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## Contents

### Chapter 1
**Introduction**

1-1

### Chapter 2
**Java language elements**

2-1

Terms

- Identifier . 2-1
- Data type 2-2
  - Primitive data types 2-2
  - Composite data types 2-3
- Strings 2-3
- Arrays 2-4
- Variable 2-4
- Literal 2-4

Applying concepts . 2-5

- Declaring variables. 2-5
- Methods 2-5

### Chapter 3
**Java language structure**

3-1

Terms

- Keywords . 3-1
- Operators 3-2
- Comments 3-3
- Statements 3-5
- Code blocks 3-5
- Understanding scope 3-5

Applying concepts . 3-7

- Using operators. 3-7
  - Arithmetic operators 3-7
  - Logical operators 3-9
  - Assignment operators .3-10
  - Comparison operators .3-11
  - Bitwise operators .3-11
  - ?, the ternary operator .3-12
- Using methods .3-13
- Using arrays. 3-13
- Using constructors .3-14
- Member access .3-15
- Arrays .3-15

### Chapter 4
**Java language control**

4-1

Terms . 4-1

- String handling . 4-1
- Type casting and conversion . 4-2
- Return types and statements . 4-3
- Flow control statements . 4-3

Applying concepts . 4-4

- Escape sequences . 4-4
  - Strings . 4-4
- Determining access 4-5
- Handling methods 4-7
- Using type conversions 4-8
  - Implicit casting . 4-8
  - Explicit conversion . 4-8
- Flow control . 4-9
  - Loops 4-9
  - Loop control statements . 4-11
- Conditional statements . 4-12

### Chapter 5
**The Java class libraries**

5-1

Java 2 Platform editions . 5-1

- Standard Edition . 5-2
- Enterprise Edition . 5-2
- Micro Edition . 5-2

Java 2 Standard Edition packages . 5-3

- The Language package: java.lang . 5-4
- The Utility package: java.util . 5-5
- The I/O package: java.io . 5-5
- The Text package: java.text . 5-5
- The Math package: java.math . 5-6
- The AWT package: java.awt . 5-6
- The Swing package: javax.swing . 5-6
- The Java packages: javax . 5-7
- The Applet package: java.applet . 5-7
- The Beans package: java.beans . 5-8
- The Reflection package: java.lang.reflect . 5-9
- XML processing . 5-9
- The SQL package: java.sql . 5-10
- The RMI package: java.rmi . 5-10
- The Networking package: java.net . 5-11
- The Security package: java.security . 5-11
Java is an object-oriented programming language. Switching to object-oriented programming (OOP) from other programming paradigms can be difficult. Java focuses on creating objects (data structures or behaviors) that can be assessed and manipulated by the program.

Like other programming languages, Java provides support for reading and writing data to and from different input and output devices. Java uses processes that increase the efficiency of input/output, facilitate internationalization, and provide better support for non-UNIX platforms. Java looks over your program as it runs and automatically deallocates memory that is no longer required. This means you don’t have to keep track of memory pointers or manually deallocate memory. This feature means a program is less likely to crash and that memory can’t be intentionally misused.

This book is intended to serve programmers who use other languages as a general introduction to the Java programming language. The Borland Community site provides an annotated list of books on Java programming and related subjects at http://community.borland.com/books/java/0,1427,cl3,00.html. Examples of applications, APIs, and code snippets are at http://codecentral.borland.com/codecentral/ccweb.exe/home.
This book includes the following chapters:

  These three chapters define basic Java syntax and introduce you to object-oriented programming concepts. Each section is divided into two main parts: “Terms” and “Applying concepts.” “Terms” builds vocabulary, adding to concepts you already understand. “Applying concepts” demonstrates the use of concepts presented up to that point. Some concepts are revisited several times, at increasing levels of complexity.

- **Chapter 5, “The Java class libraries”**
  This chapter presents an overview of the Java 2 class libraries and the Java 2 Platform editions.

- **Chapter 6, “Object-oriented programming in Java”**
  This chapter introduces the object-oriented features of Java. You will create Java classes, instantiate objects, and access member variables in a short tutorial. You will learn to use inheritance to create new classes, use interfaces to add new capabilities to your classes, use polymorphism to make related classes respond in different ways to the same message, and use packages to group related classes together.

- **Chapter 7, “Threading techniques”**
  A thread is a single sequential flow of control within a program. One of the powerful aspects of the Java language is you can easily program multiple threads of execution to run concurrently within the same program. This chapter explains how to create multithreaded programs, and provides links to other resources with more in-depth information.

- **Chapter 8, “Serialization”**
  Serialization saves and restores a Java object’s state. This chapter describes how to serialize objects using Java. It describes the `Serializable` interface, how to write an object to disk, and how to read the object back into memory again.

- **Chapter 9, “An introduction to the Java Virtual Machine”**
  The JVM is the native software that allows a Java program to run on a particular machine. This chapter explains the JVM’s general structure and purpose. It discusses the major roles of the JVM, particularly in Java security. It goes into more detail about three specific security features: the Java verifier, the Security Manager, and the Class Loader.
• **Chapter 10, “Working with the Java Native Interface (JNI)”**
  This chapter explains how to invoke native methods in Java applications using the Java Native Method Interface (JNI). It begins by explaining how the JNI works, then discusses the `native` keyword and how any Java method can become a `native` method. Finally, it examines the JDK’s `javah` tool, which is used to generate C header files for Java classes.

• **Chapter 11, “Java language quick reference”**
  This chapter contains a partial list of class libraries and their main functions, a list of the Java2 platform editions, a complete list of Java keywords as of JDK 1.3, extensive tables of data type conversions between primitive and reference types, Java escape sequences, and extensive tables of operators and their actions.
This section provides you with foundational concepts about the elements of the Java programming language that will be used throughout this chapter. It assumes you understand general programming concepts, but have little or no experience with Java.

Terms

The following terms and concepts are discussed in this chapter:

- “Identifier” on page 2-1
- “Data type” on page 2-2
- “Strings” on page 2-3
- “Arrays” on page 2-4
- “Variable” on page 2-4
- “Literal” on page 2-4

Identifier

The identifier is the name you choose to call an element (such as a variable or a method). Java will accept any valid identifier, but for reasons of usability, it’s best to use a plain-language term that’s modified to meet the following requirements:

- It should start with a letter. Strictly speaking, it can begin with a Unicode currency symbol or an underscore (_), but some of these symbols may be used in imported files or internal processing. They are best avoided.
Terms

- After that, it may contain any alphanumeric characters (letters or numbers), underscores, or Unicode currency symbols (such as pound sterling or $), but no other special characters.
- It must be all one word (no spaces or hyphens).

Capitalization of an identifier depends on the kind of identifier it is. Java is case-sensitive, so be careful of capitalization. Correct capitalization styles are mentioned in context.

Data type

Data types classify the kind of information that certain Java programming elements can contain. Data types fall into two main categories:

- Primitive or basic
- Composite or reference

Naturally, different kinds of data types can hold different kinds and amounts of information. You can convert the data type of a variable to a different type, within limits: you cannot cast to or from the `boolean` type, and you cannot cast an object to an object of an unrelated class.

Java will prevent you from risking your data. This means it will easily let you convert a variable or object to a larger type, but will try to prevent you from converting it to a smaller type. When you change a data type with a larger capacity to one with a smaller capacity, you must use a type of statement called a type cast.

Primitive data types

Primitive, or basic, data types are classified as Boolean (specifying an on/off state), character (for single characters and Unicode characters), integer (for whole numbers), or floating-point (for decimal numbers). In code, primitive data types are all lower case.

The Boolean data type is called `boolean`, and takes one of two values: `true` or `false`. Java doesn’t store these values numerically, but uses the `boolean` data type to store these values.

The character data type is called `char` and takes single Unicode characters with values up to 16 bits long. In Java, Unicode characters (letters, special characters, and punctuation marks) are put between single quotation marks: `'b'`. Java’s Unicode default value is \u0000, ranging from \u0000 to \uFFFF.

Briefly, the Unicode numbering system takes numbers from 0 to 65535, but the numbers must be specified in hexadecimal notation, preceded by the escape sequence \u.
Not all special characters can be represented in this way. Java provides its own set of escape sequences, many of which can be found in the table of “Escape sequences” on page 11-19.

In Java, the size of primitive data types is absolute, rather than platform-dependent. This improves portability.

Different numeric data types take different kinds and sizes of numbers. Their names and capacities are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>Java’s default. A floating-point type that takes an 8-byte number to about fifteen decimal places.</td>
<td>+/- 9.00×10¹⁸</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>Most common option. An integer type that takes a 4-byte whole number.</td>
<td>+/- 2×10⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>An integer type that takes an 8-byte whole number.</td>
<td>+/- 9×10¹⁸</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>A floating-point type that takes a 4-byte number to about seven decimal places.</td>
<td>+/- 2×10⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>An integer type that takes a 2-byte whole number.</td>
<td>+/- 32768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>An integer type that takes a 1-byte whole number.</td>
<td>+/- 128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Composite data types**

Each of the data types above accepts one number, one character, or one state. Composite, or reference, data types consist of more than a single element. Composite data types are of two kinds: classes and arrays. Class and array names start with an upper case letter and are camel-capitalized (that is, the first letter of each natural word is capitalized within the name, for instance, NameOfClass).

A class is a complete and coherent piece of code that defines a logically unified set of objects and their behavior. For more information on classes, see Chapter 6, “Object-oriented programming in Java.”

Any class can be used as a data type once it has been created and imported into the program. Because the String class is the class most often used as a data type, we will focus on it in this chapter.

**Strings**

The String data type is actually the String class. The String class stores any sequence of alphanumeric characters, spaces, and normal punctuation (termed strings), enclosed in double quotes. Strings can contain any of the Unicode escape sequences and require \" to put double quotes inside of a string, but, generally, the String class itself tells the program how to interpret the characters correctly.
**Terms**

### Arrays

An array is a data structure containing a group of values of the same data type. For instance, an array can accept a group of `String` values, a group of `int` values, or a group of `boolean` values. As long as all of the values are of the same data type, they can go into the same array.

Arrays are characterized by a pair of square brackets. When you declare an array in Java, you can put the brackets either after the identifier or after the data type:

```java
int studentID[];
char[] grades;
```

Note that the array size is not specified. Declaring an array does not allocate memory for that array. In most other languages the array’s size must be included in its declaration, but in Java you don’t specify its size until you use it. Then the appropriate memory is allocated.

### Variable

A variable is a value that a programmer names and defines. Variables need an identifier and a value.

### Literal

A literal is the actual representation of a number, a character, a state, or a string. A literal represents the value of an identifier.

Alphanumeric literals include strings in double quotes, single `char` characters in single quotes, and `boolean` true/false values.

Integer literals may be stored as decimals, octals, or hexadecimals, but think about your syntax: any integer with a leading 0 (as in a date) will be interpreted as an octal. Floating point literals can only be expressed as decimals. They will be treated as `double` unless you specify the type.

For a more detailed explanation of literals and their capacities, see *The Java Handbook* by Patrick Naughton.
Applying concepts

The following sections demonstrate how to apply the terms and concepts introduced earlier in this chapter.

Declaring variables

The act of declaring a variable sets aside memory for the variable you declare. Declaring a variable requires only two things: a data type and an identifier, in that order. The data type tells the program how much memory to allocate. The identifier labels the allocated memory.

Declare the variable only once. Once you have declared the variable appropriately, just refer to its identifier in order to access that block of memory.

Variable declarations look like this:

```java
boolean isOn;
int studentsEnrolled;
float creditCardSales;
```

The data type `boolean` can be set to `true` or `false`. The identifier `isOn` is the name that the programmer has given to the memory allocated for this variable. The name `isOn` has meaning for the human reader as something that would logically accept true/false values.

The data type `int` tells you that you will be dealing with a whole number of less than ten digits. The identifier `studentsEnrolled` suggests what the number will signify. Since students are whole people, the appropriate data type calls for whole numbers.

The data type `float` is appropriate because money is generally represented in decimals. You know that money is involved because the programmer has usefully named this variable `creditCardSales`.

Methods

`Methods` in Java are equivalent to functions or subroutines in other languages. The method defines an action to be performed on an object.

Methods consist of a name and a pair of parentheses:

```java
getData()
```

Here, `getData` is the name and the parentheses tell the program that it is a method.
Applying concepts

If the method needs particular information in order to get its job done, what it needs goes inside the parentheses. What’s inside the parentheses is called the argument, or arg for short. In a method declaration, the arg must include a data type and an identifier:

```java
drawString(String remark)
```

Here, `drawString` is the name of the method, and `String remark` is the data type and variable name for the string that the method must draw.

You must tell the program what type of data the method will return, or if it will return anything at all. This is called the return type. You can make a method return data of any primitive type. If the method doesn’t need to return anything (as in most action-performing methods), the return type must be `void`.

Return type, name, and parentheses with any needed args give a very basic method declaration:

```java
String drawString(String remark);
```

Your method is probably more complex than that. Once you have typed and named it and told it what args it will need (if any), you must define it completely. You do this below the method name, nesting the body of the definition in a pair of curly braces. This gives a more complex method declaration:

```java
String drawString(String remark) { //Declares the method.
    String remark =
        "My, what big teeth you have!"; //Defines what's in the method.
} //Closes the method body.
```

Once you have defined the method, you only need to refer to it by its name and pass it any args it needs to do its job right then:

```java
drawString(remark);
```
This section provides you with foundational concepts about the structure of the Java programming language that will be used throughout this chapter. It assumes you understand general programming concepts, but have little or no experience with Java.

**Terms**

The following terms and concepts are discussed in this chapter:

- “Keywords” on page 3-1
- “Operators” on page 3-2
- “Comments” on page 3-3
- “Statements” on page 3-5
- “Code blocks” on page 3-5
- “Understanding scope” on page 3-5

**Keywords**

Keywords are reserved Java terms that modify other syntax elements. Keywords can define an object’s accessibility, a method’s flow, or a variable’s data type. Keywords can never be used as identifiers.

Many of Java’s keywords are borrowed from C/C++. Also, as in C/C++, keywords are always written in lowercase. Generally speaking, Java’s
keywords can be categorized according to their functions (examples are in parentheses):

- Data and return types and terms \((\text{int, void, return})\)
- Package, class, member, and interface \((\text{package, class, static})\)
- Access modifiers \((\text{public, private, protected})\)
- Loops and loop controls \((\text{if, switch, break})\)
- Exception handling \((\text{throw, try, finally})\)
- Reserved words — not used yet, but unavailable \((\text{goto, const})\)

Some keywords are discussed in context in these chapters. For a complete list of keywords and what they mean, see “Java keywords” on page 11-2.

**Operators**

Operators allow you to access, manipulate, relate, or refer to Java language elements, from variables to classes. Operators have properties of precedence and associativity. When several operators act on the same element (or operand), the operators’ precedence determines which operator will act first. When more than one operator has the same precedence, the rules of associativity apply. These rules are generally mathematical; for instance, operators will usually be used from left to right, and operator expressions inside parentheses will be evaluated before operator expressions outside parentheses.

Operators generally fall into six categories: assignment, arithmetic, logical, comparison, bitwise, and ternary.

**Assignment** means storing the value to the right of the \(=\) inside the variable to the left of it. You can either assign a value to a variable when you declare it or after you have declared it. The machine doesn’t care; you decide which way makes sense in your program and your practice:

```java
double bankBalance;           //Declaration
bankBalance = 100.35;         //Assignment
double bankBalance = 100.35;   //Declaration with assignment
```

In both cases, the value of 100.35 is stored inside the memory reserved by the declaration of the `bankBalance` variable.

Assignment operators allow you to assign values to variables. They also allow you to perform an operation on an expression and then assign the new value to the right-hand operand, using a single combined expression.

Arithmetic operators perform mathematical calculations on both integer and floating-point values. The usual mathematical signs apply: \(+\) adds, \(-\) subtracts, \(*\) multiplies, and \(/\) divides two numbers.
Logical, or Boolean, operators allow the programmer to group boolean expressions in a useful way, telling the program exactly how to determine a specific condition.

Comparison operators evaluate single expressions against other parts of the code. More complex comparisons (like string comparisons) are done programmatically.

Bitwise operators act on the individual 0s and 1s of binary digits. Java’s bitwise operators can preserve the sign of the original number; not all languages do.

The ternary operator, ?:, provides a shorthand way of writing a very simple if-then-else statement. The first expression is evaluated; if it’s true, the second expression is evaluated; if the second expression is false, the third expression is used.

