

KOENIG  
step forward



# Core Java, Git, Build Tools & JUnit Testing



# Java Recap & Object-Oriented Programming



# Introduction to Java

- Java is a high-level, object-oriented, class-based programming language developed by Sun Microsystems (now owned by Oracle) in 1995.
- It is widely used for building:
  - Desktop applications
  - Web applications
  - Mobile applications (especially Android)
  - Enterprise software
  - Embedded systems



# Installing and setting up IntelliJ IDEA Community Edition

- IntelliJ IDEA Community Edition is a free and open-source integrated development environment (IDE) developed by JetBrains.
- It is designed primarily for Java development, but also supports other JVM-based languages like Kotlin, Groovy, and Scala.
- Download and install the IntelliJ IDEA Community Edition
  - Go to the Official Website: <https://www.jetbrains.com/idea/download>
  - Choose Community Edition.
  - Click Download for your operating system (Windows/Linux/macOS).
  - Run the downloaded installer and follow the installation wizard.

# Creating and running a Java project in IntelliJ



- Launch IntelliJ IDEA and Create New Project
  1. Open IntelliJ IDEA.
  2. Click “New Project”.
  3. In the New Project Wizard:
    - Select Java (make sure JDK is installed and selected)
    - Choose a Project SDK (you can download a JDK from [here](#) too)
    - Click Next, then Finish
- If you don't have a JDK:
  - IntelliJ lets you download JDK automatically.
  - Recommended: JDK 21 (LTS) or higher

# Creating and running a Java project in IntelliJ




- Create Java Class

1. In the Project Explorer, right-click src → New → Java Class.
2. Enter class name, e.g., Main.
3. Write your Java code inside:

```
public class Main {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");  
    }  
}
```

# Creating and running a Java project in IntelliJ



- Run the Java Program
  1. Right-click inside the code editor → Run 'Main.main()'
  2. Or click the green  Run button at the top right.
  3. The output will appear in the console at the bottom:

**Welcome to Java!**





# Java Basics Recap



# Java Basics Recap

- Variables (primitive vs reference types)
- Operators (arithmetic, relational, logical, bitwise)
- Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)
- Methods (parameters, return types, overloading)



# Variables (primitive vs reference types)

- A data type in Java defines the kind of data a variable can store, how much memory it uses, and the operations allowed on it.
- Data types ensure type safety during compilation.
- Data types prevent invalid operations (e.g., adding a number to a string incorrectly).
- Data types help the compiler allocate memory efficiently.
- In Java, data types are categorized into two main types
  - Primitive Data Types (Built-in)
  - Reference Data Types



# Variables (primitive vs reference types)

- Primitive Data Types (Built-in)
  - These are the most basic data types provided by Java. They are not objects and store actual values.

Type	Size	Description	Example
<b>byte</b>	1 byte	Whole number from -128 to 127	byte b = 100;
<b>short</b>	2 bytes	Whole number from -32K to 32K	short s = 30000;
<b>int</b>	4 bytes	Common integer type	int x = 100000;
<b>long</b>	8 bytes	Large integer values	long l = 123456L;
<b>float</b>	4 bytes	Decimal, single precision	float f = 3.14f;
<b>double</b>	8 bytes	Decimal, double precision	double d = 3.14159;
<b>char</b>	2 bytes	Single character (Unicode)	char c = 'A';
<b>boolean</b>	1 bit	True/False	boolean b = true;



# Variables (primitive vs reference types)

- Reference Data Types
  - These types refer to objects, not actual values. Memory stores references (addresses) of the object.

Type	Description	Example
<b>String</b>	Represents a sequence of characters	<code>String s = "Hello";</code>
<b>Arrays</b>	Group of similar data elements	<code>int[] arr = {1,2,3};</code>
<b>Classes</b>	Blueprint for objects	<code>class Person {}</code> <code>Person p = new Person();</code>
<b>Interfaces</b>	Reference to a set of methods (contract)	<code>interface MyInterface {}</code> <code>class MyClass implements MyInterface {}</code> <code>MyClass obj = new MyClass();</code>



# Variable declaration, initialization, and type casting

- Variable Declaration
  - Declaring a variable means reserving memory space and specifying the data type.
- Syntax:  
    dataType variableName;
- Example:  
    int age;     // declaration  
    String name; // declaration



# Variable declaration, initialization, and type casting

- Variable Initialization
  - Initialization means assigning a value to the variable for the first time.
- Syntax:
  - `variableName = value;`
  - Or declare and initialize in one line:  
`dataType variableName = value;`
- Example:
  - `int age = 25;       // declare + initialize`
  - `String name = "John"; // declare + initialize`



# Variable declaration, initialization, and type casting

- Type Casting in Java
  - Type casting means converting a variable from one data type to another.
  - Java supports:
- Implicit Casting (Widening)
  - Automatically done when converting smaller to larger types.
- Example

```
int a = 10;
long b = a; // implicit casting int → long (Safe)
```





# Variable declaration, initialization, and type casting

- Explicit Casting (Narrowing)
  - Done manually when converting larger to smaller types.
- Example

```
double x = 9.99;  
int y = (int) x; // y becomes 9 - double → int (Risk of data loss)
```



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- In Java, the scope and lifetime of a variable depend on where it's declared — inside a method, block, class, or parameter list.
- Scope: Where a variable is accessible/visible in the program.
- Lifetime: How long the variable exists in memory (until it's destroyed or out of scope).



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- Types of Variable Scope in Java

Scope Type	Declared Inside	Scope (Accessible From)	Lifetime
<b>Local</b>	Method or block	Only inside that method/block	From method/block entry to exit
<b>Instance</b>	Inside a class (no static)	All instance methods (via this)	As long as the object exists
<b>Static (Class)</b>	Inside a class with static	All static methods in the class	As long as class is loaded
<b>Parameter</b>	Inside method signature	Only inside the method	For the duration of the method



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- Local Variable

```
void show() {  
    int count = 5; // local variable  
    System.out.println(count);  
}
```

- Scope: Only inside show()
- Lifetime: Created when method is called, destroyed after method ends



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- Instance Variable

```
class Car {  
    String color; // instance variable  
    void display() {  
        System.out.println(color);  
    }  
}
```

- Scope: Whole class (via object)
- Lifetime: As long as object exists



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- Static Variable

```
class Counter {  
    static int count = 0; // static variable  
    void increment() {  
        count++;  
    }  
}
```

- Scope: Shared by all objects
- Lifetime: As long as the class is loaded in memory



# Scope and lifetime of variables in different blocks

- Block Scope

```
if (true) {  
    int x = 10;  
    System.out.println(x); // OK  
}  
// System.out.println(x); // Error: x not visible here
```

- Scope: Inside the { } block
- Lifetime: Starts when block is entered, ends when block is exited

# One-dimensional and multidimensional arrays with syntax and usage



- One-Dimensional (1D) Array
  - A 1D array is a list of elements of the same type arranged in a single row.
  - Use 1D arrays for linear data (e.g., marks, ages).

- Syntax:

```
// Declaration
```

```
dataType[] arrayName;
```

```
// Declaration + Initialization
```

```
dataType[] arrayName = new dataType[size];
```

```
// Declaration + Initialization + Values
```

```
dataType[] arrayName = {val1, val2, val3};
```



# One-dimensional and multidimensional arrays with syntax and usage



- One-Dimensional (1D) Array

- Example:

```
int[] numbers = {10, 20, 30, 40};  
for (int i = 0; i < numbers.length; i++) {  
    System.out.println(numbers[i]);  
}
```

- Output:

```
10  
20  
30  
40
```

# One-dimensional and multidimensional arrays with syntax and usage



- Multidimensional Arrays (2D, 3D, etc.)
  - A multidimensional array is an array of arrays.
  - Use 2D or multi-D arrays for matrix-like or tabular data (e.g., table, matrix).

