

kintsugi-stack-java

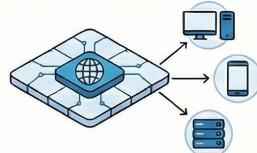
Write once, run anywhere.

Java at a Glance: Core Concepts Explained

The Java Ecosystem & Code Lifecycle

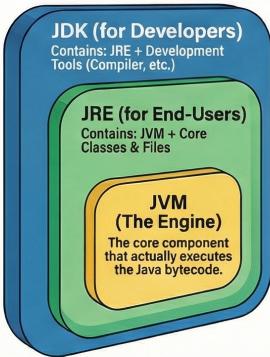
Write Once, Run Anywhere

Java's core promise: compiled code runs on any machine with a Java Virtual Machine (JVM)



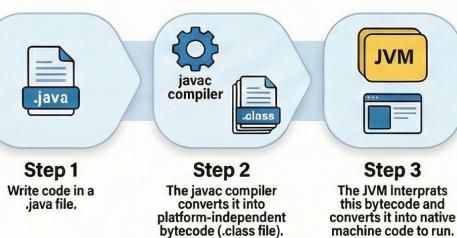
The Java Environment

Java's environment has three key components that work together.



How Java Code Executes

A simple three-step process turns your source code into a running program.

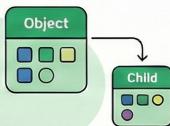


The Four Pillars of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)



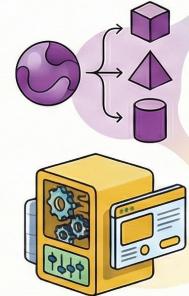
1. Encapsulation

Bundling data (fields) and the methods that operate on that data within a single unit (a class).



2. Inheritance

Allowing a new class (child) to acquire the properties and methods of an existing class (parent).



3. Polymorphism

The ability of an object or method to take many forms, enabling a single action to be performed in different ways.



4. Abstraction

Hiding complex implementation details from the user and only showing essential features of an object.

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Disclaimer: The content presented here is a curated blend of my personal learning journey, experiences, open-source documentation, and invaluable knowledge gained from diverse sources. I do not claim sole ownership over all the material; this is a community-driven effort to learn, share, and grow together.

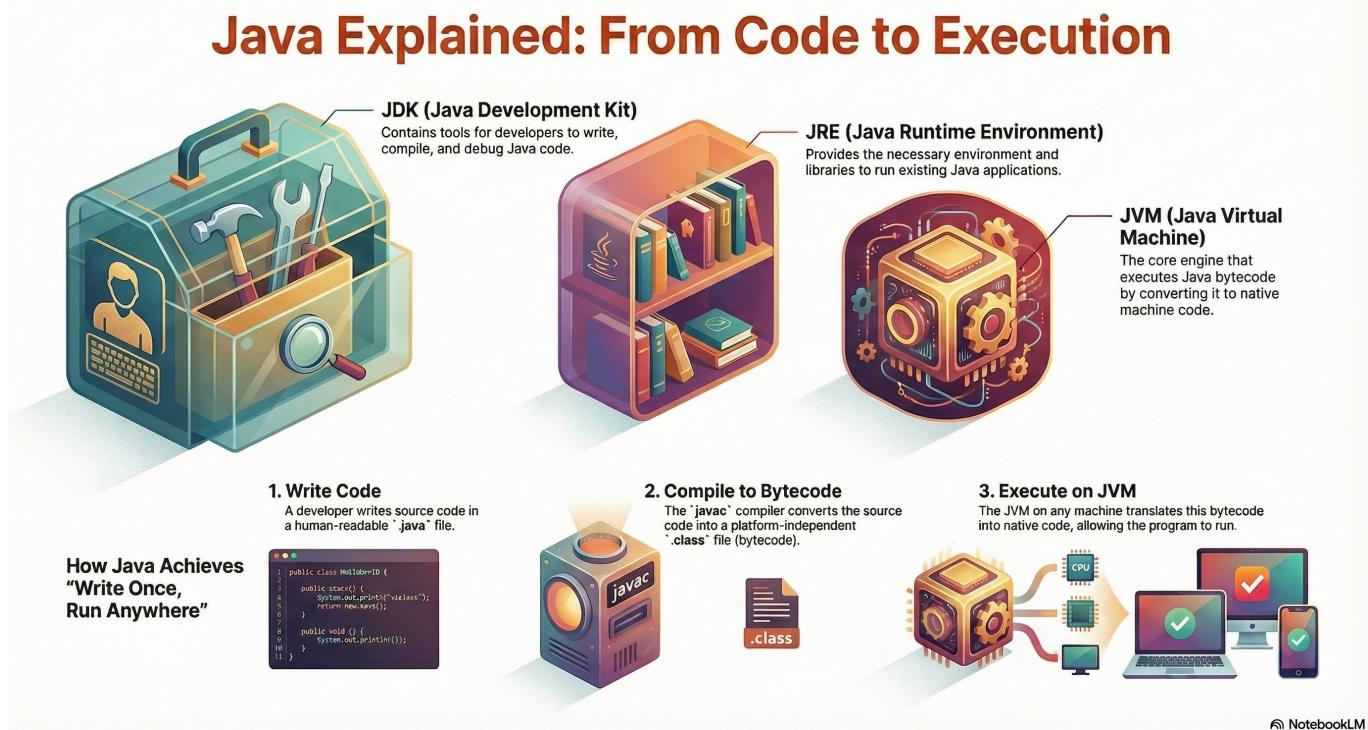
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Introduction to Java



What is Java?

- Java is an **Object-Oriented Programming Language**
- Known for its "**Write Once, Run Anywhere**" (**WORA**) capability
- **Platform Independent** - requires only JVM (Java Virtual Machine) to be installed on the target machine
- Code runs on any machine that has JVM installed

Why Java is Platform Independent?

When you compile a Java program:

1. `.java` file → compiled by `javac` compiler → `.class` file (contains bytecode)
2. Bytecode can run on any machine with JVM installed
3. JVM converts bytecode to native machine code

Java Installation & Components

Installing Java, means installing JDK

```
sudo apt update
sudo apt install openjdk-17-jdk
```

JDK, JRE, and JVM Relationship

```
JDK (Java Development Kit)
|--- JRE (Java Runtime Environment)
```

```
|   └─ JVM (Java Virtual Machine)  
└─ Development Tools (javac, debugger, etc.)
```

JDK contains JRE, which contains JVM.

JDK (Java Development Kit)

- **Purpose:** Tools for developers to write Java code
- **Contains:**
 - Java compiler (`javac`)
 - Documentation generator
 - Debugger
 - Core classes source code
 - JRE

JRE (Java Runtime Environment)

- **Purpose:** Environment to run Java applications
- **Contains:**
 - Compiled core classes
 - Supporting files
 - Configuration files (memory allocation settings)
 - JVM

It(JRE) does **not** contain development tools.

JVM (Java Virtual Machine)

- **Purpose:** The actual engine where Java programs execute
- Converts bytecode to native machine code
- Platform-specific component

Java Program Execution Process

1. Write code → `.java` file
2. Compile with `javac` → `.class` file (bytecode)
3. Execute with JVM → native machine code

Execution involves three main steps.

1. **Code Writing:** The developer writes code in a file with the `.java` extension (e.g., `Test.java`).
2. **Compilation:** The `javac` compiler takes the `.java` file and converts it into a `.class` file.
 - The `.class` file contains **Bytecode**.
 - This Bytecode is **platform independent**.
3. **Execution:** Execution is handled by the **JVM**.
 - The JVM reads and understands the Bytecode.

- It converts the Bytecode into **Native Code** (machine code, zeros and ones) so the program can run on the specific machine.

Basic Java Program Structure

```
// package com.kintsugistack.javaessentials; // used at serious java  
project, rn vsc java extension is handling .java process to .class, etc etc  
to direct simple run ;)  
  
public class App { // Class  
    public static void main(String[] args){ // Main Method/Runner/Driver  
        Code  
            System.out.println("I am Kintsugi-Programmer");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

VSC Setup

- Install VSC JAVA Ext. Pack

Getting Started

Welcome to the VS Code Java world. Here is a guideline to help you get started to write Java code in Visual Studio Code.

Folder Structure

The workspace contains two folders by default, where:

- `src`: the folder to maintain sources
- `lib`: the folder to maintain dependencies

Meanwhile, the compiled output files will be generated in the `bin` folder by default.

> If you want to customize the folder structure, open `.`.vscode/settings.json` and update the related settings there.

Dependency Management

The `JAVA PROJECTS` view allows you to manage your dependencies. More details can be found [here](<https://github.com/microsoft/vscode-java-dependency#manage-dependencies>).

Basic Skeleton

everything we write in java is inside class !!!

