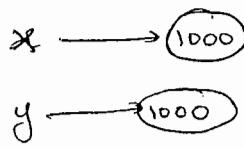
$\text{System.out.println}(x == y);$ true ✓



⑤ Integer $x = 1000;$

Integer $y = 1000;$

$\text{System.out.println}(x == y);$ false ✓



Conclusion :-

- By AutoBoxing if an Object is required to Create Compiler won't Create that object immediately. first check is any object already created
- If it is already Created - then it will reuse existing object. instead of Creating new one.
- If it is not already there, Then only a new object will be Created.
- But this rule is applicable only in the following Cases.

① Byte → Always

② Short → -128 to 127

③ Integer → -128 to 127

④ Long → -128 to 127

⑤ Character → 0 to 127

⑥ Boolean → Always

- Except the above range in all other Cases Compulsory a new Object -
356 of 401. - will be Created.

Ex:-

- ① Integer $I_1 = 127;$
 Integer $I_2 = 127;$
 $S.o.println(I_1 == I_2);$ true
- ② Integer $I_1 = 128;$
 Integer $I_2 = 128;$
 $S.o.println(I_1 == I_2);$ false
- ③ Float $f_1 = 10.0f;$
 Float $f_2 = 10.0f;$
 $S.o.println(f_1 == f_2);$ false
- ④ Boolean $b_1 = \text{true};$
 Boolean $b_2 = \text{true};$
 $S.o.println(b_1 == b_2);$ true

- ① Byte → Always
 ② Short → -128 to 127
 ③ Integer → -128 to 127
 ④ Long → -128 to 127
 ⑤ Character → 0 to 127
 ⑥ Boolean → Always

→ Overloading w.r.t - auto-boxing, widening & Var-Arg methods.

Case(1) :-

Widening Vs Auto-boxing :-

Ex :- Class Test

```

    p.s.v.m1(long l)
    {
        S.o.println("widening");
    }
    p.s.v.m2(Integer I)
    {
        S.o.println("AutoBoxing");
    }
}

```

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

{
 int x = 10;
 m1(x); **opl-widening**
}

309

→ Widening dominates Auto-boxing

Case(2):-

→ Widening Vs Var-args :-

opl- Class Test

{
 P.S.V.m1(long l);
 {
 S.O.println("widening");
 }
 P.S.V.m1(int... i);
 {
 S.O.println("Var-args");
 }

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

{
 int x = 10;
 m1(x); **opl-widening**
}

→ Widening dominates Var-args()

Case 3:-

→ Auto-boxing Vs Var-arg :-

Ex:- Class Test

```
class Test {
    public static void main(Integer I) {
        System.out.println("Autoboxing");
    }
    public static void main(int... i) {
        System.out.println("Var-arg");
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x=10;
        m(x);      op:- Autoboxing.
    }
}
```

→ In General Var-arg() will get least priority, If no other method matched then only Var-arg() will be executed.

→ While Resolving overloaded methods Compiler will always keeps the precedence in the following order.

- (i) Widening
- (ii) Auto-boxing
- (iii) Var-arg().

Case 4 :-

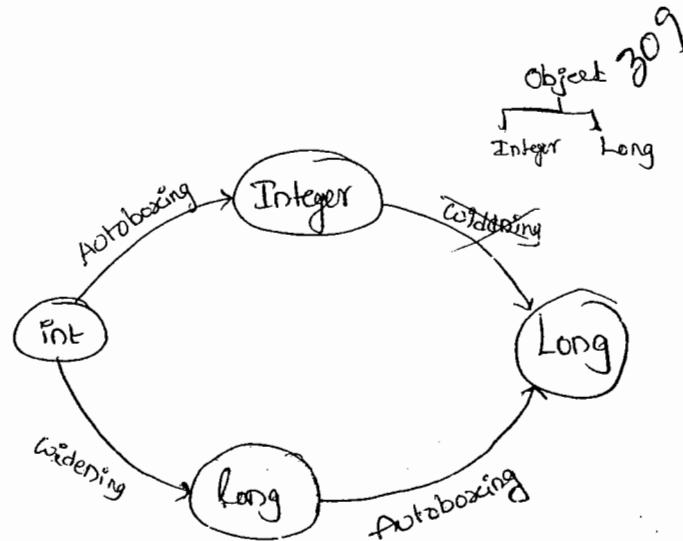
```

Class Test
{
    p.s.v.m1(Long l)
    {
        S.o.println("Long");
    }
    p.s.v.main(String[] args)
    {
        int x=10;
    }
}

```

\downarrow
 $m_1(x);$
 \downarrow
C.E:-

$m_1(\text{java.lang.Long})$ in Test Cannot be applied to (int)



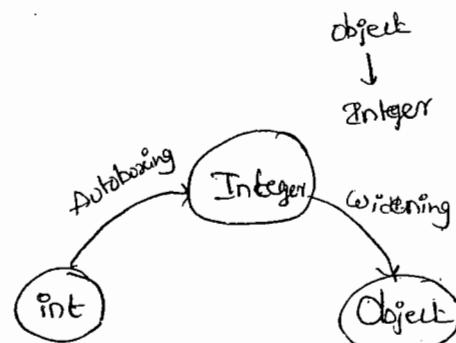
→ Widening followed by Auto-boxing is not allowed in java. whereas as
Auto-boxing followed by widening is allowed.