Below is a partial list of other operators and their attributes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Operand</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>object member</td>
<td>Accesses a member of the object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(&lt;type&gt;)</td>
<td>data type</td>
<td>Casts a data type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Joins up strings (concatenator).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>Adds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>number</td>
<td>This is the unary² minus (reverses number sign).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>Subtracts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>This is the boolean NOT operator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>integer, boolean</td>
<td>This is both the bitwise (integer) and boolean AND operator. When doubled (&amp;&amp;), it is the boolean conditional AND.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>most elements with variables</td>
<td>Assigns an element to another element (for instance, a value to a variable, or a class to an instance). This can be combined with other operators to perform the other operation and assign the resulting value. For instance, += adds the left-hand value to the right, then assigns the new value to the right-hand side of the expression.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. It’s important to distinguish between operation and punctuation. Parentheses are used around args as punctuation. They are used around a data type in an operation that changes a variable’s data type to the one inside the parentheses.
2. A unary operator takes a single operand, a binary operator takes two operands, and a ternary operator takes three operands.

**Comments**

Commenting code is excellent programming practice. Good comments can help you scan your code more quickly, keep track of what you’ve done as you build a complex program, and remind you of things you
Terms

want to add or tune. You can use comments to hide parts of code that you want to save for special situations or keep out of the way while you work on something that might conflict. Comments can help you remember what you were doing when you return to one project after working on another, or when you come back from vacation. In a team development environment or whenever code is passed between programmers, comments can help others understand the purpose and associations of everything you comment on, without having to parse out every bit of it to be sure they understand.

Java uses three kinds of comments: single-line comments, multi-line comments, and Javadoc comments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Tag</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single-line</td>
<td>// ...</td>
<td>Suitable for brief remarks on the function or structure of a statement or expression. They require only an opening tag: as soon as you start a new line, you’re back into code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-line</td>
<td>/* ... */</td>
<td>Good for any comment that will cover more than one line, as when you want to go into some detail about what’s happening in the code or when you need to embed legal notices in the code. It requires both opening and closing tags.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Javadoc</td>
<td>/** ... */</td>
<td>This is a multi-line comment that the JDK's Javadoc utility can read and turn into HTML documentation. Javadoc has tags you can use to extend its functionality. It’s used to provide help for APIs, generate to do lists, and embed flags in code. It requires both opening and closing tags. To learn more about the Javadoc tool, go to Sun’s Javadoc page at <a href="http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.3/docs/tooldocs/javadoc/">http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.3/docs/tooldocs/javadoc/</a>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here are some examples:

// You can put as many lines of discussion or as many pages of boilerplate as you like between these two tags.

/* Note that, if you really get carried away, you can nest single-line comments //inside of the multi-line comments and the compiler will have no trouble with it at all. */

3-4 Getting Started with Java
/* Just don't try nesting / multi-line types of comments */ /* of any sort */ because that will generate a compiler error. */ /** Useful information about what the code does goes in Javadoc tags. Special tags such as @todo can be used here to take advantage of Javadoc's helpful features. */

Statements

A statement is a single command. One command can cover many lines of code, but the compiler reads the whole thing as one command. Individual (usually single-line) statements end in a semicolon (;), and group (multi-line) statements end in a closing curly brace (}). Multi-line statements are generally called code blocks.

By default, Java runs statements in the order in which they’re written, but Java allows forward references to terms that haven’t been defined yet.

Code blocks

A code block is everything between the curly braces, and includes the expression that introduces the curly brace part:

class GettingRounder {
    ...
}

Understanding scope

Scope rules determine where in a program a variable is recognized. Variables fall into two main scope categorizes:

- Global variables: Variables that are recognized across an entire class.
- Local variables: Variables that are recognized only in the code block where they were declared.
Scope rules are tightly related to code blocks. The one general scope rule is: a variable declared in a code block is visible only in that block and any blocks nested inside it. The following code illustrates this:

```java
class Scoping {
    int x = 0;
    void method1() {
        int y;
        y = x;  // This works. method1 can access y.
    }
    void method2() {
        int z = 1;
        z = y;  // This does not work:
        // y is defined outside method2's scope.
    }
}
```

This code declares a class called `scoping`, which has two methods: `method1()` and `method2()`. The class itself is considered the main code block, and the two methods are its nested blocks.

The `x` variable is declared in the main block, so it is visible (recognized by the compiler) in both `method1()` and `method2()`. Variables `y` and `z`, on the other hand, were declared in two independent, nested blocks; therefore, attempting to use `y` in `method2()` is illegal since `y` is not visible in that block.

**Note** A program that relies on global variables can be error-prone for two reasons:

1. Global variables are difficult to keep track of.
2. A change to a global variable in one part of the program can have an unexpected side effect in another part of the program.

Local variables are safer to use since they have a limited life span. For example, a variable declared inside a method can be accessed only from that method, so there is no danger of it being misused somewhere else in the program.

End every simple statement with a semicolon. Be sure every curly brace has a mate. Organize your curly braces in some consistent way (as in the examples above) so you can keep track of the pairs. Many Java IDEs (such as JBuilder) automatically nest the curly braces according to your settings.
Applying concepts

The following sections demonstrate how to apply the terms and concepts introduced earlier in this chapter.

Using operators

There are six basic kinds of operators (arithmetic, logical, assignment, comparison, bitwise, and ternary), and operators affect one, two, or three operands, making them unary, binary, or ternary operators. They have properties of precedence and associativity, which determine the order they're processed in.

Operators are assigned numbers that establish their precedence. The higher the number, the higher the order of precedence (that is, the more likely it is to be evaluated sooner than others). An operator of precedence 1 (the lowest) will be evaluated last, and an operator with a precedence of 15 (the highest) will be evaluated first.

Operators with the same precedence are normally evaluated from left to right.

Precedence is evaluated before associativity. For instance, the expression \( a + b - c * d \) will not be evaluated from left to right; multiplication has precedence over addition, so \( c * d \) will be evaluated first. Addition and subtraction have the same order of precedence, so associativity applies: \( a \) and \( b \) will be added first, then that sum will be subtracted from the product of \( c * d \).

It's good practice to use parentheses around mathematical expressions you want evaluated first, regardless of their precedence, for instance: \( (a + b) - (c * d) \). The program will evaluate this operation the same way, but for the human reader, this format is clearer.

Arithmetic operators

Java provides a full set of operators for mathematical calculations. Java, unlike some languages, can perform mathematical functions on both integer and floating-point values. You will probably find these operators familiar.
Applying concepts

Here are the arithmetic operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Prec.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>++/--</td>
<td>Auto-increment/decrement: Adds one to, or subtracts one from, its single operand. If the value of i is 4, ++i is 5. A pre-increment (++i) increments the value by one and assigns the new value to the original variable i. A post-increment (i++) increments the value but leaves the original variable i with the original value. See below for more information.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/−</td>
<td>Unary plus/minus: sets or changes the positive/negative value of a single number.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Multiplication.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>Division.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Modulus: Divides the first operand by the second operand and returns the remainder. See below for a brief mathematical review.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/−</td>
<td>Addition/subtraction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use pre- or post-increment/subtraction depending on when you want the new value to be assigned:

```java
int y = 3, x;  //1. variable declarations
int b = 9;    //2.
in a;         //3.
x = ++y;      //4. pre-increment
a = b--;      //5. post-decrement
```

In statement 4, pre-increment, the y variable’s value is incremented by 1, and then its new value (4) is assigned to x. Both x and y originally had a value of 3; now they both have the value of 4.

In statement 5, post-decrement, b’s current value (9) is assigned to a and then the value of b is decremented (to 8). b originally had a value of 9 and a had no value assigned; now a is 9 and b is 8.

The modulus operator requires an explanation to those who last studied math a long time ago. Remember that when you divide two numbers, they rarely divide evenly. What is left over after you have divided the numbers (without adding any new decimal places) is the remainder. For instance, 3 goes into 5 once, with 2 left over. The remainder (in this case, 2) is what the modulus operator evaluates for. Since remainders recur in a division cycle on a predictable basis (for instance, an hour is modulus 60), the modulus operator is particularly useful when you want to tell a program to repeat a process at specific intervals.
Logical operators

Logical (or Boolean) operators allow the programmer to group boolean expressions to determine certain conditions. These operators perform the standard Boolean operations AND, OR, NOT, and XOR.

The following table lists the logical operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Prec.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>Boolean NOT (unary)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>Evaluation AND (binary)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Evaluation XOR (binary)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation OR (binary)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>Conditional AND (binary)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conditional OR (binary)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The evaluation operators always evaluate both operands. The conditional operators, on the other hand, always evaluate the first operand, and if that determines the value of the whole expression, they don’t evaluate the second operand. For example:

```java
if ( !isHighPressure && (temperature1 > temperature2)) {
    //Statement 1: conditional
    ...
}

boolean1 = (x < y) || ( a > b);    //Statement 2: conditional

boolean2 = (10 > 5) & (5 > 1);    //Statement 3: evaluation
```

The first statement evaluates !isHighPressure first. If !isHighPressure is false (that is, if the pressure is high; note the logical double-negative of ! and false), the second operand, temperature1 > temperature2, doesn’t need to be evaluated. && only needs one false value in order to know what value to return.
Applying concepts

In the second statement, the value of `boolean1` will be `true` if `x` is less than `y`. If `x` is more than `y`, the second expression will be evaluated; if `a` is less than `b`, the value of `boolean1` will still be `true`.

In the third statement, however, the compiler will compute the values of both operands before assigning `true` or `false` to `boolean2`, because `&` is an evaluation operator, not a conditional one.

**Assignment operators**

You know that the basic assignment operator (`=`) lets you assign a value to a variable. With Java’s set of assignment operators, you can perform an operation on either operand and assign the new value to a variable in one step.

The following table lists assignment operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Prec.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Assign the value on the right to the variable on the left.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+=</td>
<td>Add the value on the right to the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-=</td>
<td>Subtract the value on the right from the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*=</td>
<td>Multiply the value on the right with the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>Divide the value on the right from the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first operator is familiar by now. The rest of the assignment operators perform an operation first, and then store the result of the operation in the operand on the left side of the expression. Here are some examples:

```java
int y = 2;
y *= 2;  //same as (y = y * 2)

boolean b1 = true, b2 = false;
b1 &= b2;  //same as (b1 = b1 & b2)
```
**Comparison operators**

Comparison operators allow you to compare one value to another.

The following table lists the comparison operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Prec.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>Less than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>Less than or equal to</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>Greater than or equal to</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==</td>
<td>Equal to</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!=</td>
<td>Not equal to</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The equality operator can be used to compare two object variables of the same type. In this case, the result of the comparison is true only if both variables refer to the same object. Here is a demonstration:

```java
m1 = new Mammal();
m2 = new Mammal();
boolean b1 = m1 == m2;  // b1 is false
m1 = m2;
boolean b2 = m1 == m2;  // b2 is true
```

The result of the first equality test is false because `m1` and `m2` refer to different objects (even though they are of the same type). The second comparison is true because both variables now represent the same object.

**Note** Most of the time, however, the `equals()` method in the `Object` class is used instead of the comparison operator. The comparing class must be subclassed from `Object` before objects of the comparing class can be compared using `equals()`.

**Bitwise operators**

Bitwise operators are of two types: shift operators and Boolean operators. The shift operators are used to shift the binary digits of an integer to the right or the left. Consider the following example (the `short` integer type is used instead of `int` for conciseness):

```java
short i = 13;  // i is 0000000000001101
i = i << 2;    // i is 0000000000011010
```

In the second line, the bitwise left shift operator shifted all the bits of `i` two positions to the left.

**Note** The shifting operation is different in Java than in C/C++ in how it is used with signed integers. A signed integer is one whose left-most bit is used to indicate the integer’s positive or negative sign: the bit is 1 if the integer is negative, 0 if positive. In Java, integers are always signed, whereas in C/C++ they are signed only by default. In most implementations of C/C++,
a bitwise shift operation does not preserve the integer’s sign; the sign bit would be shifted out. In Java, however, the shift operators preserve the sign bit (unless you use the >>> to perform an unsigned shift). This means that the sign bit is duplicated, then shifted. For example, right shifting 10010011 by 1 is 11001001.

The following table lists Java’s bitwise operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Prec.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>Bitwise NOT Inverts each bit of the operand, so each 0 becomes 1 and vice versa.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
<td>Signed left shift Shifts the bits of the left operand to the left, by the number of digits specified in the right operand, with 0’s shifted in from the right. High-order bits are lost.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;=</td>
<td>Signed right shift Shifts the bits of the left operand to the right, by the number of digits specified on the right. If the left operand is negative, 0’s are shifted in from the left; if it is positive, 1’s are shifted in. This preserves the original sign.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Zero-fill right shift Shifts right, but always fills in with 0’s.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>Bitwise AND Can be used with = to assign the value.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bitwise OR Can be used with = to assign the value.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Bitwise XOR Can be used with = to assign the value.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;=</td>
<td>Left-shift with assignment</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;=</td>
<td>Right-shift with assignment</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;=</td>
<td>Zero-fill right shift with assignment</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

?:, the ternary operator
?: is a ternary operator that Java borrowed from C. It provides a handy shortcut to create a very simple if-then-else kind of statement.

This is the syntax:

```
<expression 1> ? <expression 2> : <expression 3>;
```

expression 1 is evaluated first. If it is true, then expression 2 is evaluated. If expression 2 is false, expression 3 is used. For example:

```
int x = 3, y = 4, max;
max = (x > y) ? x : y;
```

Here, max is assigned the value of x or y, depending on which is greater.
Applying concepts

Using methods

You know that methods are what get things done. Methods cannot contain other methods, but they can contain variables and class references.

Here is a brief example to review. This method helps a music store with its inventory:

```java
//Declare the method: return type, name, args:
public int getTotalCDs(int numRockCDs, int numJazzCDs, in numPopCDs) {
    //Declare the variable totalCDs. The other three variables are
    //declared elsewhere:
    int totalCDs = numRockCDs + numJazzCDs + numPopCDs;
    //Make it do something useful. In this case, print this line on the screen:
    System.out.println("Total CDs in stock = " + totalCDs);
}
```

In Java, you can define more than one method with the same name, as long as the different methods require different arguments. For instance, both `public int getTotalCDs(int numRockCDs, int numJazzCDs, in numPopCDs)` and `public int getTotalCDs(int salesRetailCD, int salesWholesaleCD)` are legal in the same class. Java will recognize the different patterns of arguments (the method signatures) and apply the correct method when you make a call. Assigning the same name to different methods is called method overloading.

To access a method from other parts of a program, you must first create an instance of the class the method resides in, and then use that object to call the method:

```java
//Create an instance totalCD of the class Inventory:
Inventory totalCD = new Inventory();

//Access the getTotalCDs() method inside of Inventory, storing the value in total:
int total = totalCD.getTotalCDs(myNumRockCDs, myNumJazzCDs, myNumPopCDs);
```

Using arrays

Note that the size of an array is not part of its declaration. The memory an array requires is not actually allocated until you initialize the array.

To initialize the array (and allocate the needed memory), you must use the new operator as follows:

```java
int studentID[] = new int[20];            //Creates array of 20 int elements.
char[] grades = new char[20];             //Creates array of 20 char elements.
float[][] coordinates = new float[10][5]; //2-dimensional, 10x5 array of float elements.
```

**Note** In creating two-dimensional arrays, the first array number defines number of rows and the second array number defines number of columns.
Applying concepts

Java counts positions starting with 0. This means the elements of a 20-element array will be numbered from 0 to 19: the first element will be 0, the second will be 1, and so on. Be careful how you count when you’re working with arrays.

When an array is created, the value of all its elements is null or 0; values are assigned later.

Note The use of the `new` operator in Java is similar to that of the `malloc` command in C and the `new` operator in C++.

To initialize an array, specify the values of the array elements inside a set of curly braces. For multi-dimensional arrays, use nested curly braces. For example:

```java
char[] grades = {'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'F'};
float[][] coordinates = {{0.0, 0.1}, {0.2, 0.3}};
```

The first statement creates a char array called grades. It initializes the array’s elements with the values 'A' through 'F'. Notice that we did not have to use the `new` operator to create this array; by initializing the array, enough memory is automatically allocated for the array to hold all the initialized values. Therefore, the first statement creates a char array of 5 elements.

The second statement creates a two-dimensional float array called coordinates, whose size is 2 by 2. Basically, coordinates is an array consisting of two array elements: the array’s first row is initialized to 0.0 and 0.1, and the second row to 0.2 and 0.3.

