# 1. Java Introduction

## What is Java?

Java is a popular programming language, created in 1995.

It is owned by Oracle, and more than **3 billion** devices run Java.

It is used for:

- Mobile applications (especially Android apps)
- Desktop applications
- Web applications
- Web servers and application servers
- Games
- Database connection
- And much, much more!

## Why Use Java?

- Java works on different platforms (Windows, Mac, Linux, Raspberry Pi, etc.)
- It is one of the most popular programming language in the world
- It has a large demand in the current job market
- It is easy to learn and simple to use
- It is open-source and free
- It is secure, fast and powerful
- It has a huge community support (tens of millions of developers)
- Java is an object-oriented language which gives a clear structure to programs and allows code to be reused, lowering development costs
- As Java is close to C++ and C#, it makes it easy for programmers to switch to Java or vice versa

# 2. Java Syntax

public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
 System.out.println("Hello World");

} }

## Hello World

- **public class Main**: Declares a public class named "Main". Classes serve as blueprints for creating objects in Java.
- **public static void main(String[] args)**: Declares a public static method named "main". It is the entry point of the program and gets executed when the program runs. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- System.out.println("Hello World");: Prints the string "Hello World" to the console. The System.out.println() method is used to output text or values to the console.

# 3. Java Output / Print

## Print Text

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Hello World!");
    System.out.println("I am learning Java.");
    System.out.println("It is awesome!");
  }
}
```

# Hello World! I am learning Java. It is awesome!

- public class Main: Declares a public class named "Main".
- **public static void main(String[] args)**: Declares a public static method named "main" that serves as the entry point of the program. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- System.out.println("Hello World!");: Prints the string "Hello World!" to the console.
- System.out.println("I am learning Java.");: Prints the string "I am learning Java." to the console.
- System.out.println("It is awesome!");: Prints the string "It is awesome!" to the console.

## Double Quotes

```
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("This sentence will work!");
    System.out.println("This sentence will NOT produce an error");
    }
}
```

## This sentence will work! This sentence will NOT produce an error

- public class Main: Declares a public class named "Main".
- **public static void main(String[] args)**: Declares a public static method named "main" that serves as the entry point of the program. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- System.out.println("This sentence will work!");: Prints the string "This sentence will work!" to the console.
- System.out.println("This sentence will NOT produce an error"); Prints the string "This sentence will NOT produce an error" to the console.

## The Print() Method

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.print("Hello World! ");
    System.out.print("I will print on the same line.");
  }
}
```

## Hello World! I will print on the same line.

- public class Main: Declares a public class named "Main".
- public static void main(String[] args): Declares a public static method named "main" that serves as the entry point of the program. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- **System.out.print("Hello World! ");**: Prints the string "Hello World!" to the console without adding a new line character. The cursor remains on the same line after printing.
- **System.out.print("I will print on the same line.");**: Prints the string "I will print on the same line." to the console without adding a new line character. It continues printing on the same line as the previous statement.

#### Print Numbers

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(3);
   System.out.println(358);
   System.out.println(50000);
   }
}
```



- public class Main: Declares a public class named "Main".
- **public static void main(String[] args)**: Declares a public static method named "main" that serves as the entry point of the program. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- System.out.println(3);: Prints the number 3 to the console.
- System.out.println(358);: Prints the number 358 to the console.
- **System.out.println(50000)**;: Prints the number 50000 to the console.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(3 + 3);
    System.out.println(2 * 5);
  }
}
```



- public class Main: Declares a public class named "Main".
- public static void main(String[] args): Declares a public static method named "main" that serves as the entry point of the program. It takes an array of strings called "args" as a parameter.
- **System.out.println(3 + 3);**: Evaluates the expression **3 + 3**, which is the addition of 3 and 3, and prints the result (6) to the console.
- **System.out.println(2 \* 5)**; Evaluates the expression **2 \* 5**, which is the multiplication of 2 and 5, and prints the result (10) to the console.

## 4. Java Comments

#### <mark>Java Comments</mark>

Comments can be used to explain Java code, and to make it more readable. It can also be used to prevent execution when testing alternative code.

#### Single-line Comments

Single-line comments start with two forward slashes (//). Any text between // and the end of the line is ignored by Java (will not be executed).

This example uses a single-line comment before a line of code:

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
     // This is a comment
     System.out.println("Hello World");
   }
}
```

## Hello World

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Hello World"); // This is a comment
   }
}
```

#### Hello World

## 5. Java Variables

Variables are containers for storing data values. In Java, there are different **types** of variables, for example:

- String stores text, such as "Hello". String values are surrounded by double quotes
- int stores integers (whole numbers), without decimals, such as 123 or -123
- float stores floating point numbers, with decimals, such as 19.99 or -19.99
- **char** stores single characters, such as 'a' or 'B'. Char values are surrounded by single quotes
- boolean stores values with two states: true or false

#### **Declaring (Creating) Variables**

To create a variable, you must specify the type and assign it a value. Where *type* is one of Java's types (such as int or String), and *variableName* is the name of the variable (such as **x** or **name**). The **equal sign** is used to assign values to the variable.

Create a variable called **name** of type **String** and assign it the value "**John**":

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String name = "John";
    System.out.println(name);
  }
}
```

## John

Create a variable called myNum of type int and assign it the value 15:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum = 15;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

# 15

You can also declare a variable without assigning the value, and assign the value later:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum;
    myNum = 15;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

## 15

If you assign a new value to an existing variable, it will overwrite the previous value. Change the value of **myNum** from **15** to **20**:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum = 15;
    myNum = 20; // myNum is now 20
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

# 20

## Final Variables

If you don't want others (or yourself) to overwrite existing values, use the final keyword (this will declare the variable as "final" or "constant", which means unchangeable and read-only):

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    final int myNum = 15;
    myNum = 20; // will generate an error
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

```
Main.java:4: error: cannot assign a value to final variable myNum
    myNum = 20;
    ^
1 error
```

## Other Types

A demonstration of how to declare variables of other types:

```
int myNum = 5;
float myFloatNum = 5.99f;
char myLetter = 'D';
boolean myBool = true;
String myText = "Hello";
```

### Display Variables

The println() method is often used to display variables. To combine both text and a variable, use the + character:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String name = "John";
    System.out.println("Hello " + name);
  }
}
```

#### Hello John

You can also use the + character to add a variable to another variable:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String firstName = "John ";
    String lastName = "Doe";
    String fullName = firstName + lastName;
    System.out.println(fullName);
  }
}
```

## John Doe

For numeric values, the + character works as a mathematical operator (notice that we use int (integer) variables here):

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 5;
    int y = 6;
    System.out.println(x + y); // Print the value of x + y
  }
}
```

## 11

From the example above, you can expect:

- x stores the value 5
- y stores the value 6
- Then we use the println() method to display the value of x + y, which is 11

#### **Declare Many Variables**

To declare more than one variable of the same type, you can use a comma-separated list:

Instead of writing:

int x = 5; int y = 6; int z = 50; System.out.println(x + y + z);

You can simply write:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 5, y = 6, z = 50;
    System.out.println(x + y + z);
  }
}
```

## 61

#### **One Value to Multiple Variables**

You can also assign the same value to multiple variables in one line:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x, y, z;
    x = y = z = 50;
    System.out.println(x + y + z);
  }
}
```

# 150

## **Identifiers**

All Java **variables** must be **identified** with **unique names**. These unique names are called **identifiers**.

Identifiers can be short names (like x and y) or more descriptive names (age, sum, totalVolume).

**Note:** It is recommended to use descriptive names in order to create understandable and maintainable code:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Good
    int minutesPerHour = 60;
    // OK, but not so easy to understand what m actually is
    int m = 60;
    System.out.println(minutesPerHour);
    System.out.println(m);
  }
}
```

# 60 60

The general rules for naming variables are:

- Names can contain letters, digits, underscores, and dollar signs
- Names must begin with a letter
- Names should start with a lowercase letter and it cannot contain whitespace
- Names can also begin with \$ and \_ (but we will not use it in this tutorial)
- Names are case sensitive ("myVar" and "myvar" are different variables)
- Reserved words (like Java keywords, such as int or boolean) cannot be used as names

# 6. Java Data Types

A variable in Java must be a specified data type:

```
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  int myNum = 5;
                         // integer (whole number)
  float myFloatNum = 5.99f; // floating point number
  char myLetter = 'D';
                         // character
  boolean myBool = true; // boolean
  String myText = "Hello"; // String
  System.out.println(myNum);
  System.out.println(myFloatNum);
  System.out.println(myLetter);
  System.out.println(myBool);
  System.out.println(myText);
}
}
```

5
5.99
D
true
Hello

Data types are divided into two groups:

- Primitive data types includes byte, short, int, long, float, double, boolean and char
- Non-primitive data types such as String, Arrays and Classes

#### Primitive Data Types

A primitive data type specifies the size and type of variable values, and it has no additional methods.

There are eight primitive data types in Java:

Data Type	Size	Description
byte	1 byte	Stores whole numbers from -128 to 127
short	2 bytes	Stores whole numbers from -32,768 to 32,767
int	4 bytes	Stores whole numbers from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
long	8 bytes	Stores whole numbers from - 9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807

float	4 bytes	Stores fractional numbers. Sufficient for storing 6 to 7 decimal digits
double	8 bytes	Stores fractional numbers. Sufficient for storing 15 decimal digits
boolean	1 bit	Stores true or false values
char	2 bytes	Stores a single character/letter or ASCII values

## Numbers

Primitive number types are divided into two groups:

**Integer types** stores whole numbers, positive or negative (such as 123 or -456), without decimals. Valid types are **byte**, **short**, **int** and **long**. Which type you should use, depends on the numeric value.

**Floating point types** represents numbers with a fractional part, containing one or more decimals. There are two types: **float** and **double**.

### <mark>Integer Types</mark>

## Byte

The byte data type can store whole numbers from -128 to 127. This can be used instead of int or other integer types to save memory when you are certain that the value will be within -128 and 127:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    byte myNum = 100;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

# 100

Short

The short data type can store whole numbers from -32768 to 32767:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    short myNum = 5000;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```



#### Int

The int data type can store whole numbers from -2147483648 to 2147483647. In general, and in our tutorial, the int data type is the preferred data type when we create variables with a numeric value.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum = 100000;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

## 100000

#### Long

The long data type can store whole numbers from -9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807. This is used when int is not large enough to store the value. Note that you should end the value with an "L":

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    long myNum = 1500000000L;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

15000000000

#### **Floating Point Types**

You should use a floating point type whenever you need a number with a decimal, such as 9.99 or 3.14515.

The **float** and **double** data types can store fractional numbers. Note that you should end the value with an "f" for floats and "d" for doubles:

#### **Float Example**

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    float myNum = 5.75f;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

## 5.75

## **Double Example**

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    double myNum = 19.99d;
    System.out.println(myNum);
  }
}
```

# 19.99

## Scientific Numbers

A floating point number can also be a scientific number with an "e" to indicate the power of 10:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    float f1 = 35e3f;
    double d1 = 12E4d;
    System.out.println(f1);
    System.out.println(d1);
  }
}
```



## Boolean Types

Very often in programming, you will need a data type that can only have one of two values, like:

- YES / NO
- ON / OFF
- TRUE / FALSE

For this, Java has a boolean data type, which can only take the values true or false:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    boolean isJavaFun = true;
    boolean isFishTasty = false;
    System.out.println(isJavaFun);
    System.out.println(isFishTasty);
  }
}
```



## **Characters**

The char data type is used to store a **single** character. The character must be surrounded by single quotes, like 'A' or 'c':

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    char myGrade = 'B';
    System.out.println(myGrade);
  }
}
```

# В

Alternatively, if you are familiar with ASCII values, you can use those to display certain characters:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    char myVar1 = 65, myVar2 = 66, myVar3 = 67;
    System.out.println(myVar1);
    System.out.println(myVar2);
    System.out.println(myVar3);
  }
```

}

# A B C

## **Strings**

The String data type is used to store a sequence of characters (text). String values must be surrounded by double quotes:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String greeting = "Hello World";
    System.out.println(greeting);
  }
}
```

## Hello World

#### Non-Primitive Data Types

Non-primitive data types are called **reference types** because they refer to objects.

The main difference between **primitive** and **non-primitive** data types are:

- Primitive types are predefined (already defined) in Java. Non-primitive types are created by the programmer and is not defined by Java (except for String).
- Non-primitive types can be used to call methods to perform certain operations, while primitive types cannot.
- A primitive type has always a value, while non-primitive types can be null.
- A primitive type starts with a lowercase letter, while non-primitive types starts with an uppercase letter.
- The size of a primitive type depends on the data type, while non-primitive types have all the same size.

Examples of non-primitive types are Strings, Arrays, Classes, Interface, etc.

# 7. Java Type Casting

Type casting is when you assign a value of one primitive data type to another type. In Java, there are two types of casting:

- Widening Casting (automatically) converting a smaller type to a larger type size byte -> short -> char -> int -> long -> float -> double
- Narrowing Casting (manually) converting a larger type to a smaller size type double -> float -> long -> int -> char -> short -> byte

#### Widening Casting

Widening casting is done automatically when passing a smaller size type to a larger size type:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myInt = 9;
    double myDouble = myInt; // Automatic casting: int to double
    System.out.println(myInt);
    System.out.println(myDouble);
  }
}
```



### Narrowing Casting

Narrowing casting must be done manually by placing the type in parentheses in front of the value:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    double myDouble = 9.78d;
    int myInt = (int) myDouble; // Explicit casting: double to int
    System.out.println(myDouble);
    System.out.println(myInt);
  }
}
```



# 8. Java Operators

Operators are used to perform operations on variables and values. In the example below, we use the + **operator** to add together two values:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 100 + 50;
    System.out.println(x);
  }
}
```

