

Module 1-The collections and Framework

1. Explainbriefaboutcollectionframework.

- TheJavaCollectionsFrameworkstandardizesthewayinwhichgroupsof objects are handled by your programs.
- Theframeworkhadto be high-performance.
- Theimplementationsfor thefundamentalcollections(dynamicarrays,linked lists, trees, and hash tables) are highly efficient.
- Theframeworkhadtoallowdifferenttypesofcollectionstoworkinasimilar manner and with a high degree of interoperability.
- Extendingand/oradaptingacollection had to beeasy.
- Mechanismswereaddedthatallotheintegrationofstandardarraysintothe Collections Framework.
- Algorithmsareanotherimportantpartofthecollection mechanism.
- Algorithmsoperateoncollectionsandaredefinedasstaticmethodswithinthe Collections class.
- An iterator offers a general-purpose, standardized way of accessing the elementswithinacollection,oneatatime.Thus,aniteratorprovidesameans of enumerating the contents of a collection.
- BecauseeachcollectionimplementsIterator,theelementsofanycollection class can be accessed through the methods defined by Iterator.

2. Whataretherecentchangestocollectionframework?

Recently,theCollectionsFrameworkunderwentafundamental changethat significantlyincreased its power and streamlined its use. The changes were the addition of generics, autoboxing/unboxing, and the for-each style for loop.

Generics

TheadditionofgenericiscausedasignificantchangetotheCollectionsFramework because the entire Collections Framework has been reengineered for it. All collections are now generic, and many of the methods that operate on collections take generic type parameters. Generics add the one feature that collections had been missing: type safety.

Prior to generics, all collections stored Object references, which meant that any collection couldstoreanytypeofobject.Thus,itwaspossibletoaccidentallystorein compatibletypes in a collection.

Doingsocouldresultinrun-timetypeismatcherrors.Withgenerics,itispossibleto explicitlystatethetypeofdatabeingstored, andrun-timetypeismatcherrors canbe avoided.

Autoboxing/unboxing

Autoboxingfacilitates theUseof PrimitiveTypes.

Autoboxing/unboxingfacilitates thestoringofprimitive typesin collections.

Asyouwillsee,acollectioncanstoreonlyreferences,notprimitivevalues. Inthepast,if you wanted to store a primitive value, such as an int, in a collection, you had to manually box it into its typewrapper.

When the value was retrieved, it needed to be manually unboxed (by using an explicit cast) into its proper primitive type.

Because of autoboxing/unboxing, Java can automatically perform the proper boxing and unboxing needed when storing or retrieving primitive types. There is no need to manually perform these operations.

The For-Each Style for Loop

collection can be cycled through by use of the for-each style for loop.

Earlier it was done with Iterable interface. For each loop is easier than the earlier iterator.

3. List the Collection Interfaces?

- The Collections Framework defines several interfaces. This section provides an overview of each interface. Collection enables you to work with groups of objects; it is at the top of the collections hierarchy.
- Deque extends Queue to handle a double-ended queue.
- List extends Collection to handle sequences
- NavigableSet extends SortedSet to handle retrieval of elements based on closest-match searches.
- Queue extends Collection to handle special types of lists in which elements are removed only from the head.
- Set extends Collection to handle sets, which must contain unique elements.
- SortedSet extends Set to handle sorted sets.

4. Give the syntax of collection interface. Explain the methods present in collection interface.

`interface Collection<E>`

Specifies the type of objects that the collection

Collection extends the Iterable interface.

Iterating through the list can be done through the iterable interface.

Methods in collection interface

add

`boolean add(E obj)`

Adds obj to the invoking collection.

Returns true if obj was added to the collection.

Returns false if obj is already a member of the collection and the collection does not allow duplicates.

addAll

`boolean addAll(Collection<? extends E> c)`

Adds all the elements of c to the invoking collection.

Returns true if the operation succeeded

(i.e., the elements were added). Otherwise, returns false.

clear

voidclear()

Removesallelements fromtheinvokingcollection.

contains

booleancontains(Objectobj)

Returnstrueifobjisanelementoftheinvokingcollection.

Otherwise, returns false.

containsAll

booleancontainsAll(Collection<?>c)

Returnstrueiftheinvokingcollectioncontainsallelementsofc. Otherwise, returns false.

equals

booleanequals(Objectobj)

Returnstrueiftheinvokingcollectionandobjareequal. Otherwise, returns false.

hashCode

inthashCode()Returnsthe hash code for theinvoking collection.

isEmpty

booleanisEmpty()

Returnstrueiftheinvokingcollectionisempty.

Otherwise, returns false.

iterator

Iterator<E>iterator() Returnsaniteratorfor theinvoking collection.

remove

booleanremove(Objectobj)

Removes one instance of obj from the invoking collection.Returnstrueiftheelementwasremoved.Otherwise,returns false.

removeAll

booleanremoveAll(Collection<?>c)

Removesallelements ofcfrom theinvokingcollection.

Return true if the collection changed (i.e., elements were removed). Otherwise, returns false.

retainAll

`boolean retainAll(Collection<?> c)`

Removes all elements from the invoking collection except those in c.

Return true if the collection changed (i.e., elements were removed). Otherwise, returns false.

size

`int size()` Return the number of elements held in the invoking collection.

toArray

`Object[] toArray()`

Returns an array that contains all the elements stored in the invoking collection.

The array elements are copies of the collection elements. The array elements are copies of the collection elements.

If the size of array equals the number of elements, these are returned in array.

5. Explain the methods present in List interface.

List interface extends collection interface. It includes new method. Which are given below.

`void add(int index, E obj)`

Inserts obj into the invoking list at the index passed in index.

Any preexisting elements at or beyond the point of insertion are shifted up.

`boolean addAll(int index, Collection<? extends E> c)`

Inserts all elements of C into the invoking list at the index passed in

index. Any preexisting elements at or beyond the point of insertion are shifted up. Thus, no elements are overwritten. Returns true if the invoking list changes and returns false otherwise.

`E get(int index)`

Return the object stored at the specified index within the invoking collection. int

`indexOf(Object obj)`

Returnstheindexofthefirstinstanceofobjintheinvokinglist.Ifobjisnot an element of the list, -1 is returned.

intlastIndexOf(Objectobj)

Returnstheindexofthelastinstanceofobjintheinvokinglist.Ifobjisnot an element of the list, -1 is returned.

ListIterator<E>listIterator()

Returnsaniteratorto the startof theinvokinglist.

ListIterator<E>listIterator(intindex)

Returnsaniteratortothe invokinglistthatbeginsatthespecifiedindex.

Eremove(intindex)

Removestheelementatpositionindex fromtheinvokinglistandreturnsthedeleted element. The resultinglist is compacted. That is, the indexes of subsequent elements are decremented by one.

Eset(int index, Eobj)

Assigns obj to thelocation specified byindexwithin the invoking list.

List<E>subList(intstart,intend)

Returnsalistthatincludeselementsfromstarttoend -1intheinvokinglist. Elements in the returned list are also referenced by the invoking object.

6. ExplainSetInterface andset method:

TheSetinterfacedefines aset.

ItextendsCollectionanddeclaresthebehaviourofacollectionthatdoesnotallow duplicate elements.

Therefore,theadd()methodreturnsfalseifanattempt. Set is a generic interface that has this declaration:

```
interfaceSet<E>
```

Here,Especifiesthetypeofobjectsthatthesetwillhold. The

SortedSet Interface

TheSortedSetinterfaceextendsSetanddeclaresthebehaviorofasetsortedin ascending order.

SortedSetisagenericinterfacethathasthisdeclaration:interfaceSortedSet<E>Here, E specifies the type of objects that the set will hold.

InadditiontothosemethodsdefinedbySet,theSortedSetinterfacedeclaresthe methods.

```
Comparator<?superE>comparator()
```

Returnstheinvokingsortedset's comparator.

If thenaturalorderingisusedforthisset,nullisreturned. E

first()

Returnsthefirst elementintheinvokingsorted set.

SortedSet<E>headSet(Eend)

ReturnsaSortedSetcontainingthoseelementslessthanendthatarecontainedinthe invoking sorted set.

Elementsinthereturnedsortedsetarealsoreferencedbytheinvokingsortedset. E last()

Returnsthelastelementintheinvokingsortedset.

SortedSet<E> subSet(E start , E end)

ReturnsaSortedSetthatincludesthoseelementsbetweenstartandend–1.Elements in the returned collection are also referenced by the invoking object.

SortedSet<E>tailSet(Estart)

ReturnsaSortedSetthatcontainsthoseelementsgreaterthanorequaltostartthatare contained in the sorted set. Elements in the returned set are also referenced by the invoking object.

SeveralmethodsthrowaNoSuchElementExceptionwhennoitemsarecontainedin the invoking set.

AClassCastExceptionisthrownwhenanobjectisincompatiblewiththeelementsina set.

ANullPointerExceptionisthrownifanattemptismadetouseanullobjectandnull is not allowed in the set.

AnIllegalArgumentExceptionisthrownifaninvalidargumentisused.

7. NavigableSetInterfaceandmethod

The NavigableSet interfaceextends SortedSet and declares the behavior of a collectionthatsupportstheretrievalofelementsbasedontheclosestmatchtoagivenvalue or values.

NavigableSetisagenericinterfacethathasthisdeclaration: interface

NavigableSet<E>

Here,Especiallythetypeofobjectsthatthesetwillhold. NavigableSet adds the following

Eceiling(E obj)

Searchesthesetforthesmallest element

Ifsuchan elementisfound,it isreturned. Otherwise,nullisreturned.

Iterator<E>descendingIterator()

Returns an iterator that moves from the greatest to least. In other words, it returns a reverse iterator.

NavigableSet<E>descendingSet()

Returns a NavigableSet that is the reverse of the invoking set. The resulting set is backed by the invoking set.

E floor(E obj)

Searches the set for the largest element *e* such that *e* ≤ *obj*. If such an element is found, it is returned. Otherwise, null is returned.

NavigableSet<E>headSet(EupperBound,booleanincl)

Returns a NavigableSet that includes all elements from the invoking set that are less than *upperBound* . If *incl* is true, then an element equal to *upperBound* is included. The resulting set is backed by the invoking set.

E higher(Eobj) Searches the set for the largest element *e* such that *e* > *obj*. If such an element is found, it is returned. Otherwise, null is returned.

E lower(E obj)

Searches the set for the largest element *e* such that *e* < *obj*. If such an element is found, it is returned. Otherwise, null is returned.

E pollFirst()

Returns the first element, removing the element in the process. Because the set is sorted, this is the element with the least value. null is returned if the set is empty.

E pollLast()

Returns the last element, removing the element in the process. Because the set is sorted, this is the element with the greatest value. null is returned if the set is empty.

NavigableSet<E>subSet(ElowerBound,booleanlowIncl,EupperBound, boolean highIncl)

Returns a NavigableSet that includes all elements from the invoking set that are greater than *lowerBound* and less than *upperBound* .

If *lowIncl* is true, then an element equal to *lowerBound* is included.

If *highIncl* is true, then an element equal to *upperBound* is included. The resulting set is backed by the invoking set.

NavigableSet<E>tailSet(ElowerBound,booleanincl)

Returns a NavigableSet that includes all elements from the invoking set that are greater than *lowerBound*. If *incl* is true, then an element equal to *lowerBound* is included. The resulting set is backed by the invoking set

8. TheQueueInterfaceand methods

The Queue interface extends Collection and declares the behaviour of a queue, which is often a first-in, first-out list. However, there are types of queues in which the ordering is based upon other criteria. Queue is a generic interface that has this declaration:

```
interface Queue<E>
```

```
    E element()
```

Return the element at the head of the queue. The element is not removed. It throws NoSuchElementException if the queue is empty.

```
    boolean offer(E obj)
```

Attempt to add obj to the queue. Return true if obj was added and false otherwise. E peek()

Return the element at the head of the queue. It returns null if the queue is empty. The element is not removed.

```
    E poll()
```

Return the element at the head of the queue, removing the element in the process. It returns null if the queue is empty.

```
    E remove()
```

Remove the element at the head of the queue, returning the element in the process. It throws NoSuchElementException if the queue is empty.

9. Deque interface

It extends Queue and declares the behavior of a double-ended queue.

Double-ended queues can function as standard, first-in, first-out queues or as last-in, first-out stacks.

Deque is a generic interface that has this declaration:

```
interface Deque<E>
```

```
    void addFirst(E obj)
```

Add obj to the head of the deque. Throws an IllegalStateException if a capacity-restricted deque is out of space.

```
    void addLast(E obj)
```

Add obj to the tail of the deque. Throws an IllegalStateException if a capacity-restricted deque is out of space.

```
    Iterator<E> descendingIterator()
```

Returns an iterator that moves from the tail to the head of the deque. In other words, it returns a reverse iterator.

```
    E getFirst()
```

Return the first element in the deque. The object is not removed from the deque. It throws NoSuchElementException if the deque is empty.