- 2D Array Syntax:

```
// Declaration
```

```
dataType[][] arrayName;
```

```
// Declaration + Initialization
```

```
dataType[][] arrayName = new dataType[rows][columns];
```

```
// Declaration + Initialization + Values
```

```
dataType[][] matrix = { {1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6} };
```

# One-dimensional and multidimensional arrays with syntax and usage



- Multidimensional Arrays - Example:

```
int[][] matrix = { {1, 2}, {3, 4}, {5, 6} };  
for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {  
    for (int j = 0; j < matrix[i].length; j++) {  
        System.out.print(matrix[i][j] + " ");  
    }  
    System.out.println();  
}
```

- Output:

```
1 2  
3 4  
5 6
```



# Working with String in Java

- In Java, String is one of the most commonly used classes, representing a sequence of characters.
- Strings in Java are immutable, meaning once created, they cannot be changed.
- Declaring and Initializing Strings
  - `String str1 = "Hello";` // String literal
  - `String str2 = new String("World");` // Using constructor



# Common String methods – length(), charAt(), equals(), concat(), substring()

- length()
  - Returns the number of characters in the string.  
`String str = "Java";`  
`System.out.println(str.length()); // Output: 4`
- charAt(int index)
  - Returns the character at the specified index (0-based).  
`String str = "Hello";`  
`System.out.println(str.charAt(1)); // Output: 'e'`



# Common String methods – length(), charAt(), equals(), concat(), substring()

- equals(String anotherString)
  - Compares the contents of two strings (case-sensitive).

```
String a = "Java";  
String b = "Java";  
System.out.println(a.equals(b)); // true
```
- concat(String str)
  - Joins the specified string to the end of the original string.

```
String s1 = "Hello";  
String s2 = "World";  
String result = s1.concat(" ").concat(s2);  
System.out.println(result); // Output: Hello World
```



# Common String methods – length(), charAt(), equals(), concat(), substring()

- substring(int beginIndex, int endIndex)
    - Extracts part of the string from beginIndex (inclusive) to endIndex (exclusive).
- ```
String str = "Programming";  
System.out.println(str.substring(0, 6)); // Output: Progra  
System.out.println(str.substring(6));   // Output: mming
```



# String comparison, case conversion, and trimming methods

- String Comparison Methods
- equals(String str)
  - Compares content (case-sensitive).  
`"Java".equals("java"); // false`  
`"Java".equals("Java"); // true`
- equalsIgnoreCase(String str)
  - Compares content, ignoring case.  
`"Java".equalsIgnoreCase("java"); // true`





# String comparison, case conversion, and trimming methods

- String Comparison Methods
- `compareTo(String str)`
  - Lexicographically compares two strings.
  - Returns:
    - 0 if equal
    - Positive if first string is greater
    - Negative if first string is smaller
- `compareToIgnoreCase(String str)`
  - Same as `compareTo()` but ignores case.



# String comparison, case conversion, and trimming methods

- Case Conversion Methods

- toLowerCase()

- Converts all characters to lowercase.

```
String s = "HeLlO";
```

```
System.out.println(s.toLowerCase()); // hello
```

- toUpperCase()

- Converts all characters to uppercase.

```
String s = "HeLlO";
```

```
System.out.println(s.toUpperCase()); // HELLO
```



# String comparison, case conversion, and trimming methods

- Trimming Whitespace
- trim()
  - Removes leading and trailing whitespaces.  

```
String s = " Hello Java ";  
System.out.println(s.trim()); // "Hello Java"
```



# Operators (arithmetic, relational, logical, bitwise)

- Arithmetic Operators
  - Used to perform basic mathematical operations.

| Operator | Description         | Example | Result  |
|----------|---------------------|---------|---------|
| +        | Addition            | 5 + 2   | 7       |
| -        | Subtraction         | 5 - 2   | 3       |
| *        | Multiplication      | 5 * 2   | 10      |
| /        | Division            | 5 / 2   | 2 (int) |
| %        | Modulus (Remainder) | 5 % 2   | 1       |



# Operators (arithmetic, relational, logical, bitwise)

- Relational (Comparison) Operators
  - Used to compare two values.

| Operator | Description      | Example | Result       |
|----------|------------------|---------|--------------|
| ==       | Equal to         | a == b  | true / false |
| !=       | Not equal to     | a != b  | true / false |
| >        | Greater than     | a > b   | true / false |
| <        | Less than        | a < b   | true / false |
| >=       | Greater or equal | a >= b  | true / false |
| <=       | Less or equal    | a <= b  | true / false |



# Operators (arithmetic, relational, logical, bitwise)

- Logical Operators
  - Used to combine multiple boolean expressions.

| Operator          | Description | Example                                    | Result                |
|-------------------|-------------|--------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>&amp;&amp;</b> | Logical AND | <code>a &gt; 3 &amp;&amp; b &lt; 10</code> | true if both true     |
| <b>  </b>         | Logical OR  | <code>a &gt; 3    b &lt; 10</code>         | true if any one true  |
| <b>!</b>          | Logical NOT | <code>!(a &gt; b)</code>                   | Opposite of condition |



# Operators (arithmetic, relational, logical, bitwise)

- Bitwise Operators
  - Operate on bits (used for performance or low-level tasks).

| Operator | Description        | Example | Result |
|----------|--------------------|---------|--------|
| &        | Bitwise AND        | 5 & 3   | 1      |
|          | Bitwise OR         | 5 & 3   | 7      |
| ^        | Bitwise XOR        | 5 ^ 3   | 6      |
| ~        | Bitwise Complement | ~5      | -6     |
| <<       | Left shift         | 5 << 1  | 10     |
| >>       | Right shift        | 5 >> 1  | 2      |



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- if Statement
  - Used to execute a block of code only if a condition is true.
- Syntax:

```
if (condition) {  
    // code to execute if condition is true  
}
```





# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- if-else Statement
  - Used to execute one block if condition is true, otherwise another block.
- Syntax:

```
if (condition) {  
    // true block  
} else {  
    // false block  
}
```



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- nested if-else Statement
  - Used when we have to make multiple decisions (conditions inside conditions).

- Syntax:

```
if (condition1) {  
    if (condition2) {  
        // inner true block  
    } else {  
        // inner false block  
    }  
} else {  
    // outer false block  
}
```



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- switch-case Statement
  - Used to test a variable against multiple constant values.

- Syntax:

```
switch (variable) {  
    case value1:  
        // code block  
        break;  
    case value2:  
        // code block  
        break;  
    default:    // default code block  
}
```



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- In Java, loops are used to execute a block of code repeatedly until a certain condition is met.

- for Loop Syntax:

```
for (initialization; condition; update) {  
    // loop body  
}
```

- while Loop

- Executes as long as the condition is true.

- Syntax:

```
while (condition) {  
    // loop body  
}
```



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- do-while Loop
  - Executes at least once, even if the condition is false.
- Syntax:

```
do {  
    // loop body  
} while (condition);
```



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- In Java, break, continue, and return are control flow keywords used to change the normal flow of program execution, especially inside loops and methods.
- break Keyword
  - Used to exit a loop or switch statement immediately.
- Syntax:  
    break;



# Control Flow (if-else, switch, loops)

- continue Keyword

- Used to skip the current iteration and continue with the next iteration of the loop.
- Syntax:

`continue;`

- return Keyword

- Used to exit from a method and optionally return a value.
- Syntax:

`return;        // in void methods`

`return value;    // in methods with return type`



# OOP Essentials





# OOP Essentials

- Classes & Objects, Constructors
- Inheritance (extends keyword, method overriding)
- Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)
- Abstraction (abstract classes, methods)
- Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- Class

- A class is a blueprint for creating objects.
- It defines attributes (variables) and methods (functions).

```
public class Car {  
    // Attributes (fields)  
    String brand;  
    int speed;  
    // Method  
    void startEngine() {  
        System.out.println(brand + " engine started.");  
    }  
}
```



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- Object

- An object is an instance of a class. It represents a real-world entity with state and behavior.

```
public class Main {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Car car1 = new Car();    // Object creation  
        car1.brand = "Honda";    // Accessing attribute  
        car1.startEngine();      // Calling method  
    }  
}
```



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- Attributes

- Attributes (also called fields or instance variables) define the state of an object.

- Example:

```
String brand;  
int speed;
```

- Methods

- Methods define the behavior of an object. They are like functions defined inside a class.

- Example:

```
void startEngine() {  
    System.out.println("Engine started");  
}
```



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- In Java, a constructor is a special method used to initialize objects.
- It has the same name as the class and no return type (not even void).
- Default Constructor
  - A default constructor is a constructor with no parameters.
  - If you don't define any constructor in a class, Java provides one automatically.

