Week 3 Assignment

Name : Siddarth S Date : 10/08/2024

- 1. Please find case 1 and mention the result for the mentioned statements using strings.
- 2. Find case 2 and mention the result for the statements using integers.
- 3. Find case 3 and mention how Basic I/O resources are getting closed and the difference that you implemented earlier in the code copyBytes.java
- 4. Find case 4 and mention the order for 1,2 and 3 using collections

Case 1:

```
public class StringComparisonExample {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // String literals (pooled)
    String str1 = "Hello";
    String str2 = "Hello";

    // New String objects (not pooled)
    String str3 = new String("Hello");
    String str4 = new String("hello");

    // Using ==
    System.out.println("str1 == str2: " + (str1 == str2)); // 1. (same memory reference) what's the result?
    System.out.println("str1 == str3: " + (str1 == str3)); // 2. (different memory references) what's the result?
```

```
// Using equals()
    System.out.println("str1.equals(str3): " + str1.equals(str3)); //3.
(same content) what's the result?
    System.out.println("str1.equals(str4): " + str1.equals(str4)); //4.
(case-sensitive) what's the result?

// Using equalsIgnoreCase()
    System.out.println("str1.equalsIgnoreCase(str4): " +
str1.equalsIgnoreCase(str4)); //5. (case-insensitive) what's the result?
}
```

Result:

1) str1 == str2:

Since str1 and str2 are string literals with the same content, they refer to the same object in the string pool.

Result: true

2) str1 == str3:

Here, str3 is created using the new keyword, which creates a new String object in the heap, not in the string pool. Even though str1 and str3 have the same content, they refer to different objects.

Result: false

3) str1.equals(str3):

The equals() method compares the content of the strings, not the memory references. Since str1 and str3 have the same content ("Hello"), this will return true.

Result: true

4) str1.equals(str4):

The equals() method is case-sensitive, so comparing "Hello" (str1) and "hello" (str4) will return false because of the difference in case.

Result: false

5) str1.equalsIgnoreCase(str4):

The equalsIgnoreCase() method compares strings without considering case, so "Hello" and "hello" will be considered equal.

Result: true

Output

```
str1 == str2: true
str1 == str3: false
str1.equals(str3): true
str1.equals(str4): false
str1.equalsIgnoreCase(str4): true
```

Case 2:

int int2 = 100:

```
public class IntegerComparisonExample {
  public static void main(String[] args) {

//Mention what's the result in 1, 2, 3,4 and 5

  // Primitive int
  int int1 = 100;
```

```
// Integer objects
   Integer intObj1 = 100;
   Integer intObj2 = 100;
   Integer intObj3 = new Integer(100);
   Integer intObj4 = new Integer (200);
   // Using == with primitive int
   System.out.println("int1 == int2: " + (int1 == int2)); // 1. (compares
values)
   // Using == with Integer objects (within -128 to 127 range)
   System.out.println("intObj1 == intObj2: " + (intObj1 == intObj2)); // 2.
(cached objects)
   // Using == with Integer objects (new instance)
   System.out.println("intObj1 == intObj3: " + (intObj1 == intObj3)); // 3.
(different instances)
   // Using equals() with Integer objects
   System.out.println("intObj1.equals(intObj3): " +
intObj1.equals(intObj3)); // 4. (same content)
   System.out.println("intObj1.equals(intObj4): " +
intObj1.equals(intObj4)); // 5. (different content)
}
```

Result:

1) int1 == int2:

Since int1 and int2 are primitive int types, the == operator compares their values directly. Both int1 and int2 have the value 100, so this comparison will return true.

Result: true

2) intObj1 == intObj2:

Integer objects within the range -128 to 127 are cached by the JVM. Therefore, intObj1 and intObj2, both holding the value 100, point to the same object in memory, so the == operator will return true.

