Java for the Internet

Objectives

A little on concepts in object oriented programming

- > A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course

- > A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects

- > A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods

- > A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- ► The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates
- Streams, reading and writing to/from files, etc

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates
- Streams, reading and writing to/from files, etc
- Exceptions

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates
- Streams, reading and writing to/from files, etc
- Exceptions
- Some typical Java beginner errors

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates
- Streams, reading and writing to/from files, etc
- Exceptions
- Some typical Java beginner errors
- Collections of objects: lists and mappings

- A little on concepts in object oriented programming
- Enough Java for this course
- Classes and objects
- Calling methods
- Statements, operators and primitive data types
- The mandatory "Hello World" program
- Simple objects: "Strings", Dates
- Streams, reading and writing to/from files, etc
- Exceptions
- Some typical Java beginner errors
- Collections of objects: lists and mappings
- Threads, parallel execution

Computer programming is the process (art?) of producing and maintaining source code for computer software. To this end one must use a programming language that can be either compiled or interpreted or both.

Computer programming is the process (art?) of producing and maintaining source code for computer software. To this end one must use a programming language that can be either compiled or interpreted or both.

Different programming languages are good for different tasks and a good programming language for this kind of course should contain as much as possible of the basic building bricks for networking.

Computer programming is the process (art?) of producing and maintaining source code for computer software. To this end one must use a programming language that can be either compiled or interpreted or both.

Different programming languages are good for different tasks and a good programming language for this kind of course should contain as much as possible of the basic building bricks for networking.

Therefore I have chosen Java.

Computer programming is the process (art?) of producing and maintaining source code for computer software. To this end one must use a programming language that can be either compiled or interpreted or both.

Different programming languages are good for different tasks and a good programming language for this kind of course should contain as much as possible of the basic building bricks for networking.

Therefore I have chosen Java. It is made for programming applications divided into smaller programs that are spread over a network

Computer programming is the process (art?) of producing and maintaining source code for computer software. To this end one must use a programming language that can be either compiled or interpreted or both.

Different programming languages are good for different tasks and a good programming language for this kind of course should contain as much as possible of the basic building bricks for networking.

Therefore I have chosen Java. It is made for programming applications divided into smaller programs that are spread over a network and that works by communicating over that network.

A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.
- When creating an object, values may be sent as *parameters* in order to *initialize* the objects data.

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.
- When creating an object, values may be sent as *parameters* in order to *initialize* the objects data.
- Thus, all objects that are created from a specific class have identical internal structure but values stored in the objects may differ.

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.
- When creating an object, values may be sent as *parameters* in order to *initialize* the objects data.
- Thus, all objects that are created from a specific class have identical internal structure but values stored in the objects may differ.
- Data in the objects is stored in variables, called member variables. There are also class variables where you can store values that are to be shared by all instances of a class

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.
- When creating an object, values may be sent as *parameters* in order to *initialize* the objects data.
- Thus, all objects that are created from a specific class have identical internal structure but values stored in the objects may differ.
- Data in the objects is stored in variables, called member variables. There are also class variables where you can store values that are to be shared by all instances of a class
- Variables of a certain class in Java are always pointers to an object of that class. They are called *references*

- A class is like a template for constructing program entities containing both data and code to manipulate those data and are the basic building blocks for Java programs
- Entities created from a Java class are called *objects*. An object created from a class is said to be an *instance* of that class.
- When creating an object, values may be sent as *parameters* in order to *initialize* the objects data.
- Thus, all objects that are created from a specific class have identical internal structure but values stored in the objects may differ.
- Data in the objects is stored in variables, called member variables. There are also class variables where you can store values that are to be shared by all instances of a class
- Variables of a certain class in Java are always pointers to an object of that class. They are called *references*
- Un-initialized references have the value null (a reserved keyword in Java).

Classes and objects

Classes and objects

Example: date

Classes and objects

Example: date

java.util.Date is a predefined class:

Classes and objects

Example: date

java.util.Date is a predefined class:

import java.util.*;

Example: date

java.util.Date is a predefined class:

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

New is an operator in Java for constructing objects of all kinds

Example: date

java.util.Date is a predefined class:

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

New is an operator in Java for constructing objects of all kinds

```
Date d = new Date(2009, 0, 26);
```

0 for january!! But 26 for the 26:th day!!

Example: date

java.util.Date is a predefined class:

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

New is an operator in Java for constructing objects of all kinds

```
Date d = new Date(2009, 0, 26);
```

0 for january!! But 26 for the 26:th day!!

Destroy a date: free (d); (Automatic garbage collection)





 You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects

Array

- You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects
- All arrays are homogeneous (contain only objects of one type)
 int[] aPrimitiveArray = new int[expression]
 Date[] aDateArray = new Date[otherExpression]

- You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects
- All arrays are homogeneous (contain only objects of one type)
 int[] aPrimitiveArray = new int[expression]
 Date[] aDateArray = new Date[otherExpression]
- For arrays of references, the objects themselves are not instantiated aDateArray[7] = new Date(); // today's date

- You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects
- All arrays are homogeneous (contain only objects of one type)
 int[] aPrimitiveArray = new int[expression]
 Date[] aDateArray = new Date[otherExpression]
- For arrays of references, the objects themselves are not instantiated aDateArray[7] = new Date(); // today's date
- The first index is 0!

- You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects
- All arrays are homogeneous (contain only objects of one type)
 int[] aPrimitiveArray = new int[expression]
 Date[] aDateArray = new Date[otherExpression]
- For arrays of references, the objects themselves are not instantiated aDateArray[7] = new Date(); // today's date
- The first index is 0!
- Arrays have a special "field" called length aDateArray.length

- You can allocate arrays of variable size, of both primitive types and references to objects
- All arrays are homogeneous (contain only objects of one type)
 int[] aPrimitiveArray = new int[expression]
 Date[] aDateArray = new Date[otherExpression]
- For arrays of references, the objects themselves are not instantiated aDateArray[7] = new Date(); // today's date
- The first index is 0!
- Arrays have a special "field" called length aDateArray.length
- Multidimensional arrays can be defined int [][] aPrimitiveTensor = new int[10][10][7];

Methods

Methods

 Besides member variables (of primitive types or references) Java classes also define methods that can manipulate the member variables

Methods

- Besides member variables (of primitive types or references) Java classes also define methods that can manipulate the member variables
- After constructing an object, you can call its methods:

```
Date d1 = new Date(2009,0,26);
Date d2 = new Date(2009,0,27);
boolean myTest = d1.before(d2);
```

Methods

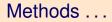
- Besides member variables (of primitive types or references) Java classes also define methods that can manipulate the member variables
- After constructing an object, you can call its methods:

```
Date d1 = new Date(2009,0,26);
Date d2 = new Date(2009,0,27);
boolean myTest = d1.before(d2);
```

Tip: If you use an object only once (to serve as a method argument) you don't need to give it a name. Create it directly!:

```
Date d1 = new Date(2009,0,26);
boolean myTest = d1.before(new Date(2009,0,27));
```

Methods ...



> You can define variables anywhere in a method, not just at the beginning

Methods ...

- > You can define variables anywhere in a method, not just at the beginning
- There can be more methods with the same name, as long as they have different number of arguments or different types of arguments:

```
void println(Object obj)
void println(int i)
void println(String s)
```

Methods ...

- > You can define variables anywhere in a method, not just at the beginning
- There can be more methods with the same name, as long as they have different number of arguments or different types of arguments:

```
void println(Object obj)
void println(int i)
void println(String s)
```

Methods that have the same name as the class are used when building objects from the class. They are called *constructors*. We have already used one:

```
java.util.Date
```

public Date(int year, int month, int day)

This constructor is *deprecated* but that's not important for this course. It's good not to be surprised when the compiler warns you about it.