## 150

Although the + operator is often used to add together two values, like in the example above, it can also be used to add together a variable and a value, or a variable and another variable:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int sum1 = 100 + 50;
    int sum2 = sum1 + 250;
    int sum3 = sum2 + sum2;
    System.out.println(sum1);
    System.out.println(sum2);
    System.out.println(sum3);
  }
}
```

```
150
400
800
```

Java divides the operators into the following groups:

- Arithmetic operators
- Assignment operators
- Comparison operators
- Logical operators
- Bitwise operators

## Arithmetic Operators

Arithmetic operators are used to perform common mathematical operations.

No	Operator	Name Description		Example
1	+	Addition	Adds together two values	x + y
2	-	Subtraction	Subtraction Subtracts one value from another	
3	*	Multiplication	Multiplies two values	x * y
4	/	Division	Divides one value by another	x / y
5	%	Modulus	Returns the division remainder	х % у
6	++	Increment	Increases the value of a variable by 1	++x
7		Decrement	Decreases the value of a variable by 1	x



```
7 public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x = 5;
        --x;
        System.out.println(x);
    }
    }
}
```

## Assignment Operators

Assignment operators are used to assign values to variables.

In the example below, we use the **assignment** operator (=) to assign the value **10** to a variable called **x**:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 10;
    System.out.println(x);
  }
}
```

# 10

The **addition assignment** operator (**+=**) adds a value to a variable:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 10;
    x += 5;
    System.out.println(x);
  }
}
```

# 15

A list of all assignment operators:

No	Operator	Fxample	Same As
	operater	-xampic	
1	=	x = 5	x = 5
2	+=	x += 3	x = x + 3
3	-=	x -= 3	x = x - 3
4	*=	x *= 3	x = x * 3
5	/=	x /= 3	x = x / 3
6	%=	x %= 3	x = x % 3

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7	&=	x &= 3		x = x & 3		
8	=	x  = 3		x = x   3		
9	^=	x ^= 3		x = x ^ 3		
10	>>=	x >>= 3		x = x >> 3		
11	<<=	x <<= 3		x = x << 3		
1	<pre>public class Main {    public static void main(S     int x = 5;    System.out.println(x);   } }</pre>	tring[] args) {	2	<pre>public class Main {   public static void m   int x = 5;   x += 3;   System.out.println   } }</pre>	ain(String[] args) { I(x);	8
3	<pre>public class Main {   public static void main(S     int x = 5;     x -= 3;     System.out.println(x);   } }</pre>	tring[] args) {	4	<pre>public class Main {     public static void m     int x = 5;     x *= 3;     System.out.println     } }</pre>	ain(String[] args) { I(x);	15
5	<pre>public class Main {   public static void main(S     double x = 5;     x /= 3;     System.out.println(x);   } } 1.666</pre>	tring[] args) {	6	<pre>public class Main {     public static void m     int x = 5;     x %= 3;     System.out.printlr     } }</pre>	ain(String[] args) { I(x);	2
7	<pre>public class Main {     public static void main(S     int x = 5;     x &amp;= 3;     System.out.println(x);     } }</pre>	tring[] args) {	8	<pre>public class Main {    public static void m     int x = 5;     x  = 3;    System.out.println    } }</pre>	ain(String[] args) { I(x);	7
9	<pre>public class Main {   public static void main(S     int x = 5;     x ^= 3;     System.out.println(x);   } }</pre>	tring[] args) {	10	<pre>public class Main {    public static void m    int x = 5;    x &gt;&gt;= 3;    System.out.printlr   } }</pre>	ain(String[] args) { I(x);	0

```
11 public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x = 5;
        x <<= 3;
        System.out.println(x);
        }
    }
    40</pre>
```

## **Comparison Operators**

Comparison operators are used to compare two values (or variables). This is important in programming, because it helps us to find answers and make decisions.

The return value of a comparison is either true or false. These values are known as *Boolean values*.

In the following example, we use the **greater than** operator (>) to find out if 5 is greater than 3:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 5;
    int y = 3;
    System.out.println(x > y); // returns true, because 5 is higher than 3
  }
}
```

## true

No	Operator	Name	Example
1	==	Equal to	x == y
2	!=	Not equal	x != y
3	>	Greater than	x > y
4	<	Less than	x < y
5	>=	Greater than or equal to	x >= y
6	<=	Less than or equal to	x <= y



## Logical Operators

You can also test for true or false values with logical operators.

Logical operators are used to determine the logic between variables or values:

No	Operator	Name	Description	Example
1	&&	Logical and	Returns true if both statements are true	x < 5 && x < 10
2		Logical or	Returns true if one of the statements is true	x < 5    x < 4
3	!	Logical not	Reverse the result, returns false if the result is true	!(x < 5 && x < 10)

1	public class Main {	2	public class Main {
	<pre>public static void main(String[] args) {</pre>		<pre>public static void main(String[] args) {</pre>
	int x = 5;		int x = 5;
	System.out.println(x > 3 && x < 10); //		System.out.println(x > 3    x < 4); //
	returns true because 5 is greater than 3		returns true because one of the
	AND 5 is less than 10		conditions are true (5 is greater than 3,
	}		but 5 is not less than 4)
	}		}
	True		}
			True

```
3 public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x = 5;
        System.out.println(!(x > 3 && x < 10));
    // returns false because ! (not) is used to
        reverse the result
        }
    }
    False</pre>
```

# 9. Java Strings

Strings are used for storing text.

A String variable contains a collection of characters surrounded by double quotes:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String greeting = "Hello";
    System.out.println(greeting);
  }
}
```

## Hello

## String Length

A String in Java is actually an object, which contain methods that can perform certain operations on strings. For example, the length of a string can be found with the **length()** method:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ";
    System.out.println("The length of the txt string is: " + txt.length());
  }
}
```

## The length of the txt string is: 26

## **More String Methods**

There are many string methods available, for example toUpperCase() and toLowerCase():

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "Hello World";
    System.out.println(txt.toUpperCase());
    System.out.println(txt.toLowerCase());
  }
}
```



## Finding a Character in a String

The **indexOf()** method returns the **index** (the position) of the first occurrence of a specified text in a string (including whitespace):

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "Please locate where 'locate' occurs!";
    System.out.println(txt.indexOf("locate"));
  }
}
```

# 7

Java counts positions from zero. 0 is the first position in a string, 1 is the second, 2 is the third ...

## **String Concatenation**

The + operator can be used between strings to combine them. This is called **concatenation**:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    String firstName = "John";
    String lastName = "Doe";
    System.out.println(firstName + " " + lastName);
  }
}
```

## John Doe

You can also use the **concat()** method to concatenate two strings:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String firstName = "John ";
    String lastName = "Doe";
    System.out.println(firstName.concat(lastName));
  }
}
```

## John Doe

## Adding Numbers and Strings

If you add two numbers, the result will be a number:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 10;
    int y = 20;
    int z = x + y;
    System.out.println(z);
  }
}
30
```

If you add two strings, the result will be a string concatenation:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String x = "10";
    String y = "20";
    String z = x + y;
    System.out.println(z);
  }
}
```

## 1020

If you add a number and a string, the result will be a string concatenation:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String x = "10";
    int y = 20;
    String z = x + y;
    System.out.println(z);
  }
}
```

## 1020

### Strings - Special Characters

Because strings must be written within quotes, Java will misunderstand this string, and generate an error:

```
String txt = "We are the so-called "Vikings" from the north.";
```

The solution to avoid this problem, is to use the **backslash escape character**. The backslash (\) escape character turns special characters into string characters:

Escape character	Result	Description
λ'	I.	Single quote
\"		Double quote
\\	\	Backslash

The sequence \" inserts a double quote in a string:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "We are the so-called \"Vikings\" from the north.";
    System.out.println(txt);
  }
}
```

## We are the so-called "Vikings" from the north.

The sequence \' inserts a single quote in a string:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "It\'s alright.";
    System.out.println(txt);
  }
}
```

## It's alright.

The sequence \\ inserts a single backslash in a string:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String txt = "The character \\ is called backslash.";
    System.out.println(txt);
  }
}
```

## The character $\setminus$ is called backslash.

Other common escape sequences that are valid in Java are:

No	Code	Result
1	\n	New Line
2	\r	Carriage Return
3	\t	Tab
4	\b	Backspace
5	\f	Form Feed



# 10.Java Math

The Java Math class has many methods that allows you to perform mathematical tasks on numbers.

#### Math.max(*x,y*)

The Math.max(x,y) method can be used to find the highest value of x and y:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(Math.max(5, 10));
  }
}
```

# 10

```
Math.min(x,y)
```

The **Math.min(x,y)** method can be used to find the lowest value of x and y:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(Math.min(5, 10));
  }
}
```

# 5

## Math.sqrt(x)

The Math.sqrt(x) method returns the square root of x:

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(Math.sqrt(64));
   }
}
```

# 8.0

## **11.Java Booleans**

Very often, in programming, you will need a data type that can only have one of two values, like:

- YES / NO
- ON / OFF
- TRUE / FALSE

For this, Java has a boolean data type, which can store true or false values.

#### **Boolean Values**

A boolean type is declared with the boolean keyword and can only take the values true or false:

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
    boolean isJavaFun = true;
   boolean isFishTasty = false;
   System.out.println(isJavaFun);
   System.out.println(isFishTasty);
}
```

}



However, it is more common to return boolean values from boolean expressions, for conditional testing (see below).

#### **Boolean Expression**

A Boolean expression returns a boolean value: true or false. This is useful to build logic, and find answers.

For example, you can use a comparison operator, such as the **greater than** (>) operator, to find out if an expression (or a variable) is true or false:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 10;
    int y = 9;
    System.out.println(x > y); // returns true, because 10 is higher than 9
  }
}
```

# True

Or even easier:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(10 > 9); // returns true, because 10 is higher than 9
  }
}
```

## True

In the examples below, we use the **equal to (==)** operator to evaluate an expression:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 10;
    System.out.println(x == 10); // returns true, because the value of x is equal to 10
  }
}
```

# True

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(15 == 10); // returns false, because 10 is not equal to 15
  }
}
```

## False

## Real Life Example

Let's think of a "real life example" where we need to find out if a person is old enough to vote.

In the example below, we use the >= comparison operator to find out if the age (25) is greater than OR equal to the voting age limit, which is set to 18:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myAge = 25;
    int votingAge = 18;
    System.out.println(myAge >= votingAge); // returns true (25 year olds are allowed to
    vote!)
  }
}
```

## True

An even better approach (since we are on a roll now), would be to wrap the code above in an if...else statement, so we can perform different actions depending on the result:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myAge = 25;
    int votingAge = 18;
    if (myAge >= votingAge) {
      System.out.println("Old enough to vote!");
    } else {
      System.out.println("Not old enough to vote.");
    }
}
```

Old enough to vote!

# 12.Java If ... Else

#### Java Conditions and If Statements

You already know that Java supports the usual logical conditions from mathematics:

- Less than: a < b
- Less than or equal to: a <= b
- Greater than: a > b
- Greater than or equal to: a >= b
- Equal to a == b
- Not Equal to: a != b

You can use these conditions to perform different actions for different decisions. Java has the following conditional statements:

- Use if to specify a block of code to be executed, if a specified condition is true
- Use else to specify a block of code to be executed, if the same condition is false
- Use else if to specify a new condition to test, if the first condition is false
- Use switch to specify many alternative blocks of code to be executed

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## The if Statement

Use the if statement to specify a block of Java code to be executed if a condition is true.

Note that if is in lowercase letters. Uppercase letters (If or IF) will generate an error.

In the example below, we test two values to find out if 20 is greater than 18. If the condition is true, print some text:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    if (20 > 18) {
      System.out.println("20 is greater than 18"); // obviously
    }
  }
}
```

## 20 is greater than 18

We can also test variables:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 20;
    int y = 18;
    if (x > y) {
      System.out.println("x is greater than y");
    }
  }
}
```

## x is greater than y

In the example above we use two variables,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , to test whether x is greater than y (using the > operator). As x is 20, and y is 18, and we know that 20 is greater than 18, we print to the screen that "x is greater than y".

#### The else Statement

Use the else statement to specify a block of code to be executed if the condition is false.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int time = 20;
    if (time < 18) {
      System.out.println("Good day.");
    } else {
      System.out.println("Good evening.");
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

#### Good evening.

In the example above, time (20) is greater than 18, so the condition is false. Because of this, we move on to the else condition and print to the screen "Good evening". If the time was less than 18, the program would print "Good day".

#### The else if Statement

Use the else if statement to specify a new condition if the first condition is false.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int time = 22;
    if (time < 10) {
      System.out.println("Good morning.");
    } else if (time < 18) {
      System.out.println("Good day.");
    } else {
      System.out.println("Good evening.");
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

## Good evening.

In the example above, time (22) is greater than 10, so the **first condition** is false. The next condition, in the else if statement, is also false, so we move on to the else condition since **condition1** and **condition2** is both false - and print to the screen "Good evening".

However, if the time was 14, our program would print "Good day."

#### Short Hand If...Else

There is also a short-hand if else, which is known as the **ternary operator** because it consists of three operands.

