



Java

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Introduction

What is Java?

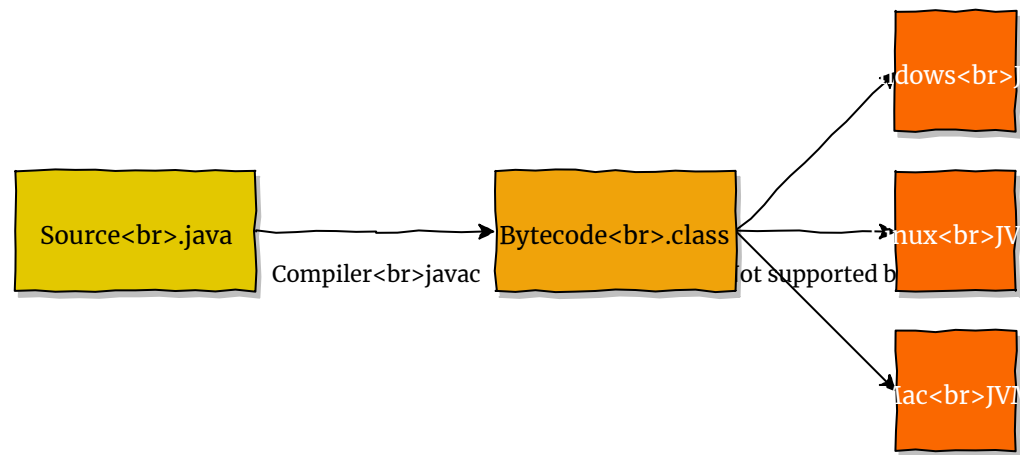
- Designed by: James Gosling (1995)
- Created by Sun Microsystems now owned by Oracle.
- Java is open source (under the GPL).
- Key characteristics:
 - General-purpose
 - Object-oriented (class-based)
 - Automatic memory management
 - Write-once / Run-everywhere

Java Editions

- Java Card – Smart cards and similar small memory footprint devices.
- Java ME – Micro Edition for **embedded** and **mobile** devices (IoT).
- Java SE – Standard Edition for regular Java applications. Mainly **desktop** and **command-line** apps.
- Java EE – Enterprise Edition for enterprise-oriented applications and servlets. Mainly **large-scale web-oriented** applications.

Compiling and Running

- Compiled into bytecode using the command `javac`.
- Bytecode can be run, using the command `java`, in any OS, as long as there is a Java Virtual Machine (JVM).
- Compiling and executing can be done using the Java Development Kit (JDK).
- The Java Runtime Environment (JRE) can be used instead for executing only.



Resources

- [Book: Thinking in Java, 4th edition](#)
- [Book: Java Programming](#)
- [JDK 11 Documentation](#)

Basics

Types

- Java is **strongly typed** so every variable must have a type.
- Java is not a pure OOP language so variables can have a **primitive** type or be a reference to an **object**.
- In Java, **arrays** are objects.
- There are no pointers but:
 - Primitive variables are stored as **values**.
 - Objects are stored as **references**.

Primitive Types

Primitive type are the most basic data types in Java.

Types	Size (bits)	Minimum Value	Maximum Value	Precision
byte	8	-128	127	From +127 to -128
char	16	0	$2^{16}-1$	All Unicode characters
short	16	-2^{15}	$2^{15}-1$	From +32,767 to -32,768
int	32	-2^{31}	$2^{31}-1$	From +2,147,483,647 to -2,147,483,648
long	64	-2^{63}	$2^{63}-1$	From +9,223,372,036,854,775,807 to -9,223,372,036,854,775,808
float	32	2^{-149}	$(2-2^{-23}) \cdot 2^{127}$	From 3.402,823,5 E+38 to 1.4 E-45
double	64	2^{-1074}	$(2-2^{-52}) \cdot 2^{1023}$	From 1.797,693,134,862,315,7 E+308 to 4.9 E-324
boolean	—	—	—	false, true
void	—	—	—	—

Literals

Java Literals are syntactic representations of boolean, character, numeric, or string data.

- **Boolean:** true or false.
- **Character:** 16-bit characters inside single quotes ('a'). Can be cast to int or long.
- **String:** Inside double quotes ("Java").
- **Integer:** Decimal (1234), Octal with a leading zero (02322), hexadecimal starting with 0x (0x4D2) or binary starting with 0B (0B10011010010). Ending with L if we want a long type integer (1234L).
- **Floating Point:** Ending with F or D for single and double precision (double is the default). Can be a decimal fraction or an exponential notation (0.1234 or 1234E-4).