To use Java in the course you need to

Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main(String[] argv) - later on)

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main(String[] argv) - later on)
- Invoke methods of these objects

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main(String[] argv) - later on)
- Invoke methods of these objects
- Pass the objects as arguments to constructors or methods of other objects.

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main(String[] argv) - later on)
- Invoke methods of these objects
- Pass the objects as arguments to constructors or methods of other objects.
- Identify the right class and constructor/method:

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main(String[] argv) - later on)
- Invoke methods of these objects
- Pass the objects as arguments to constructors or methods of other objects.
- Identify the right class and constructor/method:
 - from what you get at the lectures or

- Create objects after identifying the needed class and constructor
- Use objects already given to you as method arguments (e.g. argv in main (String[] argv) - later on)
- Invoke methods of these objects
- Pass the objects as arguments to constructors or methods of other objects.
- Identify the right class and constructor/method:
 - from what you get at the lectures or
 - by browsing selected packages in the documentation
 http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.5.0/docs/api/
 or
 http://java.sun.com/javase/6/docs/api/

Java in this course ... you need to ...

Java in this course ... you need to ...

use operators like

 $==, >=, <=, !=, \&\&, ||, \&, |, ^, ...$

Java in this course ... you need to ...

use operators like

 $==, >=, <=, !=, \&\&, ||, \&, |, ^, ...$

 use loop constructions like do, while, for

Java in this course ... you need to ...

use operators like

 $==, >=, <=, !=, \&\&, ||, \&, |, ^, ...$

- use loop constructions like do, while, for
- use statements like

if/else, case/switch/default/break

Java in this course ... you need to ...

use operators like

 $==, >=, <=, !=, \&\&, ||, \&, |, ^, ...$

- use loop constructions like do, while, for
- use statements like if/else, case/switch/default/break

They will be explained when we encounter them in the code

Public or not public

We never talked about the member variables of java.util.Date (only about constructors and methods)

We never talked about the member variables of java.util.Date (only about constructors and methods)

How to access these member variables? How to change them? Why are they not presented in the documentation?

We never talked about the member variables of java.util.Date (only about constructors and methods)

How to access these member variables? How to change them? Why are they not presented in the documentation?

Because you as a class user don't need to care about them. You can do everything you can think of with a Date by just calling its methods.

We never talked about the member variables of java.util.Date (only about constructors and methods)

How to access these member variables? How to change them? Why are they not presented in the documentation?

Because you as a class user don't need to care about them. You can do everything you can think of with a Date by just calling its methods.

By protecting access to members, classes ensure that programmers don't mess up with them, breaking something. Only public variables and methods are for "outsiders" (like me ... and you) to use.

Public or not public ...

For your curiosity, <code>Date</code> has a member variable, a <code>long</code>, when positive representing the number of milliseconds since Jan 1:st 1970 and when negative the number of milliseconds before Jan 1:st 1970

Java has no global variables but a class may define *class variables* All variables declared static are allocated *only once* (and not for each object created)

Java has no global variables but a class may define *class variables* All variables declared static are allocated *only once* (and not for each object created)

Thus,

public static int aGlobalVariable;

is not a good idea, as anyone can change the variable as they wish. Instead, declare the variable final.

Java has no global variables but a class may define *class variables* All variables declared static are allocated *only once* (and not for each object created)

Thus,

public static int aGlobalVariable;

is not a good idea, as anyone can change the variable as they wish. Instead, declare the variable final.

Most of the public static variables that you will see are also final

Java has no global variables but a class may define *class variables* All variables declared static are allocated *only once* (and not for each object created)

Thus,

public static int aGlobalVariable; is not a good idea, as anyone can change the variable as they wish. Instead, declare the variable final. Most of the public static variables that you will see are also final

Static methods can be defined to express procedures that are specific to the class but do not refer to any object.

Java has no global variables but a class may define *class variables* All variables declared static are allocated *only once* (and not for each object created)

Thus,

public static int aGlobalVariable; is not a good idea, as anyone can change the variable as they wish. Instead, declare the variable final. Most of the public static variables that you will see are also final

Static methods can be defined to express procedures that are specific to the class but do not refer to any object.

You can use public static members by prefixing the name of the class

```
ClassName.staticField
```

```
ClassName.staticMethod(arguments)
```

Java for the Internet

Some comments on classes

Java for the Internet

Some comments on classes

- Encapsulation
 - Classes group related variables and methods together

- Classes group related variables and methods together
- Classes hide the way the methods process the member variables, exposing only the functionality their designers desire.

- Classes group related variables and methods together
- Classes hide the way the methods process the member variables, exposing only the functionality their designers desire.
- They can provide static variables and methods for other code to use without creating objects of that class

- Classes group related variables and methods together
- Classes hide the way the methods process the member variables, exposing only the functionality their designers desire.
- They can provide static variables and methods for other code to use without creating objects of that class
- The only way to write a statement is in a method.

- Classes group related variables and methods together
- Classes hide the way the methods process the member variables, exposing only the functionality their designers desire.
- They can provide static variables and methods for other code to use without creating objects of that class
- The only way to write a statement is in a method.
- The only way to have a method is to define a class.

- Classes group related variables and methods together
- Classes hide the way the methods process the member variables, exposing only the functionality their designers desire.
- They can provide static variables and methods for other code to use without creating objects of that class
- The only way to write a statement is in a method.
- The only way to have a method is to define a class.
- ► This is the only reason for which you'll write new classes in this course.

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

public class HelloWorld {

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

```
public class HelloWorld {
    public static void main(String[] argv) {
```

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

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

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

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

Compile with javac HelloWorld.java

The class is public, i.e. visible outside the file. The .java file name is always the same as the name of the class it encloses: HelloWorld.java

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

Compile with javac HelloWorld.java

Run by java HelloWorld

Java for the Internet

public static void main(String[] argv)

This is the entry point in all Java programs.

public, to be visible from the outside

- public, to be visible from the outside
- static, because at the beginning of the program there are no objects created, so we need a method that can be accessed without having an object

- public, to be visible from the outside
- static, because at the beginning of the program there are no objects created, so we need a method that can be accessed without having an object
- void returns no value to return a value to the operating system, use System.exit (value)

- public, to be visible from the outside
- static, because at the beginning of the program there are no objects created, so we need a method that can be accessed without having an object
- void returns no value to return a value to the operating system, use System.exit (value)
- String[] argv (or any other name) is the list of arguments from the command line. The the number of arguments can be found out using argv.length

Is a class containing methods that provide services related to the system where the program runs

Is a class containing methods that provide services related to the system where the program runs

We didn't have to import the java.lang.* package to use System, because java.lang is always considered imported

Is a class containing methods that provide services related to the system where the program runs

We didn't have to import the java.lang.* package to use System, because java.lang is always considered imported

System.out is a public, static and final variable of type java.io.PrintStream. Also, of course, System.in exists too.