`EgetLast()`

Returns the last element in the deque.

The object is not removed from the deque. It throws `NoSuchElementException` if the deque is empty.

`boolean offerFirst(E obj)`

Attempts to add `obj` to the head of the deque. Returns `true` if `obj` was added and `false` otherwise. Therefore, this method returns `false` when an attempt is made to add `obj` to a full, capacity-restricted deque.

`boolean offerLast(E obj)`

Attempts to add `obj` to the tail of the deque. Returns `true` if `obj` was added and `false` otherwise.

`E peekFirst()`

Returns the element at the head of the deque. It returns `null` if the deque is empty. The object is not removed.

`E peekLast()`

Returns the element at the tail of the deque. It returns `null` if the deque is empty. The object is not removed.

`E pollFirst()`

Returns the element at the head of the deque, removing the element in the process. It returns `null` if the deque is empty.

`E pollLast()` Returns the element at the tail of the deque, removing the element in the process. It returns `null` if the deque is empty.

`E pop()` Returns the element at the head of the deque, removing it in the process. It throws `NoSuchElementException` if the deque is empty.

`void push(E obj)` Adds `obj` to the head of the deque. Throws an `IllegalStateException` if a capacity-restricted deque is out of space.

`E removeFirst()` Returns the element at the head of the deque, removing the element in the process. It throws `NoSuchElementException` if the deque is empty.

`boolean removeFirstOccurrence(Object obj)`

Removes the first occurrence of `obj` from the deque. Returns `true` if successful and `false` if the deque did not contain `obj`.

`E removeLast()`

Returns the element at the tail of the deque, removing the element in the process. It throws `NoSuchElementException` if the deque is empty.

`boolean removeLastOccurrence(Object obj)`

Removes the last occurrence of `obj` from the deque. Returns `true` if successful and `false` if the deque did not contain

10. TheCollectionClasses withexamplecode

AbstractCollection

Implementsmostofthe Collectioninterface.

AbstractList

ExtendsAbstractCollectionandimplementsmostoftheListinterface.

Queue interface.

AbstractSequentialList

ExtendsAbstractListforusebyacollectionthatusessequentialratherthan random access of its elements.

AbstractSet

ExtendsAbstractCollectionandimplements mostoftheSet interface.

EnumSet

ExtendsAbstractSet forusewith enum elements.

HashSet

ExtendsAbstractSetforusewith ahash table.

LinkedHashSet

ExtendsHashSettoallowinsertion-orderiterations.

PriorityQueue

ExtendsAbstractQueue to support apriority-based queue.

TreeSet Implements a set stored in a tree. Extends AbstractSet.

LinkedList ImplementsalinkedlistbyextendingAbstractSequentialList.

ArrayList Implements a dynamic array by extending AbstractList.

ArrayDeque Implementsadynamicdouble-endedqueuebyextending AbstractCollection and implementing the Deque interface.

ArrayList

ArrayListclassextends **AbstractList**andimplements the**List** interface

ArrayListisagenericclassthatthas thisdeclaration:

```
class ArrayList<E>
```

ArrayListhas the constructorsshowhere:

ArrayList()

constructor builds an empty array list

ArrayList(Collection<?extendsE>c)

buildsanarraylistthat isinitializedwiththeelementsofthecollectionc.

ArrayList(intcapacity)

buildsanarraylistthatthas thespecifiedinitial *capacity*.Thecapacityisthe size of the underlying array that is used to store the elements. The capacity grows automatically as elements are added to an array list.

```
class ArrayListDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        ArrayList<String> al = new ArrayList<String>();
        System.out.println("Initial size of al: " +
            al.size());
    }
}
```

```

al.add("C");
al.add("A");
al.add("E");
al.add("B");
al.add("D");
al.add("F");
al.add(1,"A2");
System.out.println("Sizeofalafteradditions:"+ al.size());
System.out.println("Contentsofal:"+al);
al.remove("F");
al.remove(2);
System.out.println("Sizeofalafterdeletions:"+ al.size());
}}

```

ConvertingArrayListtoArray

```

classArrayListToArray{
public static void main(String args[]) {
ArrayList<Integer>al=newArrayList<Integer>();
al.add(1);
al.add(2);
al.add(3);
al.add(4);
System.out.println("Contentsofal:"+al);
Integer ia[] = new Integer[al.size()];
ia=al.toArray(ia);
int sum = 0;
for(int i : ia) sum += i;
System.out.println("Sumis:"+sum);
}
}

```

LinkedList

The**LinkedList** classextends **AbstractSequentialList** andimplements**theList,Deque,**and**Queue**interfaces.

Itprovidesalinked-listdatastructure.**LinkedList**isagenericclassthat has this declaration:

```
classLinkedList<E>
```

Here,**E**specifiesthetypeofobjectsthatthelistwillhold. **LinkedList**hasthetwo constructors
LinkedList()

LinkedList(Collection<? extendsE>c)

Thefirst constructor builds an emptylinked list.

Thesecondconstructorbuildsalinkedlist thatisinitializedwiththeelementsofthe collection *c*.

Examplecode:

```

import java.util.*;
classLinkedListDemo{

```

```
public static void main(String args[]) {
    LinkedList<String>ll=newLinkedList<String>();
    ll.add("F");
    ll.add("B");
    ll.add("D");
    ll.add("E");
    ll.add("C");
    ll.addLast("Z");
    ll.addFirst("A");
    ll.add(1,"A2");
    System.out.println("Originalcontentsofll:"+ll);
    ll.remove("F");
    ll.remove(2);
    System.out.println("Contentsofllafterdeletion:"+ll);
    ll.removeFirst();
    ll.removeLast();
    System.out.println("llafterdeletingfirstandlast:"+ll);
    String val = ll.get(2);
    ll.set(2, val + " Changed");
    System.out.println("llafterchange:"+ll);
}
}
```

HashSet

HashSet extends **AbstractSet** and implements the **Set** interface. It creates a collection that uses a hash table for storage.

JavaHashSet class is used to create a collection that uses a hash table for storage.

It inherits the AbstractSet class and implements Set interface.

The important points about JavaHashSet class are:

- HashSet stores the elements by using a mechanism called **hashing**.
- HashSet contains unique elements only.

HashSet is a generic class that has this declaration: class

HashSet<E>

Here, E specifies the type of objects that the set will hold.

Constructor

HashSet()

HashSet(Collection<? extends E> c)

HashSet(int *capacity*)

HashSet(int *capacity*, float *fillRatio*)

Example:

```
import java.util.*;
class HashSetDemo{
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        HashSet<String>hs=new HashSet<String>();
```

```
hs.add("B");  
hs.add("A");  
hs.add("D");  
hs.add("E");  
hs.add("C");  
hs.add("F");  
System.out.println(hs);  
}  
}
```

output

[D,A,F,C,B, E]
LinkedHashSet

LinkedHashSet class is a Hashtable and Linked list implementation of the set interface. It inherits HashSet class and implements Set interface.

The important points about Java LinkedHashSet class are:

- Contains unique elements only like HashSet.
- Provides all optional set operations, and permits null elements.
- Maintains insertion order.

The **LinkedHashSet** class extends **HashSet** and adds no members of its own. It is a generic class that has this declaration:

```
class LinkedHashSet<E>
```

Here, **E** specifies the type of objects that the set will hold.

LinkedHashSet maintains a linked list of the entries in the set, in the order in which they were inserted.

This allows insertion-order iteration over the set.

That is, when cycling through a **LinkedHashSet** using an iterator, the elements will be returned in the order in which they were inserted.

This is also the order in which they are contained in the string returned by **toString()** when called on a **LinkedHashSet** object.

To see the effect of **LinkedHashSet**, try substituting **LinkedHashSet** for **HashSet** in the preceding program. The output will be

[B,A, D,E, C, F]

which is the order in which the elements were inserted.

TreeSet

TreeSet extends **AbstractSet** and implements the **NavigableSet** interface.

It creates a collection that uses a tree for storage. Objects are stored in sorted, ascending order. Access and retrieval times are quite fast, which makes **TreeSet** an excellent choice when storing large amounts of sorted information that must be found quickly.

TreeSet is a generic class that has this declaration: class

```
TreeSet<E>
```

Here, **E** specifies the type of objects that the set will hold.

TreeSet has the following constructors:

```
TreeSet()  
TreeSet(Collection<? extends E>c)  
TreeSet(Comparator<? super E>comp)  
TreeSet(SortedSet<E>ss)
```

Example

```
import java.util.*;  
class TreeSetDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        TreeSet<String> ts = new TreeSet<String>();  
        ts.add("C");  
        ts.add("A");  
        ts.add("B");  
        ts.add("E");  
        ts.add("F");  
        ts.add("D");  
        System.out.println(ts);  
    }  
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

[A,B,C, D,E, F]

PriorityQueue

PriorityQueue extends **AbstractQueue** and implements the **Queue** interface. It creates a queue that is prioritized based on the queue's comparator.

PriorityQueue is a generic class that has this declaration: class

PriorityQueue<E>

Here, E specifies the type of objects stored in the queue.

PriorityQueues are dynamic, growing as necessary.

PriorityQueue defines the six constructors shown here:

```
PriorityQueue()  
PriorityQueue(int capacity)  
PriorityQueue(int capacity, Comparator<? super E>comp)  
PriorityQueue(Collection<? extends E>c)  
PriorityQueue(PriorityQueue<? extends E>c)  
PriorityQueue(SortedSet<? extends E>c)
```

ArrayDeque

Java SE 6 added the **ArrayDeque** class, which extends **AbstractCollection** and implements the **Deque** interface.

It adds no methods of its own.

ArrayDeque creates a dynamic array and has no capacity restrictions.

ArrayDeque is a generic class that has this declaration: class

ArrayDeque<E>

Here, E specifies the type of objects stored in the collection.

ArrayDeque defines the following constructors:

```
ArrayDeque()  
ArrayDeque(int size)  
ArrayDeque(Collection<? extends E>c)
```

Example:

```
import java.util.*;
class ArrayDequeDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        ArrayDeque<String> adq = new ArrayDeque<String>();
        adq.push("A");
        adq.push("B");
        adq.push("D");
        adq.push("E");
        adq.push("F");
        System.out.print("Popping the stack:");
        while(adq.peek() != null)
            System.out.print(adq.pop() + " ");
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

The output is shown here:

Popping the stack: F E D B A

Accessing a collection via an Iterator:

Before you can access a collection through an iterator, you must obtain one. Each of the collection classes provides an **iterator()** method that returns an iterator to the start of the collection.

By using this iterator object, you can access each element in the collection. Element at a time. In general, to use an iterator to cycle through the contents of a collection, follow these steps:

1. Obtain an iterator to the start of the collection by calling the collection's **iterator()** method.
2. Setup a loop that makes a call to **hasNext()**. Have the loop iterate as long as **hasNext()** returns **true**.
3. Within the loop, obtain each element by calling **next()**.
4. For collections that implement **List**, you can also obtain an iterator by calling **listIterator()**.
5. As explained, a list iterator gives you the ability to access the collection in either the forward or backward direction and lets you modify an element.
6. Otherwise, **ListIterator** is used just like **Iterator**.

```
import java.util.*;
class IteratorDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {

        ArrayList<String> al = new ArrayList<String>();
        al.add("C");
        al.add("A");
        al.add("E");
```

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```
al.add("B");
al.add("D");
al.add("F");
```

```
System.out.print("Originalcontentsofal:");
```

```
Iterator<String>itr=al.iterator();
while(itr.hasNext()) {
String element = itr.next();
System.out.print(element+""");
}
System.out.println();
```

```
ListIterator<String>litr=al.listIterator();
while(litr.hasNext()) {
Stringelement=litr.next();
litr.set(element + "+");
}
System.out.print("Modifiedcontentsofal:"); itr
= al.iterator();
while(itr.hasNext()) {
Stringelement=itr.next();
System.out.print(element +""");
}
System.out.println();
System.out.print("Modifiedlistbackwards:");
while(litr.hasPrevious()) {
Stringelement=litr.previous();
System.out.print(element +""");
}
System.out.println();
}
}
```

Output:

Original contents of al: C A E B D F
Modifiedcontentsofal:C+A+E+B+D+F+
Modifiedlistbackwards:F+D+B+E+A+C+

```
ForEachloopforiteratingthroughcollection: import
java.util.*;
classForEachDemo{
public static void main(String args[]) {
ArrayList<Integer>vals=newArrayList<Integer>();
vals.add(1);
vals.add(2);
vals.add(3);
vals.add(4);
vals.add(5);
System.out.print("Originalcontentsofvals:"); for(int
v : vals)
```