Ex:- Class Test

```

    p.s.void m1(Object o)
    {
        S.println("Object");
    }
    p.s.void. main(String[] args)
    {
        int x=10;
        m1(x); is Object ✓
    }
}

```



Q) Which of the following declarations are valid.

- ✓ ① long l = 10;
- ✗ ② Long l = 10;
- ✓ ③ Object o = 10;
- ✓ ④ double d = 10;
- ✗ ⑤ Double d = 10;
- ✓ ⑥ Number n = 10;

05/04/11

Java.io package

31/

File I/O :-

1. file
2. FileWriter
3. FileReader
4. BufferedReader
5. BufferedWriter
6. PrintWriter

(1) file :-

* File f = new File("abc.txt");

→ This line won't create any physical file, first it will check if there is any file named with abc.txt is available or not.

→ If it is available then f simply pointing to that file.

→ If it is not available then f represents just name of the file without creating any physical file.

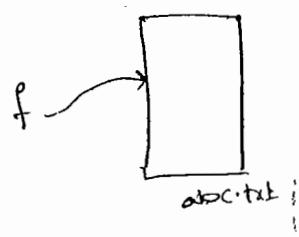
File f = new File("abc.txt");

S.o.println(f.exists()); // false

f.createNewFile();

S.o.println(f.exists()); // true.

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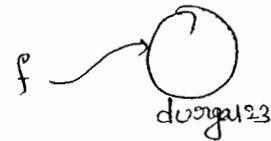
→ A Java file object can represent a directory also.

Ex:- `file f = new File("duongus3");`

`S.o.println(f.exists());` false

`f.mkdir();`

`S.o.println(f.exists());` true



Constructors:-

① `file f = new File(String name);`

→ Create a java file object to represent name of a file or directory.

② `file f = new File(String Subdir, String name);`

→ To Create a file or directory present in Some other Sub-directory.

③ `file f = new File(FileSubdir, String name);`

Ex:- Write Code to Create a file named with abc.txt in Current Working directory.

`file f = new File("abc.txt");`

`f.createNewFile();`

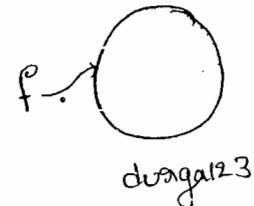
④ W.C. to Create a directory named with xyz in Current working directory.

`file f = new File("xyz");`

`f.mkdir();`

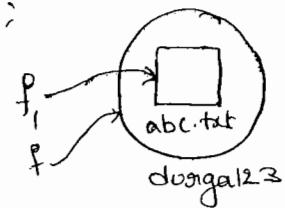
③ w.c. to Create a directory named with du9gal23 in Current Working directory. in That directory Create a file named with abc.txt.

A) `file f = new File("du9gal23");
f.mkdir();`



`file f1 = new File("du9gal23", "abc.txt");
f1.createNewFile();`

(a)



`file f1 = new File(f, "abc.txt");
f1.createNewFile();`

Important methods of File class :-

① boolean exists();

→ returns true if the physical file or directory present

② boolean CreateNewFile();

→ first this method will check whether the specified file is already available or not. If it is already available then this method will return false without creating new file. If it is not

already available then this method returns true after creating new file.

③ boolean mkdir();

④ boolean isFile();

(5) boolean isDirectory();

(6) String[] list();

→ It returns the names of all files & Sub-directories present in the Specified directory.

(7) boolean delete();

→ To delete a file or directory

(8) long length();

→ Returns the no. of characters present in the Specified - file

Ex:- W.a.p to print the names of all files & Sub-directories present in "D:\durga-classes".

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

```
Class Test
```

```
{
```

```
    p.s.v.m(String[] args) throws Exception
```

```
{
```

```
    File f = new File("D:\\durga-classes");
```

```
    String[] s = f.list();
```

```
    for (String s1 : s)
```

```
{
```

```
    System.out.println(s1);
```

```
} }
```

(9) FileWriter :-

3M

→ We can use `FileWriter` object to write character data to the file.

Constructors :-

① `filewriter fw = new FileWriter(String name);`

② `filewriter fw = new FileWriter(File f);`

→ The above 2 Constructors meant for overriding. If we want to perform append instead of overriding then we have to use the following Constructors.

③ `filewriter fw = new FileWriter(String name, boolean append);`

④ `filewriter fw = new FileWriter(File f, boolean append);`

→ If the Specified file is not already available then the above Constructors will Create that file.

Methods of FileWriter :-

① `write(int ch);`

To write a Single character to the file.

② `write(char[] ch);`

To write an array of characters to the file.

③ `write(String s);`

To write a String to the file. 368 of 401.

(4) flush():

→ to give the guarantee that last character of the data also referred to the file.

(5) close():

Ex:- demo program for the FileWriter.