- Syntax:

```
public class Car {  
    Car() { // Default constructor  
        System.out.println("Car object created!");  
    }  
}
```



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- Parameterized Constructor
  - A parameterized constructor accepts arguments to initialize the object with specific values.

- Syntax:

```
public class Car {  
    String color;  
    Car(String c) { // Parameterized constructor  
        color = c;  
    }  
}
```



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

- In Java, classes define attributes (fields) and methods (functions).
- When you create an object from a class, that object becomes a reference to access these members (variables and methods) using the dot (.) operator.
- It allows encapsulation (grouping data and methods together).
- You interact with real-world entities as objects (e.g., Student, Car).
- Helps in organizing and reusing code.



# Classes & Objects, Constructors

```
public class Car {  
    String color;  
    void drive() {  
        System.out.println("The car is driving.");  
    }  
}  
  
public class Main {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Car myCar = new Car();    // Object creation  
        myCar.color = "Red";      // Accessing attribute  
        myCar.drive();            // Calling method  
    }  
}
```





# Inheritance (extends keyword, method overriding)

- Inheritance allows one class to inherit the properties and behaviors (fields and methods) of another class.
- It helps with code reusability and creating hierarchical relationships.
- Inheritance represented using **extends** keyword.
- It defines a parent-child or superclass-subclass relationship.
- It's also called class inheritance.



# Inheritance (extends keyword, method overriding)

- Inheritance – Example

- Dog IS-A Animal → Because Dog inherits from Animal.

```
class Animal {  
    void eat() {  
        System.out.println("This animal eats food.");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    void bark() {  
        System.out.println("The dog barks.");  
    }  
}
```



# Inheritance (extends keyword, method overriding)

- Method Overriding
  - A subclass provides a specific implementation of a method that is already defined in its superclass.
  - Used to provide a different behavior for an inherited method.
  - Runtime Polymorphism



# Inheritance (extends keyword, method overriding)

- Method Overriding - Example

```
class Animal {  
    void sound() {  
        System.out.println("Animal makes a sound");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    @Override  
    void sound() {  
        System.out.println("Dog barks");  
    }  
}
```



# Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)

- Polymorphism means many forms. In Java, it allows one interface to be used for a general class of actions. It comes in two types:
- Compile-Time Polymorphism (Static Binding)
  - Achieved by: Method Overloading
  - Method resolution happens at compile-time
  - Same method name, but different parameter types or counts
- Run-Time Polymorphism (Dynamic Binding)
  - Achieved by: Method Overriding
  - Method resolution happens at runtime
  - Involves inheritance and method overriding



# Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)

- Method Overloading
  - Same method name, but different parameters (type, number, or order) within the same class.
  - Used to perform similar operations with different input types or counts.
  - Compile-Time Polymorphism



# Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)

- Method Overloading - Example

```
class Calculator {  
    int add(int a, int b) {  
        return a + b;  
    }  
    double add(double a, double b) {  
        return a + b;  
    }  
    int add(int a, int b, int c) {  
        return a + b + c;  
    }  
}
```



# Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)

- Method Overriding
  - A subclass provides a specific implementation of a method that is already defined in its superclass.
  - Used to provide a different behavior for an inherited method.
  - Runtime Polymorphism





# Polymorphism (compile-time vs runtime)

- Method Overriding - Example

```
class Animal {  
    void sound() {  
        System.out.println("Animal makes a sound");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    @Override  
    void sound() {  
        System.out.println("Dog barks");  
    }  
}
```



# Abstraction (abstract classes, methods)

- Abstraction is the process of hiding implementation details and showing only the essential features of an object.
- It helps reduce complexity by letting the user focus on what an object does instead of how it does it.

| Benefit                 | Description                                                   |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Hides details</b>    | Focus only on relevant behavior of objects                    |
| <b>Improves reuse</b>   | Common behavior can be shared via abstract classes/interfaces |
| <b>Promotes testing</b> | Makes unit testing and mocking easier                         |



# Abstraction (abstract classes, methods)

- Abstraction Using Abstract Classes – Example

```
abstract class Animal {  
    abstract void sound(); // abstract method (no body)  
  
    void eat() {  
        System.out.println("This animal eats food.");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    void sound() {  
        System.out.println("Dog barks");  
    }  
}
```



# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

- Encapsulation is one of the four pillars of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP).
- It is the mechanism of wrapping data (variables) and code (methods) together into a single unit (a class) and restricting access to some of the object's components.
- Data hiding is the practice of restricting direct access to internal class variables.
- It's implemented using the private access modifier.
- The class exposes controlled access through getter and setter methods.



# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

- In Java, access modifiers define the scope (visibility) of classes, methods, constructors, and variables.
- They control where members of a class can be accessed from other classes.
- **public**
  - Access Level: Everywhere (same class, same package, outside package, subclass).
  - Use Case: When you want members to be accessible globally.

```
public class Car {  
    public String model = "Tesla";  
    public void start() {  
        System.out.println("Car started");  
    }  
}
```



# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

- private
  - Access Level: Only within the same class.
  - Use Case: When data/methods should not be accessed outside the class (encapsulation).

```
public class BankAccount {  
    private double balance;  
  
    private void calculateInterest() {  
        // only accessible inside this class  
    }  
}
```



# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

- protected
  - Access Level: Same class, Same package, Subclasses
  - Use Case: When members need to be visible to child classes or same package.

```
class Animal {  
    protected void eat() {  
        System.out.println("Animal eats");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    void sound() {  
        eat(); // allowed due to protected  
    }  
}
```



# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

- Default (no modifier)
  - Access Level: Package-private (accessible only within the same package).
  - Use Case: When you want members accessible only to other classes in the same package.

```
class Book {  
    int pages = 100; // default access  
    void read() {  
        System.out.println("Reading book");  
    }  
}
```





# Encapsulation (access modifiers, getters/setters)

| Modifier         | Same Class | Same Package | Subclass | Other Classes |
|------------------|------------|--------------|----------|---------------|
| <b>public</b>    | Yes        | Yes          | Yes      | Yes           |
| <b>protected</b> | Yes        | Yes          | Yes      | No            |
| <b>default</b>   | Yes        | Yes          | No       | No            |
| <b>private</b>   | Yes        | No           | No       | No            |



# Advanced OOP



# Advanced OOP

- Interfaces & multiple inheritance
- Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)
- Composition vs Inheritance (HAS-A vs IS-A relationship)



# Interfaces & multiple inheritance

- An interface in Java is a blueprint of a class.
- It defines method signatures (abstract methods) without implementation.
- Classes implement interfaces to define the actual behavior.

| Benefit                           | Explanation                                                          |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Abstraction</b>                | Focuses on what the class should do, not how.                        |
| <b>Multiple inheritance</b>       | A class can implement multiple interfaces, unlike extending classes. |
| <b>Flexibility and decoupling</b> | Code becomes more modular and testable.                              |
| <b>Design pattern integration</b> | Essential in Strategy, Factory, Observer, etc.                       |



# Interfaces & multiple inheritance

- Abstraction Using Interfaces – Example

```
interface Vehicle {  
    void start(); // public & abstract by default  
    void stop();  
}  
class Car implements Vehicle {  
    public void start() {  
        System.out.println("Car starts");  
    }  
    public void stop() {  
        System.out.println("Car stops");  
    }  
}
```

# Interfaces & multiple inheritance

- Differences: Abstract Class vs Interface

| Feature                 | Abstract Class                          | Interface                                                  |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Methods</b>          | Can have both abstract and non-abstract | Only abstract methods (Java 7), Default & static (Java 8+) |
| <b>Fields</b>           | Can have fields                         | Only constants (public static final)                       |
| <b>Inheritance</b>      | Single inheritance                      | Multiple inheritance supported                             |
| <b>Constructors</b>     | Can have constructors                   | Cannot have constructors                                   |
| <b>Access Modifiers</b> | Can use all                             | All methods are public by default                          |



# Interfaces & multiple inheritance

- In Java, interfaces allow abstraction and are the only way to achieve multiple inheritance of type.
- An interface is a reference type, similar to a class, that can contain:
  - Abstract methods (implicitly public and abstract)
  - Default and static methods (from Java 8)
  - Constants (public static final)

```
interface Animal {  
    void makeSound(); // abstract method  
}
```



# Interfaces & multiple inheritance

- Multiple Inheritance via Interface
  - Java supports multiple inheritance of behavior using interfaces

```
interface A {  
    void methodA();  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    void methodB();  
}
```

```
// Multiple inheritance using interfaces  
class C implements A, B {  
    public void methodA() {  
        System.out.println("From A");  
    }  
    public void methodB() {  
        System.out.println("From B");  
    }  
}
```





# Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)

- In Java, a class can be defined inside another class. These are called inner classes. They help in logical grouping and encapsulation.
- Static Inner Class
  - Can access only static members of the outer class directly.
  - Does not require an object of the outer class to be created.
- Non-Static Inner Class
  - Can access both static and non-static members of the outer class.
  - Requires an instance of the outer class to be created.



# Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)

- Static Inner Class - Example

```
class Outer {  
    static int outerStatic = 10;  
  
    static class StaticNested {  
        void display() {  
            System.out.println("Static: " +  
outerStatic);  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
public class Test {  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        Outer.StaticNested obj = new  
Outer.StaticNested();  
        obj.display();  
    }  
}
```



# Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)

- Non-Static Inner Class - Example

```
class Outer {  
    int outerValue = 50;  
  
    class Inner {  
        void show() {  
            System.out.println("Non-static:  
" + outerValue);  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
public class Test {  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        Outer outer = new Outer();  
        Outer.Inner inner = outer.new  
        Inner();  
        inner.show();  
    }  
}
```



# Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)

- Local Inner Class
  - A local inner class is defined inside a method or block and can only be accessed within that method/block.
  - Use Case:
    - Used for helper classes that should not be accessible outside the method, e.g., temporary tasks, validations, etc.



# Inner Classes (static, member, anonymous)

- Anonymous Class
  - An anonymous inner class is a class with no name, used to instantiate and override a class or interface on the fly.
  - Use Case:
    - Used in event handling, threading, functional interfaces, and when you need a short implementation of a class/interface used only once.



# Composition vs Inheritance (HAS-A vs IS-A relationship)

- Inheritance allows one class to inherit the properties and behaviors (fields and methods) of another class.
- It helps with code reusability and creating hierarchical relationships.
- IS-A Relationship (Inheritance)
  - Represented using extends keyword.
  - It defines a parent-child or superclass-subclass relationship.
  - It's also called class inheritance.



# Composition vs Inheritance (HAS-A vs IS-A relationship)

- IS-A Relationship (Inheritance) – Example
  - Dog IS-A Animal → Because Dog inherits from Animal.

```
class Animal {  
    void eat() {  
        System.out.println("This animal eats food.");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal {  
    void bark() {  
        System.out.println("The dog barks.");  
    }  
}
```



# Composition vs Inheritance (HAS-A vs IS-A relationship)

- HAS-A Relationship (Composition)
  - Represents object composition (one class contains another class).
  - No keyword is required; just use the object of another class as a field.
  - Used when one class uses another class.





# Composition vs Inheritance (HAS-A vs IS-A relationship)

- HAS-A Relationship (Composition)
  - Car HAS-A Engine → Because it holds an instance of Engine.

```
class Engine {  
    void start() {  
        System.out.println("Engine starts.");  
    }  
}  
  
class Car {  
    Engine engine = new Engine(); // Car HAS-A Engine  
    void drive() {  
        engine.start(); // using Engine's functionality  
        System.out.println("Car is moving.");  
    }  
}
```



# Handson Labs



# Handson Labs

- Bank Account System: Implement deposits, withdrawals, and balance check using classes & methods.
- Employee Class Hierarchy: Create base class Employee and subclasses (Manager, Developer) demonstrating inheritance & polymorphism.
- Debugging in IDE: Set breakpoints, inspect variables, step into/step over methods.



# Java APIs, Exceptions & Multithreading



# Collections Framework



# Collections Framework

- List (ArrayList, LinkedList)
- Set (HashSet)
- Map (HashMap)
- Queue (PriorityQueue)



# What is Collections Framework?

- The Java Collections Framework is a unified architecture for storing, retrieving, and manipulating groups of objects (data collections) efficiently.
- Key Components of the Collections Framework
  - Interfaces
    - Abstract data structures (e.g., List, Set, Map)
  - Implementations
    - Concrete classes (e.g., ArrayList, HashSet, LinkedList, HashMap)
  - Algorithms
    - Utility methods for searching, sorting, etc. (e.g., Collections.sort())



# List (ArrayList, LinkedList)

- List
  - A List is an ordered collection that allows duplicate elements.
- Key Features:
  - Maintains insertion order
  - Allows duplicate values
  - Access via index (0-based)
- Common Implementations:
  - ArrayList
  - LinkedList





# List (ArrayList, LinkedList)

- ArrayList – Dynamic Array

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class ArrayListDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<>();
        list.add("Java");
        list.add("Python");
        list.add("Java"); // Allows duplicates
        System.out.println("ArrayList: " + list); // [Java, Python, Java]
    }
}
```

- Use case: Random access, frequent reads
- Backed by array → Fast for get(index)



# List (ArrayList, LinkedList)

- LinkedList – Doubly Linked List

```
import java.util.LinkedList;
public class LinkedListDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LinkedList<String> list = new LinkedList<>();
        list.add("C");
        list.add("C++");
        list.addFirst("Assembly");
        list.addLast("Java");
        System.out.println("LinkedList: " + list); // [Assembly, C, C++, Java]
    }
}
```

- Use case: Frequent insertion/removal
- Slower random access, but fast insertion/deletion



# Set (HashSet)

- Set
  - A Set is a collection of unique elements.
- Key Features:
  - No duplicates allowed
  - No guaranteed order (unless using LinkedHashSet)
  - Cannot access elements via index
- Common Implementations:
  - HashSet – no order
  - LinkedHashSet – insertion order



# Set (HashSet)

- HashSet – Unique elements, no order

```
import java.util.HashSet;
public class HashSetDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashSet<String> set = new HashSet<>();
        set.add("Apple");
        set.add("Banana");
        set.add("Apple"); // Duplicate ignored
        System.out.println("HashSet: " + set); // Output order not guaranteed
    }
}
```

- Use case: Store unique items
- Fast lookup, no duplicates



# Map (HashMap)

- Map
  - A Map stores key-value pairs.
- Key Features:
  - Unique keys
  - Values can be duplicated
  - Not a subtype of Collection
- Common Implementations:
  - HashMap – no order
  - LinkedHashMap – insertion order



# Map (HashMap)

- HashMap – Key-value pairs

```
import java.util.HashMap;
public class HashMapDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashMap<Integer, String> map = new HashMap<>();
        map.put(101, "Alice");
        map.put(102, "Bob");
        map.put(101, "Charlie"); // Replaces value for key 101
        System.out.println("HashMap: " + map); // {101=Charlie, 102=Bob}
        System.out.println("Value for key 102: " + map.get(102)); // Bob
    }
}
```

- Use case: Lookup by key
- Fast access, keys must be unique



# Queue (PriorityQueue)

- A Queue is a collection that follows FIFO (First-In-First-Out) order.
- Defined in `java.util.Queue` interface.
- Common implementations:
  - `LinkedList` (basic queue)
  - `PriorityQueue` (priority-based ordering)
  - `ArrayDeque` (double-ended queue)



# Queue (PriorityQueue)

- PriorityQueue
  - A PriorityQueue is a special type of queue in Java that orders elements based on priority rather than FIFO.
- Key Points
  - By default, it orders elements in natural order (ascending for numbers, alphabetical for strings).
  - Can accept a custom Comparator for different ordering.
  - Does not allow null elements.





# Queue (PriorityQueue)

- PriorityQueue - Example