Using constructors

A class is a full piece of code, enclosed in a pair of curly braces, that defines a logically coherent set of variables, attributes, and actions. A package is a logically associated set of classes.

Note that a class is just a set of instructions. It doesn’t do anything itself. It’s analogous to a recipe: you can make a cake from the right recipe, but the recipe is not the cake, it’s only the instructions for it. The cake is an object you have created from the instructions in the recipe. In Java, we would say that we have created an instance of cake from the recipe Cake.

The act of creating an instance of a class is called instantiating that object. You instantiate an object of a class.

To instantiate an object, use the assignment operator (=), the keyword `new`, and a special kind of method called a constructor. A call to a constructor is the name of the class being instantiated followed by a pair of parentheses. Although it looks like a method, it takes a class’s name; that’s why it’s capitalized:

```java
<ClassName> <instanceName> = new <Constructor()>;
```
Applying concepts

For example, to instantiate a new object of the \texttt{Geek} class and name the instance \texttt{thisProgrammer}:

\begin{verbatim}
Geek thisProgrammer = new Geek();
\end{verbatim}

A constructor sets up a new instance of a class: it initializes all the variables in that class, making them immediately available. It can also perform any start-up routines required by the object.

For example, when you need to drive your car, the first thing you do is open the door, climb in, put the clutch in, and start the engine. (After that, you can do all the things normally involved in driving, like getting into gear and using the accelerator.) The constructor handles the programmatic equivalents of the actions and objects involved in getting in and starting the car.

Once you have created an instance, you can use the instance name to access members of that class.

For more information on constructors, see “Case study: A simple OOP example” on page 6-4.

Member access

The access operator (\texttt{.}) is used to access members inside of an instantiated object. The basic syntax is:

\begin{verbatim}
<instanceName>.<memberName>
\end{verbatim}

Precise syntax of the member name depends on the kind of member. These can include variables (\texttt{<memberName>}), methods (\texttt{<memberName>()}), or subclasses (\texttt{<MemberName>}).

You can use this operation inside of other syntax elements wherever you need to access a member. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
setColor(Color.pink);
\end{verbatim}

This method needs a color to do its job. The programmer used an access operation as an arg to access the variable \texttt{pink} within the class \texttt{Color}.

Arrays

Array elements are accessed by subscripting, or \texttt{indexing}, the array variable. To index an array variable, follow the array variable’s name with the element’s number (index) surrounded by square brackets. \texttt{Arrays are always indexed starting from 0}. If you have an array with 9 elements, the first element is the 0 index and the last element is the 8 index. (Coding as if elements were numbered from 1 is a common mistake.)

In the case of multi-dimensional arrays, you must use an index for each dimension to access an element. The first index is the row and the second index is the column.
Applying concepts

For example:

firstElement = grades[0]; //firstElement = 'A'
fifthElement = grades[4]; //fifthElement = 'F'
row2Col1 = coordinates[1][0]; //row2Col1 = 0.2

The following snippet of code demonstrates one use of arrays. It creates an array of 5 int elements called intArray, then uses a for loop to store the integers 0 through 4 in the elements of the array:

```java
int[] intArray = new int[5];
int index;
for (index = 0; index < 5; index++) intArray[index] = index;
```

This code increments the index variable from 0 to 4, and at every pass, it stores its value in the element of intArray indexed by the variable index.
Chapter 4

Java language control

This section provides you with foundational concepts about control of the Java programming language that will be used throughout this chapter. It assumes you understand general programming concepts, but have little or no experience with Java.

Terms

The following terms and concepts are discussed in this chapter:

- "String handling" on page 4-1
- "Type casting and conversion" on page 4-2
- "Return types and statements" on page 4-3
- "Flow control statements" on page 4-3

String handling

The `String` class provides methods that allow you to get substrings or to index characters within a string. However, the value of a declared `String` can’t be changed. If you need to change the `String` value associated with that variable, you must point the variable to a new value:

```java
String text1 = new String("Good evening."); // Declares text1 and assigns a value.
text1 = "Hi, honey, I'm home!"; // Assigns a new value to text1.
```

Indexing allows you to point to a particular character in a string. Java counts each position in a string starting from 0, so that the first position is 0, the second position is 1, and so on. This gives the eighth position in a string an index of 7.
The StringBuffer class provides a workaround. It also offers several other ways to manipulate a string’s contents. The StringBuffer class stores your string in a buffer (a special area of memory) whose size you can explicitly control; this allows you to change the string as much as necessary before you have to declare a String and make the string permanent.

Generally, the String class is for string storage and the StringBuffer class is for string manipulation.

**Type casting and conversion**

Values of data types can be converted from one type to another. Class values can be converted from one class to another in the same class hierarchy. Note that conversion does not change the original type of that value, it only changes the compiler’s perception of it for that one operation.

Obvious logical restrictions apply. A widening conversion — from a smaller type to a larger type — is easy, but a narrowing conversion — converting from a larger type (for instance, double or Mammal) to a smaller type (for instance, float or Bear) — risks your data, unless you’re certain that your data will fit into the parameters of the new type. A narrowing conversion requires a special operation called a cast.

The following table shows widening conversions of primitive values. These won’t risk your data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Type</th>
<th>Converts to Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>short, char, int, long, float, double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>int, long, float, double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>int, long, float, double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>long, float, double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>float, double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>double</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To cast a data type, put the type you want to cast to in parentheses immediately before the variable you want to cast: (int)x. This is what it looks like in context, where x is the variable being cast, float is the original data type, int is the target data type, and y is the variable storing the new value:

```java
float x = 1.0f; // declaring x as a float
int y = (int)x; // casting x to an int named y
```

This assumes that the value of x would fit inside of int. Note that x’s decimal values are lost in the conversion. Java rounds decimals down to the nearest whole number.
Return types and statements

You know that a method declaration requires a return type, just as a variable declaration requires a data type. The return types are the same as the data types (int, boolean, String, and so on), with the exception of void.

void is a special return type. It signifies that the method doesn’t need to give anything back when it’s finished. It is most commonly used in action methods that are only required to do something, not to pass any information on.

All other return types require a return statement at the end of the method. You can use the return statement in a void method to leave the method at a certain point, but otherwise it’s needless.

A return statement consists of the word return and the string, data, variable name, or concatenation required:

```java
return numCD;
```

It’s common to use parentheses for concatenations:

```java
return ('Number of files: ' + numFiles);
```

Flow control statements

Flow control statements tell the program how to order and use the information that you give it. With flow control, you can reiterate statements, conditionalize statements, create recursive loops, and control loop behavior.

Flow control statements can be grouped into three kinds of statements: iteration statements such as for, while, and do-while, which create loops; selection statements such as switch, if, if-else, if-then-else, and if-else-if ladders, which conditionalize the use of statements; and the jump statements break, continue, and return, which shift control to another part of your program.

A special form of flow control is exception handling. Exception handling provides a structured means of catching runtime errors in your program and making them return meaningful information about themselves. You can also set the exception handler to perform certain actions before allowing the program to terminate.
Applying concepts

The following sections demonstrate how to apply the terms and concepts introduced earlier in this chapter.

Escape sequences

A special type of character literal is called an escape sequence. Like C/C++, Java uses escape sequences to represent special control characters and characters that cannot be printed. An escape sequence is represented by a backslash (\) followed by a character code. The following table summarizes these escape sequences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Escape Sequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Backslash</td>
<td>\</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backspace</td>
<td>\b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carriage return</td>
<td>\r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double quote</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form feed</td>
<td>\f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal tab</td>
<td>\t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New line</td>
<td>\n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octal character</td>
<td>\DDD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single quote</td>
<td>'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unicode character</td>
<td>\uHHHH</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-decimal numeric characters are escape sequences. An octal character is represented by three octal digits, and a Unicode character is represented by lowercase u followed by four hexadecimal digits. For example, the decimal number 57 is represented by the octal code \071 and the Unicode sequence \u0039.

The sample string in the following statement prints out the words Name and *Hildegaard von Bingen* separated by two tabs on one line, and prints out ID and '1098', also separated by two tabs, on the second line:

```java
String escapeDemo = new String("Name\t"+Hildegaard von Bingen+"\nID\t"+"1098");
```

Strings

The string of characters you specify in a String is a literal; the program will use exactly what you specify, without changing it in any way. However, the String class provides the means to chain strings together (called string concatenation), see and use what’s inside of strings (compare strings,
Applying concepts

search strings, or extract a substring from a string), and convert other kinds of data to strings. Some examples follow:

- Declare variables of the String type and assign values:

```java
String firstName = "Joseph, Elvira and Hans";
String modifier = " really ";
String tastes = "like chocolate.";
```

- Get a substring from a string, selecting from the eighth column to the end of the string:

```java
String sub = firstName.substring(8); // "Elvira and Hans"
```

- Compare part of the substring to another string, convert a string to capital letters, then concatenate it with other strings to get a return value:

```java
boolean bFirst = firstName.startsWith("Emine");  // Returns false in this case.
String caps = modifier.toUpperCase();             // Yields " REALLY 
return firstName + caps + tastes;                // Returns the line: Elvira and Hans
// REALLY like chocolate.
```

For more information on how to use the String class, see Sun’s API documentation at http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.4/docs/api/java/lang/String.html.

**StringBuffer**

If you want more control over your strings, use the StringBuffer class. This class is part of the java.lang package.

StringBuffer stores your strings in a buffer so that you don’t have to declare a permanent String until you need it. Some of the advantages to this are that you don’t have to redefine a String if its content changes. You can reserve a size for the buffer larger than what is already in there.

StringBuffer provides methods in addition to those in String that allow you to modify the contents of strings in new ways. For instance, StringBuffer’s setCharAt() method changes the character at the index specified in the first parameter, to the new value specified in the second parameter:

```java
StringBuffer word = new StringBuffer("yellow");
word.setCharAt(0, 'b');  //word is now "bellow"
```

**Determining access**

By default, classes are available to all of the members inside them, and the members within the class are available to each other. However, this access can be widely modified.
Access modifiers determine how visible a class’s or member’s information is to other members and classes. Access modifiers include:

- **public**: A public member is visible to members outside the public member’s scope, as long as the parent class is visible. A public class is visible to all other classes in all other packages.
- **private**: A private member’s access is limited to the member’s own class.
- **protected**: A protected member can be accessed by other members of its class and by members of classes in the same package (as long as the member’s parent class is accessible), but not from other packages. A protected class is available to other classes in the same package, but not to other packages.
- If no access modifier is declared, the member is available to all classes inside the parent package, but not outside the package.

Let’s look at this in context:

```java
class Waistline {
    private boolean invitationGiven = false;  // This is private.
    private int weight = 170                  // So is this.

    public void acceptInvitation() {          // This is public.
        invitationGiven = true;
    }

    // Class JunkFood is declared and object junkFood is instantiated elsewhere:
    public void eat(JunkFood junkFood) {
        /*This object only accepts more junkFood if it has an invitation
         * and if it is able to accept. Notice that isAcceptingFood()
         * checks to see if the object is too big to accept more food:
         */
        if (invitationGiven && isAcceptingFood()) {
            /*This object’s new weight will be whatever its current weight
             * is, plus the weight added by junkFood. Weight increments
             * as more junkFood is added:
             */
            weight += junkFood.getWeight();
        }
    }

    // Only the object knows if it’s accepting food:
    private boolean isAcceptingFood() {
        // This object will only accept food if there’s room:
        return !isTooBig() ? false : true;
    }
}
```

Let’s see how this might be implemented in a class for managing a person’s weight.

```java
class Waistline {
    private boolean invitationGiven = false;  // This is private.
    private int weight = 170                  // So is this.

    public void acceptInvitation() {          // This is public.
        invitationGiven = true;
    }

    // Class JunkFood is declared and object junkFood is instantiated elsewhere:
    public void eat(JunkFood junkFood) {
        /*This object only accepts more junkFood if it has an invitation
         * and if it is able to accept. Notice that isAcceptingFood()
         * checks to see if the object is too big to accept more food:
         */
        if (invitationGiven && isAcceptingFood()) {
            /*This object’s new weight will be whatever its current weight
             * is, plus the weight added by junkFood. Weight increments
             * as more junkFood is added:
             */
            weight += junkFood.getWeight();
        }
    }

    // Only the object knows if it’s accepting food:
    private boolean isAcceptingFood() {
        // This object will only accept food if there’s room:
        return !isTooBig() ? false : true;
    }
}
```
//Objects in the same package can see if this object is too big:
protected boolean isTooBig() {
  //It can accept food if its weight is less than 185:
  return (weight > 185) ? true : false;
}

Notice that isAcceptingFood() and invitationGiven are private. Only
members inside this class know if this object is capable of accepting food
or if it has an invitation.
isTooBig() is protected. Only classes inside this package can see if this
object’s weight exceeds its limit or not.
The only methods that are exposed to the outside are acceptInvitation() and eat(). Any class can perceive these methods.

Handling methods

The main() method deserves special attention. It is the point of entry into a
program (except an applet). It’s written like this:

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

There are specific variations allowed inside the parentheses, but the
general form is consistent.
The keyword static is important. A static method is always associated
with its entire class, rather than with any particular instance of that class.
(The keyword static can also be applied to classes. All of the members of a
static class are associated with the class’s entire parent class.) static
methods are also called class methods.

Since the main() method is the starting-point within the program, it must
be static in order to remain independent of the many objects the program
may generate from its parent class.

static’s class-wide association affects how you call a static method and
how you call other methods from within a static method. static members
can be called from other types of members by simply using the name of
the method, and static members can call each other the same way. You
don’t need to create an instance of the class in order to access a static
method within it.

To access non static members of a nonstatic class from within a static
method, you must instantiate the class of the member you want to reach
and use that instance with the access operator, just as you would for any
other method call.

Notice that the arg for the main() method is a String array, with other args
allowed. Remember that this method is where the compiler starts
Applying concepts

working. When you pass an arg from the command line, it’s passed as a string to the `String` array in the declaration of the `main()` method, and uses that arg to start running the program. When you pass a data type other than a `String`, it will still be received as a string. You must code into the body of the `main()` method the required conversion from `String` to the data type needed.

Using type conversions

Type conversion is the process of converting the data type of a variable for the duration of a specific operation. The standard form for a narrowing conversion is called a cast; it may risk your data.

Implicit casting

There are times when a cast is performed implicitly by the compiler. The following is an example:

```java
if (3 > 'a') {
    ...
}
```

In this case, the value of 'a' is converted to an integer value (the ASCII value of the letter a) before it is compared with the number 3.

Explicit conversion

Syntax for a widening cast is simple:

```java
<nameOfOldValue> = (<new type>) <nameOfNewValue>
```

Java doesn’t want you to make a narrowing conversion, so you must be more explicit when doing so:

```java
floatValue = (float)doubValue; // To float 'floatValue'
    // from double 'doubValue'.

longValue = (long)floatValue; // To long 'longValue'
    // from float 'floatValue'.
    // This is one of four possible constructions.
```

(Note that decimals are rounded down by default.) Be sure you thoroughly understand the syntax for the types you want to cast; this process can get messy.

For more information, see “Converting and casting data types” on page 11-5.
Flow control

Loops

Each statement in a program is executed once. However, it is sometimes necessary to execute statements several times until a condition is met. Java provides three ways to loop statements: while, do and for loops.

• The while loop

The while loop is used to create a block of code that will execute as long as a particular condition is met. This is the general syntax of the while loop:

```java
while ( <boolean condition statement> ) {
    <code to execute as long as that condition is true>
}
```

The loop first checks the condition. If the condition’s value is true, it executes the entire block. It then reevaluates the condition, and repeats this process until the condition becomes false. At that point, the loop stops executing. For instance, to print “Looping” 10 times:

```java
int x = 0;                              //Initiates x at 0.
while (x < 10){                         //Boolean condition statement.
    System.out.println("Looping");    //Prints "Looping" once.
    x++;                              //Increments x for the //next iteration.
}
```

When the loop first starts executing, it checks whether the value of x is less than 10. Since it is, the body of the loop is executed. In this case, the word “Looping” is printed on the screen, and then the value of x is incremented. This loop continues until the value of x equals 10, when the loop stops executing.

Unless you intend to write an infinite loop, make sure there is some point in the loop where the condition’s value becomes false and the loop terminates. You can also terminate a loop by using the return, continue, or break statements.
The do-while loop

The do-while loop is similar to the while loop, except that it evaluates the condition after the statements instead of before. The following code shows the previous while loop converted to a do loop:

```java
int x = 0;
do{
    System.out.println("Looping");
x++;
}while (x < 10);
```

The main difference between the two loop constructs is that the do-while loop is always going to execute at least once, but the while loop won’t execute at all if the initial condition is not met.