```
System.out.print(v+"");
System.out.println();
int sum = 0;
for(int v:vals)
    sum += v;
System.out.println("Sum of values:"+ sum);
}
}
```

Output:

Original contents of vals: 12345 Sum of values: 15

Storing User Defined Classes in Collections:

collections are not limited to the storage of built-in objects.

The power of collections is that they can store any type of object, including objects of classes that you create.

User-defined objects stored in **LinkedList** to store mailing addresses:

```
import java.util.*;
class Address {
    private String name;
    private String street;
    private String city;
    private String state;
    private String code;
    Address(String n, String s, String c,
            String st, String cd) {
        name = n;
        street = s;
        city = c;
        state = st;
        code = cd;
    }
    public String toString() {
        return name + "\n" + street + "\n" + city +
            "" + state + "" + code;
    }
}
class MailList {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        LinkedList<Address> ml = new LinkedList<Address>();
        ml.add(new Address("J.W. West", "11 Oak Ave",
            "Urbana", "IL", "61801"));
        ml.add(new Address("Ralph Baker", "1142 Maple Lane",
            "Mahomet", "IL", "61853"));
        ml.add(new Address("Tom Carlton", "867 Elm St",
            "Champaign", "IL", "61820"));
        for (Address element : ml)
            System.out.println(element + "\n");
    }
}
```

```
System.out.println();  
}  
}
```

The output from the program is shown here:

```
J.W. West  
11OakAve  
Urbana IL61801  
Ralph Baker  
1142MapleLane  
MahometIL61853  
Tom Carlton  
867 Elm St  
ChampaignIL61820
```

RandomAccess Interface:

RandomAccess interface contains no members.

However, by implementing this interface, a collection signals that it supports efficient random access to its elements.

By checking for the **RandomAccess** interface, client code can determine at runtime whether a collection is suitable for certain types of random access operations—especially as they apply to large collections.

RandomAccess is implemented by **ArrayList** and by the legacy **Vector** class, among others.

Working With Maps:

A *map* is an object that stores associations between keys and values, or *key/value pairs*.

Keys and values are objects. Keys must be unique, but the values may be duplicated. Some maps can accept a **null** key and **null** values, others cannot.

There is one key point about maps that is important to mention at the outset: they don't implement the **Iterable** interface. This means that you *cannot* cycle through a map using a **for**-each style **for** loop. Furthermore, you can't obtain an iterator to a map.

However, as you will soon see, you can obtain a collection-view of a map, which does allow the use of either the **for** loop or an iterator.

The Map Interfaces

Because the map interfaces define the character and nature of maps, this discussion of maps begins with them.

The following interfaces support maps:

The **Map** Interface

The **Map** interface maps unique keys to values. A *key* is an object that you use to retrieve a value at a later date. Given a key and a value, you can store the value in a **Map** object. After the value is stored, you can retrieve it by using its key.

Map is generic:

```
interface Map<K,V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of keys, and **V** specifies the type of values. The methods declared by **Map**.

Several methods

throw a **ClassCastException** when an object is incompatible with the elements in a map.

A **NullPointerException** is thrown if an attempt is made to use a **null** object and **null** is not allowed in the map.

An **UnsupportedOperationException** is thrown when an attempt is made to change an unmodifiable map.

An **IllegalArgumentException** is thrown if an invalid argument is used.

Maps revolve around two basic operations: **get()** and **put()**. To put a value into a map, use **put()**, specifying the key and the value.

To obtain a value, call **get()**, passing the key as an argument. The value is returned.

Maps are not, themselves, collections because they do not implement the **Collection** interface. However, you can obtain a collection-view of a map. To do this, you can use the **entrySet()** method. It returns a **Set** that contains the elements in the map.

To obtain a collection-view of the keys, use **keySet()**.

To get a collection-view of the values, use **values()**.

Collection-views are the means by which maps are integrated into the larger Collections Framework.

SortedMap

The **SortedMap** interface extends **Map**. It ensures that the entries are maintained in ascending order based on the keys.

SortedMap is generic and is declared as shown here:

```
interface SortedMap<K, V>
```

specifies the type of keys,

V specifies the type of values.

Several methods throw a **NoSuchElementException** when no items are in the invoking map. A **ClassCastException** is thrown when an object is incompatible with the elements in a map. A **NullPointerException** is thrown if an attempt is made to use a **null** object when **null** is not allowed in the map.

An **IllegalArgumentException** is thrown if an invalid argument is used.

Sorted maps allow very efficient manipulations of *submaps*

To obtain a submap, use **headMap()**, **tailMap()**, or **subMap()**.

To get the first key in the set, call **firstKey()**. To get the last key, use **lastKey()**.

NavigableMap Interface

The **NavigableMap** interface was added by Java SE 6.

It extends **SortedMap** and declares the behavior of a map that supports the retrieval of entries based on the closest match to a given key or keys. **NavigableMap** is a generic interface that has this declaration:

```
interface NavigableMap<K,V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of the keys, and **V** specifies the type of the values associated with the keys.

Several methods throw a **ClassCastException** when an object is incompatible with the keys in the map.

A **NullPointerException** is thrown if an attempt is made to use a **null** object and **null** keys are not allowed in the set.

An **IllegalArgumentException** is thrown if an invalid argument is used, equal to start.

Map.Entry Interface

The **Map.Entry** interface enables you to work with a map entry. Recall that the **entrySet()** method declared by the **Map** interface returns a **Set** containing the map entries.

Each of these set elements is a **Map.Entry** object. **Map.Entry** is generic and is declared like this:
interface **Map.Entry**<**K**, **V**> Here, **K** specifies the type of keys, and **V** specifies the type of values.
the methods declared by **Map.Entry**.

Map Classes

Several classes provide implementations of the map interfaces. The classes that can be used for maps are summarized here:

HashMap:

The **HashMap** class extends **AbstractMap** and implements the **Map** interface. It uses a hash table to store the map.

This allows the execution time of **get()** and **put()** to remain constant even for large sets. **HashMap** is a generic class that has this declaration:

```
class HashMap<K,V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of keys, and **V** specifies the type of values.

The following constructors are defined:

`HashMap()`

`HashMap(Map<? extends K, ? extends V> m)`

`HashMap(int capacity)`

`HashMap(int capacity, float fillRatio)`

The first form constructs a default hash map. The second form initializes the hash map by using the elements of *m*. The third form initializes the capacity of the hash map to *capacity*. The fourth form initializes both the capacity and fill ratio of the hash map by using its arguments.

The meaning of capacity and fill ratio is the same as for **HashSet**, described earlier. The default capacity is 16.

The default fill ratio is 0.75.

HashMap implements **Map** and extends **AbstractMap**. It does not add any methods of its own.

import

java.util.*; class HashM

apDemo {

public static void main(String args[]) {

HashMap<String, Double> hm = new HashMap<String, Double>();

hm.put("John Doe", new Double(3434.34));

hm.put("Tom Smith", new Double(123.22));

hm.put("Jane Baker", new Double(1378.00));

hm.put("Tod Hall", new Double(99.22));

hm.put("Ralph Smith", new Double(-19.08));

Set<Map.Entry<String, Double>> set = hm.entrySet();

for (Map.Entry<String, Double> me : set) {

System.out.print(me.getKey() + ": ");

System.out.println(me.getValue());

}

System.out.println();

double balance = hm.get("John Doe");

hm.put("John Doe", balance + 1000);

System.out.println("John Doe's new balance: " +

hm.get("John Doe"));

}

}

Output from this program is shown here (the precise order may vary): Ralph

Smith: -19.08

Tom Smith: 123.22

John Doe: 3434.34

Tod Hall: 99.22

Jane Baker: 1378.0

John Doe's new balance: 4434.34

The program begins by creating a hash map and then adds the mapping of names to balances. Next, the contents of the map are displayed by using a set-view, obtained by calling **entrySet()**. The keys and values are displayed by calling the **getKey()** and **getValue()** methods that are defined by **Map.Entry**. Pay close attention to how the deposit is made into John Doe's account. The **put()** method automatically replaces any preexisting value that is associated with the specified key with the new value. Thus, after John Doe's account is updated, the hash map will still contain just one "John Doe" account.

TreeMap

The **TreeMap** class extends **AbstractMap** and implements the **NavigableMap** interface. It creates maps stored in a tree structure.

A **TreeMap** provides an efficient means of storing key/value pairs in sorted order and allows rapid retrieval. You should note that, unlike a hash map, a tree map guarantees that its elements will be sorted in ascending key order.

TreeMap is a generic class that has this declaration:

```
class TreeMap<K,V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of keys, and **V** specifies the type of values. The

following **TreeMap** constructors are defined:

```
TreeMap()
```

```
TreeMap(Comparator<? super K> comp)
```

```
TreeMap(Map<? extends K, ? extends V> m)
```

```
TreeMap(SortedMap<K, ? extends V> sm)
```

The first form constructs an empty tree map that will be sorted by using the natural order of its keys. The second form constructs an empty tree-based map that will be sorted by using the **Comparator** *comp*. (Comparators are discussed later in this chapter.) The third form initializes

a tree map with the entries from *m*, which will be sorted by using the natural order of the keys. The fourth form initializes a tree map with the entries from *sm*, which will be sorted in the same order as *sm*.

TreeMap has no methods beyond those specified by the **NavigableMap** interface and the **AbstractMap** class.

The following program reworks the preceding examples so that it uses **TreeMap**:

```
import java.util.*;

class TreeMapDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        // Create a tree map.
        TreeMap<String, Double> tm = new TreeMap<String, Double>();
        // Put elements to the map.
        tm.put("John Doe", new Double(3434.34));
        tm.put("Tom Smith", new Double(123.22));
        tm.put("Jane Baker", new Double(1378.00));
        tm.put("Tod Hall", new Double(99.22));
        tm.put("Ralph Smith", new Double(-19.08));
    }
}
```

```
//Geta setoftheentries.  
Set<Map.Entry<String, Double>>set=tm.entrySet();  
// Display the elements.  
for(Map.Entry<String,Double>me:set){  
System.out.print(me.getKey() + ": ");  
System.out.println(me.getValue());  
}  
System.out.println();  
double balance = tm.get("John Doe");  
tm.put("John Doe", balance + 1000);  
System.out.println("JohnDoe'snewbalance:"+  
tm.get("John Doe"));  
}  
}
```

Thefollowingis theoutput from thisprogram:

```
JaneBaker:1378.0  
John Doe: 3434.34  
RalphSmith:-19.08  
ToddHall:99.22  
Tom Smith: 123.22  
JohnDoe'scurrentbalance: 4434.34
```

TreeMapsortsthekeys.

However,inthiscase,theyaresortedbyfirstname
instead of last name.

Youcanalterthisbehaviorbyspecifyingacomparatorwhenthemap is
created, as described shortly.

LinkedHashMap

LinkedHashMapextends**HashMap**.

Itmaintainsalinked listoftheentries inthemap, in the
1orderinwhichtheywereinserted.Thisallowsinsertion-orderiterationoverthemap.That is, when
iterating through a collection-view of a **LinkedHashMap**, the elements will be returned in
the order in which they were inserted.

LinkedHashMapthatreturnsits elementsinthe orderinwhich theywere last accessed.

LinkedHashMapisagenericclassthathasthisdeclaration: class

LinkedHashMap<K, V>

Here,**K**specifiesthe typeofkeys, and**V**specifies thetypeof values.

LinkedHashMapdefinesfollowingconstructors:

LinkedHashMap()

LinkedHashMap(Map<?extendsK,?extendsV>m)

LinkedHashMap(int *capacity*)

`LinkedHashMap(int capacity, float fillRatio)`
`LinkedHashMap(int capacity, float fillRatio, boolean Order)` The first form constructs a default **LinkedHashMap**.

The second form initializes the **LinkedHashMap** with the elements from *m*. The third form initializes the capacity. The fourth form initializes both capacity and fill ratio. The meaning of capacity and fill ratio are the same as for **HashMap**. The default capacity is 16. The default ratio is 0.75. The last form allows you to specify whether the elements will be stored in the linked list by insertion order, or by order of last access.

IdentityHashMap

IdentityHashMap extends **AbstractMap** and implements the **Map** interface.

It is similar to **HashMap** except that it uses reference equality when comparing elements.

IdentityHashMap is a generic class that has this declaration:

```
class IdentityHashMap<K,V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of key, and **V** specifies the type of value. The API documentation explicitly states that **IdentityHashMap** is not for general use.

The EnumMap Class

EnumMap extends **AbstractMap** and implements **Map**. It is specifically for use with keys of an **enum** type. It is a generic class that has this declaration:

```
class EnumMap<K extends Enum<K>, V>
```

Here, **K** specifies the type of key, and **V** specifies the type of value. Notice that **K** must extend **Enum<K>**, which enforces the requirement that the keys must be of an **enum** type.