Is a class containing methods that provide services related to the system where the program runs

We didn't have to import the java.lang.* package to use System, because java.lang is always considered imported

System.out is a public, static and final variable of type java.io.PrintStream. Also, of course, System.in exists too.

static void exit(int status)
+ A number of other methods, not important for this course

Java for the Internet

Java for the Internet

java.lang.String

String

- ▶ String
 - The way characters are represented in the String is hidden from the String user. Remember Date's internal representation, and encapsulation

- String
 - The way characters are represented in the String is hidden from the String user. Remember Date's internal representation, and encapsulation
- Constants

- String
 - The way characters are represented in the String is hidden from the String user. Remember Date's internal representation, and encapsulation
- Constants
 - System.out.println("Hello World!"); creates a String constant that is sent to println for printing on the screen

String

- The way characters are represented in the String is hidden from the String user. Remember Date's internal representation, and encapsulation
- Constants
 - System.out.println("Hello World!"); creates a String constant that is sent to println for printing on the screen
 - We can declare a string by

String s = "Hello World";

String

The way characters are represented in the String is hidden from the String user. Remember Date's internal representation, and encapsulation

Constants

- System.out.println("Hello World!"); creates a String constant that is sent to println for printing on the screen
- We can declare a string by

```
String s = "Hello World";
```

Java beginners often tend to do

```
s = new String("Hello World");
```

It's valid, but more resource-intensive.

Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String

- Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String
- Operator + concatenates Strings, creating a new, longer String

```
String h = "Hello";
String w = "World";
String hw = h + " " + w;
```

- Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String
- Operator + concatenates Strings, creating a new, longer String

```
String h = "Hello";
String w = "World";
String hw = h + " " + w;
```

String creation from a portion of a char/byte array

- Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String
- Operator + concatenates Strings, creating a new, longer String

```
String h = "Hello";
String w = "World";
String hw = h + " " + w;
```

- String creation from a portion of a char/byte array
 - public String(char[] value, int offset, int count) Constructor that builds a String of length 'count' starting from the 'offset' character of the 'value' char array

- Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String
- Operator + concatenates Strings, creating a new, longer String

```
String h = "Hello";
String w = "World";
String hw = h + " " + w;
```

- String creation from a portion of a char/byte array
 - public String(char[] value, int offset, int count) Constructor that builds a String of length 'count' starting from the 'offset' character of the 'value' char array

> public String(char[] value)
does the same with offset=0 and count=value.length

- Indicating a double-quoted "constant" will create a String, "" creates the empty String
- Operator + concatenates Strings, creating a new, longer String

```
String h = "Hello";
String w = "World";
String hw = h + " " + w;
```

- String creation from a portion of a char/byte array
 - public String(char[] value, int offset, int count) Constructor that builds a String of length 'count' starting from the 'offset' character of the 'value' char array

- > public String(char[] value)
 does the same with offset=0 and count=value.length
- Many methods/constructors have such variants, it's important to understand the most general one

Java for the Internet

int length()

int length()
"".length() returns 0
"Hello".length() returns 5

- > int length()
 "".length() returns 0
 "Hello".length() returns 5
- char charAt(int index)

- > int length()
 "".length() returns 0
 "Hello".length() returns 5
- > char charAt(int index)
 "Hello".charAt(1) returns 'e' (first index is 0)

- int length()
 "".length() returns 0
 "Hello".length() returns 5
- > char charAt(int index)
 "Hello".charAt(1) returns 'e' (first index is 0)
- char[] toCharArray() creates a new char array and copies all the string characters it

- int length()
 "".length() returns 0
 "Hello".length() returns 5
- > char charAt(int index)
 "Hello".charAt(1) returns 'e' (first index is 0)
- char[] toCharArray() creates a new char array and copies all the string characters it
- void getChars(int srcBegin, int srcEnd, char[] dst, int dstBegin)

Copies chars from the String to the given char[]array beginning at srcBegin and ending at srcEnd

It does not create a new char array, it needs an existing one (dst)

- int length()
 "".length() returns 0
 "Hello".length() returns 5
- > char charAt(int index)
 "Hello".charAt(1) returns 'e' (first index is 0)
- char[] toCharArray() creates a new char array and copies all the string characters it
- void getChars(int srcBegin, int srcEnd, char[] dst, int dstBegin)

Copies chars from the String to the given ${\tt char[]array}$ beginning at ${\tt srcBegin}$ and ending at ${\tt srcEnd}$

It does not create a new char array, it needs an existing one (dst)

Reflect on similarities between

String(char[] value, int offset, int length) and getChars(int start, int end, char[] dest, int destStart)

int compareTo(String anotherString)

returns -1 if the string is lexicographically smaller than anotherString, 0 if they are equal and +1 if it is larger than anotherString.

- int compareTo (String anotherString)
 returns -1 if the string is lexicographically smaller than anotherString,
 0 if they are equal and +1 if it is larger than anotherString.
- boolean equals (Object obj) returns 'true' for equality in value. Mark that with

```
String a = "x"; String b = "x";
a==b returns 'false' as '==' compares references
a==a returns 'true' as a "points at" the same object
a.equals(b) returns 'true' as you compare values.
```

- int compareTo (String anotherString)
 returns -1 if the string is lexicographically smaller than anotherString,
 0 if they are equal and +1 if it is larger than anotherString.
- boolean equals (Object obj) returns 'true' for equality in value. Mark that with

```
String a = "x"; String b = "x";
a==b returns 'false' as '==' compares references
a==a returns 'true' as a "points at" the same object
a.equals(b) returns 'true' as you compare values.
```

boolean startsWith(String prefix)

- int compareTo (String anotherString)
 returns -1 if the string is lexicographically smaller than anotherString,
 0 if they are equal and +1 if it is larger than anotherString.
- boolean equals (Object obj) returns 'true' for equality in value. Mark that with

```
String a = "x"; String b = "x";
a==b returns 'false' as '==' compares references
a==a returns 'true' as a "points at" the same object
a.equals (b) returns 'true' as you compare values.
```

- boolean startsWith(String prefix)
- boolean endsWith(String suffix)

int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- > int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (\equiv lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"
- Similar methods are available to look for a char (represented as an int)

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"
- Similar methods are available to look for a char (represented as an int)
- "Hello".indexOf("he", 0) returns 0

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"
- Similar methods are available to look for a char (represented as an int)
- "Hello".indexOf("he", 0) returns 0
- "Hello".indexOf("he", 1) returns -1

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"
- Similar methods are available to look for a char (represented as an int)
- "Hello".indexOf("he", 0) returns 0
- > "Hello".indexOf("he", 1) returns -1
- "Hello".indexOf("1", 1) returns 2

- int indexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int indexOf(String what) (≡ indexOf(what, 0))
- int lastIndexOf(String what, int fromWhere)
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(String what) (≡ lastIndexOf(what, 0))
- All returns either the index for the first found char or -1 to indicate "not found"
- Similar methods are available to look for a char (represented as an int)
- "Hello".indexOf("he", 0) returns 0
- > "Hello".indexOf("he", 1) returns -1
- > "Hello".indexOf("1", 1) returns 2
- "Hello".lastIndexOf("1", 1) returns 3

String concat(String s)

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- "Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- "Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"
- Hello".substring(2, 3) => "ll"

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"
- Hello".substring(2, 3) => "11"
- Hell o ".trim() => "Hell o"

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"
- Hello".substring(2, 3) => "11"
- Hell o ".trim() => "Hell o"
- These methods do not change the String but return new Strings

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- > "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"
- Hello".substring(2, 3) => "ll"
- Hell o ".trim() => "Hell o"
- These methods do not change the String but return new Strings
- There are no methods that change Strings. Strings are immutable

- String concat(String s)
- String toLowerCase()
- String toUpperCase()
- String replace(char old, char newc)
- String trim()
- String substring(int begin, int end)
- > "Hello".toLowerCase() => "hello"
- Hello".replace("l", "L") => "HeLLo"
- Hello".substring(2, 3) => "ll"
- Hell o ".trim() => "Hell o"
- These methods do not change the String but return new Strings
- There are no methods that change Strings. Strings are immutable
- If you really want changeable strings, use StringBuffer

Garbage Collection

Objects that are not referenced from anywhere are garbage collected

Garbage Collection

Objects that are not referenced from anywhere are garbage collected

```
When a reference is made null:
   String s = "Hello World";
   System.out.println(s);
   s = null;
```