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

```
class FileWriterDemo2
```

```
{
```

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

```
{
```

```
    FileWriter fw = new FileWriter("wc.txt", true);
```

→ appending

```
    fw.write('a'); // adding a single character
```

```
    fw.write("again softwareSolutions");
```

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

```
    fw.write('m'),
```

```
    fw.write(ch);
```

```
    fw.write('\n');
```

```
    fw.flush();
```

```
    fw.close();
```

```
}
```

wo → d

Op:- duaga

SoftwareSolutions

abc

(3) FileReader :-

3/5

→ We can use FileReader to Read character data from the file

Constructors:-

1. FileReader `fr = new FileReader(String name);`
2. FileReader `fr = new FileReader(File f);`

Methods of FileReader :-

(i) int read(); :-

* It attempts to read next character from the file and return its Unicode value.

* If the next character is not available, then this method returns "-1".

(ii) int read(char[] ch); :-

* It attempts to read enough characters from the file into the char array & returns the no. of characters which are copied from file to the char[].

(iii) close();

Ex:- on FileReader

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

```
class FileReadDemo
```

```
{
```

```
    P.S.V.M (String[] args) throws IOException
```

370 of 401

```
file f = new file ("wc.txt")
fileReader fr = new fileReader(f);
S.o.println(fr.read()); // Unicode of first character
char[] ch2 = new char [(int) (f.length())];
fr.read(ch2); // file data copied to array
for (char c1 : ch2)
{
    System.out.print(c1);
}
S.o.println("-----");
FileReader fr1 = new FileReader(f);
int i = fr1.read();
while (i != -1)
{
    S.o.println((char) i);
    i = fr1.read();
}
```

* Usage of FileWriter & FileReader is not recommended because :-

- 1) while writing data by fileWriter we have to insert line Separators manually which is a bigger headache to the programmer.
- 2) By using fileReader we can read data character by character which is not convenient ~~to the~~ to the programmer.
- 3) To resolve these problems SUN people introduced BufferedWriter & BufferedReader classes.

(ii) BufferedWriter :-

→ We can use BufferedWriter to write character data to the file.

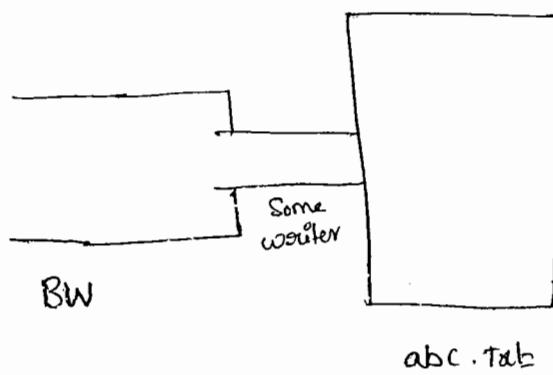
Constructors :-

→ BufferedWriter `bw = new BufferedWriter(Writer w);`

② BufferedWriter `bw = new BufferedWriter(Writer w, int bufferSize)`

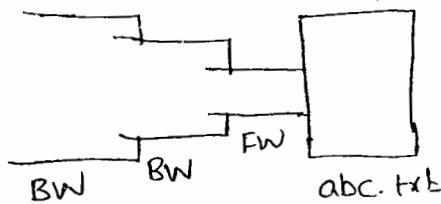
Note!

→ BufferedWriter never communicates directly with the file Compulsory it should communicate via some Writer object only.



Q) Which of the following are valid.

- ① `BufferedWriter bw = new BufferedWriter("abc.txt");`
- ② `BufferedWriter bw = new BW(new file("abc.txt"));`
- ③ `BufferedWriter bw = new BufferedWriter(new FileWriter("abc.txt"));`
- ④ `BW bw = new BW(new BW(new FW(new file("abc.txt"))));`



Important methods of BufferedWriter :-

- ① `write(int b)`
- ② `write(char[] ch)`
- ③ `write(String s)`
- ④ `flush()`
- ⑤ `close()`
- ⑥ `newLine();` :- to insert a newline character

Q:- When Compared with `FileWriter` which of the following capability is available as a separate method in `BufferedWriter`.

- ① Writing data to the file. ⑤ inserting a line separator.
- ② flushing the stream.
- ③ closing the stream.

Ex:-

```

import java.io.*;

class BufferedWriterDemo
{
    P.S.V.m (String[] args) throws IOException
    {
        File f = new File ("wc.txt");
        FileWriter fw = new FileWriter(f);
        BufferedWriter bw = new BufferedWriter(fw);
        bw.write(100);
        bw.newLine();
        char[] chs = {'a','b','c','d'};
        bw.write(chs);
        bw.newLine();
        bw.write("duaga");
        bw.newLine();
        bw.write("Software Solutions");
        bw.flush();
        bw.close();
    }
}

```

O/P:-

d
abcd
duaga
Software Solutions

wc.txt

Note:- When ever we are closing BufferedWriter automatically underlying writers will be closed

BW.close();	fw.close();	fw.close(); bw.close();
✓	X	X

(iv) BufferedReader :-

* The main advantage of BufferedReader over FileReader is we can read the data line by line instead of reading character by character. This approach improves performance of the system by reducing the no. of read operations.

Constructors :-

i) BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(Reader sr);

ii) "

• (Reader sr, int buffer size);

Note:-

* BufferedReader can't communicate directly with the file. Compulsory it should communicate via some Reader object.