EnumMap defines the following constructors:

```
EnumMap(Class<K> kType)  
EnumMap(Map<K, ? extends V> m)  
EnumMap(EnumMap<K, ? extends V> em)
```

The first constructor creates an empty **EnumMap** of type *kType*. The second creates an **EnumMap** map that contains the same entries as *m*. The third creates an **EnumMap** initialized with the values in *em*.

Comparator interface

Comparator is a generic interface that has this declaration:

```
interface Comparator<T>
```

Here, **T** specifies the type of objects being compared.

The **Comparator** interface defines two methods: **compare()** and **equals()**. The **compare()** method, shown here, compares two elements for order:

```
int compare(T obj1, T obj2)  
obj1 and obj2 are the objects to be compared.
```

This method returns zero if the objects are equal.

It returns a positive value if *obj1* is greater than *obj2*. Otherwise, a negative value is returned.

ClassCastException if the types of the objects are not compatible for comparison. By

overriding **compare()**, you can alter the way that objects are ordered.

For example, to sort in reverse order, you can create a comparator that reverses the outcome of a comparison. The **equals()** method, shown here, tests whether an object equals the invoking comparator:

```
boolean equals(Object obj)
```

Here, *obj* is the object to be tested for equality. The method returns **true** if *obj* and the invoking object are both **Comparator** objects and use the same ordering. Otherwise, it returns **false**.

```
import java.util.*;
class MyComp implements Comparator<String>{
    public int compare(String a, String b) {
        String aStr, bStr;
        aStr = a;
        bStr = b;
        return bStr.compareTo(aStr);
    }
}
class CompDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        TreeSet<String> ts = new TreeSet<String>(new MyComp());
        ts.add("C");
        ts.add("A");
        ts.add("B");
        ts.add("E");
        ts.add("F");
        ts.add("D");
        for (String element : ts)
            System.out.print(element + " ");
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

Output:

FE DC B A

The Collection Algorithms:

The **Collections Framework** defines several algorithms that can be applied to collections and maps.

Algorithms are defined as static methods within the **Collections** class.

```
static<T> Boolean addAll(Collection<? super T> c, T... elements)
```

Inserts the elements specified by *elements* into the collection specified by *c*. Returns **true** if the elements were added and **false** otherwise.

```
static<T> Queue<T> asLifoQueue(Deque<T> c)
```

Returns a last-in, first-out view of *c*.

```
static<T> int binarySearch(List<? extends T> list, T value, Comparator<? super T> c)
```

Searches for *value* in *list* ordered according to *c*. Returns the position of *value* in *list*, or a negative value if *value* is not found.

```
static<T> int binarySearch(List<? extends Comparable<? super T>> list, T value)
```

Searches for value in list. The list must be sorted. Returns the position of value in list, or a negative value if value is not found.

`static<E>Collection<E>checkedCollection(Collection<E>c,Class<E>t)`

Returns a run-time type-safe view of a collection. An attempt to insert an incompatible element will cause a `ClassCastException`.

`static<E>List<E> checkedList(List<E>c,Class<E>t)`

Returns a run-time type-safe view of a List. An attempt to insert an incompatible element will cause a `ClassCastException`.

`static<K,V>Map<K,V>checkedMap(Map<K,V>c,Class<K>keyT,Class<V>valueT)`

Returns a run-time type-safe view of a Map.

An attempt to insert an incompatible element will cause a `ClassCastException`.

`static<E>List<E> checkedSet(Set<E>c,Class<E>t)`

Returns a run-time type-safe view of a Set. An

attempt to insert an incompatible element will cause a `ClassCastException`.

`static int frequency(Collection<?>c, Object obj)`

Counts the number of occurrences of obj in c and returns the result. `static int`

`indexOfSubList(List<?> list, List<?> subList)`

Searches list for the first occurrence of subList.

Returns the index of the first match, or -1 if no match is found. `static int`

`lastIndexOfSubList(List<?> list, List<?> subList)`

Searches list for the last occurrence of subList.

Returns the index of the last match, or -1 if no match is found.

```
import java.util.*;
class AlgorithmsDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        LinkedList<Integer> ll = new LinkedList<Integer>();
        ll.add(-8);
        ll.add(20);
        ll.add(-20);
        ll.add(8);
        Comparator<Integer> r = Collections.reverseOrder();
        Collections.sort(ll, r);
        System.out.print("List sorted in reverse:");
        for(int i : ll)
            System.out.print(i + " ");
        System.out.println();
        Collections.shuffle(ll);
        System.out.print("List shuffled:");
        for(int i : ll)
            System.out.print(i + " ");
        System.out.println();
        System.out.println("Minimum: " + Collections.min(ll));
    }
}
```

```
System.out.println("Maximum:" + Collections.max(l1));  
}  
}
```

Output:

Listsortedinreverse:208 -8-20

Listshuffled:20-208-8

Minimum: -20

Maximum:20

Noticethat**min()**and**max()**operateonthelistafterithasbeenshuffled.Neitherrequires a sorted list for its operation.

WhyGeneric Collections?

Asmentionedatthestartofthischapter,theentireCollectionsFrameworkwasrefittedfor generics when JDK 5 was released.

Furthermore,theCollectionsFrameworkisarguablythesinglemostimportantuseof generics in the Java API.

Thereasonforthisisthatgenerics addtypesafetytotheCollectionsFramework.Before moving on, it is worth taking some time to examine in detail the significance of this improvement.

```
importjava.util.*;  
class OldStyle {  
    publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[]){  
        ArrayList list = new ArrayList();  
        list.add("one");  
        list.add("two");  
        list.add("three");  
        list.add("four");  
        Iteratoritr=list.iterator();  
        while(itr.hasNext()) {  
            String str = (String) itr.next(); // explicit cast needed here.  
            System.out.println(str+"is"+str.length()+"charslong.");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Priortogenerics,allcollectionsstoredreferencesoftype**Object**. This

allowed any type of reference to be stored in the collection.

Theprecedingprogramusethisfeaturetostore referencestoobjectsoftype **String**inlist, butanytypeofreferencecouldhavebeenstored. Unfortunately,the factthatapre-generics collection stored **Object** references could easily lead to errors.

First,itrequiredthatyou,ratherthanthe compiler,ensurethatonlyobjectsof thepropertybestoredinaspecificcollection.Forexample,intheprecedingexample, **list** is clearly intended to store **Strings**, but there is nothing that actually prevents another typeof reference from being added to the collection.

For example, the compiler will find nothing wrong with this line of code:
`list.add(new Integer(100));`

Because `list` stores **Object** references, it can store a reference to **Integer** as well as it can store a reference to **String**.

However, if you intended `list` to hold only strings, then the preceding statement would corrupt the collection. Again, the compiler had no way to know that the preceding statement is invalid.

This second problem with pre-generics collections is that when you retrieve a reference from the collection, you must manually cast that reference into the proper type.

This is why the preceding program casts the reference returned by `next()` into **String**. Prior to generics, collections simply stored **Object** references. Thus, the cast was necessary when retrieving objects from a collection.

Aside from the inconvenience of always having to cast a retrieved reference into its proper type, this lack of type safety often led to a rather serious, but surprisingly easy-to-create, error. Because **Object** can be cast into any type of object, it was possible to cast a reference obtained from a collection into the *wrong* type. For example, if the following statement were added to the preceding example, it would still compile without error, but generate a run-time exception when executed:

```
Integer i = (Integer) itr.next();
```

- Ensure that only references to objects of the proper type can actually be stored in a collection. Thus, a collection will always contain references of a known type.
- Eliminate the need to cast a reference retrieved from a collection. Instead, a reference retrieved from a collection is automatically cast into the proper type. This prevents run-time errors due to invalid casts and avoids an entire category of errors.

The Legacy Classes and Interfaces

As explained at the start of this chapter, early versions of **java.util** did not include the Collections Framework. Instead, it defined several classes and an interface that provided an ad hoc method of storing objects.

When collections were added (by J2SE 1.2), several of the original classes were reengineered to support the collection interfaces.

Thus, they are fully compatible with the framework. While no classes have actually been deprecated, one has been rendered obsolete.

Of course, where a collection duplicates the functionality of a legacy class, you will usually want to use the collection for new code. In general, the legacy classes are supported because there is still code that uses them.

One other point: none of the collection classes are synchronized, but all the legacy classes are synchronized.

This distinction may be important in some situations. Of course, you can easily synchronize collections, too, by using one of the algorithms provided by **Collections**.

The legacy classes defined by **java.util** are shown here:

Dictionary
Hashtable
Properties
Stack
Vector

There is one legacy interface called **Enumeration**.

The following section examines **Enumeration** and each of the legacy classes, in turn. The Enumeration Interface

The **Enumeration** interface defines the methods by which you can *enumerate* (obtain one at a time) the elements in a collection of objects. This legacy interface has been superseded by **Iterator**.

```
interface Enumeration<E>
```

where **E** specifies the type of element being enumerated.

Vector

Vector implements a dynamic array. It is similar to **ArrayList**, but with two differences: **Vector** is synchronized, and it contains many legacy methods that are not part of the Collections.

Vector is declared like this:

```
class Vector<E>
```

Here, **E** specifies the type of element that will be stored.

Here are the **Vector** constructors:

```
Vector()
```

```
Vector(int size)
```

```
Vector(int size, int incr)
```

```
Vector(Collection<? extends E> c)
```

- The first form creates a default vector, which has an initial size of 10.
- The second form creates a vector whose initial capacity is specified by *size*.
- The third form creates a vector whose initial capacity is specified by *size* and whose increment is specified by *incr*.

The increment specifies the number of elements to allocate each time that a vector is resized upward. The fourth form creates a vector that contains the elements of collection *c*.

Stack

Stack is a subclass of **Vector** that implements a standard last-in, first-out stack. **Stack** only defines the default constructor, which creates an empty stack. With the release of JDK 5, **Stack** was retrofitted for generics and is declared as shown here:

```
class Stack<E>
```

Here, **E** specifies the type of element stored in the stack.
Stack includes all the methods defined by **Vector**.

Dictionary

Dictionary is an abstract class that represents a key/value storage repository and operates much like **Map**.

Given a key and value, you can store the value in a **Dictionary** object. Once the value is stored, you can retrieve it by using its key. Thus, like a map, a dictionary can be thought of as a list of key/value pairs.

Although not currently deprecated, **Dictionary** is classified as obsolete, because it is fully superseded by **Map**. However, **Dictionary** is still in use and thus is fully discussed here.

class Dictionary<K, V>

Here, **K** specifies the type of keys, and **V** specifies the type of values. The abstract methods defined by **Dictionary** are listed in Table 17-17.

Hashtable

Hashtable was part of the original **java.util** and is a concrete implementation of a Dictionary.

HashMap, **Hashtable** stores key/value pairs in a hashtable. However, neither keys nor values can be **null**. When using a **Hashtable**, you specify an object that is used as a key, and the value that you want linked to that key. The key is then hashed, and the resulting hash code is used as the index at which the value is stored within the table.

Hashtable was made generic by JDK 5.

It is declared like this: **class Hashtable<K, V>**

Hashtable()

Hashtable(int size)

Hashtable(int size, float fillRatio)

Hashtable(Map<? extends K, ? extends V> m)

The first version is the default constructor.

The second version creates a hashtable that has an initial size specified by *size*.

The third version creates a hash table that has an initial size specified by *size* and a fill ratio specified by *fillRatio*. This ratio must be between 0.0 and 1.0, and it determines how full the hash table can be before it is resized upward. Specifically, when the number of elements is greater than the capacity of the hashtable multiplied by its fill ratio, the hash table is expanded. If you do not specify a fill ratio, then 0.75 is used.

Finally, the fourth version creates a hashtable that is initialized with the elements in *m*. The capacity of the hash table is set to twice the number of elements in *m*. The default load factor of 0.75 is used.

Properties

Properties is a subclass of **Hashtable**. It is used to maintain lists of values in which the key is a **String** and the value is also a **String**.

The **Properties** class is used by many other Java classes. For example, it is the type of object returned by **System.getProperties()** when obtaining environmental values.