Garbage Collection

Objects that are not referenced from anywhere are garbage collected

```
> When a reference is made null:
   String s = "Hello World";
   System.out.println(s);
   s = null;
```

> When a method that has a variable referring to the object ends:

```
void myMethod {
   String s = "Hello World";
   System.out.println(s);
}
```

Garbage Collection

Objects that are not referenced from anywhere are garbage collected

```
When a reference is made null:
   String s = "Hello World";
   System.out.println(s);
   s = null;
```

When a method that has a variable referring to the object ends:

```
void myMethod {
   String s = "Hello World";
   System.out.println(s);
}
```

When the (only) referrer object is garbage collected:

```
class MyClass { String s; ...}
... MyClass mc = new MyClass(); ...
```

when $\tt mc$ dies, $\tt s$ will be garbage collected unless $\tt mc$ passes the reference $\tt s$ to some other object.

java.lang.String extends java.lang.Object

- > java.lang.String extends java.lang.Object
- > Thus every instance of String is also an instance of Object but no all instances of Object are instances of String. String s = "Hello World"; Object obj = s; // OK! s == obj => true s = obj; // Error! Not all objects are strings

- > java.lang.String extends java.lang.Object
- > Thus every instance of String is also an instance of Object but no all instances of Object are instances of String. String s = "Hello World"; Object obj = s; // OK! s == obj => true s = obj; // Error! Not all objects are strings
- String is a subclass to Object and Object is a superclass to String

- > java.lang.String extends java.lang.Object
- Thus every instance of String is also an instance of Object but no all instances of Object are instances of String. String s = "Hello World";

Object obj = s; // OK! s == obj => true

s = obj; // Error! Not all objects are strings

String is a subclass to Object and Object is a superclass to String

Subclasses inherit all member variables and methods to from their superclasses and may override some, and may add new ones. equals (Object what) is actually a method that String inherits from Object. One can test equality for any kind of Java object not just for strings. String has to override equals () to define equality for Strings On the other hand, you can't trim() just any kind of Object, trim() only makes sense for strings. So it's a method that String adds.

Some java.lang.Object methods

If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()
 - Many classes redefine toString() to describe the object state in human-readable form for debugging purposes.

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()
 - Many classes redefine toString() to describe the object state in human-readable form for debugging purposes.
 - toString() is automatically called on non-String objects by the +
 operator

System.out.println("Hello world, it is "+ new Date());
// prints the message and today's date and time.

Note that "Hello World, I work for "+(1+1)+"dollars a day" will evaluate the int expression and include it in the message That's why println() doesn't need formatting as output in most languages!

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()
 - Many classes redefine toString() to describe the object state in human-readable form for debugging purposes.
 - toString() is automatically called on non-String objects by the +
 operator

System.out.println("Hello world, it is "+ new Date());
// prints the message and today's date and time.

Note that "Hello World, I work for "+(1+1)+"dollars a day" will evaluate the int expression and include it in the message That's why println() doesn't need formatting as output in most languages!

Class getClass() important when you debug and are not sure about the actual type of an object.

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()
 - Many classes redefine toString() to describe the object state in human-readable form for debugging purposes.
 - toString() is automatically called on non-String objects by the +
 operator

System.out.println("Hello world, it is "+ new Date());
// prints the message and today's date and time.

Note that "Hello World, I work for "+(1+1)+"dollars a day" will evaluate the int expression and include it in the message That's why println() doesn't need formatting as output in most languages!

- Class getClass() important when you debug and are not sure about the actual type of an object.
- System.out.print(myObj.getClass().getName());

Some java.lang.Object methods

- If a class has no superclass indicated, Object is automatically its superclass.
 So all Object methods are present in all classes.
- The rule about == and equals () stands for all objects
- String toString()
 - Many classes redefine toString() to describe the object state in human-readable form for debugging purposes.
 - toString() is automatically called on non-String objects by the +
 operator

System.out.println("Hello world, it is "+ new Date());
// prints the message and today's date and time.

Note that "Hello World, I work for "+(1+1)+"dollars a day" will evaluate the int expression and include it in the message That's why println() doesn't need formatting as output in most languages!

- Class getClass() important when you debug and are not sure about the actual type of an object.
- System.out.print(myObj.getClass().getName());
- You can also check if the object is from a certain class using the instanceof operator: obj instanceof java.lang.String

"Q&A" on "missing methods"

Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).
 - Only added methods (like trim()) and overridden methods (like equals()) are shown in the method table of the documentation.

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).
 - Only added methods (like trim()) and overridden methods (like equals()) are shown in the method table of the documentation.
 - Since any String is also an Object, you can safely call getClass() for your String.

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).
 - Only added methods (like trim()) and overridden methods (like equals()) are shown in the method table of the documentation.
 - Since any String is also an Object, you can safely call getClass() for your String.
 - Nowadays such hard-to-find methods are shown in the "methods inherited from ..." documentation section.

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).
 - Only added methods (like trim()) and overridden methods (like equals ()) are shown in the method table of the documentation.
 - Since any String is also an Object, you can safely call getClass() for your String.
 - Nowadays such hard-to-find methods are shown in the "methods inherited from ..." documentation section.
 - This problem is bigger when you actually don't know exactly what method to call. You might miss the right method because it's in the superclass.

- Q: I'm supposed to call method getClass() of a String, but I can't see it in the String class documentation
- A: Look also in the documentation of the superclass (Object in this case).
 - Only added methods (like trim()) and overridden methods (like equals ()) are shown in the method table of the documentation.
 - Since any String is also an Object, you can safely call getClass() for your String.
 - Nowadays such hard-to-find methods are shown in the "methods inherited from ..." documentation section.
 - This problem is bigger when you actually don't know exactly what method to call. You might miss the right method because it's in the superclass.
 - So get used to look at "methods inherited from" and at the superclass itself.

 Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print () and println () methodes for all primitive types.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.
- > println() with no arguments just prints a newline.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- Has print () and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.
- > println() with no arguments just prints a newline.
- Streams often use internal buffers, so not everything you print is actually sent immediately. void flush() orders such a sending.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.
- > println() with no arguments just prints a newline.
- Streams often use internal buffers, so not everything you print is actually sent immediately. void flush() orders such a sending.
- void close() gives back all resources to the system, the stream is unusable afterwards. You should do this when you are done with a stream that you created (but *never* for System.out).

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.
- > println() with no arguments just prints a newline.
- Streams often use internal buffers, so not everything you print is actually sent immediately. void flush() orders such a sending.
- void close() gives back all resources to the system, the stream is unusable afterwards. You should do this when you are done with a stream that you created (but *never* for System.out).
- close() will typically flush() the stream before closing it.

- Mostly for debugging purposes. System.out is the most famous PrintStream.
- ► Has print() and println() methodes for all primitive types.
- void print(Object obj) prints "null" if obj is "null" and obj.toString() otherwise.
- print and println differs in that println adds a newline at the end of the printed string.
- > println() with no arguments just prints a newline.
- Streams often use internal buffers, so not everything you print is actually sent immediately. void flush() orders such a sending.
- void close() gives back all resources to the system, the stream is unusable afterwards. You should do this when you are done with a stream that you created (but *never* for System.out).
- close() will typically flush() the stream before closing it.
- Creation: PrintStream(java.io.OutputStream out)

"Q&A" on java.io.PrintStream

Q: I want to create a PrintStream to print stuff to a file. Since the PrintStream (OutputStream) constructor needs an OutputStream, I want to create an OutputStream but the compiler tells me that I can't, as OutputStream is an abstract class, whatever that means.