It can be used to replace multiple lines of code with a single line, and is most often used to replace simple if else statements:

Instead of writing:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int time = 20;
    if (time < 18) {
      System.out.println("Good day.");
    } else {
      System.out.println("Good evening.");
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

You can simply write:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int time = 20;
    String result;
    result = (time < 18) ? "Good day." : "Good evening.";
    System.out.println(result);
  }
}</pre>
```

## Good evening.

# 13.Java Switch

## Java Switch Statements

Instead of writing **many** if..else statements, you can use the switch statement. The switch statement selects one of many code blocks to be executed:

```
switch(expression) {
  case x:
    // code block
    break;
  case y:
    // code block
    break;
  default:
    // code block
}
```

This is how it works:

- The switch expression is evaluated once.
- The value of the expression is compared with the values of each case.
- If there is a match, the associated block of code is executed.
- The break and default keywords are optional, and will be described later in this chapter

The example below uses the weekday number to calculate the weekday name:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int day = 4;
    switch (day) {
        case 1:
            System.out.println("Monday");
            break;
        case 2:
            System.out.println("Tuesday");
            break;
        case 3:
            System.out.println("Wednesday");
            break;
        case 3:
            System.out.println("Wednesday");
            break;
```

```
case 4:
   System.out.println("Thursday");
   break;
case 5:
   System.out.println("Friday");
   break;
case 6:
   System.out.println("Saturday");
   break;
case 7:
   System.out.println("Sunday");
   break;
}
```

## Thursday

} }

### The break Keyword

When Java reaches a break keyword, it breaks out of the switch block.

This will stop the execution of more code and case testing inside the block.

When a match is found, and the job is done, it's time for a break. There is no need for more testing.

A break can save a lot of execution time because it "ignores" the execution of all the rest of the code in the switch block.

## The default Keyword

The default keyword specifies some code to run if there is no case match:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int day = 4;
    switch (day) {
        case 6:
            System.out.println("Today is Saturday");
            break;
        case 7:
            System.out.println("Today is Sunday");
            break;
        default:
            System.out.println("Looking forward to the Weekend");
        }
    }
}
```

## Looking forward to the Weekend

Note that if the default statement is used as the last statement in a switch block, it does not need a break.

## 14. Java While Loop

### **Loops**

Loops can execute a block of code as long as a specified condition is reached. Loops are handy because they save time, reduce errors, and they make code more readable.

#### Java While Loop

The while loop loops through a block of code as long as a specified condition is true:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 5) {
        System.out.println(i);
        i++;
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

#### The Do/While Loop

The do/while loop is a variant of the while loop. This loop will execute the code block once, before checking if the condition is true, then it will repeat the loop as long as the condition is true.

The example below uses a **do/while loop**. The loop will always be executed at least once, even if the condition is false, because the code block is executed before the condition is tested:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int i = 0;
    do {
      System.out.println(i);
      i++;
    }
    while (i < 5);
  }
}</pre>
```



# 15.Java For Loop

When you know exactly how many times you want to loop through a block of code, use the **for** loop instead of a **while** loop:

The example below will print the numbers 0 to 4:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
      System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

## 0 1 2 3 4

## **Example explained**

- Statement 1 sets a variable before the loop starts (int i = 0).
- Statement 2 defines the condition for the loop to run (i must be less than 5). If the condition is true, the loop will start over again, if it is false, the loop will end.
- Statement 3 increases a value (i++) each time the code block in the loop has been executed.

This example will only print even values between 0 and 10:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (int i = 0; i <= 10; i = i + 2) {
      System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

# 0 2 4 6 8

#### Nested Loops

It is also possible to place a loop inside another loop. This is called a nested loop. The "inner loop" will be executed one time for each iteration of the "outer loop":

Outer: 1	L
Inner:	1
Inner:	2
Inner:	3
Outer: 2	2
Inner:	1
Inner:	2

### For-Each Loop

There is also a "for-each" loop, which is used exclusively to loop through elements in an array:

The following example outputs all elements in the **cars** array, using a **"for-each" loop**:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
    for (String i : cars) {
        System.out.println(i);
     }
  }
}
```

## Volvo BMW Ford Mazda

# **16.Java Break and Continue**

## <mark>Java Break</mark>

You have already seen the **break** statement used in an earlier chapter of this tutorial. It was used to "jump out" of a **switch** statement.

The **break** statement can also be used to jump out of a loop. This example stops the loop when i is equal to 4:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
        if (i == 4) {
            break;
        }
        System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

## Java Continue

The **continue** statement breaks one iteration (in the loop), if a specified condition occurs, and continues with the next iteration in the loop. This example skips the value of 4:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
        if (i == 4) {
            continue;
        }
        System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}</pre>
```
# Break and Continue in While Loop

You can also use break and continue in while loops:

```
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 0;
        while (i < 10) {
            System.out.println(i);
            i++;
            if (i == 4) {
                break;
            }
        }
    }
}</pre>
```

# 

}

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 10) {
        if (i == 4) {
            i++;
            continue;
        }
        System.out.println(i);
        i++;
        }
    }
}</pre>
```

}

# **17.Java Arrays**

Arrays are used to store multiple values in a single variable, instead of declaring separate variables for each value.

To declare an array, define the variable type with square brackets: String[] cars;

We have now declared a variable that holds an array of strings. To insert values to it, you can place the values in a comma-separated list, inside curly braces: String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};

To create an array of integers, you could write: int[] myNum = {10, 20, 30, 40};

#### Access the Elements of an Array

You can access an array element by referring to the index number. This statement accesses the value of the first element in cars:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
    System.out.println(cars[0]);
  }
}
```

### Volvo

#### Change an Array Element

To change the value of a specific element, refer to the index number: cars[0] = "Opel";

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
    cars[0] = "Opel";
    System.out.println(cars[0]);
  }
}
```

# 0pel

# Array Length

To find out how many elements an array has, use the length property:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
    System.out.println(cars.length);
  }
}
```

# 4

## Loop Through an Array

You can loop through the array elements with the **for** loop, and use the **length** property to specify how many times the loop should run.

The following example outputs all elements in the cars array:

```
public class Main {
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
   for (int i = 0; i < cars.length; i++) {
     System.out.println(cars[i]);
   }
}</pre>
```



}

### Loop Through an Array with For-Each

There is also a "for-each" loop, which is used exclusively to loop through elements in arrays. The following example outputs all elements in the **cars** array, using a "**for-each**" loop:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String[] cars = {"Volvo", "BMW", "Ford", "Mazda"};
    for (String i : cars) {
        System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}
```

#### Volvo BMW

Ford Mazda The example above can be read like this: **for each** String element (called **i** - as in index) in **cars**, print out the value of **i**.

If you compare the for loop and **for-each** loop, you will see that the for-each method is easier to write, it does not require a counter (using the length property), and it is more readable.

## **Multidimensional Arrays**

A multidimensional array is an array of arrays.

Multidimensional arrays are useful when you want to store data as a tabular form, like a table with rows and columns.

To create a two-dimensional array, add each array within its own set of curly braces:

int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };

myNumbers is now an array with two arrays as its elements.

## Access Elements

To access the elements of the **myNumbers** array, specify two indexes: one for the array, and one for the element inside that array. This example accesses the third element (2) in the second array (1) of myNumbers:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };
    System.out.println(myNumbers[1][2]);
  }
}
```

# 7

## Change Element Values

You can also change the value of an element:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };
    myNumbers[1][2] = 9;
    System.out.println(myNumbers[1][2]); // Outputs 9 instead of 7
  }
}
```

# 9

### Loop Through a Multi-Dimensional Array

We can also use a for loop inside another for loop to get the elements of a two-dimensional array (we still have to point to the two indexes):

```
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[][] myNumbers = { {1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7} };
        for (int i = 0; i < myNumbers.length; ++i) {
            for(int j = 0; j < myNumbers[i].length; ++j) {
                System.out.println(myNumbers[i][j]);
            }
        }
    }
}</pre>
```

}

# **18.Java Methods**

A **method** is a block of code which only runs when it is called. You can pass data, known as parameters, into a method.

Methods are used to perform certain actions, and they are also known as **functions**. Why use methods? To reuse code: define the code once, and use it many times.

#### Create a Method

A method must be declared within a class. It is defined with the name of the method, followed by parentheses (). Java provides some pre-defined methods, such as **System.out.println()**, but you can also create your own methods to perform certain actions:

Create a method inside Main:

```
public class Main {
   static void myMethod() {
     // code to be executed
   }
}
```

- myMethod() is the name of the method
- static means that the method belongs to the Main class and not an object of the Main class. You will learn more about objects and how to access methods through objects later in this tutorial.
- void means that this method does not have a return value.

### Call a Method

To call a method in Java, write the method's name followed by two parentheses () and a semicolon;

In the following example, **myMethod()** is used to print a text (the action), when it is called. Inside **main**, call the **myMethod()** method:

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod() {
    System.out.println("I just got executed!");
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    myMethod();
  }
}
```

I just got executed!

A method can also be called multiple times:

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod() {
    System.out.println("I just got executed!");
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    myMethod();
    myMethod();
    myMethod();
  }
}
```

I just got executed! I just got executed! I just got executed!

# **19.Java Method Parameters**

### **Parameters and Arguments**

Information can be passed to methods as parameter. Parameters act as variables inside the method.

Parameters are specified after the method name, inside the parentheses. You can add as many parameters as you want, just separate them with a comma.

The following example has a method that takes a String called **fname** as parameter. When the method is called, we pass along a first name, which is used inside the method to print the full name:

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod(String fname) {
    System.out.println(fname + " Refsnes");
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    myMethod("Liam");
    myMethod("Jenny");
    myMethod("Anja");
  }
}
```

Liam Refsnes Jenny Refsnes Anja Refsnes When a **parameter** is passed to the method, it is called an **argument**. So, from the example above: **fname** is a **parameter**, while **Liam**, **Jenny** and **Anja** are **arguments**.

#### Multiple Parameters

You can have as many parameters as you like:

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod(String fname, int age) {
    System.out.println(fname + " is " + age);
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    myMethod("Liam", 5);
    myMethod("Jenny", 8);
    myMethod("Anja", 31);
  }
}
```

Liam is 5 Jenny is 8 Anja is 31

Note that when you are working with multiple parameters, the method call must have the same number of arguments as there are parameters, and the arguments must be passed in the same order.

#### Return Values

The **void** keyword, used in the examples above, indicates that the method should not return a value. If you want the method to return a value, you can use a primitive data type (such as **int**, **char**, etc.) instead of **void**, and use the **return** keyword inside the method:

```
public class Main {
  static int myMethod(int x) {
    return 5 + x;
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(myMethod(3));
  }
}
```

# 8

This example returns the sum of a method's two parameters:

```
public class Main {
  static int myMethod(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println(myMethod(5, 3));
  }
}
```

You can also store the result in a variable (recommended, as it is easier to read and maintain):

```
public class Main {
 static int myMethod(int x, int y) {
  return x + y;
 }
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  int z = myMethod(5, 3);
  System.out.println(z);
 }
}
```

# 8

}

# A Method with If...Else

It is common to use if...else statements inside methods:

```
public class Main {
 // Create a checkAge() method with an integer parameter called age
 static void checkAge(int age) {
  // If age is less than 18, print "access denied"
  if (age < 18) {
   System.out.println("Access denied - You are not old enough!");
  // If age is greater than, or equal to, 18, print "access granted"
  } else {
   System.out.println("Access granted - You are old enough!");
  }
 }
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  checkAge(20); // Call the checkAge method and pass along an age of 20
 }
```

# Access granted - You are old enough!

# **20.Java Method Overloading**

### **Method Overloading**

With method overloading, multiple methods can have the same name with different parameters:

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Example: int myMethod(int x)

float myMethod(float x)
double myMethod(double x, double y)

Consider the following example, which has two methods that add numbers of different type:

```
public class Main {
  static int plusMethodInt(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
  }
  static double plusMethodDouble(double x, double y) {
   return x + y;
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum1 = plusMethodInt(8, 5);
    double myNum2 = plusMethodDouble(4.3, 6.26);
    System.out.println("int: " + myNum1);
    System.out.println("double: " + myNum2);
  }
}
```

int: 13 double: 10.5599999999999999

Instead of defining two methods that should do the same thing, it is better to overload one. In the example below, we overload the **plusMethod** method to work for both **int** and **double**:

```
public class Main {
  static int plusMethod(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
  }
  static double plusMethod(double x, double y) {
    return x + y;
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int myNum1 = plusMethod(8, 5);
    double myNum2 = plusMethod(4.3, 6.26);
    System.out.println("int: " + myNum1);
    System.out.println("double: " + myNum2);
  }
}
```

int: 13 double: 10.5599999999999999

# 21.Java Scope

In Java, variables are only accessible inside the region they are created. This is called **scope**.

## **Method Scope**

Variables declared directly inside a method are available anywhere in the method following the line of code in which they were declared:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Code here cannot use x
    int x = 100;
    // Code here can use x
    System.out.println(x);
  }
}
```

# 100

# <mark>Block Scope</mark>

A block of code refers to all of the code between curly braces {}. Variables declared inside blocks of code are only accessible by the code between the curly braces, which follows the line in which the variable was declared:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Code here CANNOT use x
    {// This is a block
    // Code here CANNOT use x
    int x = 100;
    // Code here CAN use x
    System.out.println(x);
  }// The block ends here
```

// Code here CANNOT use x

} }

# 100

A block of code may exist on its own or it can belong to an **if**, **while** or **for** statement. In the case of **for** statements, variables declared in the statement itself are also available inside the block's scope.

# 22.Java Recursion

Recursion is the technique of making a function call itself. This technique provides a way to break complicated problems down into simple problems which are easier to solve.

Recursion may be a bit difficult to understand. The best way to figure out how it works is to experiment with it.

#### **Recursion Example**

Adding two numbers together is easy to do, but adding a range of numbers is more complicated. In the following example, recursion is used to add a range of numbers together by breaking it down into the simple task of adding two numbers:

Use recursion to add all of the numbers up to 10.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int result = sum(10);
    System.out.println(result);
  }
  public static int sum(int k) {
    if (k > 0) {
      return k + sum(k - 1);
    } else {
      return 0;
    }
  }
}
```

# 55

### **Example Explained**

When the sum() function is called, it adds parameter k to the sum of all numbers smaller than k and returns the result. When k becomes 0, the function just returns 0. When running, the program follows these steps:

```
10 + sum(9)

10 + (9 + sum(8))

10 + (9 + (8 + sum(7)))

...

10 + 9 + 8 + 7 + 6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + sum(0)

10 + 9 + 8 + 7 + 6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 0
```

Since the function does not call itself when  $\mathbf{k}$  is 0, the program stops there and returns the result.