The for loop

The for loop is the most powerful loop construct. Here is the general syntax of a for loop:

```java
for ( <initialization> ; <boolean condition> ; <iteration> ) {
    <execution code>
}
```

The for loop consists of three parts: an initialization expression, a Boolean condition expression, and an iteration expression. The third expression usually updates the loop variable initialized in the first expression. Here is the for loop equivalent of the previous while loop:

```java
for (int x = 0; x < 10; x++){
    System.out.println("Looping");
}
```

This for loop and its equivalent while loop are very similar. For almost every for loop, there is an equivalent while loop.

The for loop is the most versatile loop construct, but still very efficient. For example, a while loop and a for loop can both add the numbers one through twenty, but a for loop can do it in one line less.

While:

```java
int x = 1, z = 0;
while (x <= 20) {
    z += x;
x++;
}
```

For:

```java
int z = 0;
for (int x=1; x <= 20; x++) {
    z += x;
}
```
Applying concepts

We can tweak the `for` loop to make the loop execute half as many times:

```java
for (int x=1, y=20, z=0; x<=10 && y>10; x++, y--) {
    z+= x+y;
}
```

Let’s break this loop up into its four main sections:

- **a** The initialization expression: `int x =1, y=20, z=0`
- **b** The Boolean condition: `x<=10 && y>10`
- **c** The iteration expression: `x++, y--`
- **d** The main body of executable code: `z+= x + y`

**Loop control statements**

These statements add control to the loop statements.

- **The break statement**

  The `break` statement will allow you to exit a loop structure before the test condition is met. Once a `break` statement is encountered, the loop immediately terminates, skipping any remaining code. For instance:

  ```java
  int x = 0;
  while (x < 10){
      System.out.println("Looping");
      x++;
      if (x == 5)
          break;
      else
          ... //do something else
  }
  
  In this example, the loop will stop executing when `x` equals 5.

- **The continue statement**

  The `continue` statement is used to skip the rest of the loop and resume execution at the next loop iteration.

  ```java
  for ( int x = 0 ; x < 10 ; x++){
      if(x == 5)
          continue; //go back to beginning of loop with x=6
      System.out.println("Looping");
  }
  
  This example will not print "Looping" if `x` is 5, but will continue to print for 6, 7, 8, and 9.
  ```
Conditional statements

Conditional statements are used to provide your code with decision-making capabilities. There are two conditional structures in Java: the if-else statement, and the switch statement.

- **The if-else statement**

  The syntax of an if-else statement is as follows:

  ```java
  if (<condition1>) {
      ... //code block 1
  } else if (<condition2>) {
      ... //code block 2
  } else {
      ... //code block 3
  }
  ```

  The if-else statement is typically made up of multiple blocks. Only one of the blocks will execute when the if-else statement executes, based on which of the conditions is true.

  The else-if and else blocks are optional. Also, the if-else statement is not restricted to three blocks: it can contain as many else-if blocks as needed.

  The following examples demonstrate the use of the if-else statement:

  ```java
  if (x % 2 == 0)  
    System.out.println("x is even");
  else
    System.out.println("x is odd");
  if (x == y)  
    System.out.println("x equals y");
  else if (x < y)  
    System.out.println("x is less than y");
  else  
    System.out.println("x is greater than y");
  ```

- **The switch statement**

  The switch statement is similar to the if-else statement. Here is the general syntax of the switch statement:

  ```java
  switch (<expression>){
    case <value1>: <codeBlock1>;  
      break;
    case <value2>: <codeBlock2>;  
      break;
    default    : <codeBlock3>;
  }
  ```
Applying concepts

Note the following:

- If there is only one statement in a code block, the block does not need to be enclosed in braces.
- The `default` code block corresponds to the `else` block in an `if-else` statement.
- The code blocks are executed based on the value of a variable or expression, not on a condition.
- The value of `<expression>` must be of an integer type, or a type that can be safely converted to `int`, such as `char`.
- The `case` values must be constant expressions that are of the same data type as the original expression.
- The `break` keyword is optional. It is used to end the execution of the `switch` statement once a code block executes. If it’s not used after `codeBlock1`, `then codeBlock2 executes right after codeBlock1 finishes executing`.
- If a code block should execute when `expression` is one of a number of values, each of the values must be specified like this: `case <value>:`.

Here is an example, where `c` is of type `char`:

```java
switch (c){
    case '1': case '3': case '5': case '7': case '9':
        System.out.println("c is an odd number");
        break;
    case '0': case '2': case '4': case '6': case '8':
        System.out.println("c is an even number");
        break;
    case ' ':
        System.out.println("c is a space");
        break;
    default :
        System.out.println("c is not a number or a space");
}
```

The `switch` will evaluate `c` and jump to the `case` statement whose value is equal to `c`. If none of the `case` values equal `c`, the `default` section will be executed. Notice how multiple values can be used for each block.

Handling exceptions

Exception handling provides a structured means of catching run-time errors in your program and making them return meaningful information about themselves. You can also set the exception handler to perform certain actions before allowing the program to terminate. Exception handling uses the keywords `try`, `catch`, and `finally`. A method can declare an exception by using the `throws` and `throw` keywords.
Applying concepts

In Java, an exception can be a subclass of the class `java.lang.Exception` or `java.lang.Error`. When a method declares that an exception has occurred, we say that it throws an exception. To catch an exception means to handle an exception.

Exceptions that are explicitly declared in the method declaration must be caught, or the code will not compile. Exceptions that are not explicitly declared in the method declaration could still halt your program when it runs, but it will compile. Note that good exception handling makes your code more robust.

To catch an exception, you enclose the code which might cause the exception in a try block, then enclose the code you want to use to handle the exception in a catch block. If there is important code (such as clean-up code) that you want to make sure will run even if an exception is thrown and the program gets shut down, enclose that code in a finally block at the end. Here is an example of how this works:

```java
try {
    // Some code that might throw an exception goes here.
} catch( Exception e ) {
    // Exception handling code goes here.
    // This next line outputs a stack trace of the exception:
    e.printStackTrace();
} finally {
    // Code in here is guaranteed to be executed,
    // whether or not an exception is thrown in the try block.
}
```

The try block should be used to enclose any code that might throw an exception that needs to be handled. If no exception is thrown, all of the code in the try block will execute. If, however, an exception is thrown, then the code in the try block stops executing at the point where the exception is thrown and the control flows to the catch block, where the exception is handled.

You can do whatever you need to do to handle the exception in one or more catch blocks. The simplest way to handle exceptions is to handle all of them in one catch block. To do this, the argument in parentheses after catch should indicate the class `Exception`, followed by a variable name to assign to this exception. This indicates that any exception which is an instance of `java.lang.Exception` or any of its subclasses will be caught; in other words, any exception.

If you need to write different exception handling code depending on the type of exception, you can use more than one catch block. In that case, instead of passing `Exception` as the type of exception in the catch argument, you indicate the class name of the specific type of exception you want to catch. This may be any subclass of `Exception`. Keep in mind that the catch
Applying concepts

block will always catch the indicated type of exception and any of its subclasses.

Code in the finally block is guaranteed to be executed, even if the try block code does not complete for some reason. For instance, the code in the try block might not complete if it throws an exception, but the code in the finally block will still execute. This makes the finally block a good place to put clean-up code.

If you know that a method you’re writing is going to be called by other code, you might leave it up to the calling code to handle the exception that your method might throw. In that case, you would simply declare that the method can throw an exception. Code that might throw an exception can use the throws keyword to declare an exception. This can be an alternative to catching the exception, since if a method declares that it throws an exception, it does not have to handle that exception.

Here is an example of using throws:

```java
public void myMethod() throws SomeException {
    ... // Code here might throw SomeException, or one of its subclasses.
    // SomeException is assumed to be a subclass of Exception.
}
```

You can also use the throw keyword to indicate that something has gone wrong. For instance, you might use this to throw an exception of your own when a user has entered invalid information and you want to show them an error message. To do this, you would use a statement like:

```java
throw new SomeException("invalid input");
```
Most programming languages rely on pre-built libraries of classes to support certain functionality. In the Java language, these groups of related classes called packages vary by Java edition. Each edition is used for specific purposes, such as applications, enterprise applications, and consumer products.

### Java 2 Platform editions

The Java 2 Platform is available in several editions used for various purposes. Because Java is a language that can run anywhere and on any platform, it is used in a variety of environments: Internet, intranets, consumer electronic products, and computer applications. Due to Java’s varied applications, it has been packaged in several editions: Java 2 Standard Edition (J2SE), Java 2 Enterprise Edition (J2EE), and Java 2 Micro Edition (J2ME). In some cases, as in the development of enterprise applications, a larger set of packages is used. In other cases, as in consumer electronic products, only a small portion of the language is used. Each edition contains a Java 2 Software Development Kit (SDK) used to develop applications and a Java 2 Runtime Environment (JRE) used to run applications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Java 2 Platform</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard Edition</td>
<td>J2SE</td>
<td>Contains classes that are the core of the Java language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Java 2 Platform editions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Java 2 Platform</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise Edition</td>
<td>J2EE</td>
<td>Contains J2SE classes and additional classes for developing enterprise applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Edition</td>
<td>J2ME</td>
<td>Contains a subset of J2SE classes and is used in consumer electronic products.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Standard Edition

The Java 2 Platform, Standard Edition (J2SE) provides developers with a feature-rich, stable, secure, cross-platform development environment. This Java edition supports such core features as database connectivity, user interface design, input/output, and network programming and includes the fundamental packages of the Java language.

**See also**

- “Java 2 Standard Edition packages” on page 5-3

### Enterprise Edition

The Java 2, Enterprise Edition (J2EE) provides the developer with tools to build and deploy multitier enterprise applications. J2EE includes the J2SE packages as well as additional packages which support Enterprise JavaBeans development, Java servlets, JavaServer Pages, XML, and flexible transaction control.

**See also**


### Micro Edition

The Java 2, Micro Edition (J2ME) is used in a variety of consumer electronic products, such as pagers, smart cards, cell phones, hand-held PDAs, and set-top boxes. While J2ME provides the same Java language...
advantages of code portability across platforms, the ability to run anywhere, and safe network delivery as J2SE and J2EE, it uses a smaller set of packages. J2ME includes a subset of the J2SE packages with an additional package specific to the Micro Edition, javax.microedition.io. In addition, J2ME applications are upwardly scalable to work with J2SE and J2EE.

See also


Java 2 Standard Edition packages

The Java 2 Platform, Standard Edition (J2SE) comes with a very impressive library that includes support for database connectivity, user interface design, input and output (I/O), and network programming. These libraries are organized into groups of related classes called packages. The following table briefly describes some of these packages.

Table 5.2  J2SE packages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Package</th>
<th>Package Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>java.lang</td>
<td>Classes that contain the main core of the Java language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>java.util</td>
<td>Support for utility data structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/O</td>
<td>java.io</td>
<td>Support for various types of input/output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>java.text</td>
<td>Localization support for handling text, dates, numbers, and messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>java.math</td>
<td>Classes for performing arbitrary-precision integer and floating-point arithmetic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWT</td>
<td>java.awt</td>
<td>User interface design and event-handling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swing</td>
<td>javax.swing</td>
<td>Classes for creating all-Java, lightweight components that behave similarly on all platforms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Javax</td>
<td>javax</td>
<td>Extensions to the Java language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applet</td>
<td>java.applet</td>
<td>Classes for creating applets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>java.beans</td>
<td>Classes for developing JavaBeans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>java.lang.reflect</td>
<td>Classes used to obtain runtime class information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Java 2 Standard Edition packages

#### Table 5.2  J2SE packages (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Package</th>
<th>Package Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XML</td>
<td>org.w3c.dom</td>
<td>Java API for XML processing (JAXP) includes the basic facilities for working with XML documents: Document Object Model (DOM), Simple API for XML Parsing (SAX), XSL Transformations (XSLT), and a pluggability layer for parsers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>org.xml.sax</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>javax.xml.transform</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>javax.xml.parsers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQL</td>
<td>java.sql</td>
<td>Support for accessing and processing data in databases using the JDBC API.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMI</td>
<td>java.rmi</td>
<td>Support for distributed programming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>java.net</td>
<td>Classes that support development of networking applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>java.security</td>
<td>Support for cryptographic security.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note**  
Java packages vary by Java 2 Platform edition. The Java 2 Software Development Kit (SDK) is available in several editions used for various purposes: Standard Edition (J2SE), Enterprise Edition (J2EE), and Micro Edition (J2ME).

**See also**

- "Java 2 Platform editions" on page 5-1
- “Packages” in “Managing paths” in *Building Applications with JBuilder*

### The Language package: java.lang

One of the most important packages in the Java class library is the `java.lang` package. This package, which is automatically imported into every Java program, contains the language’s main support classes which are fundamental to the design of the Java programming language.

**See also**

- `java.lang` in the JDK API Documentation
- “Key java.lang classes” on page 5-12
The Utility package: java.util

The java.util package contains various utility classes and interfaces that are crucial for Java development. Classes in this package support the collections framework and date and time facilities.

See also
- java.util in the JDK API Documentation
- “Key java.util classes” on page 5-18

The I/O package: java.io

The java.io package provides support for reading and writing data to and from different devices. Java also supports input and output of character streams. In addition, the File class in the java.io package uses an abstract, system-independent representation of file and directory pathnames for better support of non-UNIX platforms. The classes in this package are divided into the following groups: input stream classes, output stream classes, file classes, and the StreamTokenizer class.

See also
- java.io in the JDK API Documentation
- “Key java.io classes” on page 5-21

The Text package: java.text

The java.text package provides classes and interfaces that provide localization support for handling text, dates, numbers, and messages. Classes in this package, such as NumberFormat, DateFormat, and Collator, can format numbers, date and time, and strings in a locale-specific way. Other classes support parsing, searching, and sorting of strings.

See also
- java.text in the JDK API Documentation
- “Internationalizing programs with JBuilder” in Building Applications with JBuilder
The Math package: java.math

The java.math package, not to be confused with the java.lang.Math class, provides classes for performing arbitrary-precision integer arithmetic (BigInteger) and arbitrary-precision floating point arithmetic (BigDecimal).

The BigInteger class provides support for representing arbitrarily large integers.

The BigDecimal class is used for calculations requiring decimal support, such as monetary calculations, and also provides operations for basic arithmetic, scale manipulation, comparison, format conversion, and hashing.

See also
- java.math in the JDK API Documentation
- java.lang.Math class in the JDK API Documentation
- “Arbitrary-Precision Math” in the JDK Guide to Features

The AWT package: java.awt

The Abstract Window Toolkit (AWT) package, part of the Java Foundation Classes (JFC), provides support for Graphical User Interface (GUI) programming and includes such features as user interface components, event-handling models, layout managers, graphics and imaging tools, and data transfer classes for cut and paste.

See also
- java.awt in the JDK API Documentation
- “Abstract Window Toolkit (AWT)” in the JDK Guide to Features
- “AWT Fundamentals” at http://developer.java.sun.com/developer/onlineTraining/awt/
- “Tutorial: Building an applet” in Introducing JBuilder
- Designing Applications with JBuilder

The Swing package: javax.swing

The javax.swing package provides a set of “lightweight” (all-Java language) components that automatically have the look and feel of any OS platform. Swing components are 100% Pure Java versions of the existing AWT component set, such as button, scrollbar, and label, with an additional set of components, such as tree view, table, and tabbed pane.
Note javax packages are extensions to the core Java language.

See also
- javax.swing in the JDK API Documentation
- “Java Foundation Classes (JFC)” at http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/post1.0/preview/jfc.html
- Related chapters in Designing Applications with JBuilder:
  - “Introduction”
  - “Managing the component palette”
  - “Using layout managers”
  - “Using nested panels and layouts”
  - “Tutorial: Building a Java text editor”

The Javax packages: javax

The many javax packages are extensions to the core Java language. These include such packages as javax.swing, javax.sound, javax.rmi, javax.transactions, and javax.naming. Developers can also author their own custom javax packages.

See also
- javax.accessibility in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.naming in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.rmi in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.sound.midi in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.sound.sampled in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.swing in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.transaction in the JDK API Documentation

The Applet package: java.applet

The java.applet package provides the classes for creating applets, as well as classes that applets use to communicate with its applet context, usually a web browser. Applets are Java programs that are not intended to run on their own, but rather to be embedded inside another application. Commonly, applets are stored on an Internet/intranet server, called by an
HTML page, and downloaded to multiple client platforms where they are run in a Java Virtual Machine (JVM) provided by the browser on the client machine. This delivery and execution is done under the supervision of a Security Manager, which can prevent applets from performing such tasks as formatting the hard drive or opening connections to “untrusted” machines.

Due to security issues and browser JDK compatibility, it is important to fully understand applets before developing them. Applets do not have the full functionality of Java programs for security reasons. Applets also rely on the browser’s JDK version which may not be current. Many of the browsers at the time of this writing do not fully support the most recent JDK. For example, most browsers include an older JDK version that does not support Swing. Therefore, applets using Swing components do not run in these browsers.

See also

- java.applet in the JDK API Documentation
- Chapter 9, “An introduction to the Java Virtual Machine”
- “Working with applets” in the Web Application Developer’s Guide
- “Tutorial: Building an applet” in Introducing JBuilder

The Beans package: java.beans

The java.beans package contains classes related to JavaBeans development. JavaBeans, Java classes that serve as self-contained, reusable components, extend the Java platform’s “write once, run anywhere” capability to reusable component development. These reusable pieces of code can be manipulated and updated with minimal impact on the testing of the program.

See also

- java.beans in the JDK API Documentation
- “Creating JavaBeans with BeansExpress” in Building Applications with JBuilder
The Reflection package: java.lang.reflect

The java.lang.reflect package provides classes and interfaces for examining and manipulating classes at runtime. Reflection allows access to information about fields and methods and constructors of loaded classes. The Java code can use this reflected information to operate on counterparts of objects.

Classes in this package provide applications such as debuggers, interpreters, object inspectors, class browsers, and services such as Object Serialization and JavaBeans access to public members or members declared by a class.

See also

- java.lang.reflect in the JDK API Documentation
- “Reflection” in the JDK Guide to Features

XML processing

Java, in conjunction with XML (Extensible Markup Language), provides a portable, flexible framework for creating, exchanging, and manipulating information between applications and over the Internet, as well as transforming XML documents into other document types. The Java API for XML processing (JAXP) includes the basic facilities for working with XML documents: Document Object Model (DOM), Simple API for XML Parsing (SAX), XSL Transformations (XSLT), and a pluggability layer for parsers.

See also

- org.w3c.dom in the JDK API Documentation
- org.xml.sax in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.xml.transform in the JDK API Documentation
- javax.xml.parsers in the JDK API Documentation
- “XML in the Java 2 Platform” in the JDK Guide to Features
The SQL package: java.sql

The java.sql package contains classes that provide the API for accessing and processing data in a data source. The java.sql package is also referred to as the JDBC 2.0 (Java Database Connectivity) API. This API includes a framework for dynamically installing different drivers to access different types of data sources. JDBC is an industry standard that allows the Java platform to connect with almost any database, even those written in other languages such as Structured Query Language (SQL).

The java.sql package includes classes, interfaces, and methods for making database connections, sending SQL statements to a database, retrieving and updating query results, mapping SQL values, providing information about a database, throwing exceptions, and providing security.

See also

- java.sql in the JDK API Documentation
- JBuilder’s “SQL reference” in the JDataStore Developer’s Guide

The RMI package: java.rmi

The java.rmi package provides classes for Java Remote Method Invocation (RMI). Remote Method Invocation (RMI) enables you to create distributed Java-to-Java applications, in which the methods of remote Java objects can be invoked from other Java virtual machines, possibly on different hosts. A Java program can make a call on a remote object once it obtains a reference to the remote object, either by looking up the remote object in the bootstrap naming service provided by RMI or by receiving the reference as an argument or a return value. A client can call a remote object in a server, and that server can also be a client of other remote objects. RMI uses object serialization to marshal and unmarshal parameters and does not truncate types, supporting true object-oriented polymorphism.

A sample RMI application, SimpleRMI.jpr, is installed in the samples/Rmi directory of your JBuilder installation. See the HTML project file, SimpleRMI.html, for a description of the sample application. (This sample is a feature of JBuilder SE and Enterprise.)

An example of writing a distributed database application using RMI and DataSetData is located in the samples/DataExpress/StreamableDataSets directory of your JBuilder installation. This example includes a server application that will take data from the employee sample table and send the data via RMI in the form of DataSetData. A client application
communicates with the server through a custom Provider and a custom Resolver, and displays the data in a grid. (This sample is a feature of JBuilder Enterprise.)

See also

- java.rmi in the JDK API Documentation
- “Java Remote Method Invocation (RMI)” in the JDK Guide to Features

The Networking package: java.net

The java.net package contains classes for developing networking applications. Using the socket classes, you can communicate with any server on the Internet or implement your own Internet server. Classes are also provided for data retrieval from the Internet.

See also

- java.net in the JDK API Documentation
- “Networking Features” in the JDK Guide to Features

The Security package: java.security

The Security package, java.security, defines classes and interfaces for the security framework. There are two category of classes:

- Classes that implement access control and prevent untrusted code from performing sensitive operations.
- Authentication classes that implement message digests and digital signatures and authenticate classes and other objects.

Using these classes, developers can protect access to applets and Java code, including applications, beans, and servlets, by creating permissions and security policies. When code is loaded, it is assigned permissions based on the security policy. Permissions specify which resources can be accessed, such as read/write or connection access. The policy, which controls which permissions are available, is usually initialized from an external configurable policy file which defines the code’s security policy. The use of permissions and policy allow for flexible, configurable, and extensible access control to the code.
### The Object class: java.lang.Object

The **Object** class in the java.lang package is the parent class or superclass of all Java classes. This simply means that the **Object** class is the root of the class hierarchy and that all Java classes are derived from it. The **Object** class itself contains a constructor and several methods of importance, including `clone()`, `equals()`, and `toString()`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clone</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Creates and returns a copy of an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equals</td>
<td>(Object obj)</td>
<td>Indicates whether another object is “equal to” the specified object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toString</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns a string representation of an object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An object that uses the `clone()` method simply makes a copy of itself. When a copy is made, the new memory is allocated for the clone first, then contents of the original object is copied into the clone object. In the following example where the `Document` class implements the `Cloneable` interface, a copy of the `Document` class containing a `text` and `author` property is created using the `clone()` method. An object is not seen as cloneable unless it implements the `Cloneable` interface.