Although the **Properties** class, itself, is not generic, several of its methods are. **Properties** defines the following instance variable:

Properties defaults;

This variable holds a default property list associated with a **Properties** object. **Properties** defines these constructors:

Properties()

Properties(Properties propDefault)

Module 2

Syllabus-StringHandling:

The String Constructors, String Length, Special String Operations, String Literals, String Concatenation, String Concatenation with Other Data Types, String Conversion and toString() Character Extraction, charAt(), getChars(), getBytes() toCharArray(), String Comparison, equals() and equalsIgnoreCase(), regionMatches(), startsWith() and endsWith(), equals() Versus ==, compareTo() Searching Strings, Modifying a String, substring(), concat(), replace(), trim(), Data Conversion Using valueOf(), Changing the Case of Characters Within a String, Additional String Methods, StringBuffer , StringBuffer Constructors, length() and capacity(), ensureCapacity(), setLength(), charAt() and setCharAt(), getChars(), append(), insert(), reverse(), delete() and deleteCharAt(), replace(), substring(), Additional StringBuffer Methods, StringBuilder.

1. What are the different types of String Constructors available in Java?

The String class supports several constructors.

- a. To create an empty String

the default constructor is used.

Ex: `String s = new String();`

will create an instance of String with no characters in it.

- b. To create a String initialized by an array of characters, use the constructor shown here:

`String(char chars[])`

ex: `char chars[] = { 'a', 'b', 'c' };`

`String s = new String(chars);`

This constructor initializes with the string "abc".

- c. To specify a sub-range of a character array as an initializer using the following constructor:

`String(char chars[], int startIndex, int numChars)`

Here, startIndex specifies the index at which the sub-range begins, and numChars specifies the number of characters to use. Here is an example:

`char chars[] = { 'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f' }; String s`

`= new String(chars, 2, 3);`

This initializes with the characters cde.

- d. To construct a String object that contains the same character sequence as another String object using this constructor:

`String(String strObj)`

Here, strObj is a String object.

`class MakeString`

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

`{ char c[] = { 'J', 'a', 'v', 'a' };`

`String s1 = new String(c);`

```
Strings2=newString(s1);
System.out.println(s1);
System.out.println(s2);
}
}
```

The output from this program is as follows:

```
Java
Java
```

As you can see, s1 and s2 contain the same string.

- e. To Construct string using bytearray:

Even though Java's char type uses 16 bits to represent the basic Unicode character set, the typical format for strings on the Internet uses arrays of 8-bit bytes constructed from the ASCII character set.

Because 8-bit ASCII strings are common, the String class provides constructors that initialize a string when given a byte array.

Ex: String(byte asciiChars[])

String(byte asciiChars[], int startIndex, int numChars)

The following program illustrates these constructors:

```
class SubStringCons
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        byte ascii[] = {65,66, 67,68,69,70 };
        Strings1=newString(ascii);
        System.out.println(s1);
        Strings2=newString(ascii,2,3);
        System.out.println(s2);
    }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
ABCDEF
CDE
```

- f. To construct a String from a StringBuffer by using the constructor shown here:

Ex: String(StringBuffer strBufObj)

- g. Constructing string using Unicode character set and is shown here:

String(int codePoints[], int startIndex, int numChars)

codePoints is an array that contains Unicode code points.

- h. Constructing string that supports the new StringBuilder class. Ex :

String(StringBuilder strBuildObj)

Note:

String can be constructed by using string literals.

```
String s1="Hello World"
```

String concatenation can be done using + operator. With other data type also.

String Length

1. The length of a string is the number of characters that it contains. To obtain this value, call the `length()` method,
2. Syntax:
`int length()`
3. Example

```
char chars[] = {'a','b','c'}; String s = new String(chars);  
System.out.println(s.length()); //3
```

toString()

1. Every class implements `toString()` because it is defined by `Object`. However, the default implementation of `toString()` is sufficient.
2. For most important classes that you create, you will want to override `toString()` and provide your own string representations.
`String toString()`
3. To implement `toString()`, simply return a `String` object that contains the human-readable string that appropriately describes an object of your class.
4. By overriding `toString()` for classes that you create, you allow them to be fully integrated into Java's programming environment. For example, they can be used in `print()` and `println()` statements and in concatenation expressions.
5. The following program demonstrates this by overriding `toString()` for the `Box` class:

```
class Box  
{  
    double width; double height; double depth;  
    Box(double w, double h, double d)  
    { width = w; height = h; depth = d; }  
  
    public String toString()  
    { return "Dimensions are " + width + " by " + depth + " by " + height + "."; }  
}  
  
class toStringDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        Box b = new Box(10, 12, 14);  
        String s = "Box b: " + b;
```

```
System.out.println(b);
System.out.println(s);
}
}
```

The output of this program is shown here:

Dimensions are 10.0 by 14.0 by 12.0

Box b: Dimensions are 10.0 by 14.0 by 12.0

Character Extraction

The String class provides a number of ways in which characters can be extracted from a String object. String object can not be indexed as if they were a character array, many of the String methods employ an index (or offset) into the string for their operation. Like arrays, the string indexes begin at zero.

A. charAt()

1. description:

To extract a single character from a String, you can refer directly to an individual character via the charAt() method.

2. Syntax

char charAt(int where)

Here, where is the index of the character that you want to obtain. charAt() returns the character at the specified location.

3. example,

```
char ch;
ch = "abc".charAt(1);
assigns the value "b" to ch.
```

B. getChars()

1. to extract more than one character at a time, you can use the getChars() method.

2. Syntax

void getChars(int sourceStart, int sourceEnd, char target[], int targetStart)

Here, sourceStart specifies the index of the beginning of the substring, sourceEnd specifies an index that is one past the end of the desired substring. The array that will receive the characters is specified by target. The index within target at which the substring will be copied is passed in targetStart.

3.

```
class getCharsDemo {
    public static void main(String args[])
    { String s = "This is a demo of the getChars method."; int
      start = 10;
      int end = 14;
      char buf[] = new char[end - start];
      s.getChars(start, end, buf, 0);
```

```
        System.out.println(buf);
    }
}
```

Here is the output of this program:

demo

C. **getBytes()**

1. This method is called `getBytes()`, and it uses the default character-to-byte conversions provided by the platform.

Syntax:

```
byte[] getBytes()
```

Other forms of `getBytes()` are also available.

2. `getBytes()` is most useful when you are exporting a `String` value into an environment that does not support 16-bit Unicode characters. For example, most Internet protocols and text file formats use 8-bit ASCII for all text interchange.

D. **toCharArray()**

If you want to convert all the characters in a `String` object into a character array, the easiest way is to call `toCharArray()`.

It returns an array of characters for the entire string. It has

this general form:

```
char[] toCharArray()
```

2. **String Comparison:**

The `String` class includes several methods that compare strings or substrings within strings.

equals()

To compare two strings for equality, use `equals()`. It

has this general form:

```
boolean equals(Object str)
```

Here, `str` is the `String` object being compared with the invoking `String` object. It returns `true` if the strings contain the same characters in the same order, and `false` otherwise. The comparison is case-sensitive.

A. **equalsIgnoreCase()**

To perform a comparison that ignores case differences, call `equalsIgnoreCase()`. When it compares two strings, it considers A-Z to be the same as a-z.

It has this general form:

```
boolean equalsIgnoreCase(String str)
```

Here, `str` is the `String` object being compared with the invoking `String` object. It, too, returns `true` if the strings contain the same characters in the same order, and `false` otherwise.

```
//Demonstrate equals() and equalsIgnoreCase().
```

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

```
String s1 = "Hello";
String s2 = "Hello";
String s3 = "Good-bye";
String s4 = "HELLO";
System.out.println(s1+"equals"+s2+"->" + s1.equals(s2));
System.out.println(s1+"equals"+s3+"->" + s1.equals(s3));
System.out.println(s1+"equals"+s4+"->" + s1.equals(s4)); System.out.println(s1
+ " equalsIgnoreCase " + s4 + " ->" + s1.equalsIgnoreCase(s4)); } }
```

The output from the program is shown here:

```
Hello equals Hello -> true
Hello equals Good-bye -> false
Hello equals HELLO -> false
Hello equalsIgnoreCase HELLO -> true
```

B. regionMatches()

1. The `regionMatches()` method compares a specific region inside a string with another specific region in another string. There is an overloaded form that allows you to ignore case in such comparisons.
2. Syntax:

`boolean regionMatches(int startIndex, String str2, int str2StartIndex, int numChars)`

`boolean regionMatches(boolean ignoreCase, int startIndex, String str2, int str2StartIndex, int numChars)`

3. For both versions, `startIndex` specifies the index at which the region begins within the invoking String object.

The String being compared is specified by `str2`. The index at which the comparison will start within `str2` is specified by `str2StartIndex`. The length of the substring being compared is passed in `numChars`.

4. In the second version, if `ignoreCase` is true, the case of the characters is ignored. Otherwise, case is significant.

C. startsWith() and endsWith()

1. The `startsWith()` method determines whether a given String begins with a specified string.
2. `endsWith()` determines whether the String in question ends with a specified string.
3. Syntax

`boolean startsWith(String str)`
`boolean endsWith(String str)`

Here, str is the String being tested.
If the string matches, true is returned.
Otherwise, false is returned.

For example,

```
"Foobar".endsWith("bar")
```

```
"Foobar".startsWith("Foo")
```

are both true.

4. A second form of startsWith(), shown here, lets you specify a starting point:

```
boolean startsWith(String str, int startIndex)
```

Here, startIndex specifies the index into the invoking string at which point the search will begin. For example,

```
"Foobar".startsWith("bar", 3)
```

returns true.

D. equals() Versus ==

It is important to understand that the equals() method and the == operator perform two different operations.

The equals() method compares the characters inside a String object.

The == operator compares two object references to see whether they refer to the same instance.

```
class EqualsNotEqualTo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) { String  
        s1 = "Hello";  
        String s2 = new String(s1);  
        System.out.println(s1 + "equals" + s2 + "->" + s1.equals(s2)); System.out.println(s1  
        + " == " + s2 + " ->" + (s1 == s2));  
    }  
}
```

E. compareTo()

1. Sorting applications, you need to know which is less than, equal to, or greater than the next.
2. A string is less than another if it comes before the other in dictionary order. A string is greater than another if it comes after the other in dictionary order. The String method compareTo() serves this purpose.
3. It has this general form:

```
int compareTo(String str)
```

Here, str is the String being compared with the invoking String. The result of the comparison is returned and is interpreted,
4. Less than zero when invoking string is less than str.
5. Greater than zero when invoking string is greater than str.
6. Zero if the two strings are equal.

```
//AbubblesortforStrings.  
class SortString  
{staticStringarr[]={ "Now", "is", "the", "time", "for", "all", "good", "men",  
"to", "come", "to", "the", "aid", "of", "their", "country"};  
public static void main(String args[])  
{for(intj =0;j <arr.length; j++)  
{for(inti =j +1;i <arr.length; i++)  
{if(arr[i].compareTo(arr[j])<0)  
{Stringt=arr[j];  
arr[j] = arr[i];  
arr[i] = t;  
}  
} System.out.println(arr[j]);  
}  
}  
}
```

The output of this program is the list of words:

Nowaidallcomecountryforgoodismenofthethetheirtimetoto As you
can see

7. Ignore case differences when comparing two strings, use `compareToIgnoreCase()`. This method returns the same results as `compareTo()`, except that case differences are ignored.

5. SearchingString

A.indexOf()andlastIndexOf()

1. `indexOf()` Searches for the first occurrence of a character or substring.
2. `lastIndexOf()` Searches for the last occurrence of a character or substring.
3. These two methods are overloaded in several different ways
4. return the index at which the character or substring was found, or -1 on failure.
5. To search for the first occurrence of a character, `indexOf(int ch)`
6. To search for the last occurrence of a character, `lastIndexOf(int ch)` Here, `ch` is the character being sought
7. To search for the first or last occurrence of a substring, use `indexOf(String str)` `lastIndexOf(String str)` Here, `str` specifies the substring.

8. You can specify a starting point for the search using these forms: `int indexOf(int ch, int startIndex)`
`int lastIndexOf(int ch, int startIndex)`
9. `int indexOf(String str, int startIndex)` `int lastIndexOf(String str, int startIndex)` Here, `startIndex` specifies the index at which point the search begins.
10. For `indexOf()`, the search runs from `startIndex` to the end of the string. For `lastIndexOf()`, the search runs from `startIndex` to zero. The following example shows how to use the various index methods to search inside of Strings:

```
//Demonstrate indexOf() and lastIndexOf().
class indexOfDemo {
    public static void main(String args[])
    { String s="Now is the time for all goodmen"+"to come to the aid of their
country.";
    System.out.println(s);
    System.out.println("indexOf(t)="+s.indexOf('t'));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(t) = " + s.lastIndexOf('t'));
    System.out.println("indexOf(the) = " + s.indexOf("the"));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(the) = " + s.lastIndexOf("the"));
    System.out.println("indexOf(t, 10) = " + s.indexOf('t', 10));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(t,60)= "+s.lastIndexOf('t',60));
    System.out.println("indexOf(the, 10) = " + s.indexOf("the", 10));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(the,60)="+s.lastIndexOf("the", 60));
    }
}
```

Output

```
Now is the time for all goodmen to come to the aid of their country.
indexOf(t) =
7
lastIndexOf(t)=65
indexOf(the)=7
lastIndexOf(the)=55
indexOf(t,10)=11
lastIndexOf(t,60)=55
indexOf(the,10)=44
lastIndexOf(the,60)=55
```

6. **Modifying a String**

String objects are immutable, whenever you want to modify a String, you must either copy it into a `StringBuffer` or `StringBuilder`, or use one of the following String methods, which will construct a new copy of the string with your modifications complete.