```
class Test {  
    public static void main(String[] args) { // Main Method/Runner/Driver  
        Code  
        // Your code here  
        System.out.println("Hello World");  
    }  
}
```

Class: The basic meaning of a Class is a **blueprint** or design. For example, the design of a house is the class.

Main Method Breakdown

Main Method: `public static void main(String[] args)` is the **main thing**. This is the **entry point**—the method understood by the JVM. The signature must be written **exactly as it is**.

- **public**: An **Access Modifier** meaning it can be accessed by anyone outside the class.
- **static**: Means the method is associated with the class **where it resides**, and you **do not need to create an object** to access it.
- **void**: Means the method **does not return anything**.
- **main**: The name of the method understood by the JVM.
- **String[] args**: Allows passing **parameters** (arguments) into the code.

Print Statements

```
System.out.println("Hello World"); // Prints with new line  
System.out.print("Hello"); // Prints without new line
```

System.out Explanation

To print something to the console, use `System.out.println("Hello World")`.

- **System**: A class in Java.
- **out**: An **instance** (object) of the **PrintStream** class, which represents the console.
- **println**: A method used to print content to the console.

Statement Termination

Every statement in Java **must end with a semicolon (;)**.

Objects

An **Object** is an actual instance of a Class. For example, the house built from the blueprint is the object. Objects can be instantiated from a class.

IDE Usage: Packages and Organization

An IDE (Integrated Development Environment), such as IntelliJ, is used to write code.

- **Packages:** Act like **folders** for organizing code.
- **Naming Convention:** Packages are often named in a reverse fashion of a domain (e.g., `com.okey.javaInOneVideo`). Package names should generally be in **small case**.
- **Structure:** Packages can represent different sections of the course, such as `dataTypes`, `controlFlow`, `oops`, `multiThreading`, and `collectionFramework`.

Data Types

When declaring variables, the type must be specified (e.g., `int a = 1`).

Primitive Data Types

as java have some primitive stuff, it's NOT PURE OPPS Lang.

Integral Data Types

Integral numbers are numbers without a decimal point. There are four types, differentiated by their ranges:

Data Type	Memory Usage	Range Details	Notes
<code>byte</code>	1 byte	Minimum: -128; Maximum: 127	Storing values outside this range results in an error.
<code>short</code>	More bytes	Range is slightly larger than <code>byte</code> .	For larger numbers than <code>byte</code> .
<code>int</code>		Used for storing standard integers.	
<code>long</code>		Used for storing numbers larger than <code>int</code> .	Literals must be suffixed with <code>L</code> (e.g., <code>123456L</code>) to prevent the default assumption that the number is an <code>int</code> .

```
byte a = 1;          // Range: -128 to 127 (1 byte)
short b = 2;         // Range: -32,768 to 32,767 (2 bytes)
int c = 3;           // Range: -231 to 231-1 (4 bytes)
long d = 4L;         // Range: -263 to 263-1 (8 bytes)
```

Important Notes:

- Add 'L' suffix for long literals
- Default integral type is `int`
- Each type has different memory allocation

Floating Point (Decimal Numbers) Data Types

Used for numbers containing decimal points.

Data Type	Precision	Use Case
<code>float</code>	Around seven significant digits .	Used for scientific notation or approximate values. Values exceeding 7 digits will be rounded off.
<code>double</code>	Around 15 significant digits .	Used when more precision is required than <code>float</code> .

- **float Min/Max:** Can store data close to zero (e.g., `$10^{-45}`) and up to large numbers (e.g., `$10^{38}`).

```
float e = 3.14f;      // ~7 significant digits (4 bytes)
double f = 3.14159; // ~15 significant digits (8 bytes)
```

Important Notes:

- Add 'F' suffix for float literals
- Default decimal type is `double`
- Use for approximate values, not precise calculations

Boolean Data Type

Used to store only two values: **True or False**.

- **Values:** `true` or `false`.
- **Size:** Takes **one bit** (`True=1`, `False=0`).

```
boolean isAdult = true;    // Only true or false
boolean isSunny = false;   // 1 bit storage
```

Character Data Type

Used to store a **single character**.

- **Syntax:** Use single quotes (e.g., `char n = 'n'`).
- **Integer Mapping:** Every character in Java is mapped to an **integer value**. This value can be retrieved using type casting (e.g., `(int)n`).
- **Range:** Minimum value is 0; Maximum value is 65535. Java can store 65,536 different characters.
- **Content:** Can store English characters, symbols, emojis, and special characters.
- **ASCII:** The range 0 to 127 is a subset known as ASCII, which includes English alphabets (upper and lower case), space, enter, and backspace.

```
char grade = 'A';           // Single character (2 bytes)
char symbol = '★';         // Can store symbols
char hindi = 'अ';          // Can store Unicode characters
```

Character Features:

- Range: 0 to 65,535 (Unicode values)
- Can convert to integer: (`int`) `grade` gives ASCII value
- Supports all languages and symbols

Data Type Ranges

Checking Min/Max Values

```
System.out.println("Byte min: " + Byte.MIN_VALUE);      // -128
System.out.println("Byte max: " + Byte.MAX_VALUE);      // 127
System.out.println("Int min: " + Integer.MIN_VALUE);
System.out.println("Int max: " + Integer.MAX_VALUE);
System.out.println("Float min: " + Float.MIN_VALUE);
System.out.println("Float max: " + Float.MAX_VALUE);
```

Primitive vs. Wrapper Classes

`int != Integer`

Feature	Primitive Data Type (<code>int</code> , <code>char</code> , <code>float</code>)	Wrapper Class (<code>Integer</code> , <code>Character</code> , <code>Float</code>)
Nature	Not a Class.	A Class.
OOP Status	Their existence means Java is not a purely Object-Oriented language.	Provides fields and methods (e.g., <code>Integer.MAX_VALUE</code>).
Usage	Standard variable storage.	Used by Collection framework classes. Provides more flexibility.

Type Conversion

Widening Conversion (Implicit/Automatic)

```
byte byteVal = 10;
short shortVal = byteVal;      // OK - smaller to larger
int intValue = shortVal;      // OK - smaller to larger
long longVal = intValue;      // OK - smaller to larger
float floatVal = longVal;      // OK - int to float
double doubleVal = floatVal;    // OK - float to double
```

- **Concept:** Converting a **smaller** data type to a **larger** data type.
- **Mechanism:** This conversion happens **automatically** (implicitly).
- **Examples:** `byte` to `short`, `int` to `long`, `long` to `float`, `float` to `double`.
- **Result:** No data loss occurs.

Narrowing Conversion (Explicit/Manual)

```
double doubleVal = 123.456;
float floatVal = (float) doubleVal;      // Explicit cast needed
long longVal = (long) floatVal;          // Explicit cast needed
int intVal = (int) longVal;              // Explicit cast needed
```

- **Concept:** Converting a **larger** data type to a **smaller** data type.
- **Mechanism:** This must be explicitly done by the developer (e.g., casting (`long`)).
- **Reason:** Converting a larger container (like a bucket) into a smaller one (like a jug) can cause **overflow and data loss** (e.g., loss of the decimal part when converting `float` to `long`).

String Class (Strings)

String is a **Class**, not a primitive data type.

String Creation Methods

```
String str1 = "hello"; // 1
String str2 = new String("hello"); // 2
```

1. **Direct Literal:** By directly assigning a value in double quotes.

```
String s1 = "Hello";
// Method 1: String Literal
// Uses the String Pool
```

2. **Constructor:** Using the `new` keyword.