```
import java.util.*;

public class PriorityQueueExample {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        PriorityQueue<Integer> pq = new PriorityQueue<>();
        pq.add(50);
        pq.add(10);
        pq.add(30);
        while (!pq.isEmpty()) {
            System.out.println(pq.poll()); // retrieves and removes smallest element
        }
    }
}
```



# Exception Handling



# Exception Handling

- Checked vs Unchecked exceptions
- try-catch-finally block
- Throwing & creating Custom Exceptions
- Best practices (specific exceptions, avoiding empty catch blocks)



# What is Exception?

- An exception is an event that occurs during the execution of a program that disrupts the normal flow of instructions.
- Java provides a powerful exception-handling mechanism to gracefully manage errors like:
  - Division by zero
  - Accessing invalid array index
  - File not found
  - Null references, etc.



# Checked vs Unchecked exceptions

- Java exceptions are mainly divided into two types:
- Checked Exceptions (Compile-Time Exceptions)
  - These are checked by the compiler at compile time.
  - The program won't compile unless these are either handled with try-catch or declared using throws.
- Examples:
  - IOException
  - FileNotFoundException
  - SQLException



# Checked vs Unchecked exceptions

- Unchecked Exceptions (Runtime Exceptions)
  - These are not checked by the compiler.
  - Occur due to programming mistakes, like dividing by zero or null access.
  - You can handle them, but it's not mandatory.
- Examples:
  - ArithmeticException
  - NullPointerException
  - ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException



# try-catch-finally block

- The try-catch Block
  - In Java, the try-catch block is used to handle exceptions gracefully without crashing the program.

- Syntax:

```
try {  
    // Code that might throw an exception  
} catch (ExceptionType e) {  
    // Code to handle the exception  
}
```



# try-catch-finally block

- The finally Block
  - The finally block is always executed after the try block (with or without a catch), regardless of whether an exception is thrown or not.

- Syntax:

```
try {  
    // risky code  
} catch (Exception e) {  
    // handle exception  
} finally {  
    // cleanup code that always runs  
}
```





# try-catch-finally block

- Multiple Catch Blocks
  - You can handle different types of exceptions using multiple catch blocks.
  - Each block catches a specific exception.

- Syntax:

```
try {  
    // risky code  
} catch (ArithmeticException e) {  
    // handle arithmetic error  
} catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {  
    // handle array index error  
} catch (Exception e) {  
    // handle all other exceptions  
}
```



# try-catch-finally block

- Nested Try Blocks
  - A try block can be placed inside another try block. This is useful when different operations need separate exception handling.

- Syntax:

```
try {  
    // Outer try block  
    try {  
        // Inner try block  
    } catch (...) {  
        // Inner catch  
    }  
} catch (...) {  
    // Outer catch  
}
```



# Throwing & creating Custom Exceptions

- throw Keyword

- The throw keyword is used to explicitly throw an exception (usually custom or runtime exception).
- Syntax:

```
throw new ExceptionType("message");
```

- throws Keyword

- The throws keyword is used in method declaration to indicate that the method might throw a checked exception, and the caller must handle it.
- Syntax:

```
public void readFile() throws IOException {  
    // code that might throw IOException  
}
```



# Throwing & creating Custom Exceptions

- A custom exception is a user-defined class that extends Java's `Exception` or `RuntimeException` classes to indicate specific error conditions.

- Extend `Exception` (Checked Exception)

```
public class InvalidAgeException extends Exception {  
    public InvalidAgeException(String message) {  
        super(message);  
    }  
}
```



# Throwing & creating Custom Exceptions

- Extend RuntimeException (Unchecked Exception)

```
public class NegativeAmountException extends RuntimeException {  
    public NegativeAmountException(String message) {  
        super(message);  
    }  
}
```



# Exception Handling - Best practices

- Catch Only What You Can Handle
  - Don't swallow exceptions just to make code compile.
  - If you can't handle it meaningfully, rethrow or wrap it.

```
try {  
    // risky code  
} catch (IOException e) {  
    // handle it properly (log, retry, fallback, etc.)  
}
```



# Exception Handling - Best practices

- Don't Ignore Exceptions

```
catch (IOException e) {  
    // BAD  
}
```

- Always log or rethrow:

```
catch (IOException e) {  
    logger.error("Failed to read file", e);  
}
```



# Exception Handling - Best practices

- Use Custom Exceptions for Clarity
  - Use InvalidAccountException instead of throwing a generic Exception.

```
class InvalidAccountException extends Exception {  
    public InvalidAccountException(String msg) {  
        super(msg);  
    }  
}
```





# Exception Handling - Best practices

- Never Catch Exception or Throwable Directly
  - Catching Exception hides the real issue.
  - Catch specific exceptions (e.g., IOException, SQLException).
- Bad:  
`catch (Exception e) { }`
- Good:  
`catch (FileNotFoundException e) { ... }`  
`catch (IOException e) { ... }`



# Exception Handling - Best practices

- Fail Fast
    - If a method cannot proceed due to invalid input, throw an exception immediately rather than continuing with bad state.
- ```
if (amount < 0) {  
    throw new IllegalArgumentException("Amount cannot be negative");  
}
```



# Functional Programming



# Functional Programming

- Lambdas: (args) -> expression
- Streams API: map, filter, reduce, collect



# Lambda expressions and method references

- In Java, Lambda Expressions and Method References simplify writing anonymous functions and make code more concise, especially when working with functional interfaces like Runnable, and Comparator.
- Lambda Expressions (Java 8+)
  - A lambda expression is a short block of code that takes in parameters and returns a value.
  - It can be used to implement methods of functional interfaces.
- Syntax:
  - (parameters) -> statement
  - or
  - (parameters) -> { statements }



# Lambda expressions and method references

- Example 1: Without Lambda (Before Java 8)

```
Runnable r = new Runnable() {  
    public void run() {  
        System.out.println("Running");  
    }  
};
```

- Example 2: With Lambda

```
Runnable r = () -> System.out.println("Running");
```



# Lambda expressions and method references

- Method References
  - Method references are a shorthand notation of a lambda expression to call a method.
- Syntax:
  - `ClassName::methodName`
- Example

```
List<String> names = Arrays.asList("Zara", "Asha", "Bala");
names.forEach(System.out::println);
```



# Functional interfaces

- Functional Interface

- A Functional Interface in Java is an interface that contains exactly one abstract method.
- It can have any number of default or static methods.
- Functional Interfaces are used as the basis for lambda expressions and method references.





# Functional interfaces

- Example: Creating a Functional Interface

```
@FunctionalInterface
```

```
interface MyFunctionalInterface {
```

```
    void doSomething(); // Single abstract method
```

```
}
```

- Usage with Lambda

```
MyFunctionalInterface obj = () -> System.out.println("Doing something!");
```

```
obj.doSomething();
```



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- The Stream API (introduced in Java 8) is used to process collections of data (like List, Set, etc.) in a functional style using a sequence of operations like filtering, mapping, reducing, etc.
- Why use Stream API?
  - To perform bulk operations efficiently on collections
  - To write cleaner, more readable and declarative code
  - To enable pipelined processing (chaining operations)
  - To support parallel execution easily
- Stream Workflow
  - `collection.stream().filter(...).map(...).forEach(...);`



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- filter()
  - Filters elements based on a given condition (Predicate).

```
List<String> names = List.of("Ashok", "Anil", "Amit", "John");  
names.stream()  
    .filter(name -> name.startsWith("A"))  
    .forEach(System.out::println);
```



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- map()
  - Transforms each element in the stream using a Function.

```
List<String> names = List.of("ashok", "john");  
List<String> upper = names.stream()  
    .map(String::toUpperCase)  
    .collect(Collectors.toList());  
System.out.println(upper);
```



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- `reduce()`
  - Reduces all elements in the stream to a single result (like sum).

```
List<Integer> numbers = List.of(1, 2, 3, 4, 5);
```

```
int sum = numbers.stream()
```

```
    .reduce(0, (a, b) -> a + b);
```

```
System.out.println("Sum = " + sum);
```



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- `forEach()`
  - Performs an action for each element (like printing).  

```
List<String> cities = List.of("Delhi", "Mumbai", "Chennai");  
cities.stream().forEach(System.out::println);
```



# Stream API – filter, map, reduce, forEach, collect

- collect()
  - Used to convert the stream into a collection (List, Set, Map, etc.).