"Q&A" on java.io.PrintStream

- Q: I want to create a PrintStream to print stuff to a file. Since the PrintStream (OutputStream) constructor needs an OutputStream, I want to create an OutputStream but the compiler tells me that I can't, as OutputStream is an abstract class, whatever that means.
- A: You can use an instance of any OutputStream subclass. In your case, you need a java.io.FileOutputStream. So if you see a type T in a constructor/method signature, it actually means "type T and all its subclasses".

"Q&A" on java.io.PrintStream

- Q: I want to create a PrintStream to print stuff to a file. Since the PrintStream (OutputStream) constructor needs an OutputStream, I want to create an OutputStream but the compiler tells me that I can't, as OutputStream is an abstract class, whatever that means.
- A: You can use an instance of any OutputStream subclass. In your case, you need a java.io.FileOutputStream. So if you see a type T in a constructor/method signature, it actually means "type T and all its subclasses".

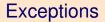
We will talk about abstract classes shortly

Write to a file with PrintStream

This program writes "Hello world!" to a file indicated as first argument Run it as java WriteToFile1 filename

```
import java.io.*;
public class WriteToFile1 {
   public static void main(String[] argv) {
      OutputStream file = null;
      trv {
          file = new FileOutputStream(argv[0]);
      }
      catch (FileNotFoundException fnf)
         System.err.println("File not found: " + argv[0]);
         fnf.printStackTrace(); // for debugging
         System.exit(1);
      PrintStream ps = new PrintStream(file);
      ps.println("Hello world!");
      ps.close();
```

}



In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

That's why PrintStream doesn't return any values. Instead an *Exception* is thrown of a type and with a name that gives more meaning to and more information about the error.

In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

That's why PrintStream doesn't return any values. Instead an *Exception* is thrown of a type and with a name that gives more meaning to and more information about the error.

The FileOutputStream constructor which we used is declared like this: FileOutputStream(String filename) throws java.io.FileNotFoundException;

In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

That's why PrintStream doesn't return any values. Instead an *Exception* is thrown of a type and with a name that gives more meaning to and more information about the error.

The FileOutputStream constructor which we used is declared like this: FileOutputStream(String filename) throws java.io.FileNotFoundException;

If the String we used is not a valid file name, the catch block is executed.

In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

That's why PrintStream doesn't return any values. Instead an *Exception* is thrown of a type and with a name that gives more meaning to and more information about the error.

The FileOutputStream constructor which we used is declared like this: FileOutputStream(String filename) throws java.io.FileNotFoundException;

If the String we used is not a valid file name, the catch block is executed.

That way, Java separates "normal code" from "code that executes when things go wrong".

In Java you distinguish operational code from error recovery code so when something goes wrong an *exception* is thrown.

That's why PrintStream doesn't return any values. Instead an *Exception* is thrown of a type and with a name that gives more meaning to and more information about the error.

The FileOutputStream constructor which we used is declared like this: FileOutputStream(String filename) throws java.io.FileNotFoundException;

If the String we used is not a valid file name, the catch block is executed.

That way, Java separates "normal code" from "code that executes when things go wrong".

An exception is an object like any other, has a class, ...

If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- ► To treat an exception we can either catch the exception

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- To treat an exception we can either catch the exception
 - Put one or more methods in a try... catch (...) ... block and constructors that are declared as throwing exceptions

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- To treat an exception we can either catch the exception
 - Put one or more methods in a try... catch(...) ... block and constructors that are declared as throwing exceptions
 - You should catch() either that exception class, or one of its superclasses

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- To treat an exception we can either catch the exception
 - Put one or more methods in a try... catch (...) ... block and constructors that are declared as throwing exceptions
 - You should catch() either that exception class, or one of its superclasses
 - catch (IOException exc) would have worked as well because java.io.FileNotFoundException is a subclass of java.io.IOException

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- To treat an exception we can either catch the exception
 - Put one or more methods in a try... catch (...) ... block and constructors that are declared as throwing exceptions
 - You should catch() either that exception class, or one of its superclasses
 - catch (IOException exc) would have worked as well because java.io.FileNotFoundException is a subclass of java.io.IOException
 - You can have more than one catch() block for a try

- If we don't treat the exception, the compiler will punish us
- No need to treat subclasses of java.lang.RuntimeException (typically programmer errors) or java.lang.Error (abnormal condition)
- To treat an exception we can either catch the exception
 - Put one or more methods in a try... catch (...) ... block and constructors that are declared as throwing exceptions
 - > You should catch() either that exception class, or one of its superclasses
 - catch (IOException exc) would have worked as well because java.io.FileNotFoundException is a subclass of java.io.IOException
 - You can have more than one catch() block for a try
- Or we can throw the exception further from the method if we write public static void main(String argv[]) throws IOException

Exceptions ...

This program writes "Hello world!" to a file indicated as first argument Run it as java WriteToFile2 file.txt

```
import java.io.*;
public class WriteToFile2 {
    public static void main(String[] argv) throws IOException {
        PrintStream ps = new PrintStream(new FileOutputStream(argv[0]));
        ps.println("Hello world!");
        ps.close();
    }
```

Important RuntimeExceptions

java.lang.NullPointerException

Important RuntimeExceptions

java.lang.NullPointerException

occurs when you try to access a member (method or field) of a null reference

```
Object obj = null;
String s = obj.toString(); // exception!
```

Important RuntimeExceptions

java.lang.NullPointerException

occurs when you try to access a member (method or field) of a null reference

```
Object obj = null;
String s = obj.toString(); // exception!
```

It's good to check if you are not sure

if(obj != null) s = obj.toString();

Important RuntimeExceptions

java.lang.NullPointerException

occurs when you try to access a member (method or field) of a null reference

```
Object obj = null;
String s = obj.toString(); // exception!
```

It's good to check if you are not sure

if(obj != null) s = obj.toString();

java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException occurs when you try to access an array element with an index that's negative or larger than the array size char[] arr= new char[20]; char exc=arr[40];

Important RuntimeExceptions

- java.lang.NullPointerException
 - occurs when you try to access a member (method or field) of a null reference

```
Object obj = null;
```

```
String s = obj.toString(); // exception!
```

It's good to check if you are not sure

if(obj != null) s = obj.toString();

java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException occurs when you try to access an array element with an index that's negative or larger than the array size char[] arr= new char[20]; char exc=arr[40];

> java.lang.StringIndexOutOfBoundsException occurs when you use an illegal (negative or too large) index when calling charAt(), indexOf(), substring(),...

Typical: indexOf() returns -1 (not found) and you use that index for substring() without checking it

Important RuntimeExceptions

java.lang.NullPointerException

occurs when you try to access a member (method or field) of a null reference

```
Object obj = null;
```

```
String s = obj.toString(); // exception!
```

It's good to check if you are not sure

if(obj != null) s = obj.toString();

java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException occurs when you try to access an array element with an index that's negative or larger than the array size char[] arr= new char[20]; char exc=arr[40];

> java.lang.StringIndexOutOfBoundsException occurs when you use an illegal (negative or too large) index when calling charAt(), indexOf(), substring(),... Typical indexOf() returns =1 (not found) and you use that index for

Typical: indexOf() returns -1 (not found) and you use that index for substring() without checking it

java.lang.SecurityException some operations are forbidden for some of the Java code

java.io.OutputStream

Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!
- PrintStream is actually an OutputStream itself

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!
- PrintStream is actually an OutputStream itself
- flush() and close() are actually OutputStream methods.

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!
- PrintStream is actually an OutputStream itself
- flush() and close() are actually OutputStream methods.
 - Indeed, they make sense for all streams, not only for OutputStream

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!
- PrintStream is actually an OutputStream itself
- flush() and close() are actually OutputStream methods.
 - Indeed, they make sense for all streams, not only for OutputStream
 - ► The difference is that the OutputStream declares them as throwing IOException.