Variables

Local variables are created by:

- giving it a unique name; and
- assigning it a data type.

```
int i;
```

Local variables must be given a value explicitly before being used:

```
int i; i = 10;
```

This can be done in a single statement:

```
int i = 10;
```

Conditional Blocks

Java has all the conditional blocks you would expect from a [C-family](#) programming language:

```
if (condition) {           // Curly brackets when more than one statement
    doSomething();
    doSomethingElse();
} else
    doAnotherThing();
```

And also:

```
switch (variable) {        // variable must be of the correct type
    case 1: doSomething();
        break;              // don't forget the break
    case 2: doSomethingElse();
        break;
    default: doSomethingDefault();
        break;
}
```

Loop Blocks

Loop blocks are also the expected ones. The while-loop:

```
while (condition) {  
    doSomething();  
}
```

Also a do-while variant:

```
do {  
    doSomething();           // executed at least once  
} while (condition);
```

And, of course, the for-loop:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
    doSomething(i);         // i from 0 to 9  
}
```

Operators

Arithmetic and boolean operators are also very similar to other C-family languages:

- Assignment: `=` `+=` `-=` `*=` `/=`
- Numerical: `+` `-` `*` `/` `%` `++` `--`
- Relational: `==` `!=` `<` `>` `<=` `>=`
- Boolean: `&&` `||` `!`
- Bitwise: `&` `|` `^` `~` `<<` `>>` `>>>`
- Tertiary: `?:`
- Type casting: `(type)`

❗ Be careful with the `==` operator. It compares primitive types by value; but compares objects by reference.

Standard Input and Output

Writing to the screen can be accomplished using one of two methods:

```
System.out.print("Hello world");  
System.out.println("Hello world"); // also changes line
```

Reading from the keyboard can be done using the `Scanner` class from *java.util* package:

```
Scanner scanner = new Scanner(System.in); // Instantiating a new Scanner object  
String line = scanner.nextLine();         // Reading a line  
System.out.println(line);                 // Printing out the line  
int number = scanner.nextInt();           // We can also read primitive types
```


Naming Convention

Names should follow the standard naming convention:

Type	Form	Capitalization	Example
Class or Interface	Noun	First word letter capitalized	PoliceCar
Methods	Verb	First word letter capitalized (except first one)	turnSirenOn()
Variables	—	First word letter capitalized (except first one)	carPlate
Constants	—	Uppercase with underscores separating words	MAX_SPEED
Packages	—	Starting with top-level domain, lowercase separated by periods	com.lpoo.util

Strings

- In Java Strings are **immutable**, so they cannot be modified once created.
- String are a class defined in the *java.lang* package (more on that later):

The + operator concatenates strings:

```
String hello = "Hello";  
String world = "World";  
String sentence = hello + " " + world;
```

String are objects, so to compare them we must use the equals method:

```
if (hello.equals(world)) { // hello == world would compare the references  
    doSomething(i);  
}
```

Hello World

In Java, everything must belong to a class.

That means our customary Hello World example looks like this:

```
public class HelloWorld {  
    public static void main(String[] args) { // when we run a class this method  
        System.out.println("Hello, World"); // runs first  
    }  
}
```

Don't worry too much about the syntax for now.

Arrays

Arrays

In Java, an **array** is an **object**. This object has a given type for the contained primitive types or objects (int, char, String, ...).

An array can be declared in several ways:

```
int[] array; // recommended
int array[]; // identical but less used
```

These arrays have been declared but haven't been instantiated yet. We can do it in a few different ways:

```
array = new int[10]; // 10 default elements
array = new int[]{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10}; // works anywhere
int[] other = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10}; // only works in the declaration
```

The default value depends on the data type. For objects it's **null**, for numeric types it's **0**, for booleans is **false** and for chars it's **'\u0000'** (whose decimal equivalent is 0).

Using Arrays

The size of an array can be obtained by using the `length` attribute:

```
for (int i = 0; i < array.length; i++)  
    System.out.println(array[i]); // getting the value at index i
```

A simpler way of looping over an array is:

```
for (int element : array)           // element must be the same type  
{                                   // as the array internal values  
    System.out.println(element);  
}
```

Multidimensional Arrays

Arrays can have more than one dimension:

```
int[][] array = {{ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 },
                 { 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 },
                 { 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 }};
System.out.println(array[0][3]); // 3
System.out.println(array[1][4]); // 9
```

Sub-arrays can even have different lengths:

```
int[][] array = {{ 0 },
                 { 1, 2, 3 },
                 { 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 }};
System.out.println(array[0].length); // 1
System.out.println(array[1].length); // 3
```

OOP

Abstractions

All programming languages provide abstractions:

- Assembly is an abstraction of machine-code.
- Imperative programming is an abstraction of assembly.

But they force us to think about the structure of the machine and not the structure of the problem.

OOP provides an abstraction where elements of the problem are objects in the solution space.

OOP allows you to describe the problem in terms of the problem, rather than in terms of the computer where the solution will run.

Objects

Alan Kay¹ on the five pillars of *Smalltalk*:

1. Everything is an object.
2. A program is a bunch of objects telling each other what to do by sending messages.
3. Each object has its own memory made up of other objects.
4. Every object has a type.
5. All objects of a particular type can receive the same messages.

"An object has state, behavior and identity" — Grady Booch², 1994.

"An object is characterized by a number of operations and a state which remembers the effect of these operations" — Ivar Jacobson², 1996.

1. Inventor of the Smalltalk language.

2. Two of the developers of UML (together with James Rumbaugh).

Object Oriented Pillars (A PIE)

Data Abstraction:

*Clear separation between the **public interface** of a data type, and its concrete implementation.*

Polymorphism:

A single symbol can represent a multitude of different types.

Inheritance:

*Objects can **inherit** properties and behaviors from other objects.*

Encapsulation (2 different concepts):

*A mechanism that: (1) allows **restricting** access to some of the **object's** components (2) facilitates the **bundling** of data with the operations on that data.*

Classes

Classes

- All objects, while being unique, are also part of a class of objects that have characteristics and behaviors in common.
 - Objects that are identical — except for their state — are grouped together into classes of objects.
 - Classes extend the programming language by adding new data types.
-
- Each class is defined by its interface.
 - The interface determines the requests that you can make for a particular object.
 - An object provides services and can use other objects' services to accomplish it.

Classes in Java

- In Java, public classes must be declared in a file with the same name but with a .java extension.
- This means that a Java file can have, at most, one public class.
- For example, inside a file called **Light.java** you could have:

```
public class Light {  
    // ...  
}
```

- As this is a **public** class, it can be accessed from anywhere.

Fields

- Objects store data inside fields (also called *member variables*).
- Each object keeps its **own** storage for its fields.
- **Ordinary** fields are not shared among objects.

```
public class Light {  
    private boolean isOn = false;  
    private int level = 100;  
}
```

- Usually, fields should be made **private** so they can be accessed only from inside the object they belong to.
- Objects from other classes can access them using the class *public interface* (methods).

Methods

- Methods are how we communicate with objects.
- When we **invoke** or **call** a method we are asking the object to carry out a task.
- Each method has a **name**, **input parameters**, a **return type** and a **visibility**.

```
public class Light {  
    public void turnOn() {  
        this.isOn = true;  
    }  
  
    public void turnOff() {  
        this.isOn = false;  
    }  
  
    public void setLevel(int level) {  
        this.level = level;  
    }  
}
```


Visibility

For a class:

- **public**: can be referenced anywhere in the **application**.
- **protected**: can be referenced only in the **package**.
- **private**: only in **nested** classes, can be accessed only in the **outer** class.

For a **variable**:

- **public**: can be referenced anywhere in the **application**.
- **protected**: can be referenced only in **sub-classes** and in the same **package**.
- **package** (no modifier / default): can be referenced only in the same **package**.
- **private**: can be accessed only in the **class** it is defined in.

For a **method**:

- **public**: can be called anywhere in the **application**.
- **protected**: can be called only in **sub-classes** and in the same **package**.
- **package** (no modifier): can be called only in the same **package**.
- **private**: can be called only in the **class** it is defined in.

Keyword *this*

- *this* is a reference to the current object — the object whose method or constructor is currently running.
 - You can treat the reference just like any other object reference.
-
- If you are calling a method from **within** another method of the same class, you do not need to use *this*.
 - If you are referring to a field from **within** a method of the same class, you do not need to use *this*. But you should, for **readability** purposes (and sometimes to avoid **ambiguity**).

Constructor

- Constructors are special methods that are used to create new objects.
- Constructors have the same name as the class.
- Constructors do not have an explicit return type — they implicitly return the type they are constructing.
- Constructors can be overloaded.

```
public class Light {  
    public Light() {  
        this.isOn = false;  
        this.level = 50;  
    }  
  
    public Light(int level) {  
        this.isOn = false;  
        this.level = level;  
    }  
}
```

Constructor Chaining

- Within a constructor, you can use the `this` keyword to invoke another constructor in the same class.
- This has to be the first statement of the constructor.

```
public class Light {  
    public Light() {  
        this(50);  
    }  
  
    public Light(int level) {  
        this.isOn = false;  
        this.level = level;  
    }  
}
```

Setters and Getters

- Object fields are usually kept **private** to improve **encapsulation**.
- It is common to provide public **setter** and **getter** methods to access and modify the value of a private field.

```
public class Light {  
    private boolean isOn;  
    private int level;  
  
    // ...  
  
    public void setLevel(int level) {  
        this.level = level;  
    }  
  
    public int getLevel() {  
        return level;  
    }  
}
```

Static

- Static fields belong to the class instead of a specific object.
- Static methods can only access the static context of the class.

```
public class Light {  
    private static int MAX_LEVEL = 100;  
  
    public static int getMaximumLevel() {  
        return Light.MAX_LEVEL;  
    }  
}
```

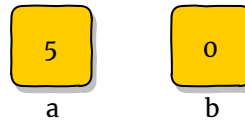
```
System.out.println(Light.getMaximumLevel()); // no need for an object
```

Objects

Objects

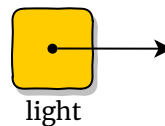
When a **primitive type** variable is declared, its value is stored directly in its **memory** location.