```
List<String> names = List.of("Ashok", "Amit", "John");  
List<String> filtered = names.stream()  
    .filter(n -> n.startsWith("A"))  
    .collect(Collectors.toList());  
System.out.println(filtered);
```



# Multithreading Basics





# Multithreading Basics

- Creating threads: Thread vs Runnable
- Thread lifecycle & Synchronization

# What is Multithreading?

- Multithreading is a programming feature that allows concurrent execution of two or more threads (lightweight subprocesses) in a program to improve performance and responsiveness, especially on multi-core processors.

Term	Description
<b>Thread</b>	A lightweight subprocess that runs concurrently with other threads.
<b>Multithreading</b>	The ability of a CPU or a single core to execute multiple threads concurrently.
<b>Main thread</b>	The initial thread started by the JVM when a program begins.
<b>Concurrency</b>	Performing multiple tasks at the same time (interleaved).
<b>Parallelism</b>	Performing multiple tasks simultaneously, especially on multiple CPU cores.



# Creating threads: Thread vs Runnable

- Creating Threads By Extending Thread Class

```
class MyThread extends Thread {  
    public void run() {  
        System.out.println("Running thread: " + Thread.currentThread().getName());  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        MyThread t1 = new MyThread();           // New state  
        t1.start();                             // Now in Runnable → Running  
    }  
}
```

- You must call start() (not run() directly) to actually create a new thread.



# Creating threads: Thread vs Runnable

- Creating Threads By Implementing Runnable Interface

```
class MyRunnable implements Runnable {  
    public void run() {  
        System.out.println("Running thread: " + Thread.currentThread().getName());  
    }  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Runnable r = new MyRunnable();  
        Thread t = new Thread(r);    // New state  
        t.start();                    // Runnable → Running  
    }  
}
```

- This approach is preferred when your class needs to extend another class, because Java supports only single inheritance.



# Thread lifecycle & Synchronization

- A thread in Java goes through the following five states:

State	Description
<b>New</b>	Thread object is created but not started yet.
<b>Runnable</b>	Thread is ready to run and waiting for CPU time.
<b>Running</b>	Thread is executing its task.
<b>Blocked/Waiting</b>	Thread is paused temporarily (e.g., waiting for a resource or sleep()).
<b>Terminated</b>	Thread has completed execution or was forcibly stopped.



# Thread lifecycle & Synchronization

- What is Synchronization?
- In multithreading, multiple threads may try to read/write shared data at the same time.
- Without control, this can lead to race conditions.
- Synchronization ensures that only one thread can access a critical section (shared resource) at a time.



# Thread lifecycle & Synchronization

- Synchronization - Example

- Declaring a method synchronized ensures that only one thread can execute it at a time per object.

```
class Counter {  
    private int count = 0;  
    public synchronized void increment() {  
        count++;  
    }  
    public int getCount() {  
        return count;  
    }  
}
```



# Thread lifecycle & Synchronization

- Synchronization - Example

```
public class SyncMethodExample {  
    public static void main(String[] args) throws InterruptedException {  
        Counter counter = new Counter();  
        Thread t1 = new Thread(() -> {  
            for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++) counter.increment();  
        });  
        Thread t2 = new Thread(() -> {  
            for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++) counter.increment();  
        });  
        t1.start();    t2.start();  
        t1.join();    t2.join();  
        System.out.println("Final Count: " + counter.getCount());  
    }  
}
```





# Handson Labs



# Handson Labs

- Library Management System: Store books in a List, search/filter using Streams API.
- Custom Exception: Create InvalidBookException for invalid data input.
- Multi-threaded Ticket Booking System: Multiple threads booking seats.
- Employee Records with Stream API: Filter employees by salary, department, etc.



# Git, Build Tools & JUnit Testing



# Git Essentials



# Git Essentials

- Git init, clone, add, commit, push, pull
- Branching & merging
- Handling merge conflicts



# Introduction to Git

- Git is a distributed version control system (DVCS) used to track changes in source code during software development.
- What Git Does
  - Tracks changes: Keeps a history of who changed what and when.
  - Manages versions: Lets you switch between different versions of your project.
  - Collaboration: Multiple developers can work on the same project without overwriting each other's work.
  - Branching & merging: Allows you to create isolated branches for features, bug fixes, or experiments, and later merge them.



# Introduction to Git

- Key Features
  - Distributed: Every developer has a complete copy of the repository.
  - Fast & lightweight: Operations like commits, branching, and merging are efficient.
  - Reliable: Designed to handle large projects (Linux kernel is managed with Git).
  - Open-source: Free to use, created by Linus Torvalds in 2005.
- Why Git is Important
  - Ensures code safety by keeping full history.
  - Simplifies team collaboration with remote repositories (e.g., GitHub).
  - Supports parallel development using branches.
  - Provides rollback ability if something breaks.



# Git init, clone, add, commit, push, pull

- git init
  - Use: Create a new local Git repository.
  - Command:  
\$ git init
  - This initializes Git in your current project folder.
- git clone
  - Use: Copy (download) an existing remote repository to your local machine.
  - Command:  
\$ git clone <repository-url>
  - Example:  
\$ git clone https://github.com/user/project.git





# Git init, clone, add, commit, push, pull

- git add
  - Use: Stage changes (prepare files to be committed).
  - Command:
    - \$ git add <file-name> # Add a single file
    - \$ git add . # Add all changes
- git commit
  - Use: Save changes to the local repository with a message.
  - Command:
    - \$ git commit -m "Meaningful commit message"



# Git init, clone, add, commit, push, pull

- git push
  - Use: Upload local commits to a remote repository.
  - Command:  
`$ git push origin <branch-name>`
  - Example:  
`$ git push origin main`
- git pull
  - Use: Fetch and merge changes from remote repository into local.
  - Command:  
`$ git pull origin <branch-name>`
  - Example:  
`$ git pull origin main`



# Branching & merging

- Branching in Git
  - A branch is like a separate line of development.
  - By default, Git creates a branch called main (or master in older repos).
  - You can create other branches to work on new features or fixes without touching the main code.
  - Commands
    - \$ git branch <branch-name> # Create a new branch
    - \$ git checkout <branch-name> # Switch to that branch (older way)
    - \$ git switch <branch-name> # Switch to that branch (newer way)
    - \$ git checkout -b <branch-name> # Create and switch in one step
- Example: creates a branch called feature-login and switches to it
  - \$ git checkout -b feature-login



# Branching & merging

- Merging in Git
  - Merging combines changes from one branch into another (often into main).
- Commands
  - Switch to the branch you want to merge into:  
\$ git switch main
  - Merge another branch:  
\$ git merge feature-login



# Branching & merging

- Merge Types
  - Fast-forward merge (simple case):
    - If no new commits exist on main since branching, Git just moves the pointer forward.
    - main → feature-login
  - Three-way merge (more common):
    - If both branches have new commits, Git combines them and creates a new commit called a merge commit.



# Handling merge conflicts

- What is a Merge Conflict?
  - A merge conflict happens when Git cannot automatically decide which changes to keep.
- Typical case:
  - Developer A edits line 10 of app.js.
  - Developer B also edits line 10 of app.js in another branch.
  - When merging, Git sees two different edits → conflict.



# Handling merge conflicts

- How to Detect Conflicts

- When you merge:

- \$ git merge feature-branch

- You'll see:

- Auto-merging app.js

- CONFLICT (content): Merge conflict in app.js

- Automatic merge failed; fix conflicts and then commit the result.



# Handling merge conflicts

- Conflict Markers in Files

- Open the file, you'll see something like:

```
<<<<<<< HEAD
```

```
console.log("Hello from main branch");
```

```
=====
```

```
console.log("Hello from feature branch");
```

```
>>>>>>> feature-branch
```

- Between <<<<<<< HEAD and ===== → your current branch code (e.g., main).
  - Between ===== and >>>>>>> feature-branch → incoming branch code.





# Handling merge conflicts

- How to Resolve
  - Open the conflicted file(s).
  - Decide which code to keep (or merge manually).
  - Mark conflict as resolved:  
`$ git add app.js`
  - Commit the merge:  
`$ git commit`
- Abort a Merge (if you messed up)  
`$ git merge --abort`
  - This cancels the merge and brings you back to the state before merging.



# Handling merge conflicts

- VS Code for Easier Conflict Resolution
  - shows options:
    - "Accept Current Change"
    - "Accept Incoming Change"
    - "Accept Both Changes".



# Build Tools



# Build Tools

- Maven: POM.xml structure, dependencies, lifecycle (compile, test, package, install)
- Gradle: build.gradle scripts, dependency management
- Maven vs Gradle comparison



# Maven: POM.xml structure, dependencies, lifecycle (compile, test, package, install)

- What is Maven?
  - Maven is a build automation and project management tool for Java.
  - Uses POM.xml to configure project details.
  - Handles dependencies (external libraries).
  - Provides a lifecycle for building, testing, packaging, and deploying apps.



# Maven: POM.xml structure, dependencies, lifecycle (compile, test, package, install)

- POM.xml (Project Object Model)
  - The POM.xml is the heart of a Maven project.
  - It describes the project and configuration.
- Key tags:
  - groupId → unique project group (like company domain).
  - artifactId → name of the project.
  - version → version of the project.
  - packaging → type (jar, war, pom).
  - dependencies → libraries needed.



# Maven: POM.xml structure, dependencies, lifecycle (compile, test, package, install)

- Dependencies
  - Maven manages external libraries from a central repository.
  - Defined inside `<dependencies>` in `pom.xml`.
- Example