## **Halting Condition**

Just as loops can run into the problem of infinite looping, recursive functions can run into the problem of infinite recursion. Infinite recursion is when the function never stops calling itself. Every recursive function should have a halting condition, which is the condition where the function stops calling itself. In the previous example, the halting condition is when the parameter k becomes 0.

It is helpful to see a variety of different examples to better understand the concept. In this example, the function adds a range of numbers between a start and an end. The halting condition for this recursive function is when **end** is not greater than **start**:

Use recursion to add all of the numbers between 5 to 10.

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int result = sum(5, 10);
    System.out.println(result);
  }
  public static int sum(int start, int end) {
    if (end > start) {
      return end + sum(start, end - 1);
    } else {
      return end;
    }
  }
}
```

# 45

The developer should be very careful with recursion as it can be quite easy to slip into writing a function which never terminates, or one that uses excess amounts of memory or processor power. However, when written correctly recursion can be a very efficient and mathematically-elegant approach to programming.

# 23.Java OOP

### Java - What is OOP?

## OOP stands for Object-Oriented Programming.

Procedural programming is about writing procedures or methods that perform operations on the data, while object-oriented programming is about creating objects that contain both data and methods.

Object-oriented programming has several advantages over procedural programming:

- OOP is faster and easier to execute
- OOP provides a clear structure for the programs
- OOP helps to keep the Java code DRY "Don't Repeat Yourself", and makes the code easier to maintain, modify and debug
- OOP makes it possible to create full reusable applications with less code and shorter development time

**Tip:** The "Don't Repeat Yourself" (DRY) principle is about reducing the repetition of code. You should extract out the codes that are common for the application, and place them at a single place and reuse them instead of repeating it.

### Java - What are Classes and Objects?

Classes and objects are the two main aspects of object-oriented programming. Look at the following illustration to see the difference between class and objects:

class	objects
Fruit	Apple
	Banana
	Mango

Another example:

class	objects
Car	Volvo
	Audi
	Toyota

So, a class is a template for objects, and an object is an instance of a class.

When the individual objects are created, they inherit all the variables and methods from the class.

# 24.Java Classes/Objects

Java is an object-oriented programming language.

Everything in Java is associated with classes and objects, along with its attributes and methods. For example: in real life, a car is an object. The car has **attributes**, such as weight and color, and **methods**, such as drive and brake.

A Class is like an object constructor, or a "blueprint" for creating objects.

Create a Class To create a class, use the keyword class: Main.java Get your own Java Server Create a class named "Main" with a variable x:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
}
```

Remember that a class should always start with an uppercase first letter, and that the name of the java file should match the class name.

### Create an Object

In Java, an object is created from a class. We have already created the class named **Main**, so now we can use this to create objects.

To create an object of **Main**, specify the class name, followed by the object name, and use the keyword **new**:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main();
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 5

# Multiple Objects

You can create multiple objects of one class. Create two objects of Main:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
```

public static void main(String[] args) {
 Main myObj1 = new Main();
 Main myObj2 = new Main();
 System.out.println(myObj1.x);
 System.out.println(myObj2.x);
}



}

# Using Multiple Classes

You can also create an object of a class and access it in another class. This is often used for better organization of classes (one class has all the attributes and methods, while the other class holds the **main()** method (code to be executed)).

Remember that the name of the java file should match the class name. In this example, we have created two files in the same directory/folder:

- Main.java
- Second.java

### Main.java

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
}
```

## Second.java

```
class Second {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main myObj = new Main();
    System.out.println(myObj.x);
  }
}
```



# **25.Java Class Attributes**

In the previous chapter, we used the term "variable" for **x** in the example (as shown below). It is actually an **attribute** of the class. Or you could say that class attributes are variables within a class:

Create a class called "Main" with two attributes: x and y:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
    int y = 3;
}
```

### Accessing Attributes

You can access attributes by creating an object of the class, and by using the dot syntax (.): The following example will create an object of the **Main** class, with the name **myObj**. We use the x attribute on the object to print its value:

Create an object called "myObj" and print the value of x:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main();
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 5

### **Modify Attributes**

You can also modify attribute values. Set the value of **x** to 40:

```
public class Main {
    int x;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main();
        myObj.x = 40;
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 40

Or override existing values: Change the value of **x** to 25:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 10;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main();
        myObj.x = 25; // x is now 25
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 25

If you don't want the ability to override existing values, declare the attribute as final:

```
public class Main {
  final int x = 10;
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main myObj = new Main();
    myObj.x = 25; // will generate an error
    System.out.println(myObj.x);
  }
}
```

The **final** keyword is useful when you want a variable to always store the same value, like PI (3.14159...).

The final keyword is called a "modifier".

# Multiple Objects

If you create multiple objects of one class, you can change the attribute values in one object, without affecting the attribute values in the other.

Change the value of x to 25 in myObj2, and leave x in myObj1 unchanged:

```
public class Main {
    int x = 5;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj1 = new Main();
        Main myObj2 = new Main();
        myObj2.x = 25;
        System.out.println(myObj1.x);
        System.out.println(myObj2.x);
    }
}
```



#### **Multiple Attributes**

You can specify as many attributes as you want:

```
public class Main {
   String fname = "John";
   String lname = "Doe";
   int age = 24;
   public static void main(String[] args) {
     Main myObj = new Main();
     System.out.println("Name: " + myObj.fname + " " + myObj.lname);
     System.out.println("Age: " + myObj.age);
   }
}
```



# **26.Java Class Methods**

You learned that methods are declared within a class, and that they are used to perform certain actions:

Create a method named myMethod() in Main:

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod() {
    System.out.println("Hello World!");
  }
}
```

**myMethod()** prints a text (the action), when it is **called**. To call a method, write the method's name followed by two parentheses () and a semicolon;

Inside main, call myMethod():

```
public class Main {
  static void myMethod() {
    System.out.println("Hello World!");
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    myMethod();
  }
}
```

Hello World!

## <mark>Static vs. Public</mark>

You will often see Java programs that have either **static** or **public** attributes and methods. In the example above, we created a **static** method, which means that it can be accessed without creating an object of the class, unlike **public**, which can only be accessed by objects.

An example to demonstrate the differences between **static** and **public methods**:

```
public class Main {
    // Static method
    static void myStaticMethod() {
        System.out.println("Static methods can be called without creating objects");
    }
    // Public method
    public void myPublicMethod() {
        System.out.println("Public methods must be called by creating objects");
    }
    // Main method
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        myStaticMethod(); // Call the static method
        Main myObj = new Main(); // Create an object of MyClass
        myObj.myPublicMethod(); // Call the public method
    }
}
```

Static methods can be called without creating objects Public methods must be called by creating objects

### Access Methods With an Object

}

Create a Car object named **myCar**. Call the **fullThrottle()** and **speed()** methods on the **myCar** object, and run the program:

```
// Create a Main class
public class Main {
    // Create a fullThrottle() method
    public void fullThrottle() {
        System.out.println("The car is going as fast as it can!");
    }
    // Create a speed() method and add a parameter
    public void speed(int maxSpeed) {
        System.out.println("Max speed is: " + maxSpeed);
    }
    // Inside main, call the methods on the myCar object
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myCar = new Main(); // Create a myCar object
        myCar.fullThrottle(); // Call the fullThrottle() method
```

```
myCar.speed(200); // Call the speed() method
}
```

```
The car is going as fast as it can!
Max speed is: 200
```

## **Explained:**

- 1. We created a custom Main class with the class keyword.
- 2. We created the fullThrottle() and speed() methods in the Main class.
- 3. The fullThrottle() method and the speed() method will print out some text, when they are called.
- 4. The speed() method accepts an int parameter called maxSpeed we will use this in 8).
- 5. In order to use the Main class and its methods, we need to create an **object** of the Main Class.
- 6. Then, go to the main() method, which you know by now is a built-in Java method that runs your program (any code inside main is executed).
- 7. By using the **new** keyword we created an object with the name **myCar**.
- Then, we call the fullThrottle() and speed() methods on the myCar object, and run the program using the name of the object (myCar), followed by a dot (.), followed by the name of the method (fullThrottle(); and speed(200);). Notice that we add an int parameter of 200 inside the speed() method.

### Using Multiple Classes

Like we specified in the Classes chapter, it is a good practice to create an object of a class and access it in another class.

Remember that the name of the java file should match the class name. In this example, we have created two files in the same directory:

- Main.java
- Second.java

### Main.java

```
public class Main {
  public void fullThrottle() {
    System.out.println("The car is going as fast as it can!");
  }
  public void speed(int maxSpeed) {
    System.out.println("Max speed is: " + maxSpeed);
  }
}
```

# Second.java

```
class Second {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main myCar = new Main(); // Create a myCar object
    myCar.fullThrottle(); // Call the fullThrottle() method
    myCar.speed(200); // Call the speed() method
  }
}
```

The car is going as fast as it can! Max speed is: 200

# 27. Java Constructors

A constructor in Java is a **special method** that is used to initialize objects. The constructor is called when an object of a class is created. It can be used to set initial values for object attributes.

Create a constructor:

```
// Create a Main class
public class Main {
    int x;
    // Create a class constructor for the Main class
    public Main() {
        x = 5;
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main();
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 5

Note that the constructor name must **match the class name**, and it cannot have a **return type** (like void).

Also note that the constructor is called when the object is created.

All classes have constructors by default: if you do not create a class constructor yourself, Java creates one for you. However, then you are not able to set initial values for object attributes.

### **Constructor Parameters**

Constructors can also take parameters, which is used to initialize attributes.

The following example adds an int y parameter to the constructor. Inside the constructor we set x to y (x=y). When we call the constructor, we pass a parameter to the constructor (5), which will set the value of x to 5:

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```
public class Main {
    int x;
    public Main(int y) {
        x = y;
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myObj = new Main(5);
        System.out.println(myObj.x);
    }
}
```

# 5

You can have as many parameters as you want:

```
//filename: Main.java
public class Main {
    int modelYear;
    String modelName;

    public Main(int year, String name) {
        modelYear = year;
        modelName = name;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Main myCar = new Main(1969, "Mustang");
        System.out.println(myCar.modelYear + " " + myCar.modelName);
    }
}
```

# 1969 Mustang

# **28.Java Modifiers**

# **Modifiers**

By now, you are quite familiar with the public keyword that appears in almost all of our examples:

```
public class Main
```

The **public** keyword is an **access modifier**, meaning that it is used to set the access level for classes, attributes, methods and constructors. We divide modifiers into two groups:

- Access Modifiers controls the access level
- Non-Access Modifiers do not control access level, but provides other functionality

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## Access Modifiers

For classes, you can use either public or default:

No	Modifier	Description
1	public	The class is accessible by any other class
2	default	The class is only accessible by classes in the same package. This is used when you don't specify a modifier.

2

}

1	public class Main {		
	<pre>public static void main(String[] args) {</pre>		
	System.out.println("Hello World");		
	}		
	}		

class MyClass {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
 System.out.println("Hello World");
 }

Hello World

# Hello World

# For attributes, methods and constructors, you can use the one of the following:

No	Modifier	Description
1	public	The code is accessible for all classes
2	private	The code is only accessible within the declared class
3	default	The code is only accessible in the same package. This is used when you don't specify a modifier.
4	protected	The code is accessible in the same package and <b>subclasses</b> .

1 public class Main { public String fname = "John"; public String Iname = "Doe";	2	<pre>public class Main {     private String fname = "John";     private String lname = "Doe";</pre>
public String email = "John@doe.com"; public int age = 24;		private String email = "john@doe.com"; private int age = 24;
Name: John Doe Email: john@doe.com Age: 24		<pre>public static void main(String[] args) {     Main myObj = new Main();     System.out.println("Name: " +     myObj.fname + " " + myObj.lname);     System.out.println("Email: " +     myObj.email);     System.out.println("Age: " + myObj.age);     } } Name: John Doe Email: john@doe.com Age: 24</pre>



# Non-Access Modifiers

For classes, you can use either final or abstract:

No	Modifier	Description
1	final	The class cannot be inherited by other classes
2	abstract	The class cannot be used to create objects (To access an abstract class, it must be inherited from another class.

1	final class Vehicle {	2	// abstract class
	protected String brand = "Ford";		abstract class Main {
	public void honk() {		public String fname = "John";
	System.out.println("Tuut, tuut!");		public String Iname = "Doe";
	}		public String email = "john@doe.com";
	}		public int age = 24;
			public abstract void study(); // abstract
	class Main extends Vehicle {		method
	<pre>private String modelName = "Mustang";</pre>		}
	public static void main(String[] args) {		
	Main myFastCar = new Main();		// Subclass (inherit from Person)
	myFastCar.honk();		class Student extends Main {
	System.out.println(myFastCar.brand + "		public int graduationYear = 2018;
	" + myFastCar.modelName);		public void study() {



System.out.printlr	("Studying all day
long");	
}	
}	
	Name: John Doe
	Email: john@doe.com
	Age: 24
	Graduation Year: 2018
	Studying all day long

For attributes and methods, you can use the one of the following:

No	Modifier	Description
1	final	Attributes and methods cannot be overridden/modified
2	static	Attributes and methods belongs to the class, rather than an object
3	abstract	Can only be used in an abstract class, and can only be used on methods. The method does not have a body, for example <b>abstract void run();</b> . The body is provided by the subclass (inherited from).
4	transient	Attributes and methods are skipped when serializing the object containing them
5	synchronized	Methods can only be accessed by one thread at a time
6	volatile	The value of an attribute is not cached thread-locally, and is always read from the "main memory"

# <mark>Final</mark>

If you don't want the ability to override existing attribute values, declare attributes as final:

```
public class Main {
  final int x = 10;
  final double PI = 3.14;
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main myObj = new Main();
    myObj.x = 50; // will generate an error
    myObj.PI = 25; // will generate an error
    System.out.println(myObj.x);
}
```

```
}
```

```
Main.java:7: error: cannot assign a value to final variable x
myObj.x = 50;
^
Main.java:8: error: cannot assign a value to final variable PI
myObj.PI = 25;
^ 2 errors
```

# <mark>Static</mark>

A **static** method means that it can be accessed without creating an object of the class, unlike **public**:

An example to demonstrate the differences between **static** and **public** methods:

```
public class Main {
    // Static method
    static void myStaticMethod() {
        System.out.println("Static methods can be called without creating objects");
    }
    // Public method
    public void myPublicMethod() {
        System.out.println("Public methods must be called by creating objects");
    }
    // Main method
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        myStaticMethod(); // Call the static method
        Main myObj = new Main(); // Create an object of MyClass
        myObj.myPublicMethod(); // Call the public method
    }
}
```

Static methods can be called without creating objects Public methods must be called by creating objects

# Abstract

}

An **abstract** method belongs to an **abstract** class, and it does not have a body. The body is provided by the subclass:

```
// abstract class
abstract class Main {
    public String fname = "John";
    public int age = 24;
    public abstract void study(); // abstract method
}
// Subclass (inherit from Main)
class Student extends Main {
    public int graduationYear = 2018;
    public void study() { // the body of the abstract method is provided here
        System.out.println("Studying all day long");
    }
}
```

Name: John Age: 24 Graduation Year: 2018 Studying all day long

# **29.Java Encapsulation**

#### **Encapsulation**

The meaning of **Encapsulation**, is to make sure that "sensitive" data is hidden from users. To achieve this, you must:

- declare class variables/attributes as private
- provide public get and set methods to access and update the value of a private variable

### Get and Set

You learned from the previous chapter that private variables can only be accessed within the same class (an outside class has no access to it). However, it is possible to access them if we provide public **get** and **set** methods.

The get method returns the variable value, and the set method sets the value.

Syntax for both is that they start with either get or set, followed by the name of the variable, with the first letter in upper case:

```
public class Person {
    private String name; // private = restricted access
    // Getter
    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }
    // Setter
    public void setName(String newName) {
        this.name = newName;
    }
}
```

### Explained

The get method returns the value of the variable name.

The set method takes a parameter (newName) and assigns it to the name variable. The keyword is used to refer to the current object.

However, as the name variable is declared as private, we **cannot** access it from outside this class:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Person myObj = new Person();
    myObj.name = "John";
    System.out.println(myObj.name);
  }
}
```

If the variable was declared as **public**, we would expect the following output:

# John

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However, as we try to access a **private** variable, we get an error:



Instead, we use the getName() and setName() methods to access and update the variable:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Person myObj = new Person();
    myObj.setName("John");
    System.out.println(myObj.getName());
  }
}
```

# John

# Why Encapsulation?

- Better control of class attributes and methods
- Class attributes can be made **read-only** (if you only use the **get** method), or **write-only** (if you only use the **set** method)
- Flexible: the programmer can change one part of the code without affecting other parts
- Increased security of data

# **30.Java Packages**

### Java Packages & API

A package in Java is used to group related classes. Think of it as **a folder in a file directory**. We use packages to avoid name conflicts, and to write a better maintainable code. Packages are divided into two categories:

- Built-in Packages (packages from the Java API)
- User-defined Packages (create your own packages)

### Built-in Packages

The Java API is a library of prewritten classes, that are free to use, included in the Java Development Environment.

The library contains components for managing input, database programming, and much much more.

The complete list can be found at Oracles

website: https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/api/.

The library is divided into **packages** and **classes**. Meaning you can either import a single class (along with its methods and attributes), or a whole package that contain all the classes that belong to the specified package.

To use a class or a package from the library, you need to use the import keyword:

```
import package.name.Class; // Import a single class
import package.name.*; // Import the whole package
```

#### Import a Class

If you find a class you want to use, for example, the **Scanner** class, **which is used to get user input**, write the following code:

import java.util.Scanner;

In the example above, java.util is a package, while Scanner is a class of the java.util package.

To use the **Scanner** class, create an object of the class and use any of the available methods found in the **Scanner** class documentation. In our example, we will use the **nextLine()** method, which is used to read a complete line:

Using the Scanner class to get user input:

```
import java.util.Scanner; // import the Scanner class
class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);
        String userName;
        // Enter username and press Enter
        System.out.println("Enter username");
        userName = myObj.nextLine();
```

System.out.println("Username is: " + userName);

```
}
}
```

#### Enter username

#### Import a Package

There are many packages to choose from. In the previous example, we used the **Scanner** class from the **java.util** package. This package also contains date and time facilities, random-number generator and other utility classes.

To import a whole package, end the sentence with an asterisk sign (\*). The following example will import ALL the classes in the **java.util** package:

```
import java.util.*;
```

import java.util.\*; // import the java.util package

```
class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);
    String userName;
```

```
// Enter username and press Enter
System.out.println("Enter username");
userName = myObj.nextLine();
```

```
System.out.println("Username is: " + userName);
```

## User-defined Packages

} }

To create your own package, you need to understand that Java uses a file system directory to store them. Just like folders on your computer:

```
└── root
└── mypack
└── MyPackageClass.java
```

To create a package, use the package keyword:

```
package mypack;
```

}

```
class MyPackageClass {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("This is my package!");
}
```

# This is my package!

Save the file as MyPackageClass.java, and compile it: C:\Users\Your Name>javac MyPackageClass.java

Then compile the package:

C:\Users\Your Name>javac -d . MyPackageClass.java

This forces the compiler to create the "mypack" package.

The **-d** keyword specifies the destination for where to save the class file. You can use any directory name, like c:/user (windows), or, if you want to keep the package within the same directory, you can use the dot sign ".", like in the example above.

Note: The package name should be written in lower case to avoid conflict with class names.

When we compiled the package in the example above, a new folder was created, called "mypack".

To run the **MyPackageClass.java** file, write the following:

C:\Users\Your Name>java mypack.MyPackageClass

The output will be: This is my package!

# **31.Java Inheritance**

#### Java Inheritance (Subclass and Superclass)

In Java, it is possible to inherit attributes and methods from one class to another. We group the "inheritance concept" into two categories:

- subclass (child) the class that inherits from another class
- superclass (parent) the class being inherited from

To inherit from a class, use the extends keyword.

In the example below, the Car class (subclass) inherits the attributes and methods from the Vehicle class (superclass):

```
class Vehicle {
  protected String brand = "Ford";
  public void honk() {
    System.out.println("Tuut, tuut!");
  }
}
class Car extends Vehicle {
  private String modelName = "Mustang";
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Car myFastCar = new Car();
    myFastCar.honk();
    System.out.println(myFastCar.brand + " " + myFastCar.modelName);
  }
}
```

## Tuut, tuut! Ford Mustang

Did you notice the **protected** modifier in Vehicle?

We set the **brand** attribute in **Vehicle** to a **protected** access modifier. If it was set to **private**, the Car class would not be able to access it.

### Why And When To Use "Inheritance"?

- It is useful for code reusability: reuse attributes and methods of an existing class when you create a new class.

### The final Keyword

If you don't want other classes to inherit from a class, use the final keyword:

If you try to access a final class, Java will generate an error:

```
final class Vehicle {
    ...
}
class Car extends Vehicle {
    ...
}
```

The output will be something like this:



# 32.Java Polymorphism

Polymorphism means "many forms", and it occurs when we have many classes that are related to each other by inheritance.

Like we specified in the previous chapter; **Inheritance** lets us inherit attributes and methods from another class. **Polymorphism** uses those methods to perform different tasks. This allows us to perform a single action in different ways.

For example, think of a superclass called **Animal** that has a method called **animalSound()**. Subclasses of Animals could be Pigs, Cats, Dogs, Birds - And they also have their own implementation of an animal sound (the pig oinks, and the cat meows, etc.):

```
class Animal {
  public void animalSound() {
    System.out.println("The animal makes a sound");
  }
}
class Pig extends Animal {
  public void animalSound() {
    System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");
  }
}
class Dog extends Animal {
  public void animalSound() {
    System.out.println("The dog says: bow wow");
  }
}
```

Now we can create **Pig** and **Dog** objects and call the **animalSound()** method on both of them:

```
class Animal {
  public void animalSound() {
    System.out.println("The animal makes a sound");
  }
}
class Pig extends Animal {
  public void animalSound() {
```

```
System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");
}
}
class Dog extends Animal {
 public void animalSound() {
  System.out.println("The dog says: bow wow");
}
}
class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  Animal myAnimal = new Animal();
  Animal myPig = new Pig();
  Animal myDog = new Dog();
  myAnimal.animalSound();
  myPig.animalSound();
  myDog.animalSound();
 }
}
```

```
The animal makes a sound
The pig says: wee wee
The dog says: bow wow
```

## Why And When To Use "Inheritance" and "Polymorphism"?

- It is useful for code reusability: reuse attributes and methods of an existing class when you create a new class.

# **33.Java Inner Classes**

In Java, it is also possible to nest classes (a class within a class). The purpose of nested classes is to group classes that belong together, which makes your code more readable and maintainable.

To access the inner class, create an object of the outer class, and then create an object of the inner class:

```
class OuterClass {
    int x = 10;
    class InnerClass {
        int y = 5;
      }
    public class Main {
        public static void main(String[] args) {
    }
}
```

```
OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();
OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();
System.out.println(myInner.y + myOuter.x);
}
}
```

# 15

## Private Inner Class

Unlike a "regular" class, an inner class can be private or protected. If you don't want outside objects to access the inner class, declare the class as private:

```
class OuterClass {
    int x = 10;
    private class InnerClass {
        int y = 5;
    }
}
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();
        OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();
        System.out.println(myInner.y + myOuter.x);
    }
}
```

If you try to access a private inner class from an outside class, an error occurs:

## Static Inner Class

An inner class can also be **static**, which means that you can access it without creating an object of the outer class:

```
class OuterClass {
    int x = 10;
    static class InnerClass {
        int y = 5;
    }
    public class Main {
        public static void main(String[] args) {
            OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = new OuterClass.InnerClass();
            System.out.println(myInner.y);
        }
}
```

## Access Outer Class From Inner Class

One advantage of inner classes, is that they can access attributes and methods of the outer class:

```
class OuterClass {
    int x = 10;
    class InnerClass {
        public int myInnerMethod() {
            return x;
        }
    }
    public class Main {
        public static void main(String[] args) {
            OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();
            OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();
            System.out.println(myInner.myInnerMethod());
        }
    }
}
```

# 10

# **34.Java Abstraction**

### Abstract Classes and Methods

Data **abstraction** is the process of hiding certain details and showing only essential information to the user.

Abstraction can be achieved with either **abstract classes** or **interfaces**. The abstract keyword is a non-access modifier, used for classes and methods:

- **Abstract class:** is a restricted class that cannot be used to create objects (to access it, it must be inherited from another class).
- **Abstract method:** can only be used in an abstract class, and it does not have a body. The body is provided by the subclass (inherited from).

An abstract class can have both abstract and regular methods:

```
abstract class Animal {
  public abstract void animalSound();
  public void sleep() {
    System.out.println("Zzz");
  }
}
```

From the example above, it is not possible to create an object of the Animal class:

```
Animal myObj = new Animal(); // will generate an error
```
To access the abstract class, it must be inherited from another class. Let's convert the Animal class we used in the Polymorphism chapter to an abstract class:

```
// Abstract class
abstract class Animal {
// Abstract method (does not have a body)
 public abstract void animalSound();
 // Regular method
 public void sleep() {
  System.out.println("Zzz");
}
}
// Subclass (inherit from Animal)
class Pig extends Animal {
 public void animalSound() {
  // The body of animalSound() is provided here
  System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");
}
}
class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  Pig myPig = new Pig(); // Create a Pig object
  myPig.animalSound();
  myPig.sleep();
}
}
```

# The pig says: wee wee Zzz

#### Why And When To Use Abstract Classes and Methods?

To achieve security - hide certain details and only show the important details of an object.

# **35.Interfaces**

Another way to achieve abstraction in Java, is with interfaces.

An interface is a completely "**abstract class**" that is used to group related methods with empty bodies:

```
// interface
interface Animal {
    public void animalSound(); // interface method (does not have a body)
    public void run(); // interface method (does not have a body)
}
```

To access the interface methods, the interface must be "implemented" (kinda like inherited) by another class with the implements keyword (instead of extends). The body of the interface method is provided by the "implement" class:

```
interface Animal {
 public void animalSound(); // interface method (does not have a body)
 public void sleep(); // interface method (does not have a body)
}
class Pig implements Animal {
 public void animalSound() {
  System.out.println("The pig says: wee wee");
 }
 public void sleep() {
  System.out.println("Zzz");
 }
}
class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  Pig myPig = new Pig();
  myPig.animalSound();
  myPig.sleep();
 }
}
```

The pig says: wee wee Zzz

#### Notes on Interfaces:

- Like **abstract classes**, interfaces **cannot** be used to create objects (in the example above, it is not possible to create an "Animal" object in the MyMainClass)
- Interface methods do not have a body the body is provided by the "implement" class
- On implementation of an interface, you must override all of its methods
- Interface methods are by default abstract and public
- Interface attributes are by default public, static and final
- An interface cannot contain a constructor (as it cannot be used to create objects)

#### Why And When To Use Interfaces?

- 1. To achieve security hide certain details and only show the important details of an object (interface).
- Java does not support "multiple inheritance" (a class can only inherit from one superclass). However, it can be achieved with interfaces, because the class can **implement** multiple interfaces. **Note:** To implement multiple interfaces, separate them with a comma (see example below).

#### Multiple Interfaces

To implement multiple interfaces, separate them with a comma:

```
interface FirstInterface {
public void myMethod(); // interface method
}
interface SecondInterface {
public void myOtherMethod(); // interface method
}
// DemoClass "implements" FirstInterface and SecondInterface
class DemoClass implements FirstInterface, SecondInterface {
public void myMethod() {
  System.out.println("Some text..");
 }
 public void myOtherMethod() {
  System.out.println("Some other text...");
}
}
class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  DemoClass myObj = new DemoClass();
  myObj.myMethod();
  myObj.myOtherMethod();
}
}
```

#### Some text... Some other text..

# 36.Java Enums

#### <mark>Enums</mark>

An **enum** is a special "class" that represents a group of **constants** (unchangeable variables, like **final** variables).

To create an **enum**, use the **enum** keyword (instead of class or interface), and separate the constants with a comma. Note that they should be in uppercase letters:

```
enum Level {
LOW,
MEDIUM,
HIGH
}
```

You can access enum constants with the **dot** syntax:

```
enum Level {
  LOW,
  MEDIUM,
  HIGH
}
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;
    System.out.println(myVar);
  }
}
```

# MEDIUM

Enum is short for "enumerations", which means "specifically listed".

#### Enum inside a Class

You can also have an **enum** inside a class:

```
public class Main {
  enum Level {
    LOW,
    MEDIUM,
    HIGH
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;
    System.out.println(myVar);
  }
}
```

#### MEDIUM

#### Enum in a Switch Statement

Enums are often used in **switch** statements to check for corresponding values:

```
enum Level {
 LOW,
 MEDIUM,
 HIGH
}
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
 Level myVar = Level.MEDIUM;
 switch(myVar) {
 case LOW:
 System.out.println("Low level");
```

```
break;
case MEDIUM:
System.out.println("Medium level");
break;
case HIGH:
System.out.println("High level");
break;
}
}
```

#### Medium level

#### Loop Through an Enum

The enum type has **a values()** method, which returns an array of all enum constants. This method is useful when you want to loop through the constants of an enum:

```
enum Level {
  LOW,
  MEDIUM,
  HIGH
}
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (Level myVar : Level.values()) {
      System.out.println(myVar);
    }
  }
}
```



#### Difference between Enums and Classes

An **enum** can, just like a **class**, have attributes and methods. The only difference is that enum constants are **public**, **static** and **final** (unchangeable - cannot be overridden). An **enum** cannot be used to create objects, and it cannot extend other classes (but it can implement interfaces).

#### Why And When To Use Enums?

Use enums when you have values that you know aren't going to change, like month days, days, colors, deck of cards, etc.

# 37.Java User Input (Scanner)

#### Java User Input

The Scanner class is used to get user input, and it is found in the java.util package.

To use the **Scanner** class, create an object of the class and use any of the available methods found in the **Scanner** class documentation. In our example, we will use the **nextLine()** method, which is used to read Strings:

import java.util.Scanner; // import the Scanner class

```
class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);
    String userName;
```

// Enter username and press Enter
System.out.println("Enter username");
userName = myObj.nextLine();

```
System.out.println("Username is: " + userName);
```

} }

#### Enter username

#### <mark>Input Types</mark>

In the example above, we used the **nextLine()** method, which is used to read Strings. To read other types, look at the table below:

Method	Description
nextBoolean()	Reads a boolean value from the user
nextByte()	Reads a byte value from the user
nextDouble()	Reads a double value from the user
nextFloat()	Reads a float value from the user
nextInt()	Reads a int value from the user
nextLine()	Reads a String value from the user
nextLong()	Reads a long value from the user
nextShort()	Reads a short value from the user

In the example below, we use different methods to read data of various types:

import java.util.Scanner;

```
class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in);
```

System.out.println("Enter name, age and salary:");

```
// String input
String name = myObj.nextLine();
```

```
// Numerical input
int age = myObj.nextInt();
double salary = myObj.nextDouble();
```

```
// Output input by user
System.out.println("Name: " + name);
System.out.println("Age: " + age);
System.out.println("Salary: " + salary);
}
```

Enter name, age and salary:

# **38.Java Date and Time**

#### Java Dates

}

Java does not have a built-in Date class, but we can import the **java.time** package to work with the date and time API. The package includes many date and time classes. For example:

Class	Description
LocalDate	Represents a date (year, month, day (yyyy-MM-dd))
LocalTime	Represents a time (hour, minute, second and nanoseconds (HH- mm-ss-ns))
LocalDateTime	Represents both a date and a time (yyyy-MM-dd-HH-mm-ss-ns)
DateTimeFormatter	Formatter for displaying and parsing date-time objects

#### **Display Current Date**

To display the current date, import the java.time.LocalDate class, and use its now() method:

```
import java.time.LocalDate; // import the LocalDate class
public class Main {
```

public static void main(String[] args) {
 LocalDate myObj = LocalDate.now(); // Create a date object
 System.out.println(myObj); // Display the current date
}

}

}

#### 2023-06-14

#### Display Current Time

To display the current time (hour, minute, second, and nanoseconds), import the **java.time.LocalTime** class, and use its **now()** method:

```
import java.time.LocalTime; // import the LocalTime class
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LocalTime myObj = LocalTime.now();
        System.out.println(myObj);
    }
```

#### 16:21:12.344163

#### **Display Current Date and Time**

To display the current date and time, import the **java.time.LocalDateTime** class, and use its **now()** method:

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime; // import the LocalDateTime class
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LocalDateTime myObj = LocalDateTime.now();
        System.out.println(myObj);
    }
}
```

#### 2023-06-14T16:22:13.743240

#### Formatting Date and Time

The "T" in the example above is used to separate the date from the time. You can use the **DateTimeFormatter** class with the **ofPattern()** method in the same package to format or parse date-time objects. The following example will remove both the "T" and nanoseconds from the date-time:

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class

```
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();
        System.out.println("Before formatting: " + myDateObj);
        DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("dd-MM-yyyy
HH:mm:ss");
        String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj);
        System.out.println("After formatting: " + formattedDate);
    }
}
```

Before Formatting: 2023-06-14T16:23:20.176526 After Formatting: 14-06-2023 16:23:20

The **ofPattern()** method accepts all sorts of values, if you want to display the date and time in a different format. For example:

No	Value	Example
1	yyyy-MM-dd	"1988-09-29"
2	dd/MM/yyyy	"29/09/1988"
3	dd-MMM-yyyy	"29-Sep-1988"
4	E, MMM dd yyyy	"Thu, Sep 29 1988"

#### <u>No 1:</u>

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class

```
public class Main {
```

public static void main(String[] args) {

LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();

System.out.println("Before formatting: " + myDateObj);

```
DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("dd-MM-yyyy HH:mm:ss");
```

```
String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj);
System.out.println("After formatting: " + formattedDate);
```

```
}
}
```

Before Formatting: 2023-06-14T16:27:40.591123 After Formatting: 14-06-2023 16:27:40

# <u>No 2:</u>

```
import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class
import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();
        System.out.println("Before Formatting: " + myDateObj);
        DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("dd/MM/yyyy
HH:mm:ss");
        String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj);
        System.out.println("After Formatting: " + formattedDate);
    }
}
```

}

#### Before Formatting: 2023-06-14T16:30:58.202952 After Formatting: 14/06/2023 16:30:58

# <u>No 3:</u>

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class

public class Main {

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();
   System.out.println("Before Formatting: " + myDateObj);
   DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("dd-MMM-yyyy
HH:mm:ss");
```

String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj);
System.out.println("After Formatting: " + formattedDate);

} }

#### Before Formatting: 2023-06-14T16:31:55.262039 After Formatting: 14-Jun-2023 16:31:55

#### <u>No 4:</u>

import java.time.LocalDateTime; // Import the LocalDateTime class import java.time.format.DateTimeFormatter; // Import the DateTimeFormatter class

public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
 LocalDateTime myDateObj = LocalDateTime.now();
 System.out.println("Before Formatting: " + myDateObj);
 DateTimeFormatter myFormatObj = DateTimeFormatter.ofPattern("E, MMM dd yyyy
HH:mm:ss");

String formattedDate = myDateObj.format(myFormatObj); System.out.println("After Formatting: " + formattedDate);

} }

Before Formatting: 2023-06-14T16:32:24.856978 After Formatting: Wed, Jun 14 2023 16:32:24

# **39.Java ArrayList**

The ArrayList class is a resizable array, which can be found in the java.util package.

The difference between a built-in array and an **ArrayList** in Java, is that the size of an array cannot be modified (if you want to add or remove elements to/from an array, you have to create a new one). While elements can be added and removed from an **ArrayList** whenever you want.

Create an ArrayList object called cars that will store strings:

```
import java.util.ArrayList; // import the ArrayList class
```

ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>(); // Create an ArrayList object

#### <mark>Add Items</mark>

The **ArrayList** class has many useful methods. For example, to add elements to the **ArrayList**, use the **add()** method:

import java.util.ArrayList;

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    System.out.println(cars);
  }
}
```

[Volvo, BMW, Ford, Mazda]

#### Access an Item

To access an element in the ArrayList, use the get() method and refer to the index number:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    System.out.println(cars.get(0));
  }
}
```

Volvo

#### Change an Item

To modify an element, use the **set()** method and refer to the index number:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        cars.set(0, "Opel");
        System.out.println(cars);
    }
}
```

# [Opel, BMW, Ford, Mazda]

#### Remove an Item

To remove an element, use the **remove()** method and refer to the index number:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    cars.remove(0);
    System.out.println(cars);
  }
}
```

[BMW, Ford, Mazda]

To remove all the elements in the ArrayList, use the clear() method:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    cars.clear();
    System.out.println(cars);
  }
}
```

#### ArrayList Size

To find out how many elements an ArrayList have, use the size method:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    System.out.println(cars.size());
  }
}
```

# 4

#### Loop Through an ArrayList

Loop through the elements of an **ArrayList** with a **for** loop, and use the **size()** method to specify how many times the loop should run:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    for (int i = 0; i < cars.size(); i++) {
        System.out.println(cars.get(i));
    }
  }
}
```



You can also loop through an ArrayList with the for-each loop:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("Ford");
    for (String i : cars) {
      System.out.println(i);
    }
  }
}
```



#### Other Types

Elements in an ArrayList are actually objects. In the examples above, we created elements (objects) of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent wrapper class: **Integer**. For other primitive types, use: **Boolean** for boolean, **Character** for char, **Double** for double, etc:

Primitive Data Type	Wrapper Class
byte	Byte
short	Short
int	Integer
long	Long
float	Float
double	Double
boolean	Boolean
char	Character

Create an ArrayList to store numbers (add elements of type Integer):

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    myNumbers.add(10);
    myNumbers.add(15);
    myNumbers.add(20);
    myNumbers.add(25);
    for (int i : myNumbers) {
        System.out.println(i);
    }
```

} }



#### Sort an ArrayList

Another useful class in the **java.util** package is the **Collections** class, which include the **sort()** method for sorting lists alphabetically or numerically.

Sort an ArrayList of Strings:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.Collections;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        Collections.sort(cars);
        for (String i : cars) {
            System.out.println(i);
        }
    }
}
```



Sort an ArrayList of Integers:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.Collections;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
  myNumbers.add(33);
  myNumbers.add(15);
  myNumbers.add(20);
  myNumbers.add(34);
  myNumbers.add(8);
  myNumbers.add(12);
  Collections.sort(myNumbers);
                                                                                      12
  for (int i : myNumbers) {
                                                                                      15
   System.out.println(i);
                                                                                      20
  }
                                                                                      33
}
}
```

# 40.Java LinkedList

#### <mark>Java LinkedList</mark>

In the previous chapter, you learned about the ArrayList class. The LinkedList class is almost identical to the ArrayList:

```
import java.util.LinkedList;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        System.out.println(cars);
    }
}
```

#### [Volvo, BMW, Ford, Mazda]

#### ArrayList vs. LinkedList

The **LinkedList** class is a collection which can contain many objects of the same type, just like the **ArrayList**.

The **LinkedList** class has all of the same methods as the **ArrayList** class because they both implement the **List** interface. This means that you can add items, change items, remove items and clear the list in the same way.

However, while the **ArrayList** class and the **LinkedList** class can be used in the same way, they are built very differently.

#### How the ArrayList works

The **ArrayList** class has a regular array inside it. When an element is added, it is placed into the array. If the array is not big enough, a new, larger array is created to replace the old one and the old one is removed.

#### How the LinkedList works

The **LinkedList** stores its items in "containers." The list has a link to the first container and each container has a link to the next container in the list. To add an element to the list, the element is placed into a new container and that container is linked to one of the other containers in the list.