Important methods :-

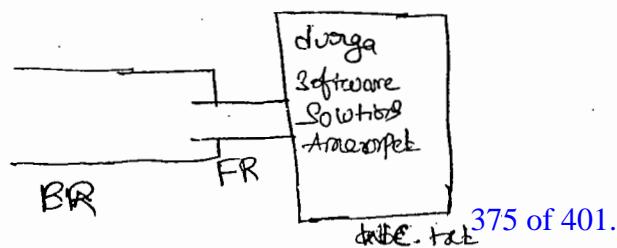
① int read();

② int read(char[] ch);

③ close();

④ String readLine();

* It attempts to find the next line & if the next line is available then it returns it, otherwise it returns null.



```

Op:- import java.io.*;
class Buffered
{
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception
    {
        FileReader fr = new FileReader("wc.txt");
        BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(fr);
        String line = br.readLine();
        while(line != null)
        {
            System.out.println(line);
            line = br.readLine();
        }
        br.close();
    }
}

```

Op:-
 durga
 Software
 Solutions
 -Amravet

Note:-

- * when ever you're closing BufferedReader underlying Readers will be closed.

* (v) PointWriter :-

- * This is the most enhanced writer to write character data to file. By using FileWriter & BufferedWriter we can write only character data but by using PointWriter we can write any primitive data types to the file.

Constructors:-

- ① PointWriter pw = new PointWriter(String name);
- ② PointWriter pw = new PointWriter(File f);
- ③ PointWriter pw = new PointWriter(Writer w);

Methods:-

① write (int ch)	Point (char ch)	pointIn (char ch)
② write (char[] ch)	point (int i)	pointIn (int i)
③ write (String s)	point (long l)	pointIn (long l)
④ flush ()	point (double d)	pointIn (double d)
⑤ close ()	point (String s)	pointIn (String s)
	point (char[] ch)	pointIn (char[] ch)
	!	!

Ex:-

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

```
Class PointWriterDemo1
```

```
{
```

```
    p. s. v. m (String[] args) throws IOException
```

```
{ }
```

FileWriter fw = new FileWriter("wc.txt");

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PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter(fw);

pw.write(100); // ~~int~~

pw.println(100); // 100

pw.println(true); // true

pw.println('c'); // c

pw.println("durga"); // durga

pw.flush();

pw.close();

O/P:-

durga
true
c
durga

wc.txt

Q1:- what is the diff. b/w the following

(a) pw.write(100);

(b) pw.print(100);

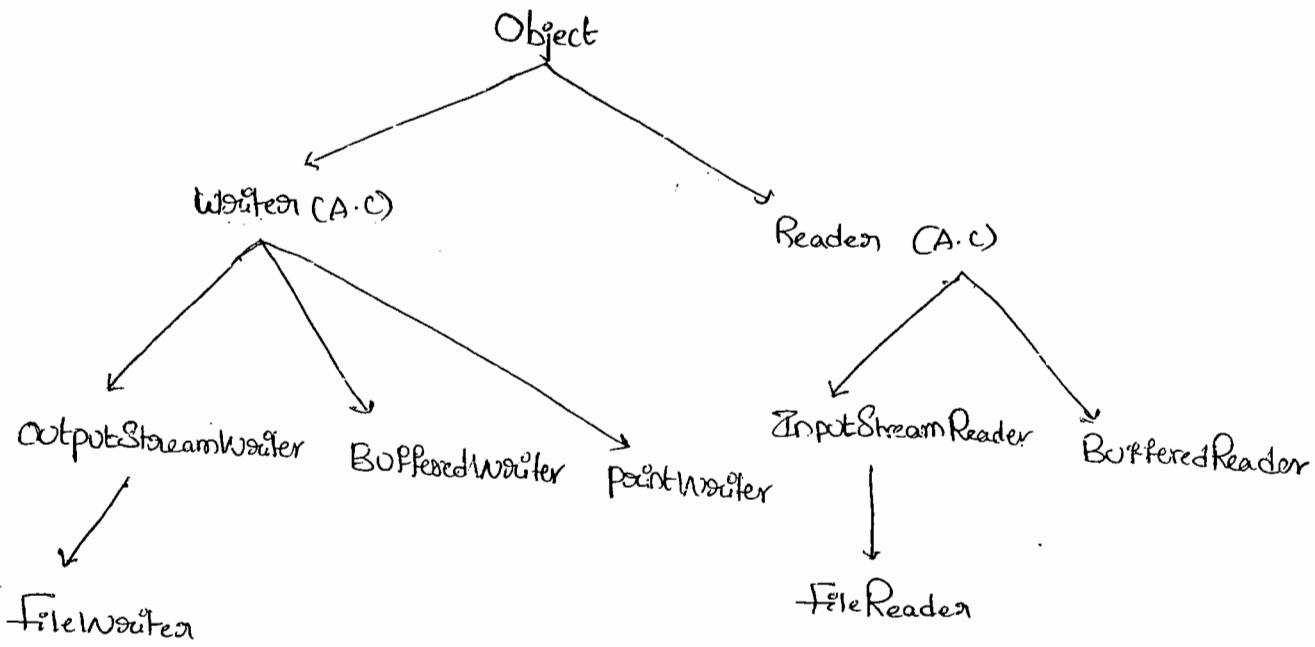
Ans:-

pw.write(100);