```
int a = 5, b; // if a field, b is initialized with a default value of 0.
```



When an **object** is declared, it only contains a reference to the actual object.

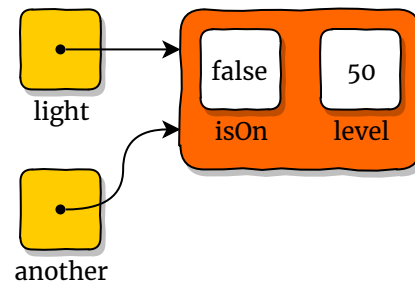
```
Light light; // if a field, light is initialized with a default value of null.
```



Instantiation

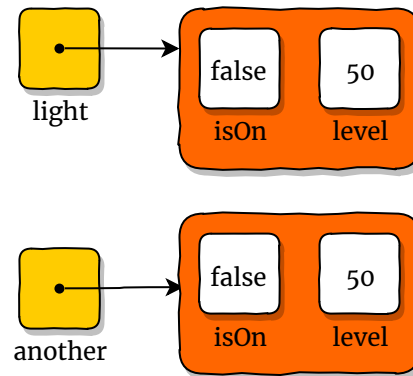
To create a new object, we just have to call its constructor using the `new` keyword:

```
Light light = new Light();  
Light another = light;    // this only copies the reference
```



Cloning

If we need to have two instances of the same object, we must use the `clone()` method. To use clone, our class must implement the `Cloneable` interface and override the `clone()` method making it public.



```
public class Light implements Cloneable{
    @Override
    public Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException {
        return super.clone();
    }
}

Light light = new Light();
Light another = light.clone();
```

Final

- The **final** keyword, allows us to declare fields and variables that cannot be changed.
- This only applies to the variable itself, so in the case of objects we can modify the **object** but not its **reference**.
- Can be used together with **static** to create **global constants**.

```
final Light light = new Light();  
light.setLevel(50);  
light = new Light(); // error
```

```
final int level = 50;  
level = level + 10; // error
```

```
public class Light {  
    private final static int MAX_LEVEL = 100;  
}
```

Parameters

Objects are passed to methods by reference; while primitive variables are passed by value.

```
private void change(int a, Light light) {  
    a = a + 10;  
    light.setLevel(80);  
}  
  
public void doSomething() {  
    int a = 10;  
    Light light = new Light(); // level = 50  
  
    change (a, light);  
  
    System.out.println(a); // 10  
    System.out.println(light.getLevel()); // 80  
}
```

Inheritance

Inheritance

- The mechanism of basing a class (or object) upon another class (or object), retaining a similar implementation.
 - Inheritance should be used to establish a is-a relationship between classes.
-
- In Java, inheritance is class-based.
 - In Java, there is no multiple-inheritance.
 - In Java, if unspecified, all classes are based on the root **Object** class.

Extends

- The **extends** keywords allows a class to define a **different** superclass, inheriting all methods and fields from it.
- The **super** keyword allows calling a **constructor** from the superclass.
- You can **only** extend **one** class.

Tip: You don't have to provide any constructors for your class, but you must be careful when doing this. The compiler automatically provides a no-argument, default constructor for any class without constructors. This default constructor will call the no-argument constructor of the superclass. In this situation, the compiler will complain if the superclass doesn't have a no-argument constructor so you must verify that it does.

Extends

```
public class Shape {  
    private String color;  
  
    public Shape(String color) {  
        this.color = color;  
    }  
}  
  
public class Rectangle extends Shape {  
    private int x1, x2, y1, y2;  
  
    public Rectangle(int x1, int x2, int y1, int y2, String color) {  
        super(color);  
  
        this.x1 = x1;  
        this.x2 = x2;  
        this.y1 = y1;  
        this.y2 = y2;  
    }  
}
```


Overriding

Java allows classes to **override** superclass methods, providing that:

- The access modifier (visibility) for an overriding method can allow more, but not less, access than the overridden method.
- Final methods can not be overridden.
- Static methods can not be overridden.
- Private methods can not be overridden.
- The overriding method must have same return type (or subtype).

We can call a parent class method using the **super** keyword.

```
public class Animal {  
    public void talk() { System.out.println("Animal says:"); }  
    public final void eat() { /* ... */ }  
}  
public class Dog extends Animal {  
    public void talk() {  
        super.talk();  
        System.out.println("Woof!");  
    }  
}
```

Abstract Classes

- Abstract classes cannot be instantiated but can be **extended**:
- They are used to:
 - Define **methods** which can be used by the inheriting subclass.
 - Define abstract methods which the inheriting subclass **must implement**.
 - Provide a **common interface** for their subclasses.