```
String s3 = new String("Hello");
// Method 2: Using new keyword
// Creates a new object in the Heap memory
```

Memory Management (Stack, Heap, and String Pool)

The JVM uses two main spaces for data storage: **Stack** and **Heap**.

- **Stack:** Stores data for primitive type variables (e.g., the value `1` for `int a = 1`).

- **Heap:** Where objects created using the `new` keyword are stored.
 - **String Pool:** A specific part of the Heap memory where **String Literals** reside.
 - **String Pool:** Special area in heap memory for string literals
 - Literals are reused to save memory
 - `new String()` creates object in heap (outside string pool)
 - **Reusability:** The String Pool checks if a literal already exists. If it does, subsequent uses of the same literal will reference the existing string object for **re-use**, preventing the creation of new objects.
- **References:** Variables holding objects (like `s1` or `s2`) store the **address** (reference) of the object in memory, not the direct value.

String Comparison

```

String str1 = "hello";
String str2 = "hello";
String str3 = new String("hello");

// Reference comparison
str1 == str2;           // true (both point to same object in string pool)
str1 == str3;           // false (different memory locations)

// Content comparison
str1.equals(str2);     // true (same content)
str1.equals(str3);     // true (same content)

```

- **Reference Comparison (`==`):** Using `==` on String objects compares their **references** (addresses).
 - `s1 == s2` (both literals, same value, same pool reference) yields **True**.
 - `s1 == s3` (`s3` created with `new`, different memory location) yields **False**.
- **Value Comparison (`.equals()`):** To check if the **content** of two strings is the same, use the `.equals()` method. This method checks if every character is the same.

String Immutability

```

String a = "hello";
a.toUpperCase();        // Creates new string, doesn't modify 'a'
System.out.println(a); // Still prints "hello"

// To modify, reassign
a = a.toUpperCase(); // Now 'a' points to "HELLO"

```

- **Immutability:** String is **immutable**. Operations like `toUpperCase()` or `substring()` **create a new String** rather than changing the existing one. Reassigning the variable is necessary to point it to the new string (`a = a.toUpperCase()`).

Common String Methods

```
String text = "Hello World";  
  
// Length  
text.length();           // 11  
  
// Character at index  
text.charAt(0);          // 'H'  
  
// Substring  
text.substring(0, 5);    // "Hello"  
  
// Contains  
text.contains("World"); // true  
  
// Replace  
text.replace("World", "Java"); // "Hello Java"  
  
// Case conversion  
text.toUpperCase();      // "HELLO WORLD"  
text.toLowerCase();      // "hello world"
```

- `toUpperCase()`
- `toLowerCase()`
- `length()`
- `charAt(index)` (uses zero-based indexing to find a character).
- `substring()` (extracts a part of the string).
- `contains("text")` (checks if a substring exists).
- `replace()` (replaces characters/substrings).

Operators

Arithmetic Operators

Used for mathematical calculations.

- `+` (Addition)
- `-` (Subtraction)
- `*` (Multiplication)
- `/` (Division)
- `%` (Modulo/Remainder)

```
int a = 10, b = 3;  
  
int sum = a + b;        // 13 (Addition)  
int diff = a - b;       // 7 (Subtraction)  
int product = a * b;    // 30 (Multiplication)  
int quotient = a / b;   // 3 (Division - integer result)  
int remainder = a % b;  // 1 (Modulo)
```

```
// For decimal result
double result = (double) a / b; // 3.333...
```

Integer Division: If division is performed on two integers (`10 / 3`), the result will be an integer (`3`). To achieve floating-point division, one of the operands must be a float or double (e.g., `10.0 / 3`).

Compound Assignment Operators

Compound Assignment Shorthand: `a = a + 5` can be shortened to `a += 5`. Similar forms exist for subtraction (`-=`), multiplication (`*=`), division (`/=`), and modulo (`%=`).

```
int a = 10;
a += 5; // Same as: a = a + 5 → a becomes 15
a -= 3; // Same as: a = a - 3 → a becomes 12
a *= 2; // Same as: a = a * 2 → a becomes 24
a /= 4; // Same as: a = a / 4 → a becomes 6
a %= 4; // Same as: a = a % 4 → a becomes 2
```

Increment/Decrement Operators

These operators add or subtract one from a variable.

```
int z = 1;

// Post-increment: use current value, then increment
int result1 = z++; // result1 = 1, z becomes 2

// Pre-increment: increment first, then use value
int result2 = ++z; // z becomes 3, result2 = 3

// Post-decrement: use current value, then decrement
int result3 = z--; // result3 = 3, z becomes 2

// Pre-decrement: decrement first, then use value
int result4 = --z; // z becomes 1, result4 = 1
```

Operator	Name	Timing of Operation	Example Effect
<code>a++</code>	Post-Increment	Uses the existing value in the current expression, then increments it afterward .	<code>z = 1; x = z++;</code> -> x is 1, z becomes 2
<code>++a</code>	Pre-Increment	Increments the value before it is used in the current expression.	<code>z = 1; x = ++z;</code> -> z becomes 2, x is 2
<code>a--</code>	Post-Decrement	Uses the existing value, then decrements it.	

Operator	Name	Timing of Operation	Example Effect
<code>--a</code>	Pre-Decrement	Decrements the value before it is used in the expression.	

Relational Operators

Return a **Boolean** result (**True** or **False**).

- `<` (Less than)
- `>` (Greater than)
- `<=` (Less than or equal to)
- `>=` (Greater than or equal to)
- `==` (Equal to)
- `!=` (Not equal to)

```
int a = 5, b = 3;

a > b;      // true (greater than)
a < b;      // false (less than)
a >= b;     // true (greater than or equal)
a <= b;     // false (less than or equal)
a == b;     // false (equal to)
a != b;     // true (not equal to)
```

Logical Operators

Used to **combine two different conditions**. The output is always Boolean.

- **Logical AND (`&&`)**: Returns **True** only if **both** combined conditions are True.
- **Logical OR (`||`)**: Returns **True** if **any one** of the conditions is True.
- **Logical NOT (`!`)**: Inverts the boolean result (e.g., if A is False, `!A` is True).

```
boolean isSunny = true;
boolean isWarm = true;

// Logical AND (&&) - both must be true
boolean goodBeachDay = isSunny && isWarm; // true

// Logical OR (||) - at least one must be true
boolean badWeather = isRaining || isSnowing; // true if either is true

// Logical NOT (!) - inverts the value
boolean notSunny = !isSunny; // false
```

Bitwise Operators

Used to perform operations on the **binary** representation of numbers (bits).

Operator	Function	Result
&	Bitwise AND	1 only if both bits are 1.
	Bitwise OR	1 if at least one bit is 1.
^	Bitwise XOR	1 only if the two bits are different .
~	Bitwise NOT	Inverts the bits (0 becomes 1, 1 becomes 0).
<<	Left Shift	Shifts the bits to the left.
>>	Right Shift	Shifts the bits to the right.

```

int a = 5;    // Binary: 0101
int b = 3;    // Binary: 0011

// Bitwise AND (&)
int and = a & b;      // 0001 = 1

// Bitwise OR (|)
int or = a | b;       // 0111 = 7

// Bitwise XOR (^)
int xor = a ^ b;      // 0110 = 6

// Bitwise NOT (~)
int not = ~a;         // Inverts all bits

// Left Shift (<<)
int leftShift = a << 1; // 1010 = 10

// Right Shift (>>)
int rightShift = a >> 1; // 0010 = 2

```

Control Statements

If Statements

Used to execute code blocks based on conditions.

- **If Block:** The code within the `if` block runs only if the condition evaluates to `True`.
- **If-Else:** If the `if` condition is `False`, the `else` block runs.
- **If-Else Ladder:** Uses `else if` to check multiple conditions sequentially.
 - If a block contains only a single line of code, the curly brackets `{}` can be skipped.

```

boolean isSunny = true;
boolean isWarm = true;

// Simple if
if (isSunny) {

```

```

        System.out.println("Good day!");
    }

// If-else
if (isSunny && isWarm) {
    System.out.println("Beach day!");
} else {
    System.out.println("Stay home.");
}

// If-else-if ladder
if (isSunny && isWarm) {
    System.out.println("Beach day!");
} else if (isSunny) {
    System.out.println("wear jacket and go to beach.");
} else {
    System.out.println("Stay home.");
}

```

Switch Statements

Used to replace long, inefficient If-Else structures, especially when checking a variable against many possible values.

- **Mechanism:** The **switch** statement **jumps directly** to the matching **case**, which is more efficient than checking every preceding condition sequentially (as in If-Else).
- **Structure:**

```

switch (variable) {
    case value1:
        // code
        break; // Essential
    // ... other cases
    default:
        // code if no case matches
}

```

- **break Keyword: Essential.** If **break** is omitted, once a matching case is found, subsequent cases will also execute (fall-through behavior) until a **break** or the end of the switch block is reached. **break** causes execution to exit the switch block.
- **default:** Executes if none of the defined cases match the variable's value.