→ In this Case The Corresponding Character 1 will be added to the file

pw.print(100)

→ In this Case the Corresponding int value 100 directly will be added to the file



Note:-

- * Readers & writers meant for handling character data (any primitive data type) +
- * To handle Binary data (Like images, movie files, json files) we should go for Streams.
- * We can use `InputStream` to Read Binary data & `OutputStream` to write a Binary data.
- * We can use `ObjectInputStream` & `ObjectOutputStream` to read & write Objects to a file respectively (Serialization).
- * The most Enhanced writer to write character data is `PrintWriter` whereas the most Enhanced Reader to read character data is `BufferedReader`.

* W.A.P to merge data from two files into a 3rd file. 321

file3.txt = file1.txt + file2.txt

```
import java.io.*;  
class FileMerger  
{  
    p.s.v.m (String[] args) throws Exception
```

```
PointWriter pw = new PointWriter("output.txt");
```

```
BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("file1.txt"));
```

```
String line = br.readLine();
```

```
while (line != null)
```

```
{  
    pw.pointIn(line);  
    line = br.readLine();
```

```
br = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("file2.txt"));
```

```
line = br.readLine();
```

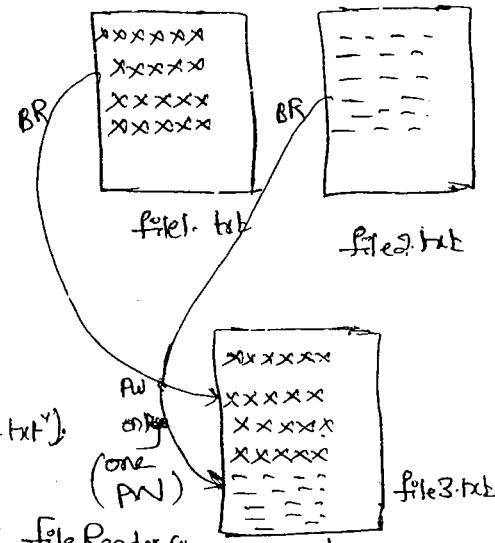
```
while (line != null)
```

```
{  
    pw.pointIn(line);  
    line = br.readLine();
```

```
pw.flush();
```

```
br.close();
```

```
pw.close();
```



Ex2:-

w-a-p to merge data from 2 files into a 3rd file but merging
Should be done line by line alternatively.

```
import java.io.*;
class fileMerger2
{
    P.S.V.m(String[] args) throws IOException
    {
        PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter("output.txt");
        BufferedReader bsr1 = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("file1.txt"));
        BufferedReader bsr2 = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("file2.txt"));
        String line1 = bsr1.readLine();
        String line2 = bsr2.readLine();
        while((line1 != null) | (line2 != null))
        {
            if(line1 != null)
            {
                pw.println(line1);
                line1 = bsr1.readLine();
            }
            if(line2 != null)
            {
                pw.println(line2);
                line2 = bsr2.readLine();
            }
        }
        pw.flush();
        pw.close();
        bsr1.close();
        bsr2.close();
    }
}
```

3. W.A.P to merge data from two files into a 3rd file but merging
Should be done para by para. assume that there is a blank line
B/w Every 2 paras?

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4. W.A.P to delete duplicates from the given i/p file?

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

```
class DuplicateEliminator
```

```
{ P.S.V.m(String[] args) throws Exception
```

```
    BufferedReader bri = new BufferedReader(new FileReader("i/p.txt"));
```

```
    PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter("o/p.txt")
```

```
    String line = bri.readLine();
```

```
    while (line != null)
```

```
        boolean available = false;
```

```
        BR bri2 = new BR(new FR("o/p.txt"));
```

```
        String target = bri2.readLine();
```

```
        while (target != null)
```

```
{}
```

```
        if (line.equals(target))
```

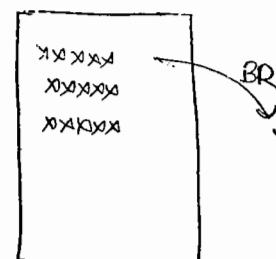
```
            available = true;
```

```
            break;
```

```
}
```

```
        target = bri2.readLine();
```

```
}
```



input.txt



output.txt

```
if(available == false)
```

```
    pw.println(line);
```

```
    pw.flush();
```

```
    line = br1.readLine();
```

```
}
```

```
pw.flush();
```

```
br1.close();
```

```
br2.close();
```

```
pw.close();
```

```
}
```

Q5 W.a.p to perform file Extraction (result.txt = total.txt - delete.txt)

```
Import java.io.*;
```

```
Class fileExtractor
```

```
{
```

```
P.S.V.m [String[] args] throws Exceptions
```

```
{
```

```
BufferedReader br1 = new BufferedReader(new FileReader  
("mobile.txt"));
```

```
PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter("output.txt");
```

```
String line = br1.readLine();
```

```
while(line != null)
```

```
{
```

```
boolean available = false;
```

```
BR br2 = new BR(new FR("delete.txt"));  
383 of 401
```