```
public abstract class Animal {  
    public abstract void talk();  
}  
public class Dog extends Animal {  
    // This method must be implemented or the  
    // class must be declared abstract.  
    public void talk() {  
        System.out.println("Woof!");  
    }  
}
```

Interfaces

- Java does not allow multiple-inheritance but it has interfaces.
- An interface is like a fully abstract class (only abstract methods).
- A class can implement several interfaces.
- Interfaces can be used in order to achieve polymorphism.

```
public interface Runner { public void run(); }
public interface Walker { public void walk(); }
public interface Eater { public void eat(); }

public abstract class Animal implements Eater, Walker{
    public abstract void talk();
}

public class Dog extends Animal implements Runner {
    public void talk() { } // all these
    public void eat() { } // methods
    public void run() { } // have to be
    public void walk() { } // implemented
}
```

Polymorphism

In Java, a variable of a given type may be assigned a value of any subtype, and a method with a parameter of a given type may be invoked with an argument of any subtype of that type.

```
public void race(Runner r1, Runner r2) { /* ... */ }

public void main() {
    Dog d1 = new Dog();
    Runner d2 = new Dog();

    race (d1, d2);
}
```

Polymorphism

In Java, the method to be called is decided at runtime, based on the runtime type of the object.

```
public class Animal{
    public void talk() { System.out.println("Hello!"); };
}

public class Dog extends Animal {
    public void talk() { System.out.println("Woof!"); }
}

public class Cat extends Animal {
    public void talk() { System.out.println("Meow!"); }
}

public void main() {
    Animal a1 = new Animal(); a1.talk(); // Hello!
    Animal a2 = new Dog(); a2.talk();    // Woof!
    Animal a3 = new Cat(); a3.talk();    // Meow!
}
```

Methods to Override

Equals

As we have seen with **Strings**, when we want to compare objects we shouldn't use the `==` operator as it will only return true if the two objects are the same (have the same reference).

We should instead override the `equals(Object)` methods from the `Object` class.

The correct way to do so looks something like:

```
@Override
public boolean equals(Object o) {
    if (this == o) return true;           // are the references equal
    if (o == null) return false;         // is the other object null
    if (getClass() != o.getClass()) return false; // both objects the same class

    Point p = (Point) o;                  // cast the other object
    return x == p.getX() && y == p.getY(); // actual comparison
}
```

Hash Code

Another important method is the `hashCode()` method. This method should return the same value for two objects that are equal. So normally, when overriding the `equals(Object)` method you should also override the `hashCode()` method.

You can see the hash code at work in the `HashSet` data structure (which we will see in detail later on):

- When an element is added, the hash code is used to decide in which bucket it should be stored.
- When searching for an object, we only need to compare it (using `equals(Object)`) with objects in the same bucket.

Hash Code Implementation

To implement the `hashCode()` method, we should use a **subset** of the fields that are used in `equals(Object)`.

A possible implementation would be:

```
@Override  
public int hashCode() {  
    return Objects.hash(x, y);  
}
```

To String

Another useful method from the `Object` class is the `toString()` method. This method returns a representation of any `Object` as a `String`. The default implementation is not very useful:

```
System.out.println(new Point(1, 2)); // Point@3e2
```

But we can override it and make it better:

```
@Override
public String toString() {
    return "Point (" + x + ", " + y + ")";
}
```

So that we get:

```
System.out.println(new Point(1, 2)); // Point (1, 2)
```

Garbage Collection

Garbage Collection

- Automatic garbage collection is the process of looking at heap memory, identifying which objects are in use and which are not, and deleting the unused objects.
- An in use object, or a referenced object, means that some part of your program still maintains a pointer to that object.
- In Java, this process is done automatically so developers do not have to worry about memory leaks. Or do they?

Packages

Packages

- A package contains a group of classes, organized together under a single namespace.
- Classes in the same package can access each other's package-private and protected members.
- The package that a class belongs to is specified with the `package` keyword (first statement):

```
package com.example;
```

Packages are stored in the form of structured directories. For example: package "*com.example*" would be stored in directory "*com/example*".

Importing

To use a class from another package we must first import it:

```
import com.example.HelloWorld;  
import com.example.*; // imports all classes from the package  
  
// ...  
HelloWorld hw = new HelloWorld();
```

It is important to understand that **import** is simply used by the compiler to let you name your classes by their **unqualified** name.

Without the import statement this would still be valid:

```
com.example.HelloWorld hw = new com.example.HelloWorld();
```

Exceptions

Exceptions

- When an error occurs within a method, the flow of execution of the program stops immediately, the method creates an **Exception** object and hands it off to the runtime system.
- The runtime system attempts to find something to handle it by following the ordered list of **methods** that have been called to get to the method where the error occurred.

```
public void someCode() {  
    HelloWorld hw = null;  
    hw.hello();           // Not a good idea!  
}  
  
public void moreCode() {  
    someCode();  
}  
  
public void code() {  
    try {  
        moreCode();  
    } catch (NullPointerException e) {  
        // do something about the error  
    }  
}
```

Throw

The **throw** keyword is used to **explicitly** throw an exception (any sub-class of **Throwable**) from a method or any block of code. User defined exceptions typically extend **Exception** class.