```java
Document document1 = new Document("docText.txt", "Joe Smith");
Document document2 = document1.clone();
```

The `equals()` method compares two objects of the same type for equality by comparing the properties of both objects. It simply returns a boolean value depending on the results of the object that calls it and the object that is passed to it. For instance, if `equals()` is called by an object that passes it an object that is identical, the `equals()` method returns a true value.

The `toString()` method returns a string representing the object. For this method to return proper information about different types of objects, the object’s class must override it.

**See also**

- `java.lang.Object` in the JDK API Documentation
Type wrapper classes

Due to performance reasons, primitive data types are not used as objects in Java. These primitive data types include numbers, booleans, and characters.

However, some Java classes and methods require primitive data types to be objects. Java uses wrapper classes to wrap or encapsulate the primitive type as an object as shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primitive type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Wrapper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>True or False (1 Bit)</td>
<td>java.lang.Boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>-128 to 127 (8-bit signed integer)</td>
<td>java.lang.Byte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>Unicode character (16-bit)</td>
<td>java.lang.Character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>+1.79769313486231579E+308 to +4.940654841246544E-324 (64-bit)</td>
<td>java.lang.Double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>+3.40282347E+28 to +1.40239846E-45 (32-bit)</td>
<td>java.lang.Float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>-2147483648 to 2147483647 (32-bit signed integer)</td>
<td>java.lang.Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807 (64-bit signed integer)</td>
<td>java.lang.Long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>-32768 to 32767 (16-bit signed integer)</td>
<td>java.lang.Short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void</td>
<td>An uninstantiable placeholder class to hold a reference to the Class object representing the primitive Java type void.</td>
<td>java.lang.Void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The constructor for the wrapper classes, such as Character(char value), simply takes an argument of the class type it is wrapping. For example, the following code demonstrates how a Character wrapper class is constructed.

```java
Character charWrapper = new Character('T');
```

Although each of these classes contains its own methods, several methods are standard throughout each object. These methods include methods that return a primitive type, `toString()`, and `equals()`.

Each wrapper class has a method, such as `charValue()`, that returns the primitive type of the wrapper class. The following code demonstrates this using the `charWrapper` object. Notice that `charPrimitive` is a primitive data type (declared as a `char`). Using this method, primitive data types can be assigned to type wrappers.

```java
char charPrimitive = charWrapper.charValue();
```

The `toString()` and `equals()` methods are used similarly as in the `Object` class.
The Math class: java.lang.Math

The Math class in the java.lang package, not to be confused with the java.math package, provides useful methods that implement common math functions. This class is not instantiated and is declared final, so it cannot be subclassed. Some of the methods included in this class are: sin(), cos(), exp(), log(), max(), min(), random(), sqrt(), and tan(). The following are several examples of these methods.

```java
double d1 = Math.sin(45);
double d2 = 23.4;
double d3 = Math.exp(d2);
double d4 = Math.log(d3);
double d5 = Math.max(d2, Math.pow(d1, 10));
```

Some of these methods are overloaded to accept and return different data types.

The Math class also declares the constants PI and E.

**Note** The java.math package, unlike java.lang.Math, provides support classes for working with arbitrarily large numbers.

See also
- java.lang.Math in the JDK API Documentation
- java.math in the JDK API Documentation

The String class: java.lang.String

The String class in the java.lang package is used to represent character strings. Unlike C/C++, Java does not use character arrays to represent strings. Strings are constant, meaning their values cannot change once they are created. The String class is typically constructed when the Java compiler encounters a string in quotes. However, strings can be constructed several ways. The following table lists several of the String’s constructors and the arguments they accept.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Initializes a new String object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>(String value)</td>
<td>Initializes a new String object with the contents of the String argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>(char[] value)</td>
<td>Creates a new String that contains the array in the same sequence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The `String` class contains several important methods that are essential when dealing with strings. These methods are used to edit, compare, and analyze strings. Because strings are immutable and cannot be changed, none of these methods can change the character sequence. The `StringBuffer` class, discussed in the next section, provides methods for changing strings.

The following table lists some of the more crucial methods and declares what they accept and return.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Returns</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>length</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>Returns the number of characters in the string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>charAt</code></td>
<td>(int index)</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>Returns the character at the specified index of the string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>compareTo</code></td>
<td>(String value)</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>Compares a string to the argument string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>indexOf</code></td>
<td>(int ch)</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>Returns the index location of the first occurrence of the specified character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>substring</code></td>
<td>(int beginIndex, int endIndex)</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns a new string that is a substring of the string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>concat</code></td>
<td>(String str)</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Concatenates the specified String to the end of this string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>toLowerCase</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns the string in lowercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>toUpperCase</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns the string in uppercase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf</code></td>
<td>(Object obj)</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns the string representation of the Object argument.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A very efficient feature associated with many of these methods is that they are overloaded for more flexibility. The following demonstrates how the `String` class and some of its methods can be used.

```java
String s1 = new String("Hello World.");
char cArray[] = {'J', 'B', 'u', 'i', 'l', 'd', 'e', 'r'};
String s2 = new String(cArray);    //s2 = "JBuilder"
int i = s1.length();              //i = 12
char c = s1.charAt(6);            //c = 'W'
i = s1.indexOf('e');              //i = 1 [index of 'e' in "Hello World."]
```
The StringBuffer class: java.lang.StringBuffer

The StringBuffer class in the java.lang package, like the String class, represents a sequence of characters. Unlike a string, the contents of a StringBuffer can be modified. Using various StringBuffer methods, the length and content of the string buffer can be changed. Additionally, the StringBuffer object can grow in length when necessary. Finally, after modifying the StringBuffer, you can create a new string representing the contents in the StringBuffer.

The StringBuffer class has several constructors shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>StringBuffer ()</td>
<td></td>
<td>Creates an empty string buffer which can hold up to 16 characters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StringBuffer (int length)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Creates an empty string buffer which can hold the number of characters specified by length.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StringBuffer (String str)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Creates a string buffer which contains a copy of the String str.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are several important methods that separate the StringBuffer class from the String class: capacity(), setLength(), setCharAt(), append(), insert() and toString(). The append() and insert() methods are overloaded to accept various data types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>setLength</td>
<td>[int newLength]</td>
<td>Sets the length of the StringBuffer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the amount of memory allocated to the StringBuffer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setCharAt</td>
<td>[int index, char ch]</td>
<td>Sets the character at the specified index of the StringBuffer to ch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append</td>
<td>[char c]</td>
<td>Adds the string representation of the data type in the argument to the StringBuffer. This method is overloaded to accept various data types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insert</td>
<td>[int offset, char c]</td>
<td>Inserts the string representation of the data type in the argument into this StringBuffer. This method is overloaded to accept various data types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toString</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Converts the StringBuffer to a String.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The `capacity()` method, which returns the amount of memory allocated for
the `StringBuffer`, can return a larger value than the `length()` method.
Memory allocated for a `StringBuffer` can be set with the `StringBuffer(int
length)` constructor.

The following code demonstrates some of the methods associated with the
`StringBuffer` class.

```java
StringBuffer s1 = new StringBuffer(10);
int c = s1.capacity();        // c = 10
int len = s1.length();        // len = 0
s1.append("Bor");            // s1 = "Bor"
s1.append("land");           // s1 = "Borland"
c = s1.capacity();            // c = 10
len = s1.length();            // len = 7
s1.setLength(2);              // s1 = "Bo"

StringBuffer s2 = new StringBuffer("Hello World");
s2.insert(3, "l");            // s2 = "Hello World"
```

See also

- `java.lang.StringBuffer` in the JDK API Documentation

**The System class: java.lang.System**

The `System` class in the `java.lang` package contains several useful class
fields and methods for accessing platform-independent system resources and
information, copying arrays, loading files and libraries, and getting
and setting properties. For example, the `currentTimeMillis()` method
provides access to the current system time. It’s also possible to retrieve
and change system resources using the `getProperty` and `setProperty`
methods. Another convenient feature that the `System` class provides is the
gc() method, which requests that the garbage collector perform a
thorough garbage collection; and finally, the `System` class allows
developers to load dynamic link libraries with the `loadLibrary()` method.

The `System` class is declared as a `final` class and can’t be subclassed. It also
declares its methods and variables as `static`. This simply allows them to
be available without the class being instantiated.

The `System` class also declares several variables which are used to interact
with the system. These variables include `in`, `out`, and `err`. The `in` variable
represents the system’s standard input stream, whereas the `out` variable
represents the standard output stream. The `err` variable is the standard
error stream. Streams are discussed in more detail in the I/O package section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arrayCopy</td>
<td>arraycopy(Object src, int src_position, Object dst, int dst_position, int length)</td>
<td>Copies the specified source array, beginning at the specified position, to the specified position of the destination array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>currentTimeMillis</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the current time in milliseconds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loadLibrary</td>
<td>(String libname)</td>
<td>Loads the system library specified by the argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getProperty</td>
<td>(String key)</td>
<td>Gets the system property indicated by the key.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gc</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Runs the garbage collector which deletes objects that are no longer in use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>load</td>
<td>(String filename)</td>
<td>Loads a code file from the local file system as a dynamic library.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exit</td>
<td>(int status)</td>
<td>Exits the current program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setProperty</td>
<td>(String key, String value)</td>
<td>Sets the system property specified by the key.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also

- [java.lang.System](#) in the JDK API Documentation

**Key java.util classes**

**The Enumeration interface: java.util.Enumeration**

The `Enumeration` interface in the `java.util` package is used to implement a class capable of enumerating values. A class that implements the `Enumeration` interface can facilitate the traversal of data structures.

The methods defined in the `Enumeration` interface allow the `Enumeration` object to continuously retrieve all the elements from a set of values, one by one. There are only two methods declared in the `Enumeration` interface, `hasMoreElements()` and `nextElement()`.

The `hasMoreElements()` method returns true if more elements remain in the data structure. The `nextElement()` method is used to return the next value in the structure being enumerated.
The following example creates a class called CanEnumerate, which implements the Enumeration interface. An instance of that class is used to print all the elements of the Vector object, v.