```

int day = 3;
String dayName;

switch (day) {
    case 1:
        dayName = "Monday";

```

```
        break;
case 2:
    dayName = "Tuesday";
    break;
case 3:
    dayName = "Wednesday";
    break;
case 4:
    dayName = "Thursday";
    break;
case 5:
    dayName = "Friday";
    break;
case 6:
    dayName = "Saturday";
    break;
case 7:
    dayName = "Sunday";
    break;
default:
    dayName = "Invalid day";
    break;
}
```

Important: Always use **break** statements to prevent fall-through behavior.

Ternary Operator

This is a **short shortcut for If-Else** statements.

- **Syntax:**

```
Condition ? Statement_if_True : Statement_if_False
```

- If the condition is True, the first statement runs; otherwise, the second statement runs.

```
int a = 10;

// Syntax: condition ? valueIfTrue : valueIfFalse
String result = (a % 2 == 0) ? "Even" : "Odd";
System.out.println(result); // "Even"

// Can be used for assignment
boolean isEven = (a % 2 == 0) ? true : false;
```

Loops

Loops are used when a task needs to be performed repeatedly.

While Loop

Repeats a block of code as long as a condition remains True.

- **Structure:**

```
int i = 1; // Variable declaration/initialization outside
while (i <= 100) {
    System.out.println("Hello");
    i++; // Incrementation inside // Don't forget to increment!
}
```

- If the counter variable (*i*) is not modified inside the loop, the loop will run **infinitely**.

For Loop

A more structured loop where variable initialization, condition checking, and modification are done in one line.

```
for (initialization; condition_check; increment) {
    // Code to be executed
}
```

- **Structure:** The parentheses contain three parts, separated by semicolons.

```
// Syntax: for(initialization; condition; increment)
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    System.out.println("Hello " + i);
}

// Variable scope is limited to the loop
// int i is not accessible outside the for loop
```

For Loop Components

1. **Initialization:** `int i = 0` - Executed only once at the start.
2. **Condition:** `i < 100` - Checked before every iteration.
3. **Increment:** `i++` - Executed after the loop body runs in each iteration. This step is optional and can be removed if the modification is done inside the body.

Do-While Loop

```
int i = 101;
do {
    System.out.println("Hello");
```

```
i++;
} while (i <= 100);

// Executes at least once, even if condition is false initially
```

Similar to a **while** loop, but the code block is executed **at least once**, regardless of the condition, because the condition is checked at the end.

- **Structure:**

```
do {
    // Code runs at least once
} while (i <= 100); // Condition checked here
```

Enhanced For Loop (For-Each)

A shortcut for iterating through all elements of an array.

- **Mechanism:** In a standard **for** loop, the variable **i** acts as the index. In a For-Each loop, the variable (e.g., **i** below) acts as the element itself.

```
// Structure: for (Type element : array)
for (int i : a) {
    System.out.println(i); // Prints the element value
}
```

```
int[] numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};

// Traditional for loop
for (int i = 0; i < numbers.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(numbers[i]);
}

// Enhanced for loop
for (int num : numbers) {
    System.out.println(num);
}
```

Arrays

An array is a **data structure that stores a fixed size sequential collection of elements of the same type**.

Array Declaration and Creation

```
// Method 1: Declaration then creation
// Uses square brackets `[]`.
int[] arr; // Declaration
// The `new` keyword is used to create the array object in the Heap memory.
arr = new int[5]; // Creation with size 5

// Method 2: Combined declaration and creation
// An `int` array is initialized by default with **zeros**.
int[] numbers = new int[5]; // Creates array with default values (0)

// Method 3: Initialize with values
int[] nums = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
```

- **Declaration:** Uses square brackets `[]`.

```
int[] a;
```

- **Creation/Initialization (Fixed Size):** The `new` keyword is used to create the array object in the Heap memory.

```
a = new int; // Array size is 5
```

- **Default Values:** An `int` array is initialized by default with **zeros**.
- **Direct Initialization:** Can be done using curly brackets.

```
int[] a = {1, 2, 3};
```

Array Indexing

- **Indexing:** Arrays use **Zero-Based Indexing** (0, 1, 2, ...).
 - Elements are accessed or modified using their index (e.g., `a = 55`).

```
int[] arr = new int[5]; // Creates: [0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

// Zero-based indexing
arr[0] = 10; // First element
arr[1] = 20; // Second element
arr[4] = 50; // Last element

// Accessing elements
System.out.println(arr[0]); // Prints: 10
```

Array Operations

- **Printing:** Arrays cannot be printed directly; they require a loop to iterate through all elements.

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

// Getting array length
int length = numbers.length; // 5

// Printing all elements using for loop
for (int i = 0; i < numbers.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(numbers[i]);
}

// Printing using enhanced for loop
for (int num : numbers) {
    System.out.println(num);
}
```

Array Characteristics

- **Fixed size:** Cannot change size after creation
- **Same data type:** All elements must be of same type
- **Zero-based indexing:** First element at index 0
- **Default values:**
 - Numeric types: 0
 - Boolean: false
 - Objects: null

Object-Oriented Programming

Java works primarily with Classes and Objects.

```
// Example of a simple class and object
class Example {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Car myCar = new Car(); // Creating an object
        myCar.drive(); // Calling a method
    }
}
class Car {
    void drive() {
        System.out.println("Car is driving");
    }
}
```

Key Pillars of OOPs

The four main pillars are Encapsulation, Inheritance, Polymorphism, and Abstraction.

Classes and Objects

- **Class:** A **blueprint** (design) for creating objects. A class defines **Fields** (variables/properties, e.g., car color, speed) and **Methods** (behaviors, e.g., car drive).
- **Object:** A **real-world entity** and an **instance** of a class. Objects are created using the **new** keyword, which allocates memory in the Heap.

```
class Car {  
    String color; // Field  
    int speed;  
  
    void drive() { // Method  
        System.out.println("Car is driving at speed: " + speed);  
    }  
}  
  
class Main {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Car myCar = new Car(); // Object creation  
        myCar.color = "Red";  
        myCar.speed = 60;  
        myCar.drive();  
    }  
}
```

Class Definition

```
class Student {  
    // Fields (attributes)  
    String name;  
    int rollNumber;  
    int age;  
  
    // Constructor  
    Student(String name, int rollNumber, int age) {  
        this.name = name;  
        this.rollNumber = rollNumber;  
        this.age = age;  
    }  
  
    // Methods (behaviors)  
    void study() {  
        System.out.println(name + " is studying.");  
    }  
  
    void displayInfo() {  
        System.out.println("Name: " + name);  
    }  
}
```

```
        System.out.println("Roll: " + rollNumber);
        System.out.println("Age: " + age);
    }
}
```

Object Creation and Usage

```
// Creating objects
Student student1 = new Student("Alice", 101, 20);
Student student2 = new Student("Bob", 102, 21);

// Using objects
student1.study();           // Alice is studying.
student1.displayInfo();      // Displays Alice's info
student2.displayInfo();      // Displays Bob's info
```

Constructors

A constructor is a method used specifically to **initialize a new object**.

- **Default Constructor:** If no constructor is written, a hidden default constructor (with no arguments) is provided.
- **Custom Constructor:** Can accept parameters to set initial field values when the object is created.

```
public Car(String color) {
    this.color = color; // Uses the 'this' keyword
}
```

- **this Keyword:** Refers to the current object being constructed or acted upon.

```
class Car {
    String color;

    // Default Constructor
    Car() {
        color = "Unknown";
    }

    // Custom Constructor
    Car(String color) {
        this.color = color; // Using 'this' to refer to the current
object's field
    }

    void display() {
        System.out.println("Car color: " + color);
    }
}
```

```
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Car car1 = new Car(); // Uses default constructor
        Car car2 = new Car("Blue"); // Uses custom constructor
        car1.display();
        car2.display();
    }
}
```

Default Constructor

```
class Car {
    String brand;
    String model;

    // Default constructor
    Car() {
        brand = "Unknown";
        model = "Unknown";
    }
}
```

Parameterized Constructor

```
class Car {
    String brand;
    String model;

    // Parameterized constructor
    Car(String brand, String model) {
        this.brand = brand; // 'this' refers to current object
        this.model = model;
    }
}
```

Constructor Overloading

```
class Car {
    String brand;
    String model;
    int year;

    // Constructor 1
}
```

```

Car() {
    this("Unknown", "Unknown", 2000);
}

// Constructor 2
Car(String brand, String model) {
    this(brand, model, 2000);
}

// Constructor 3
Car(String brand, String model, int year) {
    this.brand = brand;
    this.model = model;
    this.year = year;
}
}

```

Method Overloading

```

class Calculator {
    // Method with 2 int parameters
    int add(int a, int b) {
        return a + b;
    }

    // Method with 3 int parameters
    int add(int a, int b, int c) {
        return a + b + c;
    }

    // Method with 2 double parameters
    double add(double a, double b) {
        return a + b;
    }
}

```

Advanced OOP Concepts

Encapsulation

The practice of grouping fields and methods within a class (like a capsule).