```
public void someCode() throws VeryBadThingHappenedException {
    throw new VeryBadThingHappenedException("Boom!");
}

public void moreCode() throws VeryBadThingHappenedException {
    someCode();
}

public void code() {
    try {
        moreCode();
    } catch (VeryBadThingHappenedException e) {
        // do something about the error
    }
}
```

Throws

If the compiler thinks there is a chance of rising an exception inside a method, then it will force us to either: 1) catch that exception, or 2) declare that we will throw that exception.

```
public void someCode() throws VeryBadThingHappenedException {  
    throw new VeryBadThingHappenedException("Boom!");  
}  
  
public void moreCode() throws VeryBadThingHappenedException {  
    someCode();  
}
```

In this example, the `moreCode()` method is calling a method that throws an Exception, so it has to throw it also or catch it.

Finally

- The **finally** block always executes when the a try block exits.
- This ensures that the **finally** block is executed even if an **unexpected** exception occurs or an accidental return statement is added.
- Putting **cleanup** code in a **finally** block is always a **good practice**, even when no exceptions are anticipated.

```
public void code() {  
    try {  
        moreCode();  
    } catch (VeryBadThingHappenedException e) {  
        // do something about the error  
    } finally {  
        // clean up code  
    }  
}
```

Throw or Catch

The decision between **throwing** an exception and **catching** it might be an hard one:

- Methods should **catch** an exception if they can **handle** it locally.
- Methods should **throw** an exception if there is **nothing** they can do about it.

Catching an exception and **doing nothing** about it, besides printing the stack trace, is **always** a bad idea.

Collections

Collections

- A Collection is a group of individual objects represented as a single unit.
- Java provides the Collection Framework which defines several classes and interfaces to represent a group of objects as a single unit.
- The Collection interface (`java.util.Collection`) and Map interface (`java.util.Map`) are the two main interfaces of Java Collection classes.

Collection Classes

- **Set** : Doesn't allow duplicates: HashSet (Hashing based), TreeSet (balanced BST based; implements SortedSet)...
- **List** : Can contain duplicates and elements are ordered: LinkedList (linked list based), ArrayList (dynamic array based), Stack, Vector, ...
- **Queue** : Typically order elements in FIFO order: LinkedList, PriorityQueue (not in FIFO order)...
- **Deque** : Elements can be inserted and removed at both ends: ArrayDeque, LinkedList...
- **Map** : Contains Key value pairs. Doesn't allow duplicates: HashMap and TreeMap (implements SortedMap).

Parameterized Collections

Java Collections are parameterized (using Generics — more about this later).

This means that we can define the type of data that the collection will store.

```
List<Animal> animals = new ArrayList<>();  
animals.add(new Dog());  
animals.add(new Cat());
```

```
for (Animal animal : animals) {  
    animal.talk();  
}
```

Notice that we used `List` instead of `ArrayList` to declare the variable. `List` is the interface that all lists implement and `ArrayList` is a concrete instantiation of that interface.

This is the "*Return the most specific type, accept the most generic type*" principle.

List

Some examples on how to use lists:

```
Dog dog = new Dog();
Cat cat = new Cat();

List<Animal> animals = new ArrayList<>();

animals.add(dog); animals.add(cat); // Adding some animals

for (Animal animal : animals)      // Looping over the collection
    animal.talk();

animals.get(0).talk();               // Element at position 0 (dog)

animals.remove(0);                   // Removing element at position 0
animals.remove(cat);                 // Removing the cat

animals.clear();                     // Removing all elements
```

Set

Some examples on how to use sets:

```
Set<Point> points = new HashSet<Point>();

points.add(new Point(1, 2));    // returns true
points.add(new Point(1, 2));    // returns false

System.out.println(points.size()); // prints 1

points.contains(new Point(2, 3)); // returns false
points.contains(new Point(1, 2)); // returns true
```

Map

Some examples on how to use maps:

```
Map<String, Point> locations = new HashMap<String, Point>();

locations.put("John", new Point(1, 2));
locations.put("Mary", new Point(2, 4));

locations.get("John");           // returns Point (1, 2)
locations.get("Carl");           // returns null