```java
CanEnumerate enum = v.elements();
while (enum.hasMoreElements()) {
    System.out.println(enum.nextElement());
}
```

There is one limitation on an Enumeration object; it can only be used once. There is no method defined in the interface that allows the Enumeration object to backtrack to previous elements. So, once it enumerates the entire set of values, it’s consumed.

See also
- java.util.Enumeration in the JDK API Documentation

The Vector class: java.util.Vector

Java does not include support for all dynamic data structures; it only defines a Stack class. However, the Vector class in the java.util package provides an easy way to implement dynamic data structures.

The Vector class is efficient, because it allocates more memory than needed when adding new elements. Therefore, a Vector’s capacity is usually greater than its actual size. The capacityIncrement argument in the fourth constructor, shown in the following table, defines a Vector’s capacity increase whenever an element is added to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vector ()</td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs an empty vector with an array size of 10 and a capacity increment of zero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vector (Collection c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs a vector containing the elements of the collection, in the order they are returned by the collection’s iterator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vector (int initialCapacity)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs an empty vector with the specified initial capacity and a capacity increment of zero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vector (int initialCapacity, int capacityIncrement)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs an empty vector with the specified initial capacity and capacity increment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following table lists some of the more important methods of the `Vector` class and the arguments they accept.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>setSize</code></td>
<td>(int newSize)</td>
<td>Sets the size of a vector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capacity</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the capacity of a vector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the number of elements stored in a vector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>elements</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns an enumeration of elements of a vector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>.elementAt</code></td>
<td>(int)</td>
<td>Returns the element at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>firstElement</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the first element of a vector (at index 0).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lastElement</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the last element of a vector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>removeElementAt</code></td>
<td>(int index)</td>
<td>Removes the element at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>addElement</code></td>
<td>(Object obj)</td>
<td>Adds the specified object to the end of a vector, increasing its size by one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>toString</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns a string representation of each element in a vector.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following code demonstrates the use of the `Vector` class. A `Vector` object called `vector1` is created and enumerates its elements in three ways: using `Enumeration`'s `nextElement()` method, using `Vector`'s `elementAt()` method, and using `Vector`'s `toString()` method. An AWT component, `textArea`, is created to display the output. The text property is set using the `setText()` method.

```java
Vector vector1 = new Vector();
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    vector1.addElement(new Integer(i)); //addElement accepts object or composite types
}                                     //but not primitive types

//enumerate vector1 using nextElement()
Enumeration e = vector1.elements();
textArea1.setText("The elements using Enumeration's nextElement():\n");
while (e.hasMoreElements()) {
    textArea1.append(e.nextElement() + " | ");
}
textArea1.append("\n\n");

//enumerate using the elementAt() method
textArea1.append("The elements using Vector's elementAt():\n");
for (int i = 0; i < vector1.size(); i++) {
    textArea1.append(vector1.elementAt(i) + " | ");
}
textArea1.append("\n\n");
```
// enumerate using the toString() method
textArea1.append("Here's the vector as a String: \n");
textArea1.append(vector1.toString());

The following figure demonstrates what this code would accomplish if it was used within an application.

Figure 5.1  Vector and Enumeration example

See also
- java.util.Vector in the JDK API Documentation

Key java.io classes

Input stream classes

An input stream is used to read data from an input source, such as a file, a string, or memory. Examples of input stream classes in the java.io package include InputStream, BufferedInputStream, DataInputStream, and FileInputStream.

The basic method of reading data using an input stream class is always the same:

1. Create an instance of an input stream class.
2. Tell it where to read the data from.

Note
Input stream classes read data as a continuous stream of bytes. If no data is currently available, the input stream class blocks or waits until data becomes available.

In addition to the input stream classes, the java.io package provides reader classes (except for DataInputStream). Examples of reader classes include Reader, BufferedReader, FileReader, and StringReader. Reader classes are identical to input stream classes, except that they read Unicode characters instead of bytes.
**InputStream class: java.io.InputStream**

The InputStream class in the java.io package is an abstract class and the superclass of all other input stream classes. It provides the basic interface for reading a stream of bytes. The following table lists some of the methods defined in the InputStream class and the arguments these methods accept. Each of these methods returns an int value, except the close() method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Reads the next byte from the input stream and returns it as an integer. When it reaches the end of the stream, it returns -1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>(byte b[])</td>
<td>Reads multiple bytes and stores them in array b. It returns the number of bytes read or -1 when the end of the stream is reached.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>(byte b[], int off, int len)</td>
<td>Reads up to len bytes of data starting from offset off from the input stream into an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>available</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the number of bytes that can be read from an input stream without blocking by the next caller of a method for the input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip</td>
<td>(long n)</td>
<td>Skips over and discards n bytes of data from an input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Closes an input stream and releases system resources used by the stream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**See also**
- [java.io.InputStream](https://docs.oracle.com/javase/7/docs/api/java/io/InputStream.html) in the JDK API Documentation

**FileInputStream class: java.io.FileInputStream**

The FileInputStream class in the java.io package is very similar to the InputStream class, only it’s designed specifically for reading files. It contains three constructors: FileInputStream(String filename), FileInputStream(File fileobject), and FileInputStream(FileDescriptor fdObj). The first constructor takes the file’s name as an argument, while the second simply takes a file object. The third constructor takes a file descriptor object. File classes are discussed later.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FileInputStream</td>
<td>(String filename)</td>
<td>Creates a FileInputStream by opening a connection to the file named by the path name filename in the file system.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following example demonstrates the use of the `FileInputStream` class.

```java
import java.io.*;

class FileReader {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        byte buff[] = new byte[80];
        try {
            InputStream fileIn = new FileInputStream("Readme.txt");
            int i = fileIn.read(buff);
            String s = new String(buff);
            System.out.println(s);
        } catch (FileNotFoundException e) {} 
        catch (IOException e) {} 
    }
}
```

In this example, a character array that stores the input data is created. Then, a `FileInputStream` object is instantiated and the input file's name is passed to its constructor. Next, the `FileInputStream.read()` method is used to read a stream of characters and store them in the `buff` array. The first 80 bytes are read from the `Readme.txt` file and stored in the `buff` array.

**Note** The `FileReader` class could also be used in place of the `FileInputStream()` method. The only changes needed would be a `char` array used in place of the `byte` array, and the `reader` object would be instantiated as follows:

```java
Reader fileIn = new FileReader("Readme.txt");
```

Finally, to see the result of the read call, a `String` object is created using the `buff` array and then passed to the `System.out.println()` method.

As mentioned earlier, the `System` class defined in `java.lang` provides access to system resources. `System.out`, a static member of `System`, represents the standard output device. The `println()` method is called to send the output to the standard output device. The `System.out` object is of type `PrintStream`, which is discussed below.

The `System.in` object, another static member of the `System` class, is of type `InputStream` and represents the standard input device.
Output stream classes

The output stream classes are the counterparts to the input stream classes. They are used to output streams of data to various output sources. The main output stream classes in Java, located in the `java.io` package, are `OutputStream`, `PrintStream`, `BufferedOutputStream`, `DataOutputStream`, and `FileOutputStream`.

OutputStream class: java.io.OutputStream

To output a stream of data, an `OutputStream` object is created and directed to output the data to a particular output source. As expected, there are also corresponding writer classes for each class, except the `DataOutputStream` class. Some of the methods defined in the `OutputStream` class include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(int b)</td>
<td>Writes b to an output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(byte b[])</td>
<td>Writes array b to an output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(byte b[], int off, int len)</td>
<td>Writes len bytes from the byte array starting at offset off to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flush</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Flushes the output stream and forces the output of any buffered data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Closes the output stream and releases any system resources associated with it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also

- `java.io.OutputStream` in the JDK API Documentation

PrintStream class: java.io.PrintStream

The `PrintStream` class in the `java.io` package, primarily designed to output data as text, has two constructors. The first constructor flushes the buffered data based on specified conditions, while the second flushes the data when it encounters a new line character (if `autoflush` is set to true).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PrintStream</td>
<td>(OutputStream out)</td>
<td>Creates a new print stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PrintStream</td>
<td>(OutputStream out, boolean autoflush)</td>
<td>Creates a new print stream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Java class libraries

Several of the methods defined in the PrintStream class are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>checkError</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Flushes the stream and returns a false value if an error is detected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print</td>
<td>(Object obj)</td>
<td>Prints an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print</td>
<td>(String s)</td>
<td>Prints a string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>println</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Prints and terminates the line using the line separator string which is defined by the system property line.separator and is not necessarily a single newline character (\n).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>println</td>
<td>(Object obj)</td>
<td>Prints an object and terminates the line. This method behaves as though it invokes print(Object) and then println().</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The print() and println() methods are overloaded to receive different data types.

See also

- [java.io.PrintStream](#) in the JDK API Documentation

BufferedOutputStream class: java.io.BufferedOutputStream

The BufferedOutputStream class in the java.io package implements a buffered output stream which increases output efficiency by storing values in a buffer and writing them only when the buffer is full or the flush() method is called.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BufferedOutputStream</td>
<td>(OutputStream out)</td>
<td>Creates a new 512-byte buffered output stream to write data to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BufferedOutputStream</td>
<td>(OutputStream out, int size)</td>
<td>Creates a new buffered output stream to write data to the output stream with the specified buffer size.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BufferedOutputStream has three methods to flush and write to the output stream.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>flush</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Flushes the buffered output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(byte[]) b, int off, int len</td>
<td>Writes len bytes from the byte array starting at offset off to the buffered output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(int b)</td>
<td>Writes the byte to the buffered output stream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DataOutputStream class: java.io.DataOutputStream
A data output stream allows an application to write primitive Java data types to an output stream in a portable binary format. An application can then use a data input stream to read the data back in.

The DataOutputStream class in the java.io package has a single constructor, DataOutputStream(OutputStream out), that creates a new data output stream used to write data to an output stream.

The DataOutputStream class uses a variety of write() methods to output primitive data types, as well as a flush() and size() method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>flush</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Flushes the data output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the number of bytes written to the data output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(int b)</td>
<td>Writes the byte to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeType</td>
<td>(type v)</td>
<td>Writes the specified primitive type to the output stream as bytes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also
• java.io.DataOutputStream in the JDK API Documentation

FileOutputStream class: java.io.FileOutputStream
A file output stream is an output stream for writing data to a file or to a FileDescriptor. Whether or not a file is available or may be created depends upon the underlying platform. Some platforms allow a file to be opened for writing by only one FileOutputStream at a time. In such situations the constructors in this class fail if the file involved is already open. FileOutputStream in the java.io package, a subclass of OutputStream, has several constructors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FileOutputStream</td>
<td>(File file)</td>
<td>Creates a file output stream to write to the file specified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FileOutputStream</td>
<td>(FileDescriptor fdObj)</td>
<td>Creates an output file stream to write to the file descriptor, which represents an existing connection to an actual file in the file system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FileOutputStream</td>
<td>(String name)</td>
<td>Creates an output file stream to write to the file with the specified name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FileOutputStream</td>
<td>(String name, boolean append)</td>
<td>Creates an output file stream to write to the file with the specified name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FileOutputStream has several methods, including `close()`, `finalize()`, and several `write()` methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Closes the file output stream and releases any associated system resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finalize</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Cleans up the connection to the file and calls the <code>close()</code> method when there are no more references to the stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getFD</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the file descriptor associated with the stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>{byte[]} b, int off, int len</td>
<td>Writes len bytes from the byte array starting at offset off to the file output stream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also

- `java.io.FileOutputStream` in the JDK API Documentation

File classes

The FileInputStream and FileOutputStream classes in the java.io package only provide basic functions for handling file input and output. The java.io package provides the File class and RandomAccessFile class for more advanced file support. The File class provides easy access to file attributes and functions, while the RandomAccessFile class provides various methods for reading and writing to and from a file.

File class: java.io.File

Java’s File class uses an abstract, platform-independent representation of file and directory pathnames. The File class has three constructors listed in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>File</td>
<td>{String path}</td>
<td>Creates a new File instance by converting the given pathname string into an abstract pathname.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>File</td>
<td>{String parent, String child}</td>
<td>Creates a new File instance from a parent pathname string and a child pathname string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>File</td>
<td>{File parent, String child}</td>
<td>Creates a new File instance from a parent abstract pathname and a child pathname string.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The File class also implements many important methods which check for the existence, readability, writeability, type, size, and modification time of
files and directories, as well as making new directories and renaming and deleting files and directories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Returns</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>delete</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>Deletes the file or directories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canRead</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>Tests whether the application can read the file denoted by the abstract pathname.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canWrite</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>Tests whether the application can write to the file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renameTo</td>
<td>(File dest)</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>Renames the file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getName</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns the name string of the file or directory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getParent</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Returns the pathname string of the parent directory of the file or directory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getPath</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Converts the abstract pathname into a pathname string.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**See also**

- java.io.File in the JDK API Documentation


The `RandomAccessFile` class in the `java.io` package is more powerful than the `FileInputStream` and `FileOutputStream` classes, which only provide sequential access to a file. The `RandomAccessFile` class allows you to read and write arbitrary bytes, text, and Java data types to or from any specified location in a file. It has two constructors: `RandomAccessFile(String name, String mode)` and `RandomAccessFile(File file, String mode)`. The mode argument indicates whether the `RandomAccessFile` object is used for reading (“r”) or reading/writing (“rw”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RandomAccessFile</td>
<td>(String name, String mode)</td>
<td>Creates a random access file stream to read from, and optionally to write to, a file with the specified name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RandomAccessFile</td>
<td>(File file, String mode)</td>
<td>Creates a random access file stream to read from, and optionally to write to, the file specified by the File argument.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are many powerful methods implemented by the `RandomAccessFile` class. Some of these methods include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seek</td>
<td>(long pos)</td>
<td>Sets the file-pointer offset, measured from the beginning of this file, at which the next read or write occur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Reads the next byte of data from the input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>(byte b[], int off, int len)</td>
<td>Reads up to len bytes of data starting from offset off from the input stream into an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>readType</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Reads the specified data type from a file, such as readChar, readByte, readLong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(int b)</td>
<td>Writes the specified byte to the file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>(byte b[], int off, int len)</td>
<td>Writes len bytes from the byte array starting at offset off to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the length of the file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Closes the file and releases any associated system resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also
- `java.io.RandomAccessFile` in the JDK API Documentation

**The StreamTokenizer class: java.io.StreamTokenizer**

The `StreamTokenizer` class in the `java.io` package is used to read an input stream and break it up or parse it into individual tokens that can then be processed one by one. Tokens are groups of characters that represent a number or word. The stream tokenizer can recognize strings, numbers, identifiers, and comments. This technique of processing streams into tokens is perhaps most commonly used in writing parsers, compilers, or programs that process character input.

This class has one constructor, `StreamTokenizer(Reader r)`, and defines the four following constants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TT_EOF</td>
<td>Indicates that the end of the file has been read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT_EOL</td>
<td>Indicates that the end of the line has been read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT_NUMBER</td>
<td>Indicates that a number token has been read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT_WORD</td>
<td>Indicates that a word token has been read.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `StreamTokenizer` class uses instance variables `nval`, `sval`, and `ttype` to hold the number value, string value, and type of the token respectively.
Java 2 Standard Edition packages

The `StreamTokenizer` class implements several methods used to define the lexical syntax of tokens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Argument</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>nextToken</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Parses the next token from the input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Returns <code>TTNUMBER</code> if the next token is a number, <code>TTWORD</code> if the next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>token is a word or a character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>parseNumbers</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Parses the numbers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lineno</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the current line number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>pushBack</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the current value in the <code>ttype</code> field on the next call of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>nextToken()</code> method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>toString</code></td>
<td>()</td>
<td>Returns the string equivalent of the current token.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Follow these steps when using a stream tokenizer:

1. Create a `StreamTokenizer` object for a `Reader`.
2. Define how to process the characters.
3. Use the `nextToken()` method to get the next token.
4. Read the `ttype` instance variable to find the token type.
5. Read the value of the token from the instance variable.
6. Process the token.
7. Repeat steps 3 to 6 above until `nextToken()` returns `StreamTokenizer.TT_EOF`.

See also

- `java.io.StreamTokenizer` in the JDK API Documentation
Object-oriented programming has been around since the introduction of the language Simula ’67 in 1967. It really came to the forefront of programming paradigms in the mid-1980s, however.

Unlike traditional structured programming, object-oriented programming places the data and the operations that pertain to the data within a single data structure. In structured programming, the data and the operations on the data are separate and data structures are sent to procedures and functions to be operated on. Object-oriented programming solves many of the problems inherent in this design because the attributes and operations are part of the same entity. This more closely models the real world, in which all objects have both attributes and activities associated with them.

Java is a pure object-oriented language, meaning that the outermost level of data structure in Java is the object. There are no stand-alone constants, variables, or functions in Java. Everything is accessed through classes and objects. This is one of the nicest features of Java. Other hybrid object-oriented languages have aspects of structured languages in addition to object extensions. For example, C++ and Object Pascal are object-oriented languages, but you can still write structured programming constructs, which dilutes the effectiveness of the object-oriented extensions. You just can’t do that in Java!

This chapter assumes you have some knowledge about programming in other object-oriented languages. If you don’t, you should refer to other sources to find a more in-depth explanation of object-oriented programming. This chapter attempts to highlight and summarize the object-oriented features of Java.
Classes and objects are not the same thing. A class is a type definition, whereas an object is a declaration of an instance of a class type. Once you create a class, you can create as many objects based on that class as you want. The same relationship exists between classes and objects as between cherry pie recipes and cherry pies; you can make as many cherry pies as you want from a single recipe.

The process of creating an object from a class is referred to as instantiating an object or creating an instance of a class.

### Declaring and instantiating classes

A class in Java can be very simple. Here is a class definition for an empty class:

```java
class MyClass {
}
```

While this class is not yet useful, it is legal in Java. A more useful class would contain some data members and methods, which you'll add soon. First, examine the syntax for instantiating a class. To create an instance of this class, use the `new` operator in conjunction with the class name. You must declare an instance variable for the object:

```java
MyClass myObject;
```

Just declaring an instance variable doesn't allocate memory and other resources for the object, however. Doing so creates a reference called `myObject`, but it doesn't instantiate the object. The `new` operator performs this task.