- Abstract classes are used to express general concepts that are useful as generalization but make no sense to construct objects.
- > java.io.OutputStream is a generic output stream. Some subclasses:
 - Writing to a file: java.io.FileOutputStream
 - Writing to a byte array: java.io.ByteArrayOutputStream
 - Later on we will see streams that write to a TCP connection
- You can use any of these to create a PrintStream. That's a case when the OutputStream generalization is useful!
- PrintStream is actually an OutputStream itself
- flush() and close() are actually OutputStream methods.
 - Indeed, they make sense for all streams, not only for OutputStream
 - ► The difference is that the OutputStream declares them as throwing IOException.
 - No method of PrintStream throws IOException in order to make life easier for the programmer when debugging with PrintStream

Writing to a file using OutputStream's write()

The fundamental writing method is:

void write(byte[] value, int offset, int length)
throws IOException

Writing to a file using OutputStream's write()

- The fundamental writing method is: void write(byte[] value, int offset, int length) throws IOException
- This program writes to a file indicated as first argument a message indicated as it's second argument:

```
Run with java WriteToFile3 filename "blah blah"
```

```
import java.io.*;
public class WriteToFile3 {
    public static void main(String[] argv)
        throws IOException {
        OutputStream file = new FileOutputStream(argv[0]);
        String msg = argv[1];
        file.write(msg.getBytes(), 0, msg.length());
        file.close();
    }
}
```

Buffered writing

If we do lots of write() operations with short strings like we had, performance will suffer because each file.write() will generate a disk (or network) access

Buffered writing

- If we do lots of write() operations with short strings like we had, performance will suffer because each file.write() will generate a disk (or network) access
- This is also a problem when writing to the Internet

Buffered writing

- If we do lots of write() operations with short strings like we had, performance will suffer because each file.write() will generate a disk (or network) access
- This is also a problem when writing to the Internet
- Buffered streams help to avoid this by gathering info sent to more write() into a byte array called *buffer*.
 When the buffer gets full, its content is sent further (to the disk in this case).

Buffered writing

- If we do lots of write() operations with short strings like we had, performance will suffer because each file.write() will generate a disk (or network) access
- This is also a problem when writing to the Internet
- Buffered streams help to avoid this by gathering info sent to more write() into a byte array called *buffer*.
 When the buffer gets full, its content is sent further (to the disk in this case).
- ► To empty the buffer before it gets full, you can call the flush() method

Buffered writing

- If we do lots of write() operations with short strings like we had, performance will suffer because each file.write() will generate a disk (or network) access
- This is also a problem when writing to the Internet
- Buffered streams help to avoid this by gathering info sent to more write() into a byte array called *buffer*.
 When the buffer gets full, its content is sent further (to the disk in this case).
- ► To empty the buffer before it gets full, you can call the flush() method
- As for PrintStream you need an OutputStream when you create a BufferedOutputStream. When writing to a file, FileOutputStream will be the choise.

Adding buffering to streaming code

OutputStream file = new FileOutputStream(argv[0]);
is changed to

OutputStream file = new BufferedOutputStream(

new FileOutputStream(argv[0]));

Adding buffering to streaming code

OutputStream file = new FileOutputStream(argv[0]);
is changed to

```
OutputStream file = new BufferedOutputStream(
    new FileOutputStream(argv[0]));
```

```
new FileOutputStream(argv[0])));
```

Adding buffering to streaming code

OutputStream file = new FileOutputStream(argv[0]);
is changed to

```
OutputStream file = new BufferedOutputStream(
    new FileOutputStream(argv[0]));
```

- > We can also buffer the PrintStream we created PrintStream ps = new PrintStream(new FileOutputStream(argv[0])); is changed to PrintStream ps = new PrintStream(new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream(argv[0])));
- The rest of the programs stays the same!

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Reading, InputStream

- java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass
- Fundamental reading method:

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

int read(byte[] where, int offset, int length) throws IOException

Reads at most length bytes

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position
- If there are no bytes available right now, read() blocks until more bytes come, or the end of data is signaled.

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position
- If there are no bytes available right now, read() blocks until more bytes come, or the end of data is signaled.
- Returns the number of bytes read or -1 if there is no more data

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position
- If there are no bytes available right now, read() blocks until more bytes come, or the end of data is signaled.
- Returns the number of bytes read or -1 if there is no more data
- int available() returns the number of bytes currently available to be read

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position
- If there are no bytes available right now, read() blocks until more bytes come, or the end of data is signaled.
- Returns the number of bytes read or -1 if there is no more data
- int available() returns the number of bytes currently available to be read
- void close() gives up the resources used by the stream, as for output streams

java.io.InputStream is the abstract superclass

Fundamental reading method:

- Reads at most length bytes
- Puts the read bytes in the where array, starting from the offset position
- If there are no bytes available right now, read() blocks until more bytes come, or the end of data is signaled.
- Returns the number of bytes read or -1 if there is no more data
- int available() returns the number of bytes currently available to be read
- void close() gives up the resources used by the stream, as for output streams
- Similar to output streams, there exist a variety of input streams
 FileInputStream, ByteArrayInputStream,
 BufferedInputStream, ...

Showing the content of a file

This program prints the content of a file indicated as first argument Run with <code>java ReadFromFile filnamn</code>

```
import java.io.*;
public class ReadFromFile {
   public static void main (String[] argv) throws IOException {
   InputStream file =
      new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream(argv[0]));
   byte[] buffer = new byte[1024]; // 1 kB buffer
   int n:
   while ((n = file.read(buffer, 0, 1024)) != -1)
   // called for each kB of file content
       System.out.write(buffer, 0, n);
   // System.out is both a PrintStream and an OutputStream
   file.close();
   System.out.flush();
   // Not necessarily needed, just to make sure that the
   // content shows on the screen immediately.
   }
```

java.io.Reader and java.io.Writer

► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams
 - but their write() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[]

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams
 - but their write() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[]
 - ► To make a Writer out of an OutputStream Use OutputStreamWriter. There is no reverse operation!

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams
 - but their write() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[]
 - ► To make a Writer out of an OutputStream Use OutputStreamWriter. There is no reverse operation!
 - PrintStream should have been PrintWriter from start as it mostly carries text.

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams
 - but their write() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[]
 - To make a Writer out of an OutputStream Use OutputStreamWriter. There is no reverse operation!
 - PrintStream should have been PrintWriter from start as it mostly carries text.
 - FileWriter, BufferedWriter and CharArrayWriter have their OutputStream correspondents StringWriter is new, writes content to a String

java.io.Reader and java.io.Writer

- ► Already in java 1.1 they realized that byte ↔ char translation isn't possible, since chars require 2 bytes in some alphabets.
- You should use Readers and Writers instead of InputStreams and OutputStreams when you know that all transferred content will be text and not binary data (e.g. jpeg images).
- Writers are similar to OutputStreams
 - but their write() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[]
 - ► To make a Writer out of an OutputStream Use OutputStreamWriter. There is no reverse operation!
 - PrintStream should have been PrintWriter from start as it mostly carries text.
 - FileWriter, BufferedWriter and CharArrayWriter have their OutputStream correspondents StringWriter is new, writes content to a String
- Readers are similar to InputStreams but their read() method has a char[] argument instead of byte[].

To make a Reader out of an InputStream use InputStreamReader BufferedReader is like ByteArrayInputStream but has a readLine() method to read line by line. Returns null after the last line.