A. Substring()

1. You can extract a substring using `substring()`. It has two forms. The first is `String substring(int startIndex)`
2. Here, `startIndex` specifies the index at which the substring will begin. This form returns a copy of the substring that begins at `startIndex` and runs to the end of the invoking string.
3. The second form of `substring()` allows you to specify both the beginning and ending index of the substring:
`String substring(int startIndex, int endIndex)`
Here, `startIndex` specifies the beginning index, and `endIndex` specifies the stopping point.
4. The string returned contains all the characters from the beginning index, up to, but not including, the ending index. The following program uses `substring()` to replace all instances of one substring with another within a string:

```
//Substring replacement.
class StringReplace {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        String org = "This is a test. This is, too.";
        String search = "is";
        String sub = "was";
        String result = "";
        int i;
        do {
            System.out.println(org);
            i = org.indexOf(search);
            if (i != -1) { result = org.substring(0, i); result
                = result + sub;
                result = result + org.substring(i + search.length()); org
                = result;
            } } while (i != -1);
        }
    }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here: This
is a test. This is, too.

Thwas is a test. This is, too.

Thwas was a test. This is, too.

Thwas was a test. Thwas is, too.

Thwaswas a test. Thwaswas, too.

B. concat()

1. concatenatetwostringsusingconcat()
String concat(String str)
2. Thismethodcreatesanewobjectthatcontainstheinvokingstring with the contents of str appended to the end.
3. concat()performsthesamefunctionas+.
4. Strings1 ="one";
Strings2 =s1.concat("two");

C. replace()

1. Thereplace() methodhastwo forms.
2. Thefirstreplacesalloccurrencesofonecharacterinthe invoking string with another character.

Syntax:

Stringreplace(charoriginal,char replacement)

Here,originalspecifiesthecharacter tobereplacedbythecharacter specified by replacement. The resulting string is returned.

Example

Strings="Hello".replace('l','w');
puts the string “Hewwo” into s.

Thesecondformofreplace()replacesonecharactersequencewith another. It has this general form:

Stringreplace(CharSequenceoriginal,CharSequence replacement)

D. trim()

Thetrim()methodreturnsacopyoftheinvokingstringfromwhich any leading and trailing whitespace has been removed.

Syntax:

Stringtrim()

Example:

String s = "Hello World"
s.trim();This
putsthestring“HelloWorld”intos.

Thetrim()methodisquiteusefulwhenyou processusercommands.

```
//Usingtrim()toprocesscommands. import
java.io.*;
classUseTrim
{publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])throwsIOException{
BufferedReader br = new BufferedReader(new
nputStreamReader(System.in));
Stringstr;
System.out.println("Enter'stop'toquit.");
System.out.println("Enter State: ");
do { str =br.readLine();
```

```
str = str.trim();
if(str.equals("Illinois"))
System.out.println("Capital is Springfield.");else
if(str.equals("Missouri"))
System.out.println("Capital is Jefferson City.");
else if(str.equals("California"))
System.out.println("Capital is Sacramento.");
else if(str.equals("Washington"))
System.out.println("Capital is Olympia."); // ... }
while(!str.equals("stop"));
}
}
```

5. DataConversion

1. ThevalueOf()methodconvertsdatafromitsinternalformatinto a human-readable form.
2. It is a static method that is overloaded within String for all of Java'sbuilt-intypessothateachtypecanbeconvertedproperly into a string.
3. valueOf()isalsooverloadedfortypeObject,soanobjectofany class type you create can also be used as an argument

Syntax:

```
static String valueOf(double num)
static String valueOf(long num)
static String valueOf(Object ob)
staticStringvalueOf(charchars[])
```

4. valueOf()iscalledwhenastringrepresentationofsomeothertype of data is needed. example, during concatenation operations.
5. Anyobjectthat youpasstovalueOf()willreturntheresultofa call to the object's toString() method.
6. ThereisaspecialversionofvalueOf()thatalloows youtospecifya subset of a char array.

Syntax:

```
staticStringvalueOf(charchars[ ],intstartIndex,int numChars)
```

7. Here,charsisthearraythatholdsthecharacters,startIndexisthe index into the array of characters at which the desired substring begins, and numChars specifies the length of the substring.

6. ChangingCaseofCharacters

A. toLowerCase()

1. converts all the characters in a string from uppercase to lowercase.
2. This method returns a String object that contains the lowercase equivalent of the invoking String.
3. Nonalphabetical characters, such as digits, are unaffected.

Syntax

String toLowerCase()

B. toUpperCase()

1. converts all the characters in a string from lowercase to uppercase.
2. This method returns a String object that contains the uppercase equivalent of the invoking String.
3. Nonalphabetical characters, such as digits, are unaffected.

Syntax

String toUpperCase()

```
class ChangeCase {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        String s = "This is a test.";
        System.out.println("Original: " + s);
        String upper = s.toUpperCase();
        String lower = s.toLowerCase();
        System.out.println("Uppercase: " + upper);
        System.out.println("Lowercase: " + lower);
    }
}
```

Output:

Original: This is a test.

Uppercase: THISISATEST.

Lowercase: this is a test.

StringBuffer

StringBuffer is a peer class of String that provides much of the functionality of strings. As you know, String represents fixed-length, immutable character sequences.

StringBuffer represents growable and writable character sequences.

StringBuffer may have characters and substrings inserted in the middle or appended to the end.

StringBuffer will automatically grow to make room for such additions and often has more characters pre allocated than are actually needed, to allow room for growth.

StringBuffer Constructors

StringBuffer defines these four constructors:

StringBuffer()

StringBuffer(int size)

StringBuffer(String str)

StringBuffer(CharSequence chars)

- a. The default constructor (the one with no parameters) reserves room for 16 characters without reallocation.
- b. The second version accepts an integer argument that explicitly sets the size of the buffer.
- c. The third version accepts a String argument that sets the initial contents of the StringBuffer object and reserves room for 16 more characters without reallocation.
- d. StringBuffer allocates room for 16 additional characters when no specific buffer length is requested, because reallocation is a costly process in terms of time.

A. length() and capacity()

- a. The current length of a StringBuffer can be found via the length() method, while the total allocated capacity can be found through the capacity() method.

Syntax

int length()

int capacity()

- b. Example:

```
class StringBufferDemo
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("Hello");
        System.out.println("buffer = " + sb);
        System.out.println("length = " + sb.length());
        System.out.println("capacity=" + sb.capacity());
    }
}
```

```
}
```

Output

buffer=Hello

length = 5

capacity= 21

B. ensureCapacity()

- If you want to pre allocate room for a certain number of characters after a StringBuffer has been constructed, you can use ensureCapacity() to set the size of the buffer.
- This is useful if you know in advance that you will be appending a large number of small strings to a StringBuffer.

Syntax

```
void ensureCapacity(int capacity)
```

Here, capacity specifies the size of the buffer.

C. setLength()

- To set the length of the buffer within a StringBuffer object,

Syntax:

```
void setLength(int len)
```

Here, len specifies the length of the buffer. This value must be nonnegative.

When you increase the size of the buffer, null characters are added to the end of the existing buffer.

If you call setLength() with a value less than the current value returned by length(), then the characters stored beyond the new length will be lost.

D. charAt() and setCharAt()

- The value of a single character can be obtained from a StringBuffer via the charAt() method. You can set the value of a character within a StringBuffer using setCharAt().

- Syntax

```
char charAt(int where)
```

```
void setCharAt(int where, char ch)
```

- For charAt(), where specifies the index of the character being obtained.
- For setCharAt(), where specifies the index of the character being set, and ch specifies the new value of that character.

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```
//DemonstratecharAt()andsetCharAt().  
  
class setCharAtDemo {  
publicstatic void main(Stringargs[])  
{ StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("Hello");  
System.out.println("buffer before = " + sb);  
System.out.println("charAt(1) before = " + sb.charAt(1));  
sb.setCharAt(1, 'i');  
sb.setLength(2);  
System.out.println("bufferafter="+sb);  
System.out.println(" charAt(1)after="+sb.charAt(1));} }
```

Output

```
bufferbefore=Hello  
charAt(1) before = e  
buffer after = Hi  
charAt(1) after = i
```

E. getChars()

- a. To copy a substring of a StringBuffer into an array, use the getChars() method. Syntax

Syntax

```
void getChars(int sourceStart, int sourceEnd, char target[], int targetStart)
```

Here, sourceStart specifies the index of the beginning of the substring, and sourceEnd specifies an index that is one past the end of the desired substring.

- b. This means that the substring contains the characters from sourceStart through sourceEnd-1.
- c. The array that will receive the characters is specified by target.

The index within target which the substring will be copied is passed in targetStart.

- d. Care must be taken to assure that the target array is large enough to hold the number of characters in the specified substring.

F. append()

1. The append() method concatenates the string representation of any other type of data to the end of the invoking StringBuffer object. It has several overloaded versions. Here are a few of its forms:

StringBuffer append(String str)

StringBuffer append(int num)

StringBuffer append(Object obj)

2. The result is appended to the current StringBuffer object.
3. The buffer itself is returned by each version of append().
4. This allows subsequent calls to be chained together, as shown in the following example:

```
class appendDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        String s; int a = 42;  
  
        StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer(40);  
  
        s = sb.append("a=").append(a).append("!").toString();  
  
        System.out.println(s);  
    }  
}
```

Output

a=42!

G. insert()

1. The insert() method inserts one string into another.
2. It is overloaded to accept values of all the simple types, plus Strings, Objects, and CharSequences.
3. Like append(), it calls String.valueOf() to obtain the string representation of the value it is called with.
4. This string is then inserted into the invoking StringBuffer object.
5. These are a few of its forms:

```
StringBuffer insert(int index, String str)
```

```
StringBuffer insert(int index, char ch)
```

```
StringBuffer insert(int index, Object obj)
```

Here, index specifies the index at which point the string will be inserted into the invoking StringBuffer object.

6. The following sample program inserts “like” between “I” and “Java”:

```
class insertDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
  
        StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("I Java!");  
  
        sb.insert(2, "like ");  
    }  
}
```

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```
        System.out.println(sb);
    }
}
```

7. Output

IlikeJava!

H. reverse()

You can reverse the characters within a StringBuffer object using reverse(), shown here: StringBuffer reverse()

This method returns the reversed object on which it was called. The following program demonstrates reverse()

```
class ReverseDemo {
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        StringBuffer s = new StringBuffer("abcdef");
        System.out.println(s);
        s.reverse();
        System.out.println(s);
    }
}
```

Output

abcdef

fedcba

I. delete() and deleteCharAt()

You can delete characters within a StringBuffer by using the methods delete() and deleteCharAt().

Syntax:

StringBuffer delete(int startIndex, int endIndex)

StringBuffer deleteCharAt(int loc)

The delete() method deletes a sequence of characters from the invoking object.

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Here, startIndex specifies the index of the first character to remove, and endIndex specifies an index one past the last character to remove.

Thus, the substring deleted runs from startIndex to endIndex–1. The resulting StringBuffer object is returned.

The deleteCharAt() method deletes the character at the index specified by loc. It returns the resulting StringBuffer object.

```
//Demonstrate delete() and deleteCharAt()
class deleteDemo { public static void main(String args[])
{ StringBuffer sb=new StringBuffer("This is a test."); sb.delete(4,
7);
System.out.println("After delete:"+sb);
sb.deleteCharAt(0);
System.out.println("After deleteCharAt:"+sb);
}
}
```

Output

```
After delete: This a
test.After deleteCharAt:hisate
st.
```

J. **replace()**

- a. You can replace one set of characters with another set inside a StringBuffer object by calling replace().
- b. Syntax

StringBuffer replace(int startIndex, int endIndex, String str)

The substring being replaced is specified by the indexes startIndex and endIndex.

- c. Thus, the substring at startIndex through endIndex–1 is replaced. The replacement string is passed in str.

The resulting StringBuffer object is returned.