```java
myObject = new MyClass();
```

Notice that the name of the class is used as if it were a method. This is not coincidental, as you will see in an upcoming section. Once this line of code has executed, the member variables and methods of the class, which don't yet exist, can be accessed using the `.` operator.

Once you have created the object, you never have to worry about destroying it. Objects in Java are automatically garbage collected, which means that when the object reference is no longer used, the virtual machine automatically deallocates any resources allocated by the `new` operator.

### Data members

As stated above, a class in Java can contain both data members and methods. A data member or member variable is a variable declared within
the class. A method is a function or routine that performs some task. Here is a class that contains just data members:

```java
public class DogClass {
    String name, eyeColor;
    int age;
    boolean hasTail;
}
```

This example creates a class called `DogClass` that contains data members: `name`, `eyeColor`, `age`, and a flag called `hasTail`. You can include any data type as a member variable of a class. To access a data member, you must first create an instance of the class, then access the data using the `.”” operator.

### Class methods

You can also include methods in classes. In fact, there are no standalone functions or procedures in Java. All subroutines are defined as methods of classes. Here is an example of `DogClass` with a `speak()` method added:

```java
public class DogClass {
    String name, eyeColor;
    int age;
    boolean hasTail;

    public void speak() {
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Woof! Woof!");
    }
}
```

Notice that when you define methods, the implementation for the method appears directly below the declaration. This is unlike some other object-oriented languages where the class is defined in one location and the implementation code appears somewhere else. A method must specify a return type and any parameters received by the method. The `speak()` method takes no parameters. It also doesn’t return a value, so its return type is `void`.

To call the method, you would access it just like you would access the member variables; that is, using the `. ” operator. For example,

```java
DogClass dog = new DogClass();
dog.age = 4;
dog.speak();
```

### Constructors and finalizers

Every Java class has a special purpose method called a `constructor`. The constructor always has the same name as the class and it can’t specify a return value. The constructor allocates all the resources needed by the object and returns an instance of the object. When you use the `new`
Getting Started with Java

Classes

operator, you are actually calling the constructor. You don’t need to specify a return type for the constructor because the instance of the object is always the return type.

Most object-oriented languages have a corresponding method called a destructor that is called to deallocate all the resources that the constructor allocated. But because Java deallocates all the resources for you automatically, there is no destructor mechanism in Java.

There are situations, however, that require you to perform some special cleanup that the garbage collector can’t handle as the class goes away. For example, you might have opened some files in the life of the object and you want to make sure the files are closed properly when the object is destroyed. There is another special purpose method that can be defined for a class called a finalizer. This method (if present) is called by the garbage collector immediately before the object is destroyed. Therefore, if there is any special cleanup that needs to be performed, the finalizer can handle it for you. The garbage collector runs as a low priority thread in the virtual machine, however, so you can never predict when it will actually destroy your object. So, you shouldn’t put any time-sensitive code in the finalizer because you can’t predict when it will be called.

Case study: A simple OOP example

In this section, you’ll see a simple example of defining classes and instantiating objects. You’ll develop an application that creates two objects (a dog and a man) and show their attributes on a form.

If you are completely new to JBuilder, you should put this chapter aside and learn about JBuilder’s integrated development environment before you begin this sample. Begin with the Introducing JBuilder book, especially the “Building an application” tutorial and the following chapters that introduce the JBuilder integrated development environment. Also study the early chapters of Designing Applications with JBuilder to learn about using the UI designer.

You are ready to resume this chapter once you are comfortable performing these tasks:

- Beginning an application using JBuilder’s Application wizard.
- Selecting components from the component palette and placing them on the UI designer.
- Setting component properties using the Inspector.
- Switching between the editor and the UI designer in JBuilder’s content pane.
- Using the editor.
This is what the running sample application you will build looks like:

**Figure 6.1** Sample application showing two instantiated objects

Follow these steps listed in this section to create a simple UI for this sample application.

1. Start creating the application and designing its UI:
   a. Start a new project. Choose File | New Project to start the Project wizard.
   b. Enter oop1 in the Project Name field and click Finish. A new project opens.
   c. Choose File | New, click the General tab, and click the Application icon to start the Application wizard.
   d. Accept the default class name. The package name will be oop1.
   e. Click Next and then Finish to create a Frame1.java and an Application1.java file.
   f. Click the Design tab in the content pane to display the UI designer for Frame1.java.
   g. Select contentPane in the structure pane. In the Inspector set the layout property of contentPane to XYLayout (if you are a Personal user, set layout to null). XYLayout and null are seldom ideal for an application, but until you learn about using layouts, you can use them to create a quick-and-dirty UI.

2. Place the needed components on the UI designer, using the above screen shot as a reference:
   a. Click the Swing tab on the component palette and click the JTextField component. (When you position your cursor over a component, a tooltip appears labeling the component. Click the component labeled javax.swing.JTextField.) Click in the UI designer and hold down the mouse button as you draw the component onscreen. Repeat this step five more times until you have two groups of three JTextField components on your form.
Hold down the Shift key as you click each JTextField on the UI designer so that all of them are selected. Select the text property in the Inspector and delete the text that appears there. This will delete all the text in each JTextField component.

Change the name property value of each JTextField. Name the first one txtfldDogName, the second txtfldDogEyeColor, the third txtfldDogAge, the fourth txtfldManName, the fifth txtfldManEyeColor, and the sixth txtfldManAge.

Draw six JLabel components on the form, each one adjacent to a JTextField component.

Change the text property values for these components to label each JTextField component appropriately. For example, the text property of the JLabel at the top of the form should be Name, the second Eye Color, and so on.

Place two JCheckBox components on the form. Place the first one below the first group of three JTextField components, and the second checkbox beneath the second group of JTextField components.

Select each JCheckBox component on the form in turn and change the first one’s text property to Has Tail, and second one’s text property to Is Married.

Change the value of the name property for the first check box to chkboxDog, and change the name of the second check box to chkboxMan.

Place two JButton components on the form, one to the right of the top group of components, and the second to the right of the bottom group of components.

Change the text property of the first button to Create Dog, and change the text property of the second button to Create Man.

The final step is to save the project by choosing File | Save All.

You’re now ready to begin programming. First create a new class:

1. Choose File | New Class to start the Class wizard.

2. Keep the name of the package as oop1, specify the Class Name as DogClass, and don’t change the Base Class.

3. Check only the Public and Generate Default Constructor options, unchecking all other options.

4. Click OK.
The Class wizard creates the DogClass.java file for you. Modify the code it created so that your code looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class DogClass {
    String name, eyeColor;
    int age;
    boolean hasTail;

    public DogClass() {
        name = "Snoopy";
        eyeColor = "Brown";
        age = 2;
        hasTail = true;
    }
}
```

You defined DogClass with some member variables. There is also a constructor to instantiate DogClass objects.

Using the Class wizard, create a ManClass.java file by following the same steps except specifying the Class Name as ManClass. Modify the resulting code so that it looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class ManClass {
    String name, eyeColor;
    int age;
    boolean isMarried;

    public ManClass() {
        name = "Steven";
        eyeColor = "Blue";
        age = 35;
        isMarried = true;
    }
}
```

The two classes are very similar. You’ll take advantage of this similarity in an upcoming section.

Click the Frame1 tab at the top of content pane to return to the Frame1 class. Click the Source tab at the bottom to return to open the editor. Declare two instance variables as references to the objects. Here is the source listing of the Frame1 variable declarations shown in bold; add the lines in bold to your class:

```java
public class Frame1 extends JFrame {
    // Create a reference for the dog and man objects
    DogClass dog;
    ManClass man;

    JPanel contentPane;
    JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
    ...
```
Click the Design tab at the bottom of content pane to return to the UI you designed. Double-click the Create Dog button. JBuilder creates the beginning of an event handler for that button and places your cursor within the event handler code. Fill in the event handler code so that you instantiate a dog object and fill in the dog text fields. Your code should look like this:

```java
void jButton1_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    dog = new DogClass();
    txtfldDogName.setText(dog.name);
    txtfldDogEyeColor.setText(dog.eyeColor);
    txtfldDogAge.setText(Integer.toString(dog.age));
    chkboxDog.setSelected(true);
}
```

As the code shows, you are calling the constructor for the dog object and then accessing its member variables.

Click the Design tab to return to the UI designer. Double-click the Create Man button. JBuilder creates an event handler for the Create Man button. Fill in the event handler so that it looks like this:

```java
void jButton2_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    man = new ManClass();
    txtfldManName.setText(man.name);
    txtfldManEyeColor.setText(man.eyeColor);
    txtfldManAge.setText(Integer.toString(man.age));
    chkboxMan.setSelected(true);
}
```

You can now compile and run your application. Choose Project | Make Project "oop1.jpx" to compile it. If you have no errors, choose Run | Run Project.

If all goes well, the form appears on your screen. When you click the Create Dog button, a dog object is created and the dog values appear in the dog fields. When you click the Create Man button, a man object is created and the man values appear in the appropriate fields.

### Class inheritance

The dog and man objects you created have many similarities. One of the benefits of object-oriented programming is the ability to handle similarities like this within a hierarchy. This ability is referred to as **inheritance**. When a class inherits from another class, the child class automatically inherits all the characteristics (member variables) and behavior (methods) from the parent class. Inheritance is always additive; there is no way to inherit from a class and get less than what the parent class has.
Inheritance in Java is handled through the keyword `extends`. When one class inherits from another class, the child class extends the parent class. For example,

```java
public class DogClass extends MammalClass {
    // ...
}
```

The items that men and dogs have in common could be said to be common to all mammals; therefore, you can create a `MammalClass` to handle these similarities. You can then remove the declarations of the common items from `DogClass` and `ManClass`, declare them in `MammalClass` instead, and then subclass `DogClass` and `ManClass` from `MammalClass`.

Using the Class wizard, create a `MammalClass`. Fill in the resulting code so that it looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class MammalClass {
    String name, eyeColor;
    int age;

    public MammalClass() {
        name = "The Name";
        eyeColor = "Brown";
        age = 0;
    }
}
```

Notice that the `MammalClass` has common characteristics from both the `DogClass` and the `ManClass`. Now, rewrite `DogClass` and `ManClass` to take advantage of inheritance.

Modify the code of `DogClass` so that it look like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class DogClass extends MammalClass {
    boolean hasTail;

    public DogClass() {
        // implied super()
        name = "Snoopy";
        age = 2;
        hasTail = true;
    }
}
```
Modify the code of `ManClass` so that it looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class ManClass extends MammalClass{
    boolean isMarried;
    
    public ManClass() {
        name = "Steven";
        eyeColor = "Blue";
        age = 35;
        isMarried = true;
    }
}
```

Notice that `DogClass` doesn’t specifically assign an `eyeColor` value, but `ManClass` does. `DogClass` doesn’t need to assign a value to `eyeColor` because the dog Snoopy has brown eyes and `DogClass` inherits brown eyes from the `MammalClass`, which declares an `eyeColor` variable and assigns it the value of “Brown”. The man Steven, however, has blue eyes, so it’s necessary to assign the value “Blue” to the `eyeColor` variable inherited from `MammalClass`.

Try compiling and running your project again. (Choosing `Run | Run Project` will compile and then run your application.) You’ll see that the UI of your program looks just as it did before, but now the dog and man objects inherit all common member variables from `MammalClass`.

As soon as `DogClass` extends `MammalClass`, `DogClass` has all the member variables and methods that the `MammalClass` has. In fact, even `MammalClass` is inherited from another class. All classes in Java ultimately extend the `Object` class; so if a class is declared that doesn’t extend another class, it implicitly extends the `Object` class.

Classes in Java can inherit from only one class at a time (single inheritance). Unlike Java, some languages (such as C++) allow a class to inherit from several classes at once (multiple inheritance). A class can extend just one class at a time. Although there is no restriction on how many times you can use inheritance to extend the hierarchy, you must do so one extension at a time. Multiple inheritance is a nice feature, but it leads to very complex object hierarchies. Java has a mechanism that provides many of the same benefits without so much complexity, as you’ll see later.

The `MammalClass` has a constructor that sets very practical and convenient default values. It would be nice if the subclasses could access this constructor.

In fact, they can. You can do this in Java two different ways. If you don’t call the parent’s constructor explicitly, Java automatically calls the parent’s default constructor for you as the first line of the child constructor. The only way to prevent this behavior is to call one of the parent’s constructors yourself as the first line of the child class constructor.
Constructor calls are always chained like this, and you can’t defeat this mechanism. This is a very nice feature of the Java language, because in other object-oriented languages, failing to call the parent’s constructor is a common bug. Java will always do this for you if you don’t. That is the meaning of the comment in the first line of the DogClass constructor, // implied super(). The MammalClass constructor is called at that point automatically. This mechanism relies on the existence of a superclass (parent class) constructor that takes no parameters. If the constructor doesn’t exist and you don’t call one of the other constructors as the first line of the child constructor, the class won’t compile.

**Calling the parent’s constructor**

Because you frequently want to call the superclass constructor explicitly, there is a keyword in Java that makes this easy. super() will call the parent’s constructor that has the appropriate supplied parameters.

It’s also possible to have more than one constructor in a class. When more than one method with the same name exists within a single class, the methods are referred to as overloaded. It’s common for a class to have multiple constructors.

For the sample application, the change in the hierarchy is the only difference between the first two versions of the sample. The instantiation of the objects and the main form haven’t changed at all. However, the design of the application is more efficient, because now if you must modify any of the mammal characteristics, you can do so in the MammalClass and just recompile the child classes. The changes you make flow to the child classes.

**Access modifiers**

It’s important to understand when members (both variables and methods) in the class are accessible. There are several options in Java to allow you to closely tailor how accessible you want these members to be.

Usually you want to limit the scope of program elements, including class members, as much as possible. The fewer places something is accessible, the fewer places it can be accessed incorrectly.

There are four different access modifiers for class members in Java: private, protected, public, and default (or the absence of any modifier). This is slightly complicated by the fact that classes within the same package have different access than classes outside the package. Therefore, here are two tables that show both the accessibility and inheritability of classes and member variables from within the same package and from outside the package (packages are discussed in a later section).
Access from within class’s package

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access Modifier</th>
<th>Inherited</th>
<th>Accessible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>default (no modifier)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protected</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows how class members are accessed and inherited from with respect to other members in the same package. For example, a member that is declared to be private cannot be accessed by, or inherited from, other members of the same package. On the other hand, members declared using the other modifiers could be accessed by and inherited from all other members of that package. All parts of the sample application are part of the oop1 package, so you don’t have to worry about accessing classes in another package.

Access outside of a package

The rules change if you access code outside of your class’s package:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access Modifier</th>
<th>Inherited</th>
<th>Accessible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>default (no modifier)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protected</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, this table shows that a protected member could be inherited from, but not accessed, by classes outside its package.

Note that in both access tables public members are available to anyone who wants to access them (notice that constructors are always public), whereas private members are never accessible nor inheritable outside the class. So, you should declare any member variable or method you want to keep internal to the class private.

A recommended practice in object-oriented programming is to hide information within the class by making all of the member variables of the class private and accessing them through methods that are in a specific format called accessor methods.