DD1335 (Lecture 3)

Showing the content of a text file

This program prints the content of a text file indicated as argument. Run with java ReadFromTextFile filnamn

```
import java.io.*;
public class ReadFromTextFile {
   public static void main (String[] argv) throws IOException {
     Reader file = new BufferedReader(new FileReader(argv[0]));
     char[] buffer = new char[1024]; // 1 kB
     int n;
     while ((n = file.read(buffer, 0, 1024)) != -1)
        System.out.print(new String(buffer, 0, n));
     file.close();
     System.out.flush();
   }
```

If you (really) want to use write()

This program prints the content of a text file indicated as argument

```
import java.io.*;
public class ReadFromTextFile2 {
   public static void main (String[] argv) throws IOException {
     Reader file =
        new BufferedReader(new FileReader(argv[0]));
   Writer sysout =
        new BufferedWriter(new OutputStreamWriter(System.out));
     // Transform System.out to a Writer!!!
     char[] buffer = new char[1024]; // 1 kB
     int n;
   while ((n = file.read(buffer, 0, 1024)) != -1)
        sysout.write(buffer, 0, n);
     file.close();
     sysout.flush();
```

Object collections: Lists

java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object [] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object [] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object [] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove (Object obj) removes the first object that equals (obj)

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove (Object obj) removes the first object that equals (obj)
- void clear() removes all objects

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove (Object obj) removes the first object that equals (obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove(Object obj) removes the first object that equals(obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index
- boolean contains(Object obj) checks whether there is an object that equals(obj)

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove(int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove(Object obj) removes the first object that equals(obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index
- boolean contains(Object obj) checks whether there is an object that equals(obj)
- int indexOf (Object obj) returns the index for the first object that equals (obj)

Object collections: Lists

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove (Object obj) removes the first object that equals (obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index
- boolean contains(Object obj) checks whether there is an object that equals(obj)
- int indexOf(Object obj) returns the index for the first object that equals(obj)
- int lastIndexOf(Object obj) returns the index for the last object that equals(obj)

Object collections: Lists

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove (int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove(Object obj) removes the first object that equals(obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index
- boolean contains(Object obj) checks whether there is an object that equals(obj)
- int indexOf (Object obj) returns the index for the first object that equals (obj)
- int lastIndexOf(Object obj) returns the index for the last object that equals(obj)
- int size() returns the number of objects present

Object collections: Lists

- java.util.ArrayList is an array of Objects
- Differs from Object[] as it grows according to needs and has an initial capacity.
- void add(int index, Object element) adds element at position index
- boolean add(Object element) adds element at the end
- void set(int index, Object element) replaces the object at position index
- void remove(int index) removes the object at position index
- void remove(Object obj) removes the first object that equals(obj)
- void clear() removes all objects
- Object get(int index) returns a reference to the object at position index
- boolean contains(Object obj) checks whether there is an object that equals(obj)
- int indexOf (Object obj) returns the index for the first object that equals (obj)
- int lastIndexOf(Object obj) returns the index for the last object that equals(obj)
- int size() returns the number of objects present
- modern choise instead of older class java.util.Vector

Q: I want to add a String object to my ArrayList, but the documentation says that I have to add an Object instance.

- Q: I want to add a String object to my ArrayList, but the documentation says that I have to add an Object instance.
- A: All String objects are Objects as well, so go ahead and add your string

- Q: I want to add a String object to my ArrayList, but the documentation says that I have to add an Object instance.
- A: All String objects are Objects as well, so go ahead and add your string
- Q: I know i added a String-object to my ArrayList but the get() method returns an Object object. What to do? I want to call substring() but there's no substring() method in Object

- Q: I want to add a String object to my ArrayList, but the documentation says that I have to add an Object instance.
- A: All String objects are Objects as well, so go ahead and add your string
- Q: I know i added a String-object to my ArrayList but the get() method returns an Object object. What to do? I want to call substring() but there's no substring() method in Object
- A: You have to use a type cast

```
String s = (String) list.get(index);
String s1 = s.substring(begin, end);
Or even:
String s1 = ((String) list.get(index)).substring(begin,
end);
```

- Q: I want to add a String object to my ArrayList, but the documentation says that I have to add an Object instance.
- A: All String objects are Objects as well, so go ahead and add your string
- Q: I know i added a String-object to my ArrayList but the get() method returns an Object object. What to do? I want to call substring() but there's no substring() method in Object
- A: You have to use a type cast

```
String s = (String) list.get(index);
String s1 = s.substring(begin, end);
Or even:
String s1 = ((String) list.get(index)).substring(begin,
end);
```

Note: in Java 1.5: new ArrayList<String>() enables us to create list that may contains only String objects:

```
ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
Then list may also contain object from sunbclasses to String (that you must
write yourselves ...). list.get() will return objects of class String
```

ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.
- Each ArrayList is also a List. Basically all type compatibility rules are the same as for superclasses.

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.
- Each ArrayList is also a List. Basically all type compatibility rules are the same as for superclasses.
- > You can think of interfaces as abstract classes with no member variables.

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.
- Each ArrayList is also a List. Basically all type compatibility rules are the same as for superclasses.
- > You can think of interfaces as abstract classes with no member variables.
- The interface java.util.List extends the superinterface java.util.Collection, so every ArrayList is also a Collection

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.
- Each ArrayList is also a List. Basically all type compatibility rules are the same as for superclasses.
- > You can think of interfaces as abstract classes with no member variables.
- The interface java.util.List extends the superinterface java.util.Collection, so every ArrayList is also a Collection
- Many methods declare generic interfaces as arguments:

- ArrayList implements java.util.List means that ArrayList 'promises' that it will implement at least the methods present in the interface java.util.List. A kind of contract that ensures that, among the methods available in ArrayList, we guarantee that those listed in java.util.List are present.
- A class can extend only one superclass but can implement any number of interfaces.
- Each ArrayList is also a List. Basically all type compatibility rules are the same as for superclasses.
- > You can think of interfaces as abstract classes with no member variables.
- The interface java.util.List extends the superinterface java.util.Collection, so every ArrayList is also a Collection
- Many methods declare generic interfaces as arguments:

boolean addAll(Collection c) is present in ArrayList and in all Collections adds all elements of the Collection. It doesn't care if the collection is a List or something else.

All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator

- All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator
- The new Iterator positions itself "before" the first element of the collection

- All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator
- > The new Iterator positions itself "before" the first element of the collection
- When next () is called it goes to the next element (the first time to the first object)

- All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator
- > The new Iterator positions itself "before" the first element of the collection
- When next () is called it goes to the next element (the first time to the first object)
- Before next(), it's good to call hasNext()

- All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator
- > The new Iterator positions itself "before" the first element of the collection
- When next () is called it goes to the next element (the first time to the first object)
- Before next(), it's good to call hasNext()
- If there's no next element, a NoSuchElementException is thrown by next()

```
List lst = new ArrayList();
lst.add("first");
lst.add("second");
lst.add("third");
for (Iterator i = lst.iterator(); i.hasNext();)
System.out.println(i.next());
```

- All Collection objects have an iterator() method, which returns an object from the class java.util.Iterator
- > The new Iterator positions itself "before" the first element of the collection
- When next () is called it goes to the next element (the first time to the first object)
- Before next(), it's good to call hasNext()
- ▶ If there's no next element, a NoSuchElementException is thrown by next()

```
List lst = new ArrayList();
lst.add("first");
lst.add("second");
lst.add("third");
for (Iterator i = lst.iterator(); i.hasNext();)
System.out.println(i.next());
```

Some iterators also allow remove () of the current element

A List associates each object with an int index

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap
 - Object put (Object key, Object value) associates a value with a given key.
 If another value was previously associated, it is returned, otherwise null is returned

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap
 - Object put (Object key, Object value) associates a value with a given key.
 If another value was previously associated, it is returned, otherwise null is returned
 - Object remove (Object key) removes the element associated with the key, and returns it (or null if none is associated). clear() removes all.