#### LinkedList Methods

For many cases, the **ArrayList** is more efficient as it is common to need access to random items in the list, but the **LinkedList** provides several methods to do certain operations more efficiently:

# addFirst()

```
Adds an item to the beginning of the list.

import java.util.LinkedList;

public class Main {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();

        cars.add("Volvo");

        cars.add("BMW");

        cars.add("Ford");

        // Use addFirst() to add the item to the beginning

        cars.addFirst("Mazda");

        System.out.println(cars);

    }

}

[Mazda, Volvo, BMW, Ford]
```

#### addLast()

Add an item to the end of the list. import java.util.LinkedList; public class Main { public static void main(String[] args) { LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>(); cars.add("Volvo"); cars.add("BMW"); cars.add("Ford");

// Use addLast() to add the item to the end cars.addLast("Mazda"); System.out.println(cars);

```
}
۱
```

#### [Volvo, BMW, Ford, Mazda]

#### removeFirst()

```
Remove an item from the beginning of the list.

import java.util.LinkedList;

public class Main {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();

        cars.add("Volvo");

        cars.add("BMW");

        cars.add("Ford");

        cars.add("Mazda");

        // Use removeFirst() remove the first item from the list

        cars.removeFirst();

        System.out.println(cars);

    }

}
```

[BMW, Ford, Mazda]

#### removeLast()

Remove an item from the end of the list. import java.util.LinkedList; public class Main { public static void main(String[] args) { LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>(); cars.add("Volvo"); cars.add("BMW"); cars.add("Ford"); cars.add("Mazda");

// Use removeLast() remove the last item from the list
cars.removeLast();
System.out.println(cars);

} }

#### [Volvo, BMW, Ford]

#### getFirst()

```
Get the item at the beginning of the list
import java.util.LinkedList;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Mazda");
```

// Use getFirst() to display the first item in the list
System.out.println(cars.getFirst());

```
}
}
```

# Volvo

# getLast()

```
Get the item at the end of the list

import java.util.LinkedList;

public class Main {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        LinkedList<String> cars = new LinkedList<String>();

        cars.add("Volvo");

        cars.add("BMW");

        cars.add("Ford");

        cars.add("Mazda");

        // Use getLast() to display the last item in the list
```

System.out.println(cars.getLast());



}

# 41.Java HashMap

#### <mark>Java HashMap</mark>

In the **ArrayList** chapter, you learned that Arrays store items as an ordered collection, and you have to access them with an index number (**int** type). A **HashMap** however, store items in "**key/value**" pairs, and you can access them by an index of another type (e.g. a **String**).

One object is used as a key (index) to another object (value). It can store different types: **String** keys and **Integer** values, or the same type, like: **String** keys and **String** values:

Example:

Create a HashMap object called capitalCities that will store String keys and String values:

import java.util.HashMap; // import the HashMap class

HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();

#### Add Items

The **HashMap** class has many useful methods. For example, to add items to it, use the **put()** method:

import java.util.HashMap; public class Main { public static void main(String[] args) { HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>(); capitalCities.put("England", "London"); capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin"); capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo"); capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC"); System.out.println(capitalCities); }

{USA=Washington DC, Norway=Oslo, England=London, Germany=Berlin}

#### Access an Item

}

To access a value in the HashMap, use the get() method and refer to its key:

```
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
        capitalCities.put("England", "London");
        capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
        capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
        capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
        System.out.println(capitalCities.get("England"));
    }
}
```

```
London
```

#### Remove an Item

To remove an item, use the **remove()** method and refer to the key:

```
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
    capitalCities.put("England", "London");
    capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
    capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
    capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
    capitalCities.remove("England");
    System.out.println(capitalCities);
  }
}
```

#### {USA=Washington DC, Norway=Oslo, Germany=Berlin}

To remove all items, use the **clear()** method:

```
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
    capitalCities.put("England", "London");
    capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
    capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
    capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
    capitalCities.clear();
    System.out.println(capitalCities);
  }
}
```

# {}

#### HashMap Size

To find out how many items there are, use the **size()** method:

```
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
        capitalCities.put("England", "London");
        capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
        capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
        capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
        System.out.println(capitalCities.size());
    }
}
```

#### Loop Through a HashMap

Germany

Loop through the items of a **HashMap** with a for-each loop. Note: Use the **keySet()** method if you only want the keys, and use the **values()** method if you only want the values:

```
// Print keys
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
  capitalCities.put("England", "London");
  capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
  capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
  capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
  for (String i : capitalCities.keySet()) {
   System.out.println(i);
  }
}
}
USA
Norway
England
```

```
// Print values
import java.util.HashMap;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>();
  capitalCities.put("England", "London");
  capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin");
  capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo");
  capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC");
  for (String i : capitalCities.values()) {
   System.out.println(i);
  }
}
}
Washington DC
Oslo
London
Berlin
```

// Print keys and values import java.util.HashMap; public class Main { public static void main(String[] args) { HashMap<String, String> capitalCities = new HashMap<String, String>(); capitalCities.put("England", "London"); capitalCities.put("Germany", "Berlin"); capitalCities.put("Norway", "Oslo"); capitalCities.put("USA", "Washington DC"); for (String i : capitalCities.keySet()) { System.out.println("key: " + i + " value: " + capitalCities.get(i)); } } } key: USA value: Washington DC key: Norway value: Oslo key: England value: London

#### Other Types

key: Germany value: Berlin

Keys and values in a HashMap are actually objects. In the examples above, we used objects of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent wrapper class: **Integer**. For other primitive types, use: **Boolean** for boolean, **Character** for char, **Double** for double, etc:

Primitive Data Type	Wrapper Class
byte	Byte
short	Short
int	Integer
long	Long
float	Float
double	Double
boolean	Boolean
char	Character

Example:

Create a HashMap object called people that will store String keys and Integer values:

// Import the HashMap class	
import java.util.HashMap;	
public class Main {	
public static void main(String[] args) {	
<pre>// Create a HashMap object called people</pre>	
HashMap <string, integer=""> people = new HashMap<string, integer=""> head the second se</string,></string,>	eger>();
<pre>// Add keys and values (Name, Age)</pre>	
people.put("John", 32);	
people.put("Steve", 30);	
people.put("Angie", 33);	
for (String i : people.keySet()) {	
System.out.println("Name: " + i + " Age: " + people.get(i));	Name: Angie Age: 33
}	Name: Steve Age: 30
}	
}	Name: John Age: 32

# 42.Java HashSet

A **HashSet** is a collection of items where every item is unique, and it is found in the **java.util** package:

Example:

Create a HashSet object called cars that will store strings:

```
import java.util.HashSet; // Import the HashSet class
```

HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();

#### Add Items

The **HashSet** class has many useful methods. For example, to add items to it, use the **add()** method:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        System.out.println(cars);
    }
}
```

#### [Volvo, Mazda, Ford, BMW]

In the example above, even though **BMW** is added **twice** it only appears **once** in the set because every item in a set has to be **unique**.

#### Check If an Item Exists

To check whether an item exists in a HashSet, use the contains() method:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        System.out.println(cars.contains("Mazda"));
    }
}
```



#### Remove an Item

To remove an item, use the **remove()** method:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
    cars.add("Volvo");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Ford");
    cars.add("BMW");
    cars.add("Mazda");
    cars.remove("Volvo");
    System.out.println(cars);
  }
}
```

[Mazda, Ford, BMW]

To remove all items, use the **clear()** method:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        cars.clear();
        System.out.println(cars);
    }
```

```
}
```

# HashSet Size

To find out how many items there are, use the **size** method:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
        cars.add("Volvo");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Ford");
        cars.add("BMW");
        cars.add("Mazda");
        System.out.println(cars.size());
    }
}
```

#### Loop Through a HashSet

Loop through the items of an HashSet with a for-each loop:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  HashSet<String> cars = new HashSet<String>();
  cars.add("Volvo");
  cars.add("BMW");
  cars.add("Ford");
  cars.add("BMW");
  cars.add("Mazda");
  for (String i : cars) {
   System.out.println(i);
  }
}
}
Volvo
Mazda
Ford
```

#### **Other Types**

BMW

Items in an HashSet are actually objects. In the examples above, we created items (objects) of type "String". Remember that a String in Java is an object (not a primitive type). To use other types, such as int, you must specify an equivalent **wrapper class**: **Integer**. For other primitive types, use: **Boolean** for boolean, **Character** for char, **Double** for double, etc:

Evamn	
LAAIIID	

Use a HashSet that stores Integer objects:

```
// Import the HashSet class
import java.util.HashSet;
```

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

// Create a HashSet object called numbers
HashSet<Integer> numbers = new HashSet<Integer>();

```
// Add values to the set
numbers.add(4);
numbers.add(7);
numbers.add(8);
```

Primitive Data Type	Wrapper Class
byte	Byte
short	Short
int	Integer
long	Long
float	Float
double	Double
boolean	Boolean
char	Character

```
// Show which numbers between 1 and 10 are in the set
for(int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
    if(numbers.contains(i)) {
        System.out.println(i + " was found in the set.");
    } else {
        System.out.println(i + " was not found in the set.");
    }
    }
  }
}
1 was not found in the set.
2 was not found in the set.
3 was not found in the set.
4 was found in the set.
5 was not found in the set.
```

6 was not found in the set. 7 was found in the set. 8 was found in the set. 9 was not found in the set. 10 was not found in the set.

#### 43.Java Iterator

An **Iterator** is an object that can be used to loop through collections, like **ArrayList** and **HashSet**. It is called an "iterator" because "iterating" is the technical term for looping.

To use an Iterator, you must import it from the **java.util** package.

#### **Getting an Iterator**

Volvo

The iterator() method can be used to get an Iterator for any collection:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.lterator;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  // Make a collection
  ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
  cars.add("Volvo");
  cars.add("BMW");
  cars.add("Ford");
  cars.add("Mazda");
  // Get the iterator
  Iterator<String> it = cars.iterator();
  // Print the first item
  System.out.println(it.next());
 }
}
```

#### Looping Through a Collection

To loop through a collection, use the hasNext() and next() methods of the Iterator:

import java.util.ArrayList; import java.util.Iterator;

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

// Make a collection
ArrayList<String> cars = new ArrayList<String>();
cars.add("Volvo");
cars.add("BMW");
cars.add("Ford");
cars.add("Mazda");

// Get the iterator
Iterator<String> it = cars.iterator();

// Loop through a collection
while(it.hasNext()) {
 System.out.println(it.next());
}

}

}

Volvo BMW Ford Mazda

#### **Removing Items from a Collection**

Iterators are designed to easily change the collections that they loop through. The **remove()** method can remove items from a collection while looping.

Use an iterator to remove numbers less than 10 from a collection:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.Iterator;
public class Main {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
  numbers.add(12);
  numbers.add(8);
  numbers.add(2);
  numbers.add(23);
  Iterator<Integer> it = numbers.iterator();
  while(it.hasNext()) {
   Integer i = it.next();
   if(i < 10) {
    it.remove();
   }
  }
  System.out.println(numbers);
}
[12, 23]
```

# 44. Java Wrapper Classes

**Wrapper classes** provide a way to use primitive data types (**int**, **boolean**, etc..) as objects. The table below shows the primitive type and the equivalent wrapper class:

Primitive Data Type	Wrapper Class
byte	Byte
short	Short
int	Integer
long	Long
float	Float
double	Double
boolean	Boolean
char	Character

Sometimes you must use wrapper classes, for example when working with Collection objects, such as **ArrayList**, where primitive types cannot be used (the list can only store objects):

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
public static void main(String[] args) {
  ArrayList<Integer> myNumbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
  myNumbers.add(10);
  myNumbers.add(15);
  myNumbers.add(20);
  myNumbers.add(25);
  for (int i : myNumbers) {
  System.out.println(i);
  }
}
}
10
15
20
25
```

#### **Creating Wrapper Objects**

To create a wrapper object, use the wrapper class instead of the primitive type. To get the value, you can just print the object:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Integer myInt = 5;
    Double myDouble = 5.99;
    Character myChar = 'A';
    System.out.println(myInt);
    System.out.println(myDouble);
    System.out.println(myChar);
  }
}
```

5 5.99

Since you're now working with objects, you can use certain methods to get information about the specific object.

For example, the following methods are used to get the value associated with the corresponding wrapper object:

intValue(), byteValue(), shortValue(), longValue(), floatValue(), doubleValue(), charValue(), booleanValue().

This example will output the same result as the example above:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Integer myInt = 5;
    Double myDouble = 5.99;
    Character myChar = 'A';
    System.out.println(myInt.intValue());
    System.out.println(myDouble.doubleValue());
    System.out.println(myChar.charValue());
 }
```

5 5.99 A

}

3

Another useful method is the **toString()** method, which is used to convert wrapper objects to strings.

In the following example, we convert an **Integer** to a **String**, and use the **length()** method of the **String** class to output the length of the "string":

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Integer myInt = 100;
    String myString = myInt.toString();
    System.out.println(myString.length());
  }
}
```

# **45.Java Exceptions**

When executing Java code, different errors can occur: coding errors made by the programmer, errors due to wrong input, or other unforeseeable things.

When an error occurs, Java will normally stop and generate an error message. The technical term for this is: Java will throw an **exception** (throw an error).

#### Java try and catch

The **try** statement allows you to define a block of code to be tested for errors while it is being executed.

The **catch** statement allows you to define a block of code to be executed, if an error occurs in the try block.

The try and catch keywords come in pairs:

This will generate an error, because myNumbers[10] does not exist.

```
public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
     int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};
     System.out.println(myNumbers[10]);
   }
}
```

The output will be something like this:

Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException: 10
 at MyClass.main(MyClass.java:4)

If an error occurs, we can use try-catch to catch the error and execute some code to handle it:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};
      System.out.println(myNumbers[10]);
      } catch (Exception e) {
      System.out.println("Something went wrong.");
      }
  }
}
```

Something went wrong.

#### **Finally**

The finally statement lets you execute code, after try...catch, regardless of the result:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      int[] myNumbers = {1, 2, 3};
      System.out.println(myNumbers[10]);
```

```
} catch (Exception e) {
   System.out.println("Something went wrong.");
   finally {
    System.out.println("The 'try catch' is finished.");
   }
}
```

Something went wrong. The 'try catch' is finished.

#### The throw keyword

}

The throw statement allows you to create a custom error.