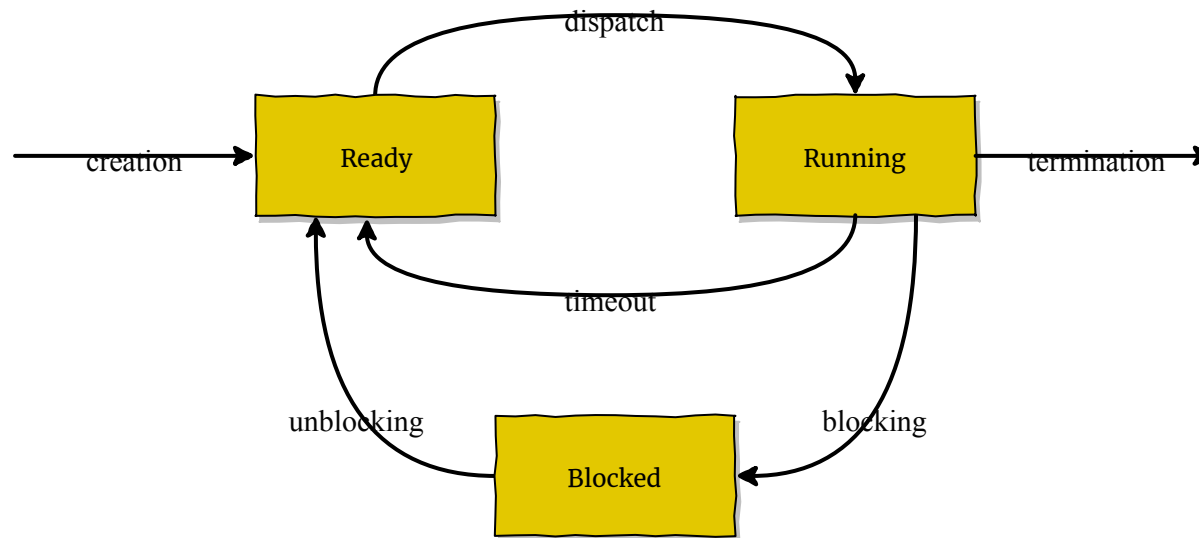
locations.remove("Mary");

locations.containsKey("John");   // returns true;
locations.containsKey("Mary");   // returns false;
```

Threads

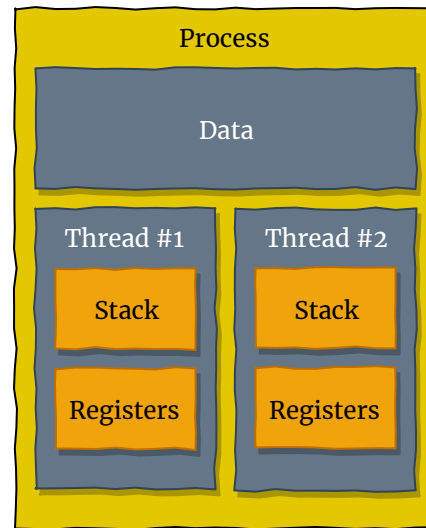
Processes

Multitasking is a method to allow **multiple processes** to share processors and other system resources.



Threads

A process may be made up of **multiple threads** of execution that execute instructions concurrently.



Threads are lightweight processes that have their own stack but have access to shared data.

Why threads?

Until now, all our code has been running in a **single main thread**.

But what happens if we need to block to read data from some source but still want our state and view to be updated?

```
public void run() {  
    while (true) {  
        draw();                // Draws the current game state  
        processKey(screen.readInput()); // "Read input" blocks waiting for a key  
                                   // to be pressed.  
        doStep();              // Makes our game move forward  
                                   // e.g. enemies move  
    }  
}
```


Threads in Java (1)

There are two different ways to create a new thread in Java.

1) Extend the `Thread` class and override the `run()` method:

```
public class GameUpdater extends Thread {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        // Do something  
    }  
}  
  
new GameUpdater().start();
```

Or just:

```
new Thread() {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        // Do something  
    }  
}.start();
```

Threads in Java (2)

There are two different ways to create a new thread in Java.

2) Implement the **Runnable** interface and start a **Thread** with it:

```
class GameUpdater implements Runnable {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        // do something  
    }  
}  
  
new Thread(new GameUpdater()).start();
```

Or just:

```
new Thread(new Runnable() {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        // do something  
    }  
}).start();
```

Thread Class

The thread class has a series of useful methods:

- **void start()** - Causes this thread to **begin** execution; the Java Virtual Machine calls the **run** method of this thread.
- **static Thread currentThread()** - Returns a **reference** to the **currently** executing thread object.
- **long getId()** - Returns the **identifier** of this Thread.
- **void join()** - Waits for this thread to **die**.
- **boolean isAlive()** and **isInterrupted()** - Tests whether this thread is **alive** or has been **interrupted**.
- **static Thread interrupted()** - Checks if current thread has been interrupted and resets flag.

Interrupt

A thread cannot order another thread to stop. It has to ask nicely:

```
Thread t = new Thread() {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        while (true) {  
            System.out.println("I'm alive!");  
            if (isInterrupted()) break;  
        }  
    }  
};  
  
t.start();  
// Sometime later  
t.interrupt();
```

Sleep

The `Thread.sleep()` method can be used to pause the execution of current thread for specified time in milliseconds.

If the thread is interrupted during that time, an Exception is raised:

```
Thread t = new Thread() {  
    @Override  
    public void run() {  
        while (true) {  
            System.out.println("I'm alive!");  
            try {  
                Thread.sleep(100);  
            } catch (InterruptedException e) {  
                System.out.println("Interrupted");  
                break;  
            }  
            if (isInterrupted()) break;  
        }  
    }  
};
```

Multi-Threading

Multi-threading programming can be tricky!