- **Principle: Hiding internal details.**
- **Implementation:** Fields are made **private** using Access Modifiers to prevent unauthorized direct access or modification outside the class (e.g., preventing a user from setting **speed** to a negative number).
- Access and modification of private fields are controlled through public **methods** (known as getters and setters), allowing for validation logic to be applied.

```

class Car {
    private String color;
    private int speed;

    // Getter
    public String getColor() {
        return color;
    }

    // Setter with validation
    public void setSpeed(int speed) {
        if (speed >= 0) {
            this.speed = speed;
        } else {
            System.out.println("Speed cannot be negative");
        }
    }

    public int getSpeed() {
        return speed;
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Car car = new Car();
        car.setSpeed(100);
        System.out.println("Speed: " + car.getSpeed());
        car.setSpeed(-50); // Will print error message
    }
}

```

Inheritance

Allows a **Child Class (Subclass)** to acquire properties and methods from a **Parent Class (Superclass)**. This mechanism promotes **code reusability**.

- **Syntax:** The **extends** keyword is used.

```
class Dog extends Animal { ... } // Dog gets Animal's methods
```

- **Types Supported by Java:**

1. **Single Inheritance:** A class extends one parent class.
2. **Multilevel Inheritance:** A chain where a class extends a parent, which extends a grandparent, etc..
3. **Hierarchical Inheritance:** Multiple classes extend the same parent class.

- **Multiple Inheritance:** Java does NOT support multiple inheritance (extending two classes simultaneously).

- **Reason:** Ambiguity arises if both parent classes have a method with the same signature (e.g., `turnOn()`). The JVM would not know which one to execute.
- **Solution:** Achieved using **Interfaces**.

```
class Animal {  
    void eat() {  
        System.out.println("This animal eats food");  
    }  
}  
  
class Dog extends Animal { // Single Inheritance  
    void bark() {  
        System.out.println("Dog barks");  
    }  
}  
  
class Puppy extends Dog { // Multilevel Inheritance  
    void play() {  
        System.out.println("Puppy plays");  
    }  
}  
  
class Main {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Puppy puppy = new Puppy();  
        puppy.eat(); // From Animal  
        puppy.bark(); // From Dog  
        puppy.play(); // From Puppy  
    }  
}
```

- Another Example

```
// Parent class  
class Animal {  
    String name;  
  
    Animal(String name) {  
        this.name = name;  
    }  
  
    void sleep() {  
        System.out.println(name + " is sleeping");  
    }  
  
    void eat() {  
        System.out.println(name + " is eating");  
    }  
}
```

```
// Child class
class Dog extends Animal {
    String breed;

    Dog(String name, String breed) {
        super(name); // Call parent constructor
        this.breed = breed;
    }

    void bark() {
        System.out.println(name + " is barking");
    }

    // Method overriding
    @Override
    void eat() {
        System.out.println(name + " is eating dog food");
    }
}
```

Polymorphism (Many Forms)

Allows methods to perform different tasks based on the object calling them.

Compile-Time Polymorphism (Method Overloading)

The compiler determines which method to call based on the arguments provided.

- **Definition:** Multiple methods within the same class have the **same name** but a **different parameter list** (different number, type, or order of arguments).
- **Example:** An **add** method designed to take two integers, and another **add** method designed to take three integers.

```
class Calculator {
    int add(int a, int b) { // Two parameters
        return a + b;
    }

    int add(int a, int b, int c) { // Three parameters
        return a + b + c;
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Calculator calc = new Calculator();
        System.out.println("Sum (2 args): " + calc.add(5, 10));
        System.out.println("Sum (3 args): " + calc.add(5, 10, 15));
    }
}
```

Run-Time Polymorphism (Method Overriding)

The JVM determines which method to call dynamically during execution (Run Time).

- **Method Overriding:** A Child Class provides a **specific, new definition** for a method already present in its Parent Class.
- **Execution:** When a Parent Class reference holds a Child Class object (`Animal animal1 = new Dog();`), the method call (`animal1.sound()`) will execute the overridden method in the **actual object type** (`Dog's bark()`).

```
class Animal {
    void sound() {
        System.out.println("Some generic animal sound");
    }
}

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

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Animal animal = new Dog(); // Parent reference, Child object
        animal.sound(); // Calls Dog's sound method
    }
}
```

Abstraction

Focuses on **showing only essential details** while **hiding the underlying implementation**.

- Achieved through **Abstract Classes** and **Interfaces**.

Abstract Classes

Used to provide a **structure** (ફોર્મા) that future classes must follow.

- **Declaration:** Uses the `abstract` keyword before the class name.
- **Abstract Methods:** Methods declared without a body (definition), ending with a semicolon (`;`). These must also use the `abstract` keyword.
 - *Rule:* If a class contains an abstract method, the class **must** be declared abstract.

- **Rule:** A concrete (non-abstract) child class extending an abstract class **must** override and implement all abstract methods.
- **Concrete Methods:** Abstract classes can also contain normal methods with definitions (e.g., a `sleep()` method).
- **Constructors and Fields:** Abstract classes can have fields (instance variables) and constructors.
- **Object Creation:** You **cannot** create an object (instance) of an abstract class.

```

abstract class Animal {
    String name;

    Animal(String name) { // Constructor
        this.name = name;
    }

    abstract void sound(); // Abstract method

    void sleep() { // Concrete method
        System.out.println(name + " is sleeping");
    }
}

class Dog extends Animal {
    Dog(String name) {
        super(name);
    }

    @Override
    void sound() {
        System.out.println(name + " barks");
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Dog dog = new Dog("Buddy");
        dog.sound();
        dog.sleep();
    }
}

```

Interfaces

A **blueprint for a class** used to achieve abstraction and **multiple inheritance**.

- **Implementation:** Classes use the keyword `implements` (unlike `extends` for inheritance).
- **Fields:** Interfaces can **only** have **static constants**. These fields are implicitly `public static final`. Instance variables are not allowed.

- **Access:** Static fields can be accessed directly via the interface name, without an instance.
- **Constructors:** Interfaces cannot have constructors.
- **Methods:** Traditionally, all methods are abstract (no body).
- **Java 8+ Features (New Method Types):**

- **Static Methods:** Utility operations that can be accessed directly via the interface. Cannot be overridden by implementing classes.
- **Default Methods:** Provide a **generic implementation**. These *can* be overridden by implementing classes if a specific implementation is needed.

Abstract Class	Interface
Can use instance variables .	Can use only static constants (no instance variables).
Can use constructors .	Cannot use constructors.
Does not support Multiple Inheritance.	Allows the achievement of Multiple Inheritance (via implementation).

```

interface Animal {
    static final int MAX_AGE = 100; // Static constant

    void sound(); // Abstract method

    default void eat() { // Default method
        System.out.println("Animal eats food");
    }

    static void info() { // Static method
        System.out.println("This is an Animal interface");
    }
}

class Dog implements Animal {
    public void sound() {
        System.out.println("Dog barks");
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Dog dog = new Dog();
        dog.sound();
        dog.eat();
        Animal.info();
        System.out.println("Max age: " + Animal.MAX_AGE);
    }
}

```

```
// Interface definition
interface Mobile {
    void makeCall(); // Abstract method (no body)
}

interface MusicPlayer {
    void playMusic(); // Abstract method
}

// Class implementing multiple interfaces
class Smartphone implements Mobile, MusicPlayer {
    @Override
    public void makeCall() {
        System.out.println("Making call...");
    }

    @Override
    public void playMusic() {
        System.out.println("Playing music...");
    }
}
```

Interface Features (Java 8+)

```
interface PaymentValidator {
    // Abstract method
    boolean validatePayment();

    // Static method
    static boolean isValidCreditCard(String cardNumber) {
        return cardNumber.length() == 16;
    }

    // Default method
    default void processPayment() {
        System.out.println("Processing payment...");
    }

    // Constants (public static final by default)
    int MAX_RETRY_ATTEMPTS = 3;
}
```

Access Modifiers

Used to control the accessibility of classes, methods, and fields.