String target = bai.readLine();

while (target != null)

↓

if (line.equals(target))

↓
available = true;

break;

{

target = bai.readLine();

{

if (available == false)

{

pw.println(line);

{

line = bai.readLine();

{

pw.flush();

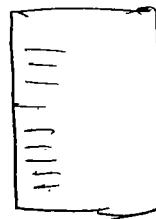
bai.close();

bai.close();

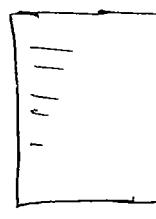
pw.close();

{

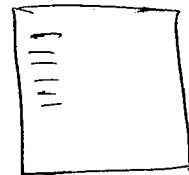
duongjobs.com



total.tab



delele.tab



result.tab

heretic = a person who holds Catholic beliefs, especially contrary to tradition
professing etc
periodic argument
opposite

324

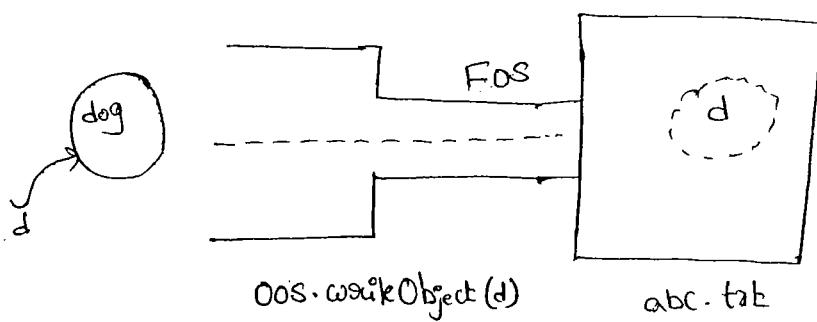
✓ 8.

Serialization

- ① Introduction
- ② Object Graphs in Serialization
- ③ Customized Serialization
- ④ Serialization w.r.t Inheritance.

Serialization :-

- The process of writing state of an object to a file is called Serialization.
- But strictly it is a process of converting an object from java Supported form to either file Supported form or network Supported form.
- By using `FileOutputStream` and `ObjectOutputStream` classes we can achieve serialization.

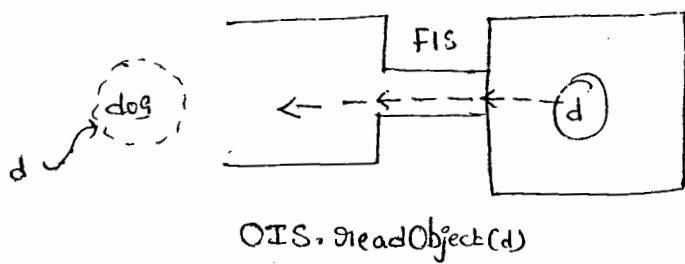


Deserialization:-

- The process of reading state of an object from a file is called Deserialization.

→ But Strictly Speaking, It is not the process of Converting an Object from either Network Supported form or fileSupported form to java Supported form.

→ By using `FileInputStream` and `ObjectInputStream` classes we can achieve De-Serialization.



Ex:-

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

```
class Dog implements Serializable
```

```
{
```

```
int i = 10;
```

```
int j = 20;
```

```
}
```

```
class SerializableDemo
```

```
{
```

```
p.s.v.m() throws Exception
```

```
{
```

```
Dog d1 = new Dog();
```

```
FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.txt");
```

```
ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);
```

```
oos.writeObject(d1);
```

Serialization

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```
FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("abc.txt");
```

```
ObjectInputStream ois = new ObjectInputStream(fis);
```

```
Dog d2 = (Dog) ois.readObject();
```

```
System.out.println(d2.i + " --- " + d2.j);
```

}

→ We can perform serialization only for Serializable objects.

→ An object is said to be Serializable iff the corresponding class implements Serializable interface.

→ Serializable interface present in java.io package

and doesn't contain any methods, it is a marker interface.

→ If we are trying to serialize a nonSerializable object we will get Run-time exception saying NotSerializableException.

Transient Keyword :-

→ At the time of serialization if we don't want to serialize the value of a particular variable to meet the security constraint we have to declare those variables with "transient" keyword.

→ At the time of serialization Jvm ignores original value of transient variable and saves default value.

transient Vs Static :-

→ Static variables are not part of object hence they won't participate in serialization process. Due to this declaring a static variable as transient there is no impact.

transient Vs final :-

→ final variables will be participated into serialization directly by their values hence declaring a final variable with transient there is no impact.

Summary :-

declaration	o/p
① int i=10 int j=20	10 ----- 20
② transient int i=10; int j=20	0 ----- 20
③ transient final int i=10; transient int j=20;	10 ----- 0
④ transient int i=10; transient & static int j=20;	0 ----- 20

Object Graph in Serialization :-

- whenever we are trying to Serialize an object the set of all objects which are reachable from that object will be Serialized automatically this group of objects is called "Object Graph".
- In Object Graph every object should be Serializable otherwise we will get "NotSerializableException".

Ex:-