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap
 - Object put (Object key, Object value) associates a value with a given key.
 If another value was previously associated, it is returned, otherwise null is returned
 - Object remove (Object key) removes the element associated with the key, and returns it (or null if none is associated). clear() removes all.
 - /textttObject get(Object key) returns the Object associated with the given key, or null if there is none

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap
 - Object put (Object key, Object value) associates a value with a given key.
 If another value was previously associated, it is returned, otherwise null is returned
 - Object remove (Object key) removes the element associated with the key, and returns it (or null if none is associated). clear() removes all.
 - /textttObject get(Object key) returns the Object associated with the given key, or null if there is none
 - int size() returns the number of key-value pairs

- A List associates each object with an int index
- A java.util.Map associates an object with any kind of Object called a key
- Implementation of the Map interface: java.util.HashMap
 - Object put (Object key, Object value) associates a value with a given key.
 If another value was previously associated, it is returned, otherwise null is returned
 - Object remove (Object key) removes the element associated with the key, and returns it (or null if none is associated). clear() removes all.
 - /textttObject get(Object key) returns the Object associated with the given key, or null if there is none
 - int size() returns the number of key-value pairs
- Map also defines the interface java.util.Map.MapEntry managing key-value pairs

```
Map m = new HashMap();
m.put("k1", "v1");
m.put("k2", "v2");
for (Iterator i = m.entrySet().iterator(); i.hasNext();)
Map.Entry me = (Map.Entry) i.next();
System.out.println(me.getKey() + "->" + me.getValue());
```

```
Map m = new HashMap();
m.put("k1", "v1");
m.put("k2", "v2");
for (Iterator i = m.entrySet().iterator(); i.hasNext();)
Map.Entry me = (Map.Entry) i.next();
System.out.println(me.getKey() + "->" + me.getValue());
```

java.util.Dictionary is an obsolete version of Map (just to know what it is if you see one mentioned)

```
Map m = new HashMap();
m.put("k1", "v1");
m.put("k2", "v2");
for (Iterator i = m.entrySet().iterator(); i.hasNext();)
Map.Entry me = (Map.Entry) i.next();
System.out.println(me.getKey() + "->" + me.getValue());
```

<code>java.util.Dictionary</code> is an obsolete version of ${\tt Map}$ (just to know what it is if you see one mentioned)

Also java.util.Enumeration is an old version of Iterator. The concept is the same but hasMoreElements() instead of hasNext(), nextElement() instead of next() and no remove()!

```
Map m = new HashMap();
m.put("k1", "v1");
m.put("k2", "v2");
for (Iterator i = m.entrySet().iterator(); i.hasNext();)
Map.Entry me = (Map.Entry) i.next();
System.out.println(me.getKey() + "->" + me.getValue());
```

<code>java.util.Dictionary</code> is an obsolete version of ${\tt Map}$ (just to know what it is if you see one mentioned)

Also java.util.Enumeration is an old version of Iterator. The concept is the same but hasMoreElements() instead of hasNext(), nextElement() instead of next() and no remove()! java.util.Hashtable is an older variant of HashMap

```
Map m = new HashMap();
m.put("k1", "v1");
m.put("k2", "v2");
for (Iterator i = m.entrySet().iterator(); i.hasNext();)
Map.Entry me = (Map.Entry) i.next();
System.out.println(me.getKey() + "->" + me.getValue());
```

<code>java.util.Dictionary</code> is an obsolete version of ${\tt Map}$ (just to know what it is if you see one mentioned)

Also java.util.Enumeration is an old version of Iterator. The concept is the same but hasMoreElements() instead of hasNext(), nextElement() instead of next() and no remove()! java.util.Hashtable is an older variant of HashMap java.util.Properties, a Hashtable subclass used to read and write configuration files (also in XML format in java 1.5 Properties!)

Modern computer systems are essentially multi-user systems. Each user gets his/her own "execution thread" and each such "thread" gets a, in order, a small amount of time for each of its processes.

Modern computer systems are essentially multi-user systems. Each user gets his/her own "execution thread" and each such "thread" gets a, in order, a small amount of time for each of its processes.

As Java supports this execution model it is denoted as "multi threaded". This means that a Java program that uses threads may run several threads simultaneously a thus give the impression of parallelism and if there are more than one processor actually run treads in parallel.

Modern computer systems are essentially multi-user systems. Each user gets his/her own "execution thread" and each such "thread" gets a, in order, a small amount of time for each of its processes.

As Java supports this execution model it is denoted as "multi threaded". This means that a Java program that uses threads may run several threads simultaneously a thus give the impression of parallelism and if there are more than one processor actually run treads in parallel.

java.lang.Thread is built using the interface java.lang.Runnable

Modern computer systems are essentially multi-user systems. Each user gets his/her own "execution thread" and each such "thread" gets a, in order, a small amount of time for each of its processes.

As Java supports this execution model it is denoted as "multi threaded". This means that a Java program that uses threads may run several threads simultaneously a thus give the impression of parallelism and if there are more than one processor actually run treads in parallel.

java.lang.Thread is built using the interface java.lang.Runnable When a class is declared as an extension to the class Thread it gets two methods, one of which (run()) must be overridden. In run() you write the code that will be run in "parallel".

Modern computer systems are essentially multi-user systems. Each user gets his/her own "execution thread" and each such "thread" gets a, in order, a small amount of time for each of its processes.

As Java supports this execution model it is denoted as "multi threaded". This means that a Java program that uses threads may run several threads simultaneously a thus give the impression of parallelism and if there are more than one processor actually run treads in parallel.

<code>java.lang.Thread</code> is built using the interface <code>java.lang.Runnable</code> When a class is declared as an extension to the class <code>Thread</code> it gets two methods, one of which (<code>run()</code>) must be overridden. In <code>run()</code> you write the code that will be run in "parallel".

When you call the method start() you tell the system that you are ready and the system will run all run() methods will be called independently. Ypu may tell an object to "sleep" a while by calling static void sleep(long millis) will halt the thread for millis milliseconds.

Parallel execution ...

```
class PrimeThread extends Thread {
  long minPrime;
  PrimeThread(long minPrime) {
    this.minPrime = minPrime;
  }
  public void run() {
    // compute primes larger than minPrime
    . . .
}
```

Parallel execution ...

```
class PrimeThread extends Thread {
   long minPrime;
   PrimeThread(long minPrime) {
      this.minPrime = minPrime;
   }
   public void run() {
      // compute primes larger than minPrime
      . . .
}
Start:
PrimeThread p = new PrimeThread(143);
p.start();
```

Java for the Internet

Parallel execution: alternate method

Let the class implement Runnable

```
class PrimeRun implements Runnable {
   long minPrime;
   PrimeRun(long minPrime) {
     this.minPrime = minPrime;
   }
   public void run() {
      // compute primes larger than minPrime
     . . .
}
```

Java for the Internet

Parallel execution: alternate method

Let the class implement Runnable

```
class PrimeRun implements Runnable {
   long minPrime;
   PrimeRun(long minPrime) {
     this.minPrime = minPrime;
   }
   public void run() {
        // compute primes larger than minPrime
        ...
   }
}
Check:
Complements
Check:
Complements
Check:
Complements
Check:
Chec
```

Start:

```
PrimeRun p = new PrimeRun(143);
new Thread(p).start();
```

That's all

You don't need to know all of Java. But

there is enough to learn anyhow