Modifier	Within Class	Within Package	Subclass (Any Package)	Everywhere
----------	--------------	----------------	------------------------	------------

Modifier	Within Class	Within Package	Subclass (Any Package)	Everywhere
private	Yes	No	No	No
Default (No keyword)	Yes	Yes	No	No
protected	Yes	Yes	Yes (if extended)	No
public	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

- **Protected Access:** In a different package, a **protected** field can only be accessed by a class that **extends** (is a subclass of) the class where the field is declared.

```

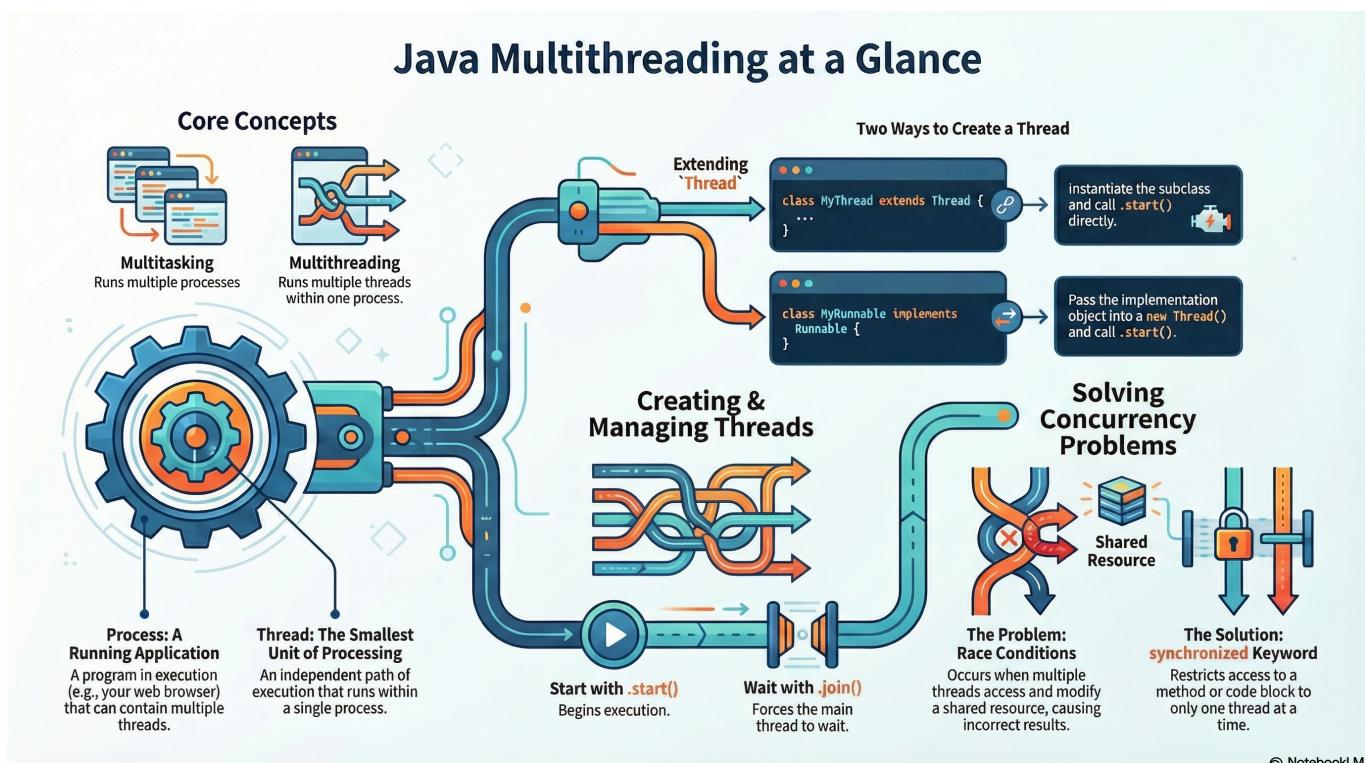
class Example {
    private int privateVar = 1;
    int defaultVar = 2; // Default access
    protected int protectedVar = 3;
    public int publicVar = 4;

    public void display() {
        System.out.println("Private: " + privateVar);
        System.out.println("Default: " + defaultVar);
        System.out.println("Protected: " + protectedVar);
        System.out.println("Public: " + publicVar);
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Example ex = new Example();
        ex.display();
    }
}

```

Multithreading



Core Concepts

- Core:** An individual processing unit within a CPU. Modern CPUs have multiple cores, enabling them to perform multiple tasks simultaneously (**True Parallel Execution**).
- Process:** A running application (e.g., Firefox, Word). A process can have multiple threads.
- Thread:** The **smallest unit of processing**. Threads within the same process share the same resources but run independently.
- Multitasking:** The operating system's ability to run multiple **processes** simultaneously.
 - In a **Single Core** system, this is managed by fast switching (time slicing) by the OS and JVM, creating the illusion of concurrency.
 - In a **Multi Core** system, the JVM distributes threads across cores for true parallel execution.
- Multithreading:** The ability to execute multiple **threads** within a **single process**. It is more **granular** than multitasking, operating at the thread level within the application.
 - Example:* A word processor running spell check and managing user input concurrently.
- Main Thread:** When a Java program starts, the thread responsible for executing the `main` method starts immediately.

```
// Example showing main thread
class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Main thread running: " +
Thread.currentThread().getName());
    }
}
```

```
}
```

Creating and Running Threads

Java provides support for multithreading within the `java.lang` package.

There are two primary ways to create a new thread in Java:

1. Extend the **Thread class**.
2. Implement the **Runnable interface**.

The logic that is intended to run in a separate thread must be placed inside the `run()` method.

Starting Threads:

Method	Creation	Starting Execution
Extending Thread	Instantiate the subclass (e.g., <code>Thread t1 = new NumberCounter();</code>)	Call the <code>.start()</code> method directly on the object (<code>t1.start()</code>).
Implementing Runnable	Pass the implementation class object into a new <code>Thread</code> instance (e.g., <code>Thread t2 = new Thread(new SumCalculator());</code>)	Call the <code>.start()</code> method on the new <code>Thread</code> object (<code>t2.start()</code>).

Synchronization: Waiting for Threads

If the Main Thread needs to wait for the spawned threads to complete before proceeding (e.g., to calculate total execution time), the `.join()` method is used.

- **.join():** Forces the calling thread (e.g., Main Thread) to wait for the target thread (e.g., `t1`) to finish.
- **Note:** The `.join()` method throws an `InterruptedException`, usually requiring handling with a `try-catch` block.
- **Benefit:** Running independent tasks in parallel using threads significantly reduces the overall execution time (e.g., 822 milliseconds vs. 573 milliseconds).

```
// Extending Thread
class MyThread extends Thread {
    public void run() {
        System.out.println("Thread running: " +
Thread.currentThread().getName());
    }
}

// Implementing Runnable
class MyRunnable implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
```

```

        System.out.println("Runnable running: " +
Thread.currentThread().getName());
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        MyThread t1 = new MyThread();
        t1.start();

        Thread t2 = new Thread(new MyRunnable());
        t2.start();

        try {
            t1.join();
            t2.join();
        } catch (InterruptedException e) {
            e.printStackTrace();
        }

        System.out.println("Main thread finished");
    }
}

```

Shared Resources and Synchronization

When multiple threads access and modify a **shared resource** simultaneously, incorrect results can occur (a race condition).