The **throw** statement is used together with an **exception type**. There are many exception types available in Java:

ArithmeticException, FileNotFoundException, ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException, SecurityE xception, etc:

Throw an exception if age is below 18 (print "Access denied"). If age is 18 or older, print "Access granted":

public class Main {
 static void checkAge(int age) {
 if (age < 18) {
 throw new ArithmeticException("Access denied - You must be at least 18 years old.");
 } else {
 System.out.println("Access granted - You are old enough!");
 }
 public static void main(String[] args) {
 checkAge(15);
 }
}
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArithmeticException: Access denied - You must be at
 at Main.checkAge(Main.java:4)</pre>

```
at Main.main(Main.java:12)
```

If age was 20, you would not get an exception:

```
public class Main {
  static void checkAge(int age) {
    if (age < 18) {
      throw new ArithmeticException("Access denied - You must be at least 18 years old.");
    } else {
      System.out.println("Access granted - You are old enough!");
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
      checkAge(20);
    }
}
Access granted - You are old enough!</pre>
```

# **46.Java Regular Expressions**

A regular expression is a sequence of characters that forms a search pattern. When you search for data in a text, you can use this search pattern to describe what you are searching for.

A regular expression can be a single character, or a more complicated pattern.

Regular expressions can be used to perform all types of **text search** and **text replace** operations.

Java does not have a built-in Regular Expression class, but we can import the **java.util.regex** package to work with regular expressions. The package includes the following classes:

- Pattern Class Defines a pattern (to be used in a search)
- Matcher Class Used to search for the pattern
- PatternSyntaxException Class Indicates syntax error in a regular expression pattern

Find out if there are any occurrences of the word "Java" in a sentence:

```
import java.util.regex.Matcher;
import java.util.regex.Pattern;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Pattern pattern = Pattern.compile("Java", Pattern.CASE_INSENSITIVE);
        Matcher matcher = pattern.matcher("Visit Java!");
        boolean matchFound = matcher.find();
        if(matchFound) {
            System.out.println("Match found");
        } else {
            System.out.println("Match not found");
        }
    }
}
```

#### Match found

#### **Example Explained:**

In this example, The word "Java" is being searched for in a sentence.

First, the pattern is created using the **Pattern.compile()** method. The first parameter indicates which pattern is being searched for and the second parameter has a flag to indicates that the search should be case-insensitive. The second parameter is optional.

The **matcher()** method is used to search for the pattern in a string. It returns a Matcher object which contains information about the search that was performed.

The **find()** method returns true if the pattern was found in the string and false if it was not found.

# 47.Java Threads

Threads allows a program to operate more efficiently by doing multiple things at the same time.

Threads can be used to perform complicated tasks in the background without interrupting the main program.

#### **Creating a Thread**

There are two ways to create a thread. It can be created by extending the Thread class and overriding its run() method:

#### **Extend Syntax**

```
public class Main extends Thread {
  public void run() {
    System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");
  }
}
```

Another way to create a thread is to implement the **Runnable** interface: public class Main implements Runnable {

```
public void run() {
   System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");
}
```

#### **Running Threads**

If the class extends the **Thread** class, the thread can be run by creating an instance of the class and call its **start()** method:

```
public class Main extends Thread {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main thread = new Main();
    thread.start();
    System.out.println("This code is outside of the thread");
  }
  public void run() {
    System.out.println("This code is running in a thread");
  }
}
This code is outside of the thread
This code is running in a thread
```

If the class implements the **Runnable** interface, the thread can be run by passing an instance of the class to a **Thread** object's constructor and then calling the thread's **start()** method:

```
public class Main implements Runnable {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main obj = new Main();
    Thread thread = new Thread(obj);
```

thread.start(); System.out.println("This code is outside of the thread"); } public void run() { System.out.println("This code is running in a thread"); } This code is outside of the thread

This code is running in a thread

Differences between "extending" and "implementing" Threads:

The major difference is that when a class extends the Thread class, you cannot extend any other class, but by implementing the Runnable interface, it is possible to extend from another class as well, like: **class MyClass extends OtherClass implements Runnable**.

#### **Concurrency Problems**

Because threads run at the same time as other parts of the program, there is no way to know in which order the code will run. When the threads and main program are reading and writing the same variables, the values are unpredictable. The problems that result from this are called concurrency problems.

A code example where the value of the variable **amount** is unpredictable:

```
public class Main extends Thread {
  public static int amount = 0;

  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Main thread = new Main();
    thread.start();
    System.out.println(amount);
    amount++;
    System.out.println(amount);
   }

  public void run() {
    amount++;
   }
}
```

2

To avoid concurrency problems, it is best to share as few attributes between threads as possible. If attributes need to be shared, one possible solution is to use the **isAlive()** method of the thread to check whether the thread has finished running before using any attributes that the thread can change.

```
public class Main extends Thread {
 public static int amount = 0;
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  Main thread = new Main();
  thread.start();
  // Wait for the thread to finish
  while(thread.isAlive()) {
   System.out.println("Waiting...");
  }
  // Update amount and print its value
  System.out.println("Main: " + amount);
  amount++;
  System.out.println("Main: " + amount);
 }
 public void run() {
  amount++;
 }
Waiting...
Main: 1
Main: 2
```

# 48.Java Lambda Expressions

Lambda Expressions were added in Java 8.

A lambda expression is a short block of code which takes in parameters and returns a value. Lambda expressions are similar to methods, but they do not need a name and they can be implemented right in the body of a method.

Expressions are limited. They have to immediately return a value, and they cannot contain variables, assignments or statements such as **if** or **for**. In order to do more complex operations, a code block can be used with curly braces. If the lambda expression needs to return a value, then the code block should have a **return** statement.

#### Using Lambda Expressions

Use a lambda expression in the ArrayList's forEach() method to print every item in the list:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
        numbers.add(5);
        numbers.add(9);
        numbers.add(8);
        numbers.add(1);
        numbers.forEach( (n) -> { System.out.println(n); } );
    }
}
```

Lambda expressions can be stored in variables if the variable's type is an interface which has only one method. The lambda expression should have the same number of parameters and the same return type as that method. Java has many of these kinds of interfaces built in, such as the **Consumer** interface (found in **the java.util** package) used by lists.

Use Java's **Consumer** interface to store a lambda expression in a variable:

```
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.function.Consumer;
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<Integer> numbers = new ArrayList<Integer>();
        numbers.add(5);
        numbers.add(5);
        numbers.add(9);
        numbers.add(8);
        numbers.add(1);
        Consumer<Integer> method = (n) -> { System.out.println(n); };
        numbers.forEach( method );
      }
    }
}
```

Create a method which takes a lambda expression as a parameter:

```
interface StringFunction {
   String run(String str);
}

public class Main {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
     StringFunction exclaim = (s) -> s + "!";
     StringFunction ask = (s) -> s + "?";
     printFormatted("Hello", exclaim);
     printFormatted("Hello", ask);
   }
   public static void printFormatted(String str, StringFunction format) {
     String result = format.run(str);
     System.out.println(result);
   }
}
```


## **49.Java File Handling**

File handling is an important part of any application. Java has several methods for creating, reading, updating, and deleting files.

The **File** class from the **java.io** package, allows us to work with files. To use the **File** class, create an object of the class, and specify the filename or directory name:

```
import java.io.File; // Import the File class
```

```
File myObj = new File("filename.txt"); // Specify the filename
```

The File class has many useful methods for creating and getting information about files.

Method	Туре	Description
canRead()	Boolean	Tests whether the file is readable or not
<pre>canWrite()</pre>	Boolean	Tests whether the file is writable or not
<pre>createNewFile()</pre>	Boolean	Creates an empty file
<pre>delete()</pre>	Boolean	Deletes a file
exists()	Boolean	Tests whether the file exists
<pre>getName()</pre>	String	Returns the name of the file
<pre>getAbsolutePath()</pre>	String	Returns the absolute pathname of the file
length()	Long	Returns the size of the file in bytes
list()	String[]	Returns an array of the files in the directory
mkdir()	Boolean	Creates a directory

#### Create a File

To create a file in Java, you can use the **createNewFile()** method. This method returns a boolean value: **true** if the file was successfully created, and **false** if the file already exists. Note that the method is enclosed in a **try...catch** block. This is necessary because it throws an **IOException** if an error occurs (if the file cannot be created for some reason):

```
import java.io.File;
import java.io.IOException;
public class CreateFile {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
    File myObj = new File("filename.txt");
    if (myObj.createNewFile()) {
```

```
System.out.println("File created: " + myObj.getName());
} else {
System.out.println("File already exists.");
}
catch (IOException e) {
System.out.println("An error occurred.");
e.printStackTrace();
}
}
```

### File created: filename.txt

To create a file in a specific directory (requires permission), specify the path of the file and use double backslashes to escape the "\" character (for Windows).

On Mac and Linux you can just write the path, like: /Users/name/filename.txt

```
import java.io.File;
import java.io.IOException;
public class CreateFileDir {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  try {
   File myObj = new File("C:\\Users\\MyName\\filename.txt");
   if (myObj.createNewFile()) {
    System.out.println("File created: " + myObj.getName());
    System.out.println("Absolute path: " + myObj.getAbsolutePath());
   } else {
    System.out.println("File already exists.");
   }
  } catch (IOException e) {
   System.out.println("An error occurred.");
   e.printStackTrace();
  }
}
}
File created: filename.txt
```

# Absolute path: C:\Users\MyName\filename.txt

#### Write To a File

In the following example, we use the **FileWriter** class together with its **write()** method to write some text to the file we created in the example above. Note that when you are done writing to the file, you should close it with the **close()** method:

```
import java.io.FileWriter;
import java.io.IOException;
public class WriteToFile {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            FileWriter myWriter = new FileWriter("filename.txt");
```

```
myWriter.write("Files in Java might be tricky, but it is fun enough!");
myWriter.close();
System.out.println("Successfully wrote to the file.");
} catch (IOException e) {
System.out.println("An error occurred.");
e.printStackTrace();
}
}
```

### Successfully wrote to the file.

## Read a File

In the following example, we use the **Scanner** class to read the contents of the text file we created in the previous section:

```
import java.io.File;
import java.io.FileNotFoundException;
import java.util.Scanner;
public class ReadFile {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
  try {
   File myObj = new File("filename.txt");
   Scanner myReader = new Scanner(myObj);
   while (myReader.hasNextLine()) {
    String data = myReader.nextLine();
    System.out.println(data);
   }
   myReader.close();
  } catch (FileNotFoundException e) {
   System.out.println("An error occurred.");
   e.printStackTrace();
  }
}
```

## Files in Java might be tricky, but it is fun enough!

#### **Get File Information**

To get more information about a file, use any of the **File** methods:

```
import java.io.File;
public class GetFileInfo {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    File myObj = new File("filename.txt");
    if (myObj.exists()) {
      System.out.println("File name: " + myObj.getName());
      System.out.println("Absolute path: " + myObj.getAbsolutePath());
      System.out.println("Writeable: " + myObj.canWrite());
      System.out.println("Readable: " + myObj.canRead());
      System.out.println("File size in bytes: " + myObj.length());
```

```
} else {
   System.out.println("The file does not exist.");
  }
}
```

File name: filename.txt
Absolute path: C:\Users\MyName\filename.txt
Writeable: true
Readable: true
File size in bytes: 0

## <mark>Delete a File</mark>

To delete a file in Java, use the **delete()** method:

```
import java.io.File;
public class DeleteFile {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    File myObj = new File("filename.txt");
}
```

```
if (myObj.delete()) {
   System.out.println("Deleted the file: " + myObj.getName());
   } else {
    System.out.println("Failed to delete the file.");
   }
}
```

## Deleted the file: filename.txt

## Delete a Folder

You can also delete a folder. However, it must be empty:

```
import java.io.File;
public class DeleteFolder {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    File myObj = new File("C:\\Users\\MyName\\Test");
    if (myObj.delete()) {
        System.out.println("Deleted the folder: " + myObj.getName());
    } else {
        System.out.println("Failed to delete the folder.");
    }
  }
}
```

```
Deleted the folder: Test
```

# 50.Java How-To

## <mark>Add Two Numbers</mark>

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x = 5;
    int y = 6;
    int sum = x + y;
    System.out.println(sum); // Print the sum of x + y
  }
}
```

# 11

## Add Two Numbers with User Input

```
import java.util.Scanner; // Import the Scanner class
public class MyClass {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int x, y, sum;
    Scanner myObj = new Scanner(System.in); // Create a Scanner object
    System.out.println("Type a number:");
    x = myObj.nextInt(); // Read user input
    System.out.println("Type another number:");
    y = myObj.nextInt(); // Read user input
```

```
sum = x + y;
System.out.println("Sum is: " + sum); // Output user input
}
```

```
}
Type a number:
5
Type another number:
9
Sum is: 14
```

Count Number of Words in a String

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String words = "One Two Three Four";
    int countWords = words.split("\\s").length;
    System.out.println(countWords);
  }
}
```

#### JAVA PROGRAMMING: MANUAL

#### **Reverse a String**

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String originalStr = "Hello";
    String reversedStr = "";
    System.out.println("Original string: " + originalStr);
    for (int i = 0; i < originalStr.length(); i++) {
      reversedStr = originalStr.charAt(i) + reversedStr;
    }
    System.out.println("Reversed string: "+ reversedStr);
}
Original string: Hello</pre>
```

Reversed string: olleH

Calculate the Sum of an Array

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int[] myArray = {1, 5, 10, 25};
    int sum = 0;
    int i;
    // Loop through array elements and get the sum
    for (i = 0; i < myArray.length; i++) {
        sum += myArray[i];
      }
      System.out.println("The sum is: " + sum);
    }
}</pre>
```

The sum is: 41

#### Get the Area of a Rectangle

The area of a rectangle can be found by multiplying the length of the rectangle by the width:

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int length = 5;
    int width = 2;
    int area = length * width;
    System.out.println("Area of rectangle: " + area);
  }
}
```

#### Area of rectangle: 10

## Check Whether a Number is Even or Odd

```
public class Main {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int number = 5;
    if (number % 2 == 0) {
      System.out.println(number + " is even.");
    } else {
      System.out.println(number + " is odd.");
    }
}
5 is odd.
```