```
class replaceDemo {
public static void main(String args[])
{ StringBuffer sb=new StringBuffer("This is a test."); sb.replace(5,
7, "was");
System.out.println("After replace:"+sb);
}
```

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}

```
}
```

Here is the output:

After replace: This was a test.

K.substring()

1. It has the following two forms:
Syntax
`String substring(int startIndex)`
`String substring(int startIndex, int endIndex)`
2. The first form returns the substring that starts at `startIndex` and runs to the end of the invoking `StringBuffer` object.
3. The second form returns the substring that starts at `startIndex` and runs through `endIndex-1`. These methods work just like those defined for `String` that were described earlier.

Difference between StringBuffer and StringBuilder.

1. J2SE5 adds a new string class to Java's already powerful string handling capabilities. This new class is called `StringBuilder`.
2. It is identical to `StringBuffer` except for one important difference: it is not synchronized, which means that it is not thread-safe.
3. The advantage of `StringBuilder` is faster performance. However, in cases in which you are using multithreading, you must use `StringBuffer` rather than `StringBuilder`.

Additional Methods in String which was included in Java 5

1. `indexOf(int i)`

Returns the Unicode code point at the location specified by `i`.

2. `indexOf(int i)`

Returns the Unicode code point at the location that precedes that specified by `i`.

3. `indexOf(int start, int end)`

Returns the number of code points in the portion of the invoking `String` that are between `start` and `end-1`.

4. `contains(CharSequence str)`

Returns `true` if the invoking object contains the strings specified by `str`. Returns `false`, otherwise.

5. `contentEquals(CharSequence str)`

Returns `true` if the invoking string contains the same string as `str`. Otherwise, returns `false`.

6. `contentEquals(StringBuffer str)`

Returns `true` if the invoking string contains the same string as `str`. Otherwise, returns `false`.

7. `static String format(String fmt, Object... args)`

- Returns a string formatted as specified by `fmtStr`.
8. **`static String format(Locale loc, String fmtStr, Object... args)`**
Returns a string formatted as specified by `fmtStr`.
 9. **`boolean matches(String regExp)`**
Returns `true` if the invoking string matches the regular expression passed in `regExp`. Otherwise, returns `false`.
 10. **`int offsetByCodePoints(int start, int num)`**
Returns the index with the invoking string that is `num` code points beyond the starting index specified by `start`.
 11. **`String replaceFirst(String regExp, String newStr)`**
Returns a string in which the first substring that matches the regular expression specified by `regExp` is replaced by `newStr`.
 12. **`String replaceAll(String regExp, String newStr)`**
Returns a string in which all substrings that match the regular expressions specified by `regExp` are replaced by `newStr`.
 13. **`String[] split(String regExp)`**
Decomposes the invoking string into parts and returns an array that contains the result. Each part is delimited by the regular expression passed in `regExp`.
 14. **`String[] split(String regExp, int max)`**
Decomposes the invoking string into parts and returns an array that contains the result. Each part is delimited by the regular expression passed in `regExp`. The number of pieces is specified by `max`. If `max` is negative, then the invoking string is fully decomposed. Otherwise, if `max` contains a non-zero value, the last entry in the returned array contains the remainder of the invoking string. If `max` is zero, the invoking string is fully decomposed.
 15. **`CharSequence subSequence(int start Index, int stop Index)`**
Returns a substring of the invoking string, beginning at `start Index` and stopping at `stop Index`. This method is required by the `CharSequence` interface, which is now implemented by `String`.

Additional Methods in StringBuffer which was included in Java 5

`StringBuffer appendCodePoint(int ch)`

Appends a Unicode code point to the end of the invoking object. A reference to the object is returned.

`int codePointAt(int i)`

Returns the Unicode code point at the location specified by `i`.

`int codePointBefore(int i)`

Returns the Unicode code point at the location that precedes that specified by `i`.

`int codePointCount(int start, int end)`

Returns the number of code points in the portion of the invoking `String` that are between `start` and `end - 1`.

`int indexOf(String str)`

Searches the invoking `StringBuffer` for the first occurrence of `str`. Returns the index of the match, or `-1` if no match is found.

`int indexOf(String str, int start Index)`

Searches the invoking `StringBuffer` for the first occurrence of `str`, beginning at `start Index`. Returns the index of the match, or `-1` if no match is found.

intlastIndexOf(Stringstr)

Searches the invoking StringBuffer for the last occurrence of str. Returns the index of the match, or -1 if no match is found.

intlastIndexOf(Stringstr,intstartIndex)

Searches the invoking StringBuffer for the last occurrence of str, beginning at startIndex. Returns the index of the match, or -1 if no match is found.



Servlet

Introduction to servlet

Servlet is small program that execute on the server side of a web connection. Just as applet extend the functionality of web browser the applet extend the functionality of web server.

In order to understand the advantages of servlet, you must have basic understanding of how web browser communicates with the web server.

Consider a request for static page. A user enters a URL into browser. The browser generates http request to a specific file. The file is returned by http response. Web server map this particular request for this purpose. The http header in the response indicates the content. Source of web page as MIME type of text/html.

1. What are the Advantages of Servlet Over "Traditional" CGI?

Java servlet is more efficient, easier to use, more powerful, more portable, and cheaper than traditional CGI and than many alternative CGI-like technologies. (More importantly, servlet developers get paid more than Perl programmers :-).

- **Efficient.** With traditional CGI, a new process is started for each HTTP request. If the CGI program does a relatively fast operation, the overhead of starting the process can dominate the execution time. With servlets, the Java Virtual Machine stays up, and each request is handled by a lightweight Java thread, not a heavyweight operating system process. Similarly, in traditional CGI, if there are N simultaneous request to the same CGI program, then the code for the CGI program is loaded into memory N times. With servlets, however, there are N threads but only a single copy of the servlet class.
- **Convenient.** Hey, you already know Java. Why learn Perl too? Besides the convenience of being able to use a familiar language, servlets have an extensive infrastructure for automatically parsing and decoding HTML form data, reading and setting HTTP headers, handling cookies, tracking sessions, and many other such utilities.
- **Powerful.** Java servlets let you easily do several things that are difficult or impossible with regular CGI. For one thing, servlets can talk directly to the Web server (regular CGI programs can't). This simplifies operations that need to look up images and other data stored in standard places. Servlets can also share data among each other, making useful things like database connection pools easy to implement. They can also maintain

information from request to request, simplifying things like session tracking and caching of previous computations.

- **Portable.** Servlets are written in Java and follow a well-standardized API. Consequently, servlets written for, say I-Planet Enterprise Server can run virtually unchanged on Apache, Microsoft IIS, or Web Star. Servlets are supported directly or via a plug in on almost every major Web server.
- **Inexpensive.** There are a number of free or very inexpensive Web servers available that are good for "personal" use or low-volume Websites. However, with the major exception of Apache, which is free, most commercial-quality Web servers are relatively expensive. Nevertheless, once you have a Web server, no matter the cost of that server, adding servlet support to it (if it doesn't come preconfigured to support servlets) is generally free or cheap.

2. What is a servlet? What are the phases of a servlet lifecycle? Give an example.

Servlets are small programs that execute on the server side of a web connection. Just as an applet extends the functionality of a web browser, the servlet extends the functionality of a web server.

Servlet class is loaded.

Servlet class is loaded when the first request to the web container.

servlet instance is created:

Web container creates the instance of servlet class only once.

init method is invoked:

It calls the init method when it loads the instance. It is used to initialize the servlet.

Syntax of init method is

```
public void init(ServletConfig config) throws ServletException
```

Service method is invoked:

Web container calls the service method each time when a request for the servlet is received. If the servlet is not initialized, it calls init then it calls the service method. Syntax of service method is as follows

public void service(ServletRequest request, ServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException

Destroy method is invoked.

The web container calls the destroy method before it removes the servlet from service. It gives servlet an opportunity to clean up memory, resources etc. Servlet destroy method has following syntax.

`public void destroy()`.

Ready

There are three states of servlet: new, ready, end. It is in new state when servlet is created. The servlet instance is created when it is in new state. After invoking the `init()` method, servlet comes to ready state. In ready state, servlet invokes destroy method and it comes to end state.

3. Explain about deployment descriptor

Deployment descriptor is a file located in the `WEB-INF` directory that controls the behavior of a Java servlet and Java server pages. The file is called the `web.xml` file and contains the header, DOCTYPE, and web app element. The web app element should contain a servlet element with three elements. These are servlet name, servlet class, and init-param.

The servlet name element contains the name used to access the Java servlet. The servlet class is the name of the Java servlet class. init-param is the name of an initialization parameter that is used when request is made to the Java servlet.

Example file:

`<?xml version="1.0" encoding="ISO-8859=1"?>.....XML header`

```
<!DOCTYPEweb-appPUBLIC“~//SunMicrosystems,Inc.??DTDWeb  
Application2.2//EN”> ..doctype
```

```
<web-app>
```

```
<servlet>
```

```
<servlet-name>MyJavaservlet</servlet-name>
```

```
<servlet-class>myPackage.MyJavaservletClass</servlet-class>
```

```
<init-param><param-name>parameter1</param-name>
```

```
<param-value>735</param-value>
```

```
</init-param>
```

```
</servlet>
```

```
</web-app>
```

4. How to read data from client in servlet?

- A client uses either the GET or POST method to pass information to a servlet. Depending on the method used by the client either doGet() or doPost() method is called in servlet.
- Data sent by a client is read into a Java servlet by calling getParameter() method of HttpServletRequest() object that is instantiated in the argument list of doGet() method and doPost() method.
- getParameter() requires one argument, which is the name of the parameter that contains the data sent by the client. getParameter() returns the String object.
- String object contains the value assigned by the client. An empty string object is returned when it does not assign a value to the parameter. Also null is returned when the parameter is not returned in the client.
- getParameterValues() is used to return the array of string objects.

Example code

HTML code that calls a servlet:

```
<FORM ACTION="/servlet/myservlets.js2">  
EnterEmailAddress:<INPUT TYPE="TEXT" NAME="email">  
<INPUT TYPE="SUBMIT">  
</FORM>
```

```

import java.io.*;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
public class js2 extends HttpServlet {
public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response)
throws ServletException, IOException {
//String email;
//Email=request.getParameter("email");
Response.setContentType("text/html");
PrintWriter pw=response.getWriter();
pw.println("<HTML>\n" +
"HEAD><TITLE>JavaServlet</TITLE></HEAD>\n"+
"<BODY>\n"+
//"<p>MYEmailAddress:" +email+"</p>\n"+
"<h1>MyFirstServlet
"</BODY>\n" +
"</HTML>");
}
}

```

5. How to read HTTP Request Headers?

A request from client contains two components these are implicit data, such as email address explicit data at HTTP request header. Servlet can read these request headers to process the data component of the request.

Example of HTTP header:

```

Accept:image.jpg,image.gif,*/*
Accept- Encoding: Zip
Cookie: CustNum-12345
Host:www.mywebsite.com
Referer:http://www.mywebsite.com/index.html

```

The uses of HTTP header:

Accept: Identifies the mail extension
Accept-Charset: Identifies the character set that can be used by browser. Cookie returns the cookies to server.
Host: contains host portal.
Referer: Contains the URL of the web page that is currently displayed in the browser.

A Java servlet can read an HTTP request header by calling the `getHeader()` method of the `HttpServletRequest` object. `getHeader()` requires one argument which is the name of the http request header.

```
getHeader()
```

6. How to send data to client and writing the HTTP Response Header?

A Javaservert responds to a client's request by reading client data and HTTP request headers, and then processing information based on the nature of the request.

For example, a client request for information about merchandise in an online product catalog requires the Javaservert to search the product database to retrieve product information and then format the product information into a web page, which is returned to client.

There are two ways in which Javaservert replies to client request. These are sent by sending information to the response stream and sending information in http response header. The http response header is similar to the http request header.

Explicit data are sent by creating an instance of the `PrintWriter` object and then using `println()` method to transmit the information to the client.

Implicit data example: HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: text/plain

My Response

Javaservert can write to the HTTP response header by calling `setStatus()` method requires one argument which is an integer that represents the status code.

```
Response.setStatus(100);
```

7. Explain about Cookies in servlet.

Cookies are text files stored on the client computer and they are kept for various information tracking purpose. Java Servlets transparently supports HTTP cookies.

There are three steps involved in identifying returning users:

- Server script sends a set of cookies to the browser. For example name, age, or identification number etc.
- Browser stores this information on local machine for future use.
- When next time browser sends any request to web server then it sends those cookies information to the server and server uses that information to identify the user.

Setting Cookies with Servlet:

Setting cookies with servlet involves three steps:

(1) Creating a Cookie object: You call the `Cookie` constructor with a cookie name and a cookie value, both of which are strings.

```
Cookie cookie = new Cookie("key", "value");
```

(2) Setting the maximum age: You use `setMaxAge` to specify how long (in seconds) the cookie should be valid. Following would set up a cookie for 24 hours.