Result: true

3) intObj1 == intObj3:

Here, intObj3 is created using the new keyword, which creates a new Integer object in the heap, different from the one referenced by intObj1. Therefore, intObj1 and intObj3 refer to different objects, so the == comparison will return false.

Result: false

4) intObj1.equals(intObj3):

The equals() method compares the values inside the Integer objects. Since intObj1 and intObj3 both contain the value 100, this comparison will return true.

Result: true

5) intObj1.equals(intObj4):

The equals() method compares the values inside the Integer objects. intObj1 contains 100, while intObj4 contains 200, so this comparison will return false.

Result: false

Output

```
int1 == int2: true
int0bj1 == int0bj2: true
int0bj1 == int0bj3: false
int0bj1.equals(int0bj3): true
int0bj1.equals(int0bj4): false
```

Case 3:

Solution:

In the TryWithResourcesExample code, basic I/O resources like BufferedReader and FileReader are getting closed automatically by using the **try-with-resources** statement. This feature was introduced in Java 7, and it simplifies resource management by ensuring that any resources opened within the try block are closed automatically when the block is exited, either normally or because of an exception.

Key Points:

- Automatic Resource Closure: The try-with-resources block makes sure that BufferedReader and FileReader are automatically closed without needing to explicitly call close() in a finally block.
- 2. **Simplified Code**: This approach eliminates the need for a finally block to close the resources, resulting in cleaner and more readable code.

Difference from the Traditional Approach (copyBytes.java):

- In the traditional approach (before Java 7), I had to use a finally block to manually close the resources. This was necessary to avoid resource leaks, but it made the code more verbose and error-prone.
- Now, with the try-with-resources statement, the code is more concise, and there's no risk of forgetting to close the resources since it's handled automatically.

So, the try-with-resources feature not only reduces boilerplate code but also ensures better resource management.

Case 4:

```
import java.util.HashSet;
import java.util.LinkedHashSet;
import java.util.Set;
import java.util.TreeSet;
public class SetExample {
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
 // Set 1. What's the order of elements?
 Set < String > hashSet = new HashSet < > ();
 hashSet.add("Banana");
 hashSet.add("Apple");
 hashSet.add("Orange");
 hashSet.add("Grapes");
 System.out.println("HashSet: " + hashSet);
 // LinkedHashSet 2. What's the order of elements?
 Set < String > linkedHashSet = new LinkedHashSet < > ();
 linkedHashSet.add("Banana");
 linkedHashSet.add("Apple");
 linkedHashSet.add("Orange");
 linkedHashSet.add("Grapes");
 System.out.println("LinkedHashSet: " + linkedHashSet);
 // TreeSet 1. What's the order of elements?
 Set < String > treeSet = new TreeSet < > ();
 treeSet.add("Banana");
 treeSet.add("Apple");
 treeSet.add("Orange");
 treeSet.add("Grapes");
 System.out.println("TreeSet: " + treeSet);
```

Result:

In the SetExample code, the order of elements changes depending on which Set implementation is used:

1. HashSet:

- Order of Elements: The elements in a HashSet are unordered, so there's no guaranteed order when I iterate over them.
- Example Output: The order could be [Banana, Apple, Orange, Grapes], but it might vary. The key point is that the order is unpredictable.

2. LinkedHashSet:

- Order of Elements: The elements in a LinkedHashSet maintain the order in which they were added.
- Example Output: The order will be exactly as I inserted them: [Banana, Apple, Orange, Grapes].

3. TreeSet:

- Order of Elements: The elements in a TreeSet are sorted according to their natural order, which for strings is alphabetical.
- Example Output: The order will be [Apple, Banana, Grapes, Orange], sorted alphabetically.

So, HashSet doesn't guarantee any order, LinkedHashSet keeps the insertion order, and TreeSet sorts the elements alphabetically.

Output:

HashSet: [Apple, Grapes, Orange, Banana]

LinkedHashSet: [Banana, Apple, Orange, Grapes]

TreeSet: [Apple, Banana, Grapes, Orange]