- **Example:** Two threads try to increment a shared counter variable 1000 times each. If they access the method concurrently, the final count may be less than the expected 2000.
- **Solution: synchronized Keyword:** Applying the **synchronized** keyword to the method modifying the shared resource ensures that **only one thread can access that method at a time**. This resolves the concurrency issue.

```

class Counter {
    private int count = 0;

    public synchronized void increment() {
        count++;
    }

    public int getCount() {
        return count;
    }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws InterruptedException {

```

```

Counter counter = new Counter();

Runnable task = () -> {
    for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++) {
        counter.increment();
    }
};

Thread t1 = new Thread(task);
Thread t2 = new Thread(task);

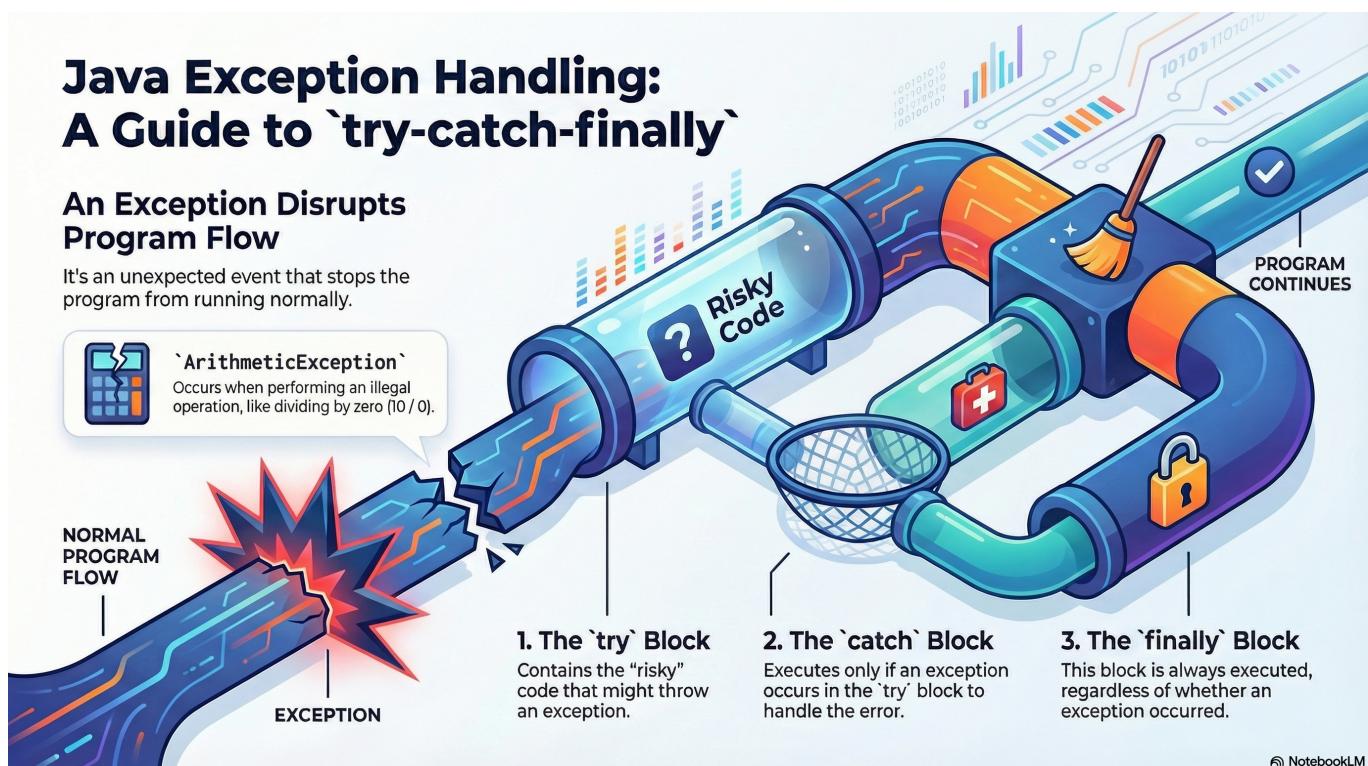
t1.start();
t2.start();

t1.join();
t2.join();

System.out.println("Final count: " + counter.getCount()); // Should
be 2000
}
}

```

Exception Handling



An **Exception** is an event that occurs during program execution that **disrupts the normal flow** of the program.

- Example: Dividing by zero ($10 / 0$) causes an **ArithmeticException**, stopping the program execution at that line.

Try-Catch-Finally Structure

Used to gracefully handle exceptions.

1. **try**: Contains the code block that might throw an exception (i.e., the code that could "bust" or fail).
2. **catch**: Catches the specific exception that is thrown. If an exception occurs in **try**, the **catch** block executes.
3. **finally**: This block **always runs**, whether an exception occurs or not.

Exception Hierarchy: Specific exceptions (like `ArithmaticException` or `NullPointerException`) inherit from the parent class `Exception`. Polymorphism allows using the parent class reference (`Exception`) to catch any of the child exceptions.

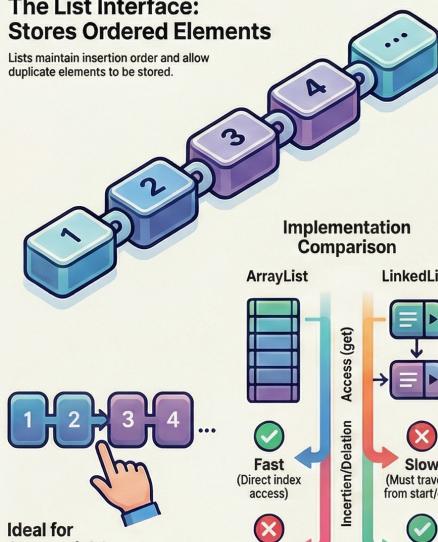
```
class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            int result = 10 / 0; // Will throw ArithmaticException
        } catch (ArithmaticException e) {
            System.out.println("Error: Division by zero");
        } finally {
            System.out.println("This always executes");
        }
    }
}
```

Collections Framework

A Visual Guide to the Java Collections Framework

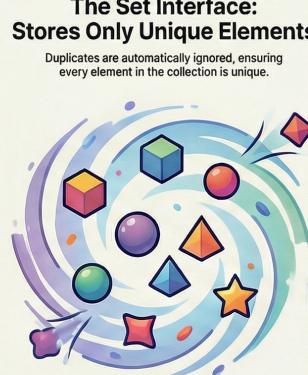
The List Interface: Stores Ordered Elements

Lists maintain insertion order and allow duplicate elements to be stored.

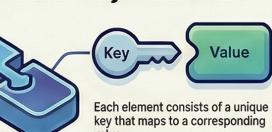


The Set Interface: Stores Only Unique Elements

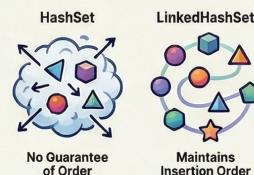
Duplicates are automatically ignored, ensuring every element in the collection is unique.



The Map Interface: Stores Key-Value Pairs



'HashSet' vs. 'LinkedHashSet'



Common Use: Storing Properties

Example: Storing a user's properties, where 'key="userId"' maps to 'value=12345'.

The Collection Framework, introduced in Java 1.2, consists of many interfaces and classes that help in **managing groups of objects**.

- **Pre-Framework Issues:** Older individual classes (Vector, Stack, Hashtable) had drawbacks: poor interoperability, inconsistent methods, and lack of a common interface to write generic algorithms.
- **Requirement:** Collection framework classes **expect Wrapper Classes** (e.g., `Integer`) rather than primitive data types (e.g., `int`).

Interfaces Hierarchy

The key interfaces include: `Iterable` > `Collection` > (`List`, `Set`, `Queue`) and `Map`.

List Interface

Used to store **ordered data** and **allows duplicates**.

- **Common Implementations:** `ArrayList`, `LinkedList`.
- **Methods:** `add()`, `get(index)` (zero-based indexing), `contains()`, `addAll()`.

`ArrayList` Internal Working

- **Structure:** Internally uses a dynamic `Array`.
- **Resizing:** By default, it starts with a size of 10. When the array becomes full, a **new array is created** (typically 1.5 times the size), and all old elements are copied ("lifted and dumped") into the new array.
- **Insertion:** Inserting an element into the middle of the list requires subsequent elements to be **shifted**.

`LinkedList` Internal Working

- **Structure:** Internally uses a **Doubly Linked List** structure.
- **Nodes:** Elements are stored as **Nodes**, which contain the data plus **Pointers** to the next (and previous) element.
- **Memory:** Nodes are allocated in **random memory locations**.
- **Insertion:** Inserting in the middle only requires changing the pointers; **no lifting or shifting of elements** is necessary.