```

import java.io.*;

class Dog implements Serializable
{
    Cat c = new Cat();
}

class Cat implements Serializable
{
    Rat r = new Rat();
}

class Rat implements Serializable
{
    int j = 20;
}

class SerializeDemo2
{
    P.S.V.M(String[] args) throws Exception
    {
        Dog d = new Dog();
        FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.ser");
        ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);
        oos.writeObject(d);
    }
}

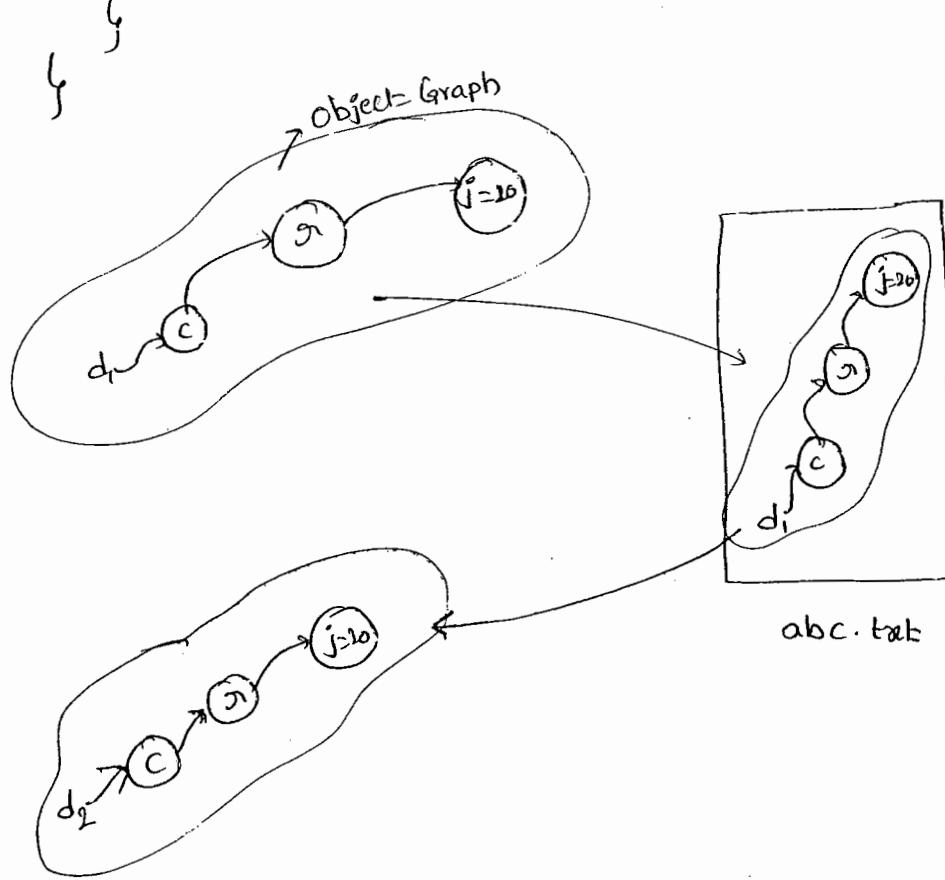
```

```
FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream ("abc.ser")
```

```
ObjectInputStream ois = new ObjectInputStream (fis);
```

```
Dog d1 = (Dog) ois.readObject();
```

```
s.o.println(d1.c.a.j); // so
```



→ In the above progr. whenever we are Serializing a Dog object

Automatically Cat & Rat objects will be Serialized. because these are
the part of objectgraph of dog.

→ Among dog, cat & rat if atleast one class is not Serializable
Then we will get NotSerializableException.

Customized Serialization:-

→ In the default Serialization there may be a chance of loss of information because of transient keyword.

Ex:- class Account implements Serializable

String username = "durga";

transient String password = "anushka";

Class SerializeDemo3

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

Account a1 = new Account();

S.o.p(a1.username + "----" + a1.password); durga --- anushka

FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.ser")

ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);

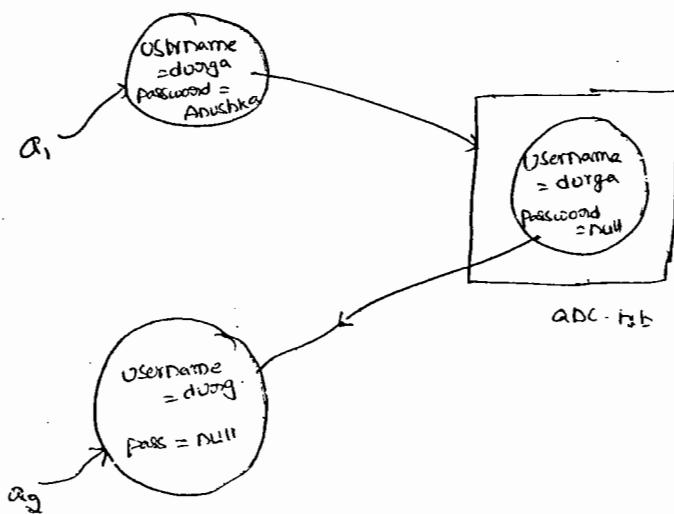
oos.writeObject(a1);

FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("abc.ser");

ObjectInputStream ois = new ObjectInputStream(fis);

Account a2 = (Account) ois.readObject();

S.o.println(a2.username + "----" + a2.password);



- In the above Example before Serialization Account Object Can provide proper Username & Password But after deserialization Account Object Can't provide the Original password. Hence during default Serialization There may be a chance of loss of information due to transient Key word.
- We Can Recover this loss of information by using Customized Serialization
- We Can implement Customized Serialization by using the following 2 methods
 - (i) private void writeObject(Coos os) throws Exception
 - This method will be Executed automatically at the time of Serialization it is a Call back method.
 - (ii) private void readObject(OIS is) throws Exception
 - This method will be Executed automatically at the time of deserialization it is a callback method.
- The above 2 methods we have to define in the Corresponding Class of Serialized Object.

Ex:-