```
class Model {  
    int a = 0, b = 0;  
    public void increment() { a++; b++; }  
}  
  
class View {  
    public void draw(Model model) {  
        System.out.println(model.a + " - " + model.b);  
    }  
}
```

```
Model m = new Model(); View v = new View();  
  
new Thread() {  
    public void run() { while (true) { m.increment(); } }  
}.start();  
  
new Thread() {  
    // This will not always print two equal values  
    public void run() { while (true) v.draw(m); }  
}.start();
```

Synchronized Blocks

- To make threads play nice with each other, we can use **synchronized blocks**.
- Synchronized blocks use a mechanism known as **monitor locks** (or **intrinsic locks**).
- A **synchronized block** uses an object as a **lock**.
- No two threads can **enter** a **synchronized block** if using the **same object** as a lock.

Synchronized Block Example

Each loop is synchronized on the same object (the Model m).

So, v.draw() will never be called while m.increment() is being executed.

```
Model m = new Model(); View v = new View();

new Thread() {
    public void run() {
        while (true)
            synchronized (m) { m.increment(); }
    }
}.start();

new Thread() {
    public void run() {
        while (true)
            synchronized (m) { v.draw(m); }
    }
}.start();
```


Synchronized Methods

When a synchronized method is called, it automatically acquires the intrinsic lock for that method's object and releases it when the method returns.

```
class Model {
    int a = 0, b = 0;
    public synchronized void increment() { a++; b++; }
    public synchronized void draw() { System.out.println(a + " - " + b); }
}

Model m = new Model();

new Thread() {
    public void run() {
        while (true) { m.increment(); }
    }
}.start();

new Thread() {
    public void run() {
        while (true) { m.draw(); }
    }
}.start();
```

Wait and Notify

Sometimes we need a thread to wait until something happens.

The `Object.wait()` method, pauses a thread until another thread calls `Object.notify()` on the same object.

Calls to wait and notify must be **synchronized**.

```
Thread thread = new Thread() {
    @Override
    public synchronized void run() {
        try {
            wait();
            // Do something
        } catch (InterruptedException e) {
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
};

thread.start();
// Sometime later
synchronized (thread) {
    thread.notify();
}
```

Input and Output

Streams

All fundamental I/O in Java is based on streams.

A stream represents a **flow** of data with a **writer** at one end and a **reader** at the other.

Abstract Streams

- `InputStream` and `OutputStream` are the basic abstract input and output stream for unstructured bytes.
 - All other byte streams are built on top of these two classes.
-
- `Reader` and `Writer` are the basic abstract input and output stream for unicode chars.
 - All other character stream are built on top of these two classes.

File Streams

`FileInputStream`, `FileOutputStream`, `FileReader` and `FileWriter` are implementations of `InputStream`, `OutputStream`, `Reader`, and `Writer` that read from and write to files on the local filesystem.

The `File` class represents a file in the local filesystem.

Examples:

```
FileInputStream fos = new FileInputStream(new File("level10.lvl"));  
int b = fos.read();
```

```
FileReader fr = new FileReader(new File("level10.lvl"))  
char c = (char) fos.read();
```

Bridge Streams

- `InputStreamReader` and `OutputStreamWriter` are classes that convert bytes to characters and vice versa.
- `DataInputStream` and `DataOutputStream` are specialized stream filters that add the ability to read and write primitive types.
- `ObjectInputStream` and `ObjectOutputStream` are stream filters that are capable of writing serialized Java objects and reconstructing them.

Example:

```
DataOutputStream dos = new DataOutputStream(  
    new FileOutputStream( new File( "highscore.txt" ) )  
);  
dos.writeChars("HighScore");  
dos.writeInt(1000);  
dos.flush();  
dos.close();
```

Buffered Streams

BufferedInputStream, BufferedOutputStream, BufferedReader and BufferedWriter add buffering capabilities to other streams. This increases efficiency.

Example:

```
DataOutputStream dos = new DataOutputStream(  
    new BufferedOutputStream(  
        new FileOutputStream( new File( "highscore.txt" ) )  
    )  
);  
dos.writeChars("HighScore");  
dos.writeInt(1000);  
dos.flush();  
dos.close();
```


Resources

Resources are pieces of data that are part, and can be accessed, from within a Java application.

When you create a Java Gradle project in IntelliJ, a folder for *resources* will be created inside both the main and test *src* folders.

To access them you can do something like this:

```
private static List<String> readLines(int levelNumber) throws IOException {
    URL resource = RoomLoader.class.getResource("/rooms/" + levelNumber + ".lvl");
    BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(resource.getFile()));

    List<String> lines = new ArrayList<>();
    for (String line; (line = br.readLine()) != null; )
        lines.add(line);

    return lines;
}
```