```
cookie.setMaxAge(60*60*24);
```

(3) Sending the Cookie into the HTTP response headers: You use `response.addCookie` to add cookies in the HTTP response header as follows:

```
response.addCookie(cookie);
```

Writing

Cookieimport

```
java.io.*;
```

```
import javax.servlet.*;
```

```
import javax.servlet.http.*;
```

```
public class HelloForm extends HttpServlet {
```

```
public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request,
```

HttpServletResponse response)

throwsServletException,IOException

$$\{$$

```
CookiemyCookie=newCookie("userid",123);
```

```
myCookie.setMaxAge(60*60);
```

```
response.addCookie(myCookie );
```

```
response.setContentType("text/html");PrintWriter
```

```
out = response.getWriter();
```

```
out.println("<html>\n"+
```

```
"<head><title>" + MyCookie + "</title></head>\n" +
```

“<nody>\n” +

“<h1>+ My Cookie +”<h1>\n” +

“<p>Cookie Written+</p>\n”+

“</body></HTML>”);

}

}

Reading Cookies with Servlet:

To read cookies, you need to create an array of *javax.servlet.http.Cookie* objects by calling the **getCookies()** method of *HttpServletRequest*. Then cycle through the array, and use *getName()* and *getValue()* methods to access each cookie and associated value.

Example: Let us read cookies which we have set in previous example:

```
import java.io.*; import javax.servlet.*; import javax.servlet.http.*;

public class ReadCookies extends HttpServlet {

    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws
        ServletException, IOException
    {
        Cookie cookie;
        Cookie[] cookies;

        cookies = request.getCookies();
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
        String title = "Reading Cookies Example";
        out.println( "<html>\n" +
            "<head><title>" + title + "</title></head>\n"); if(
            cookies != null ){
            out.println("<h2>Found Cookies Name and Value</h2>"); for
            (int i = 0; i < cookies.length; i++){
                cookie = cookies[i];
                out.print("Name: " + cookie.getName() + ",");
                out.print("Value: " + cookie.getValue() + "<br/>");
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

    }else{ out.println("<h2>Nocookiesfound</h2>");
    } out.println("</body>"); out.println("</html>");
}
}

```

8. ExplainSessionTracking:

1. A session is created each time a client requests service from a java servlet. The java servlet processes the request and response accordingly, after which the session is terminated. Many times the same client follows with another request to the same client follows with another request to the same java servlet, java servlet requires information regarding the previous session to process request.
2. However, HTTP is stateless protocol, meaning that there is no holdover from the previous sessions.
3. Java servlet is capable of tracking sessions by using HttpSession API. It determines if the request is a continuation from an existing session or new session.
4. A java servlet calls a getSession() method of HttpServletRequest object, which returns a session object if it is a new session. The getSession() method requires one argument which is Boolean true. Returns session object.

Syntax:

```
HttpSession1=request.getSession(true);
```

JSP program

A JSP is a Java server page, is a server-side program that is similar in design and functionality to a Java servlet.

A JSP is called by a client to provide web services, the nature of which depends on client application.

A JSP is simpler to create than a Java servlet because a JSP is written in HTML rather than with the Java programming language. There are three methods that are automatically called when JSP is requested and when JSP terminates normally. These are the jspInit() method, the jspDestroy() method and service() method.

A jspInit() is identical to init() method of Java servlet. It is called when first time JSP is called.

A `jspDestroy()` is identical to `destroy()` method of servlet. The `destroy()` method is automatically called when jsp terminates normally. It is not called when jsp terminates abruptly. It is used for placing clean up codes.

1. Explain JSP tags (repeated question)

A jsp tag consists of a combination of HTML tags and JSP tags. JSP tags define java code that is to be executed before the output of jsp program is sent to the browser.

A jsp tag begins with a `<%`, which is followed by java code, and ends with `%>`. There is an XML version of jsp tag `<jsp:TagId></jsp:TagId>`

A jsp tag is embedded into the HTML component of a jsp program and are processed by Jsp virtual engine such as Tomcat.

Java code associated with jsp tags are executed and sent to browser. There are five types of jsp tags :

Comment tag: A comment tag opens with `<%--` and closes with `--%>` and is followed by a comment that usually describes the functionality of statements that follow a comment tag.

Declaration statement tags: A declaration statement tag opens with `<%!` and is followed by declaration statements that define the variables, object, and methods that are available to other component of jsp program.

Directive tags: A directive tag opens with `<%@` and commands the jsp virtual engine to perform a specific task, such as importing java package required by objects and methods used in a declaration statement. The directive tag closes with `%>`. There are commonly used in directives `import`, `include`, and `taglib`. The `import` tag is used to import java packages into the jsp program. `Include` is used for importing file. `Taglib` is used for including file.

Example:

```
<%@page import="import java.sql.*"; %>
```

```
<%@include file="keogh\books.html"%>
```

```
<%@taglib url="myTags.tld"%>
```

Expression tags: An expression tag opens with `<%=` and is used for an expression statement whose result replaces the expression tag when the jsp virtual engine resolves JSP tags. An expression tag closes with `%>`

Scriptlet tag: A scriptlet tag opens with `<%` and contains commonly used Java control statements and loops. And Scriptlet tag closes with `%>`

2. How variables and objects are declared in JSP program?

You can declare Java variables and objects that are used in a JSP program by using the same coding technique used to declare them in Java. JSP declaration statements must appear as JSP tag

Ex:

```
<html>

<head>

    <title>JspProgramming</title>

</head>

<body>

    <%!Intage=29;%><p>Your age is:<%=age%></p>

</body>

</html>
```

3. How methods are declared and used in JSP programs?

Methods are defined the same way as they are defined in a JSP program, except these are placed in JSP tag. Methods are declared in JSP declaration tag. The JSP calls method inside the expression tag.

Example:

```
<html>
<head>
    <title>Jsp programming</title>
</head>
<body>
    <%!intadd(intn1,intn2)
    {
        int c;
        c=a+b;
        return c;
```

```

    }

    %>

    <p>Addition of two numbers:<%=add(45,46)%></p>

</body></html>

```

4. Explain the control statements of JSP with example program:

1. One of the most powerful features available in JSP is the ability to change the flow of the program to truly create dynamic content for a web based on conditions received from the browser.
2. There are two control statements used to change the flow of program are “if” and “switch” statement, both of which are also used to direct the flow of a java program.

Ex:

```

<html>
<head>
    <title>JSP Programming</title>
</head>
<body>
    <%=int grade=26;%>
</body>
<%if(grade>69){%>
    <p>You Passed!</p>
<%} else{ %>
    <p>Better Luck Next Time</p>
<% } %>
</body>
</html>

```

5. Looping Statement of JSP

Jsp loops are nearly identical to loops that you use in your java program except you can repeat the html tags

There are three kinds of jsp loops that are commonly used in jsp program. Ex: for loop, while loop, do while.

Loop plays an important role in JSP database program. The following program is an example for “FOR LOOP”.

```

<html><head><title>For Loop Example</title></head>

<body>

```

```

<%
    for(int i=0;i<10;i++){
%>

<p>HelloWorld</p>

<%}%></body>

</html>

```

6. Explain Request String generated by browser. how to read a request string in jsp?

1. A browser generates request string whenever the submit button is selected. The user requests the string consists of URL and the query string.

Example of request string:

[http://www.jimkeogh.com/jsp/?fname="Bob"&lname="Smith"](http://www.jimkeogh.com/jsp/?fname=)

2. Your JSP program needs to parse the query string to extract the values of fields that are to be processed by your program. You can parse the query string by using the methods of the request object.
3. `getParameter(Name)` method used to parse a value of a specific field that are to be processed by your program
4. code to process the request string


```

<%! String FirstName = request.getParameter(fname);
      String LastName = request.getParameter(lname); %>

```
5. Copying from multivalued fields such as selection list field can be tricky. Multivalued fields are handled by using `getParameterValues()`
6. Other than request string URL has protocols, port no, the host name
7. **Write the JSP program to create and read a cookie called "EMPID" and that has value "AN2536".**

Cookie is a small piece of information created by a JSP program that is stored on the client's hard disk by the browser. Cookie is used to store various kinds of information, such as user preference. The cookies are created by using `Cookie` class.

Create cookie:

```

<html>
<head>
<title>creating cookie</title>
</head>
<body>
<%!String MyCookieName="EMPID";

```

```

        String UserValue="AN2536";
    %>
</body>
</html>
ReadingCookie:
<html>
<head>
<title>readingcookie</title>
</head>
<body>
<%StringmyCookieName="EMPID";
String myCookieValue;
StringCName,CValue; int
found=0;
Cookie[] cookies=request.getCoookies();for(
    int i=0;i<cookies.length;i++) {
        CName= cookies[i].getName();
        CValue =cookies[i].getValue();
        If(myCookieName.equals(CName)){
            found=1;
            myCookieValue=Cvalue;} }
        If(found== 1){ %>
            <p>CookieName =<%=CName%></p>
            <p>CookieValue=<%=CValue%></p>
            <%}%></body></html>

```

8. Explain stepstoconfiguretomcat.

- i. JspprogramprogramsareexecutedbyaJSPvirtualmachinethat run on a webserver.
- ii. WecandownloadandinstallJSPvirtualmachine.
- iii. InstallationSteps
 - ConnecttoJakarta.apache.org.
 - Select down load
 - SelectBinariestodisplaythebinaryDownloadPage.
 - Createa folderfrom therootdirectory calledtomcat.
 - Download latest release.
 - UnzipJakarta-tomcat.zip.
 - Theextractionprocesscreatesthefollowingfolderinthe tomcat directory: bin, conf, doc, lib, src, and webapps
 - Modify the batch file , which is located in the \tomcat\bin folder.ChangetheJAVA_HOMEvariableisassignedthepathewhere JDK is installed on your computer.
 - Opensdoswindowandtype\tomcat\bin\tomcattostart Tomcat.
 - Openyourbrowser.Enter<http://localhost:8080>.

Tomcat homepage is displayed on the screen verifying that Tomcat is running.

9. Explain how session objects are created.

AJSP database system is able to share information among JSP programs within a session by using a session object. Each time a session is created, a unique ID is assigned to the session and stored as a cookie.

A unique ID enables JSP program to track multiple sessions simultaneously while maintaining data integrity of each session. The session ID is used to prevent the intermingling of each session.

Create session Object:

```
<html><head><title>JspSession</title></head>

<body>

<%!String AtName="Product";

String AtValue="1234";

Session.setAttribute(AtName,AtValue);

%></body></html>
```

In session object we can store information about purchases as session attributes can be retrieved and modified each time the jsp program runs. `setAttribute()` used for creating attributes.

Read Session Object:

`getAttributeNames()` method returns names of all the attributes as Enumeration, the attributes are processed.

```
<html><head><title>JspSession</title></head>

<body><%!

Enumeration purchases=session.getAttributeNames();

String AtName=(String) attributeNames.nextElement();

String AtValue=(String)session.getAttribute(AtName);%>

<p>Attribute Name<%=AtName%></p>

<p>Attribute Value<%=AtValue%></p>

<%}%></body></html>
```

III Internal Questions

1. What are different types of JSP tags describe the JSP tags with example. (Dec 2011)
2. Define JSP. Explain two types of control statements with example. (Dec 2012)
3. Write the JSP program to create and read cookie called "EMPID" and that has value "AN2536" (Dec 2012)
4. What is RMI? Briefly explain working of RMI in java. (Dec 2012)
5. Department has set the grade for the subject Java as follows:

Above 90: A, 80- 89: B, 70-79 : C
Below 70 = fail. Shamenters his marks for the subject Java in the interface provided. Write a JSP program to accept the mark and display the grade. (Jun 2011)
6. Briefly explain the RMI in Java (June 2011)
7. Discuss different types of JSP tags (Jun 2011)
8. Write a program using RMI such as client and server program in which client sends hello message to server and replies to client (June 2012)
9. Develop simple java servlet that handle HTTP Request and Response (June 2012)
10. Explain javax.servlet packages (June 2012)
11. What is difference between JSP and Servlet? (June 2012)
12. What are the advantages of JSP program? (June 2010)
13. What are servlets? Briefly explain the application of servlets in web programming (Dec 2010)
14. Explain the life cycle of a servlet. (Dec 2010)
15. Write a java servlet which reads two parameters from the webpage, say value1 and value 2, which are type integer and find the sum of the two values and return back the result as a webpage. (Dec 2010)
16. Provide java syntax for the following: (Dec 2010)
 - i) Handling HTTP requests and responses
 - ii) Using cookies
 - iii) Session tracking
17. List out difference between CGI and servlet.
18. What is cookie list out methods defined by cookie. Write a servlet program to read cookie.
19. Write a JSP program to add cookie name "UserId" and value "JB007"
20. Describe in detail how Tomcat web server is configured in development of servlet life cycle.