`ArrayList`

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.List;

// Creating ArrayList
List<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<>();

// Adding elements
numbers.add(1);
numbers.add(2);
numbers.add(3);

// Accessing elements
```

```

int first = numbers.get(0); // Gets element at index 0

// Size
int size = numbers.size();

// Removing elements
numbers.remove(0); // Remove by index
numbers.remove(Integer.valueOf(2)); // Remove by value

// Iteration
for (int num : numbers) {
    System.out.println(num);
}

```

LinkedList

```

import java.util.LinkedList;
import java.util.List;

List<String> names = new LinkedList<>();
names.add("Alice");
names.add("Bob");
names.add("Charlie");

// LinkedList specific methods
LinkedList<String> linkedNames = new LinkedList<>();
linkedNames.addFirst("First"); // Add at beginning
linkedNames.addLast("Last"); // Add at end
linkedNames.removeFirst(); // Remove from beginning
linkedNames.removeLast(); // Remove from end

```

Set Interface

Used to store **unique elements** (duplicates are not allowed).

- **Common Implementations:** HashSet, LinkedHashSet.
- **Benefit:** Allows for **quick finding** of elements, avoiding slow linear search.

HashSet Internal Working

- **Hash Function:** When an element is added, it passes through a **Hash Function** (same input always yields the same output).
- **Indexing:** The hash function's output determines an **index** for the internal array where the element is stored.
- **Searching:** When checking if an element exists (**contains**), the hash is generated, the index is calculated, and the array location is accessed **directly** (avoiding a sequential search).
- **Order:** HashSet **does not guarantee any order** of elements.

LinkedHashSet

- **Difference:** `LinkedHashSet` is similar to `HashSet` but **maintains the insertion order**.

HashSet

```
import java.util.HashSet;
import java.util.Set;

Set<Integer> uniqueNumbers = new HashSet<>();

// Adding elements (duplicates ignored)
uniqueNumbers.add(1);
uniqueNumbers.add(2);
uniqueNumbers.add(2); // Duplicate - won't be added
uniqueNumbers.add(3);

// Checking if element exists
boolean contains = uniqueNumbers.contains(2); // true

// Size
int size = uniqueNumbers.size(); // 3 (not 4, due to duplicate)

// Iteration
for (int num : uniqueNumbers) {
    System.out.println(num); // Order not guaranteed
}
```

LinkedHashSet

```
import java.util.LinkedHashSet;
import java.util.Set;

Set<String> orderedSet = new LinkedHashSet<>();
orderedSet.add("First");
orderedSet.add("Second");
orderedSet.add("Third");

// Maintains insertion order unlike HashSet
for (String item : orderedSet) {
    System.out.println(item); // Prints in insertion order
}
```

Map Interface

Used to store data as **Key-Value pairs**.

- **Common Implementations:** `HashMap`, `LinkedHashMap`.
- **Methods:** `put(key, value)` (to insert), `get(key)` (to retrieve).

HashMap Internal Working

- **Indexing:** Similar to HashSet. The **Key's hash** is generated, which calculates the index in the internal array where the key-value pair is stored.
- **Retrieval:** Using `get(key)` recalculates the hash to jump directly to the correct index, ensuring fast access.

HashMap

```
import java.util.HashMap;
import java.util.Map;

Map<Integer, String> students = new HashMap<>();

// Adding key-value pairs
students.put(1, "Alice");
students.put(2, "Bob");
students.put(3, "Charlie");

// Getting values
String name = students.get(1); // "Alice"

// Checking if key exists
boolean hasKey = students.containsKey(2); // true

// Checking if value exists
boolean hasValue = students.containsValue("Bob"); // true

// Iterating over entries
for (Map.Entry<Integer, String> entry : students.entrySet()) {
    System.out.println("Roll: " + entry.getKey() + ", Name: " +
entry.getValue());
}

// Iterating over keys only
for (Integer rollNumber : students.keySet()) {
    System.out.println("Roll: " + rollNumber);
}

// Iterating over values only
for (String studentName : students.values()) {
    System.out.println("Name: " + studentName);
}
```

Collection Framework Guide

When to Use What?

- **ArrayList:** When you need indexed access and don't frequently add/remove from middle
- **LinkedList:** When you frequently add/remove elements from beginning/middle

- **HashSet**: When you need unique elements and don't care about order
- **LinkedHashSet**: When you need unique elements with insertion order maintained
- **HashMap**: When you need key-value pairs with fast access

Common Methods

All collections have these common methods:

```
// Adding elements
collection.add(element);

// Removing elements
collection.remove(element);

// Checking size
int size = collection.size();

// Checking if empty
boolean empty = collection.isEmpty();

// Checking if contains element
boolean contains = collection.contains(element);

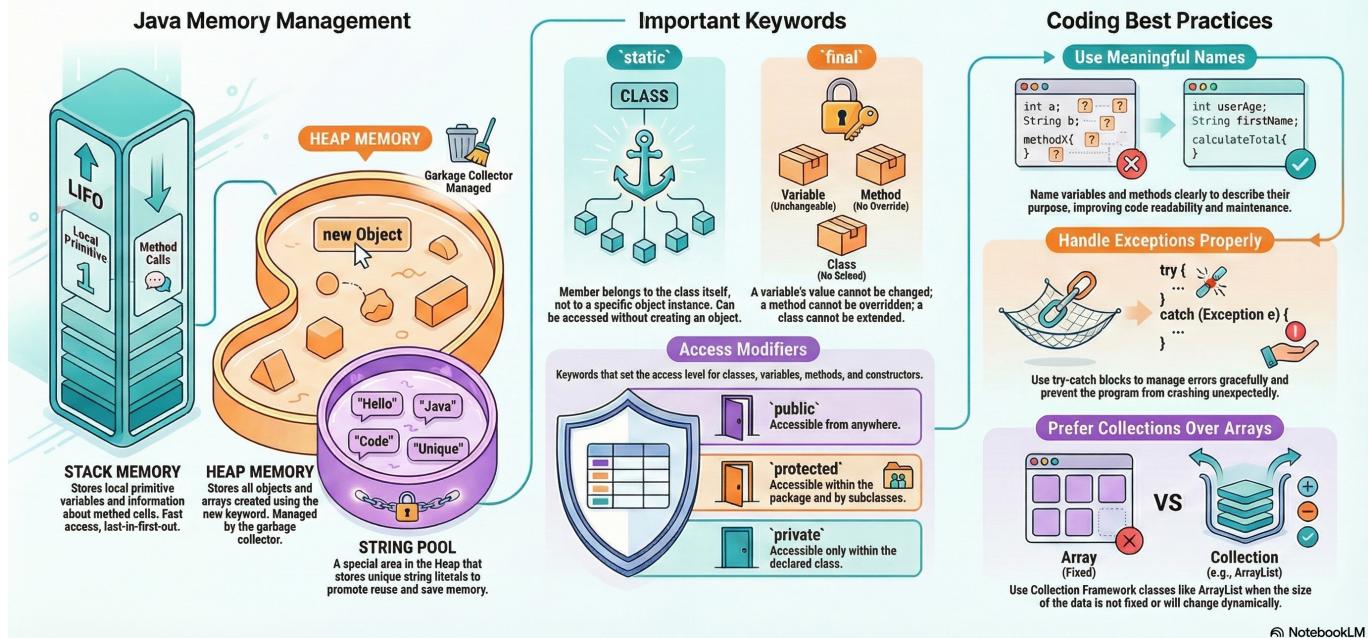
// Converting to array
Object[] array = collection.toArray();

// Clearing all elements
collection.clear();
```

Others

Java Essentials: A Developer's Quick Reference

A concise, visual summary of memory management, keywords, and coding best practices.



Java Memory Management

- Stack**: Stores primitive variables and method call information
- Heap**: Stores objects and arrays
- String Pool**: Special area in heap for string literals

Important Keywords

- static**: Belongs to class, not instance
- final**: Cannot be changed/overridden
- abstract**: Must be implemented by child classes
- public/private/protected**: Access modifiers
- extends**: Inheritance keyword
- implements**: Interface implementation keyword
- super**: Refers to parent class
- this**: Refers to current object

Best Practices

- Always use meaningful variable and method names
- Follow camelCase naming convention
- Use appropriate access modifiers
- Initialize variables before using them
- Handle exceptions properly
- Use collections instead of arrays when size is not fixed
- Override **equals()** and **hashCode()** when needed
- Use interfaces for abstraction and multiple inheritance

The [KintsugiStack](#) repository, authored by Kintsugi-Programmer, is less a comprehensive resource and more an Artifact of Continuous Research and Deep Inquiry into Computer Science and Software Engineering. It serves as a transparent ledger of the author's relentless pursuit of mastery, from the foundational algorithms to modern full-stack implementation.

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