```

import java.io.*;
class Account implements Serializable
{
    String username = "durga";
    transient String pwd = "anushka";
    private void writeObject(ObjectOutputStream os) throws Exception
    {
        os.defaultWriteObject();
        String epwd = (String)os.readObject();
        pwd = epwd.substring(3);
    }
}

class CustSerializeDemo
{
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception
    {
        Account a1 = new Account();
        System.out.println(a1.username + " --- " + a1.pwd);
        FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.ser");
        ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);
        oos.writeObject(a1);
        FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("abc.ser");
        ObjectInputStream ois = new ObjectInputStream(fis);
        Account a2 = (Account)ois.readObject();  

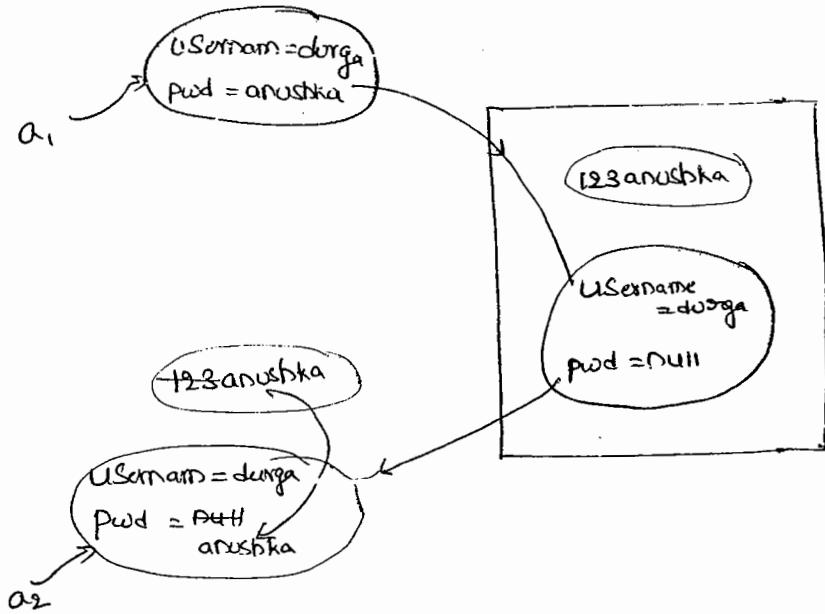
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    }
}

```

```
S.o.println(a2.getUsername() + " --- " + a2.getPassword());
```

```
}
```

Serialization w.r.t Inheritance :-



Serialization w.r.t Inheritance :-

Case 1:-

→ If the parent class implements `Serializable` then every child class is by default `Serializable`. i.e., `Serializable` nature is inheriting from parent to child (`P+C`).

Ex:- Class `Animal` implements `Serializable`

```
    |
```

```
    int x=10;
```

```
    |
```

```
    class Dog extends Animal
```

```
    |
```

```
    int y=20;
```

```
    |
```

→ we can serialize dog object even though dog class doesn't implement Serializable interface explicitly. because its parent class Animal is Serializable.

Case 2:-

→ Even though parent class doesn't implement Serializable if the child is Serializable then we can serialize child class object. At the time of serialization JVM ignores the original values of instance variables which are coming from Non-Serializable parent & store default values.

→ At the time of deserialization JVM checks if any parent class is Non-Serializable or not, JVM creates a separate object for every Non-Serializable parent & share its instance variables to the current object.

→ For this JVM always calls no argument constructor of the non-Serializable parent. If the non-Serializable parent doesn't have no argument constructor then we will get RuntimeException.

Ex:-

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

```
class Animal
```

```
{
```

```
int i=10;
```

```
Animal()
```

```
{
```

S.o.println("Animal Constructor Called");
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```
}
```

Class Dog extends Animal implements Serializable

↓

int j = 20;

Dog()

{

S.o.println("Dog Constructor Called");

}

}

Class SerializeDemo6

{

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

{

Dog d = new Dog();

d.i = 888;

d.j = 999;

FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream("abc.ser");

ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(fos);

oos.writeObject(d);

S.o.println("Deserialization Started");

FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("abc.ser");

ObjectInputStream ois = new ObjectInputStream(fis);

Dog d1 = (Dog)ois.readObject();

S.o.println(d1.i + " " + d1.j);

}

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33)

Op! - Animal Constructor Called

Dog

" "

Deserialization Started

* Animal Constructor Called

10 ---- 999