```
<dependency>
<groupId>org.springframework.boot</groupId>
<artifactId>spring-boot-starter-web</artifactId>
<version>3.2.5</version>
</dependency>
```

  - Maven automatically downloads this library and its transitive dependencies.



# Maven: POM.xml structure, dependencies, lifecycle (compile, test, package, install)

- Standard Maven Lifecycle Phases
  - compile → compile source code.
  - test → run unit tests.
  - package → bundle compiled code into jar/war.
  - verify → run integration tests.
  - install → put package in local Maven repository.
- Example commands:
  - \$ mvn compile      # Compile source code
  - \$ mvn test          # Run tests
  - \$ mvn package      # Create JAR/WAR
  - \$ mvn install      # Install to local repo





# Gradle: build.gradle scripts, dependency management

- What is Gradle?
  - Gradle is a build automation tool (like Maven, but more flexible).
  - Uses Groovy (or Kotlin) scripts instead of XML.
  - Handles dependencies, builds, testing, and deployment.
  - Faster and more customizable than Maven.



# Gradle: build.gradle scripts, dependency management

- build.gradle Script
  - The main file in a Gradle project is build.gradle.
  - It defines project settings, plugins, dependencies, and tasks.
- Key parts:
  - plugins → add functionality (Java, Spring Boot, etc.).
  - repositories → define where dependencies come from (Maven Central, JCenter, local).
  - dependencies → external libraries.
  - application → define the main class (for runnable apps).



# Gradle: build.gradle scripts, dependency management

- Dependency Management
  - Gradle has different dependency configurations (scopes):
    - implementation → normal dependencies required at compile & runtime.
    - compileOnly → needed only at compile time.
    - runtimeOnly → needed only at runtime.
    - testImplementation → used only for tests.
- Example

```
dependencies {  
    implementation 'org.springframework.boot:spring-boot-starter-web:3.2.5'  
    compileOnly 'org.projectlombok:lombok:1.18.30'  
    runtimeOnly 'mysql:mysql-connector-java:8.0.33'  
    testImplementation 'org.junit.jupiter:junit-jupiter:5.10.2'  
}
```



# Gradle: build.gradle scripts, dependency management

- Running Gradle Tasks

- Some common Gradle commands:

- \$ gradle build      # Compiles, tests, and packages app
    - \$ gradle clean      # Deletes build folder
    - \$ gradle test      # Runs unit tests
    - \$ gradle run      # Runs main class (if application plugin applied)
    - \$ gradle dependencies # Shows dependency tree



# Maven vs Gradle comparison

Feature	Maven	Gradle
<b>Configuration Style</b>	XML (pom.xml)	Groovy/Kotlin DSL (build.gradle, build.gradle.kts)
<b>Readability</b>	Verbose but structured	Concise, flexible scripting
<b>Performance</b>	Slower (parses XML, no incremental builds by default)	Faster (incremental builds + build cache)
<b>Flexibility</b>	Convention over configuration (fixed lifecycle phases)	Highly customizable with tasks & plugins
<b>Dependency Management</b>	Uses Maven Central (default)	Uses Maven Central, JCenter, or custom repos
<b>Plugins</b>	Rich ecosystem of predefined plugins	More modern plugin system, can use Maven plugins too
<b>Learning Curve</b>	Easier for beginners (more rigid)	Slightly steeper (more freedom and scripting)
<b>IDE Support</b>	Excellent (Eclipse, IntelliJ, VS Code)	Excellent (Eclipse, IntelliJ, VS Code)
<b>Popularity</b>	Older, very widely used in enterprise	Growing fast, preferred in modern projects (Spring Boot, Android)
<b>Best For</b>	Standard enterprise Java apps with fixed workflows	Complex/large projects, Android, microservices, highly customizable builds



# JUnit Testing



# JUnit Testing

- Lifecycle: @BeforeEach, @AfterEach, @BeforeAll, @AfterAll
- Assertions: assertEquals, assertTrue, assertThrows
- Parameterized tests
- Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



# Overview of unit testing and role of JUnit in Java

- Unit testing is the process of testing individual units or components of a software application in isolation to ensure they perform as expected.
  - A unit typically means a method or class.
  - Performed by developers during development.
  - Helps identify bugs early in the development cycle.





# Overview of unit testing and role of JUnit in Java

- Characteristics of Good Unit Tests

Characteristic	Description
<b>Isolated</b>	Tests only one method/class without external systems
<b>Fast</b>	Executes quickly and frequently
<b>Repeatable</b>	Same result every time it's run
<b>Independent</b>	Doesn't rely on the outcome of other tests
<b>Automated</b>	Can run without manual steps



# Overview of unit testing and role of JUnit in Java

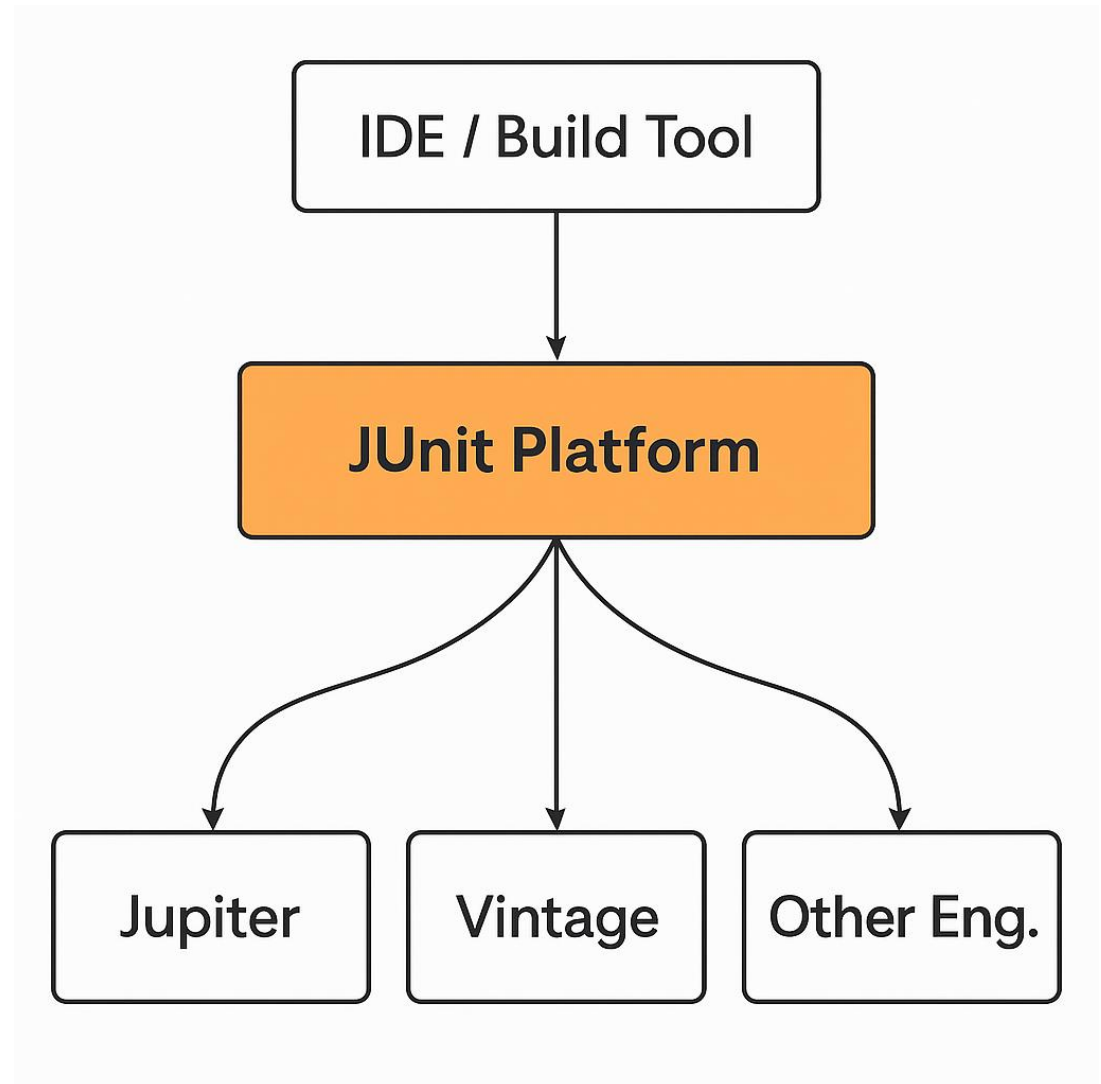
- JUnit is the standard testing framework for Java.
- It provides annotations, assertions, and test runners to help you write and manage unit tests effectively.
- Role of JUnit in Unit Testing

Feature	How JUnit Helps
<b>Test annotations</b>	Like @Test, @BeforeEach, @AfterEach
<b>Assertions</b>	Like assertEquals, assertTrue, assertThrows
<b>Test organization</b>	Helps group and structure test cases
<b>Automation support</b>	Runs tests via IDEs, build tools (Maven), CI tools
<b>Reporting</b>	Provides pass/fail status with error details



# Understanding JUnit 5 architecture – Jupiter, Platform, Vintage

- JUnit 5 is a modular and extensible testing framework, designed to overcome the limitations of JUnit 4 and support modern development needs like Java 8+ features, and dynamic tests.





# Understanding JUnit 5 architecture – Jupiter, Platform, Vintage

- JUnit 5 is composed of three main sub-projects:
- JUnit 5 = JUnit Platform + JUnit Jupiter + JUnit Vintage
- JUnit Platform
  - The foundation of JUnit 5
  - Launches and discovers tests
  - Provides a TestEngine API so any testing framework like JUnit can plug in
  - Integrates with IDEs, build tools (Maven), and CI tools
  - Think of it as the "runner and orchestrator" of all tests.



# Understanding JUnit 5 architecture – Jupiter, Platform, Vintage

- JUnit Jupiter
  - The new programming model and test engine for writing tests using JUnit 5 annotations and Java 8+ features
  - Provides:
    - `@Test`, `@BeforeEach`, `@AfterEach`, etc.
    - Nested tests (`@Nested`)
    - Parameterized tests
  - This is where you write your modern JUnit 5 tests.



# Understanding JUnit 5 architecture – Jupiter, Platform, Vintage

- JUnit Vintage
  - Allows backward compatibility with JUnit 3 and JUnit 4 tests
  - Provides a test engine that runs older JUnit 3/4 test classes inside the JUnit 5 environment
  - Use this when migrating old test suites to JUnit 5 gradually.

# Environment setup in IntelliJ IDEA with JUnit 5 dependencies



## Step 1: Create a New Maven Project

- Open IntelliJ IDEA
  - Click on File → New → Project
  - Enter Product Name: junit5demo
  - Select Build System: Maven
  - Click Finish
- Your project will now be created with the standard Maven structure.

# Environment setup in IntelliJ IDEA with JUnit 5 dependencies



## Step 2: Add JUnit 5 Dependencies to pom.xml

- Open the pom.xml file and add the following inside <dependencies>:

```
<dependencies>
<dependency>
  <groupId>org.junit.jupiter</groupId>
  <artifactId>junit-jupiter</artifactId>
  <version>5.10.0</version>
  <scope>test</scope>
</dependency>
</dependencies>
```

- IntelliJ will auto-download the dependencies. If not, right-click the project and select Reload Maven Project.



# Environment setup in IntelliJ IDEA with JUnit 5 dependencies



Step 3: Create the Main Class

```
public class Calculator {  
    public int add(int a, int b) {  
        return a + b;  
    }  
}
```

# Environment setup in IntelliJ IDEA with JUnit 5 dependencies



## Step 4: Create a Test Class

```
import org.junit.jupiter.api.Test;
import static org.junit.jupiter.api.Assertions.assertEquals;
public class CalculatorTest {
    @Test
    void testAdd() {
        Calculator calc = new Calculator();
        assertEquals(5, calc.add(2, 3));
    }
}
```

# Environment setup in IntelliJ IDEA with JUnit 5 dependencies



- Step 5: Run the Test
  - Right-click the CalculatorTest.java file
  - Click Run 'CalculatorTest'
  - You should see a green checkmark if the test passes.

# Lifecycle: @BeforeEach, @AfterEach, @BeforeAll, @AfterAll

- @BeforeAll, @AfterAll, @BeforeEach, @AfterEach, annotations control the setup and teardown process of test cases.

Annotation	Runs...	Purpose
@BeforeAll	Once before all tests	Set up shared resources
@AfterAll	Once after all tests	Clean up shared resources
@BeforeEach	Before each test method	Initialize/reset test data
@AfterEach	After each test method	Clean up after each test
@Test	Marks a method as a test case	Execute test logic



# Assertions: assertEquals, assertTrue, assertThrows

Assertion	Description	Example
<b>assertEquals</b>	Asserts that two values are equal	<code>assertEquals(4, 2 + 2)</code>
<b>assertNotEquals</b>	Asserts that two values are not equal	<code>assertNotEquals(5, 2 + 2)</code>
<b>assertTrue</b>	Asserts that a condition is true	<code>assertTrue(5 &gt; 2)</code>
<b>assertFalse</b>	Asserts that a condition is false	<code>assertFalse(3 &gt; 5)</code>
<b>assertNull</b>	Asserts that the value is null	<code>assertNull(obj)</code>
<b>assertNotNull</b>	Asserts that the value is not null	<code>assertNotNull(obj)</code>
<b>assertArrayEquals</b>	Asserts two arrays are equal	<code>assertArrayEquals(arr1, arr2)</code>
<b>assertThrows</b>	Asserts that an exception is thrown	<code>assertThrows(Exception.class, ...)</code>



# Parameterized tests

- `@ParameterizedTest` – Test with Multiple Data Inputs
  - Use this when you want to run the same test with different inputs, avoiding code duplication.

```
public class ParamTest {  
    @ParameterizedTest  
    @ValueSource(ints = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5})  
    void testEvenNumbers(int number) {  
        assertTrue(number > 0);  
    }  
}
```

# Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



- TDD stands for Test-Driven Development.
- It is a software development practice where you write tests before writing the actual code.
- TDD Cycle (Red-Green-Refactor)
  - RED – Write a test for a new feature. The test will fail initially because the functionality doesn't exist yet.
  - GREEN – Write the minimum code necessary to make the test pass.
  - REFACTOR – Clean up the code (improve structure, remove duplication) while ensuring tests still pass.
  - This cycle is repeated for every small piece of functionality.

# Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



- Example (TDD in Java with JUnit)

Step 1 – Write a failing test (RED):

```
@Test
void shouldAddTwoNumbers() {
    Calculator calculator = new Calculator();
    assertEquals(5, calculator.add(2, 3)); // Fails, Calculator not implemented yet
}
```



# Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



- Example (TDD in Java with JUnit)

Step 2 – Write code to pass test (GREEN):

```
public class Calculator {  
    public int add(int a, int b) {  
        return a + b;  
    }  
}
```

Step 3 – Refactor if needed (REFACTOR):

- Code is already simple, no need to refactor.

# Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



- Benefits of TDD
  - Ensures high test coverage
  - Produces clean, modular, and reliable code
  - Catches bugs early
  - Provides living documentation (tests show how the code is expected to behave)
  - Makes refactoring safer

# Basics of TDD (red → green → refactor cycle)



- TDD vs Traditional Development

Traditional Development	TDD
<b>Write code first, then test</b>	Write test first, then code
<b>Bugs discovered later</b>	Bugs caught early
<b>Often low test coverage</b>	High test coverage
<b>Harder to refactor</b>	Refactoring is safer



# Handon Labs



# Handon Labs

- Git Repo Setup: Initialize repo, create branches, push to GitHub.
- Maven Project Creation: Create & run simple HelloWorld app.
- Convert Maven → Gradle Project: Add Gradle build scripts.
- JUnit Tests for Services: Write unit tests for Calculator or Employee Service class.



**Happy Learning :)**