Accessor methods

Accessor methods (sometimes called getters and setters) are methods that provide the outward public interface to the class while keeping the actual data storage private to the class. This is a good idea because you can, at
any time in the future, change the internal representation of the data in the class without touching the methods that actually set those internal values. As long as you don’t change the public interface to the class, you don’t break any code that relies on that class and its public methods.

Accessor methods in Java usually come in pairs: one to get the internal value, and another to set the internal value. By convention, the Get method uses the internal private variable name with “get” as a prefix. The Set method does the same with “set”. A read-only property would only have a Get method. Usually, Boolean Get methods use “is” or “has” as the prefix instead of “get”. Accessor methods also make it easy to validate the data that is assigned to a particular member variable.

Here is an example. In your DogClass, make all of the internal member variables private and add accessor methods to access the internal values. DogClass creates just one new member variable, tail.

```java
package oop1;

public class DogClass extends MammalClass{

    // accessor methods for properties
    // Tail
    public boolean hasTail() { 
        return tail;
    }

    public void setTail( boolean value ) { 
        tail = value;
    }

    public DogClass() { 
        setName("Snoopy");
        setAge(2);
        setTail(true);
    }

    private boolean tail;
}
```

The variable tail has been moved to the bottom of the class and now is declared as private. The location of the definition is not important, but it’s common in Java to place the private members of the class at the bottom of the class definition (after all, you can’t get to them outside the class; therefore, if you are reading the code, you are interested in the public aspects first). DogClass now has public methods to retrieve and set the value of tail. The getter is hasTail() and setter is setTail().
Follow the same patterns and revise ManClass so that it looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public class ManClass extends MammalClass {
    public boolean isMarried() {
        return married;
    }

    public void setMarried(boolean value) {
        married = value;
    }

    public ManClass() {
        setName("Steven");
        setAge(35);
        setEyeColor("Blue");
        setMarried(true);
    }

    private boolean married;
}
```

Note that the constructors for these two classes now use accessor methods to set the values of the variables of MammalClass. But the MammalClass doesn’t have accessor methods for setting those values yet, so you must add them to MammalClass.

Change MammalClass so that its code looks like this:

```java
public class MammalClass {
    // accessor methods for properties
    // name
    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }

    public void setName(String value) {
        name = value;
    }

    // eyecolor
    public String getEyeColor() {
        return eyeColor;
    }

    public void setEyeColor(String value) {
        eyeColor = value;
    }
}
```
// sound
public String getSound() {
    return sound;
}

public void setSound(String value) {
    sound = value;
}

// age
public int getAge() {
    return age;
}

public void setAge(int value) {
    if (value > 0) {
        age = value;
    } else {
        age = 0;
    }
}

public MammalClass() {
    setName("The Name");
    setEyeColor("Brown");
    setAge(0);
}

private String name, eyeColor, sound;
private int age;

Also note that a new sound member variable has been added to MammalClass. It too has accessor methods. Because DogClass and ManClass extend MammalClass, they also have a sound property.

The event handlers in Frame1.java should also use the accessors. Modify the event handlers so they look like this:

```java
void jButton1_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    dog = new DogClass();
txtfldDogName.setText(dog.getName());
txtfldDogEyeColor.setText(dog.getEyeColor());
txtfldDogAge.setText(Integer.toString(dog.getAge()));
    chkboxDog.setSelected(true);
}

void jButton2_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    man = new ManClass();
txtfldManName.setText(man.getName());
txtfldManEyeColor.setText(man.getEyeColor());
txtfldManAge.setText(Integer.toString(man.getAge()));
    chkboxMan.setSelected(true);
}
```
Abstract classes

It’s possible to declare a method in a class as abstract, meaning that there will be no implementation for the method within this class, but all classes that extend this class must provide an implementation.

For example, suppose you want all mammals to have the ability to report their top running speed, but you want each mammal to report a different speed. In the mammal class you should create an abstract method called `speed()`. Add a `speed()` method to `MammalClass` just above the private member variable declarations at the bottom of the source code:

```java
abstract public void speed();
```

Once you have an abstract method in a class, the entire class must also be declared as abstract. This indicates that a class that includes at least one abstract method (and is therefore an abstract class) cannot be instantiated. So add the `abstract` keyword to the beginning of the `MammalClass` declaration so that it looks like this:

```java
abstract public class MammalClass {
  public String getName() {
    ...
  }
}
```

Now each class that extends `MammalClass` must implement a `speed()` method. So add this method to the `DogClass` code below the `DogClass()` constructor:

```java
public void speed() {
  JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "30 mph", "Dog Speed", 1);
}
```

Add this `speed()` method to the `ManClass` code:

```java
public void speed() {
  JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "17 mph", "Man Speed", 1);
}
```

Because each `speed()` method creates a `JOptionPane` component, which is a Swing component, add this statement just after the package statement to the top of both `DogClass` and `ManClass`:

```java
import javax.swing.*;
```

This statement makes the entire Swing library available to these classes. You’ll read more about import statements soon.
Polymorphism

Polymorphism is the ability for two separate yet related classes to receive the same message but to act on it in their own way. In other words, two different (but related) classes can have the same method name, but they implement the method in different ways.

Therefore, you can have a class method that is also implemented in a child class, and you can access the code from the parent’s class (similar to the automatic constructor chaining discussed earlier). Just as in the constructor example, you can use the keyword `super` to access any methods or member variables of the superclass.

Here is a simple example. We have two classes, `Parent` and `Child`.

```java
class Parent {
    int aValue = 1;
    int someMethod() {
        return aValue;
    }
}

class Child extends Parent {
    int aValue;                           // this aValue is part of this class
    int someMethod() {                    // this overrides Parent's method
        aValue = super.aValue + 1;          // access Parent's aValue with super
        return super.someMethod() + aValue;
    }
}
```

The `someMethod()` of `Child` overrides the `someMethod()` of `Parent`. A method of a child class with the same name as a method in the parent class, but that is implemented differently and therefore has different behavior is an overridden method.

Can you see how the `someMethod()` of the `Child` class would return the value of 3? The method accesses the `aValue` variable of `Parent` using the `super` keyword, adds the value of 1 to it, and assigns the resulting value of 2 to its own `aValue` variable. The last line of the method calls the `someMethod()` of `Parent`, which simply returns `Parent.aValue` with a value of 1. To that, it adds the value of `Child.aValue`, which was assigned the value of 2 in the previous line. So 1 + 2 = 3.

Using interfaces

An interface is much like an abstract class but with one important difference: an interface cannot include any code. The interface mechanism in Java is meant to replace multiple inheritance.
Polymorphism

An interface is a specialized class declaration that can declare constants and method declarations, but not method implementations. You can never put code in an interface.

Here is an interface declaration for our sample application:

You can use the JBuilder Interface wizard to start an interface:

1. Choose File|New to open the object gallery and click the General tab.
   Double-click the Interface icon to display the Interface wizard.

2. Specify the name of the interface as `SoundInterface`, keeping all other values unchanged. (You can uncheck the Generate Header Comments to omit headers.)

3. Choose OK to generate the new interface.

Within the new `SoundInterface`, add a `speak()` method declaration so that the interface looks like this:

```java
package oop1;

public interface SoundInterface {
    public void speak();
}
```

Note that the `interface` keyword is used instead of `class`. All methods declared in an interface are public by default, so there is no need to specify accessibility. A class can implement an interface by using the `implements` keyword. Also, a class can extend only one other class, but a class can implement as many interfaces as necessary. This is how situations that are usually handled by multiple inheritance in other languages are handled by interfaces in Java. In many cases, you can treat the interface as if it were a class. In other words, you can treat objects that implement an interface as subclasses of the interface for convenience. Note, however, that you can only access the methods defined by that interface if you are casting an object that implements the interface.

The following is an example of both polymorphism and interfaces. We want the `MammalClass` definition to implement the new `SoundInterface`. You do that by adding the words `implements SoundInterface` to the class definition. Then, you must define and implement a `speak()` method for `MammalClass`. Modify your `MammalClass` so that it implements `SoundInterface` and a `speak()` method. Here is the code for `MammalClass` in its entirety:

```java
package oop1;

import javax.swing.*;

abstract public class MammalClass implements SoundInterface {
```
// accessor methods for properties

// name
public String getName(){
    return name;
}

public void setName(String value){
    name = value;
}

// eyeColor
public String getEyeColor(){
    return eyeColor;
}

public void setEyeColor(String value){
    eyeColor = value;
}

// sound
public String getSound(){
    return sound;
}

public void setSound(String value){
    sound = value;
}

// age
public int getAge(){
    return age;
}

public void setAge(int value){
    if(value > 0){
        age = value;
    }
    else{
        age = 0;
    }
}

public MammalClass(){
    setName("The Name");
    setEyeColor("Brown");
    setAge(0);
}

public void speak(){
    JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, this.getSound(),
        this.getName() + " Says", 1);
}
Polymorphism

abstract public void speed();
private String name, eyeColor, sound;
private int age;
}

The MammalClass definition now implements the SoundInterface fully. Because the speak() method implementation uses the JOptionPane component, which is part of the Swing library, you must add an import statement near the top of the file:

import javax.swing.*;

This import statement makes the entire Swing library available to MammalClass. You’ll read more about import statements in “The import statement” on page 6-24.

Because DogClass and ManClass extend MammalClass, they now automatically have access to the speak() method defined in MammalClass. They don’t have to specifically implement speak() themselves. The value of the sound variable passed to the speak() method is set in the constructors of DogClass and ManClass. Here is how the DogClass class should look:

package oop1;
import javax.swing.*;

public class DogClass extends MammalClass{

public boolean hasTail() {
    return tail;
}

public void setTail(boolean value) {
    tail = value;
}

public DogClass() {
    setName("Snoopy");
    setSound("Woof, Woof!");
    setAge(2);
    setTail(true);
}

public void speed() {
    JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "30 mph", "Dog Speed", 1);
}

private boolean tail;
}
This is how ManClass should look:

```java
package oop1;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ManClass extends MammalClass {

public boolean isMarried() {
    return married;
}

public void setMarried(boolean value) {
    married = value;
}

public ManClass() {
    setName("Steven");
    setEyeColor("Blue");
    setSound("Hello there! I'm " + this.getName() + ".");
    setAge(35);
    setMarried(true);
}

public void speed() {
    JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "17 mph", "Man Speed", 1);
}

private boolean married;
}
```

Adding two new buttons

Although you’ve added `speak()` and `speed()` methods to the sample application, so far the application never calls them. To change this, add two more buttons to the `Frame1.java` class:

1. Click the Frame1 tab in the content pane.
2. Click the Design tab to display the UI designer.
3. Place two additional buttons on the form.
4. Change the value of `text` property of the first button to `Speed` in the Inspector, and change the value of the `text` property of the second button to `Speak`. 
Polymorphism

Figure 6.2  New version of the sample application with Speed and Speak buttons added

Click the Source tab to return to the Frame1.java code and add code shown here in bold to the class definition:

```java
// Create a reference for the objects
DogClass dog;
ManClass man;

// Create an Array of SoundInterface
SoundInterface soundList[] = new SoundInterface[2];

// Create an Array of Mammal
MammalClass mammalList[] = new MammalClass[2];

You have added code that creates two arrays: one for Mammals and one for SoundInterfaces.

Also add code to the Create Dog and Create Man event handlers that add references to the dog and man objects to the arrays:

```java
void button1_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    dog = new DogClass();
    txtfldDogName.setText(dog.getName());
    txtfldDogEyeColor.setText(dog.getEyeColor());
    txtfldDogAge.setText(Integer.toString(dog.getAge()));
    chkboxDog.setSelected(true);
    mammalList[0] = dog;
    soundList[0] = dog;
}

void button2_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    man = new ManClass();
    txtfldManName.setText(man.getName());
    txtfldManEyeColor.setText(man.getEyeColor());
    txtfldManAge.setText(Integer.toString(man.getAge()));
    chkboxMan.setSelected(true);
    mammalList[1] = man;
    soundList[1] = man;
}
Polymorphism

Return to the UI designer and double-click the Speed button, and fill in the event handler JBuilder starts for you so that the code looks like this:

```java
 void button3_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
     for (int i = 0; i <= 1; i++) {
         mammalList[i].speed();
     }
 }
```

The code loops through the list of mammals held in the array (all two of them!) and tells each object to display its speed. The first time through the list, the dog displays its speed, the second time through the list, the man displays its speed. This is polymorphism in action - two separate but related objects receiving the same message and reacting to it in their own way.

The code for the Speak button is very similar.

```java
 void button4_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
     for (int i = 0; i <= 1; i++) {
         soundList[i].speak();
     }
 }
```

Choose File | Save All to save all your changes.

You can see that you can treat the SoundInterface as a class when it is convenient. Note that the interface gives you many of the benefits of multiple inheritance without the added complexity.

Running your application

You’re ready to run your modified application. Choose Run | Run Project to recompile your project and then run it.

When your application begins running, be sure that you click the Create Dog and Create Man buttons to create the dog and man objects before you try the Speed and Speak buttons or you will get a NullPointerException.

Once your objects exist and you click the Speed button, a message box appears reporting the speed of the first mammal in the mammalList array, the dog. When you click OK to remove the message box, the second message box appears. It reports the speed of the second mammal, the man. Clicking the Speak button results in similar behavior, but the messages displayed are sounds each mammal might make.
To facilitate code reuse, Java allows you to group several class definitions together in a logical grouping called a *package*. If, for instance, you create a group of business rules that model the work processes of your organization, you might want to place them together in a package. This makes it easier to reuse code that you have previously created.

The import statement

The Java language comes with many predefined packages. For instance, the `java.applet` package contains classes for working with Java applets:

```java
public class Hello extends java.applet.Applet {

    This code refers to the class called `Applet` in the Java package `java.applet`. You can imagine that it might get quite tedious to have to repeat the entire full class name `java.applet.Applet` every time you refer to this class. Instead, Java offers an alternative. You can choose to import a package you will use frequently:

```java
import java.applet.*;

This tells the compiler “if you see a class name you do not recognize, look in the `java.applet` package for it.” Now, when you declare a new class, you can say,

```java
public class Hello extends Applet {

    This is more concise. You have a problem, however, if you have two classes by the same name defined in two different imported packages. In this case, you must use the fully qualified name.

Declaring packages

Creating your own packages is almost as easy as using them. For instance, if you want to create a package called `mypackage`, you would simply use a `package` statement at the beginning of your file:

```java
package mypackage;

public class Hello extends java.applet.Applet {

    public void init() {
        add(new java.awt.Label("Hello World Wide Web!"));
    }

} // end class
```
Java packages

Now, any other program can access the classes declared in mypackage with the statement:

```java
import mypackage.*;
```

Remember, this file should be in a subdirectory called mypackage. This allows your Java compiler to easily locate your package. JBuilder's Project wizard will automatically set the directory to match the project name. Also, keep in mind that the base directory of any package you import must be listed in the Source Path of the JBuilder IDE or the Source Path of your project. This is good to remember if you decide to relocate a package to a different base directory.

For more information about working with packages in JBuilder, see “Packages” in *Building Applications with JBuilder*. 
Chapter 7

Threading techniques

Threads are a part of every Java program. A thread is a single sequential flow of control within a program. It has a beginning, a sequence, and an end. A thread cannot run on its own; it runs within a program. If your program is a single sequence of execution, you don’t need to set up a thread explicitly, the Java Virtual Machine (VM) will take care of this for you.

One of the powerful aspects of the Java language is that you can easily program multiple threads of execution to run concurrently within the same program. For example, a web browser can download a file from one site, and access another site at the same time. If the browser can’t do two simultaneous tasks, you’d need to wait until the file had finished downloading before you could browse to another site.

The Java VM always has multiple threads, called daemon threads, running. For example, a continually running daemon thread performs garbage collection tasks. Another daemon thread handles mouse and keyboard events. It is possible for your program to lock up one of the Java VM threads. If your program appears to be dead, with no events being sent to your program, try using threads.

The lifecycle of a thread

Every thread has a definite lifecycle — it starts and stops, it can pause and wait for an event, and it can notify another thread while it is running. This section will introduce some of the more common aspects of the thread lifecycle.
Customizing the run() method

Use the run() method to implement the thread’s running behavior. This behavior can be anything a Java statement can accomplish — calculations, sorting, animations, etc.

You can use one of two techniques to implement the run() method for a thread:

- Subclass the java.lang.Thread class
- Implement the java.lang.Runnable interface

Subclassing the Thread class

If you are creating a new class whose objects you want to execute in separate threads, you need to subclass the java.lang.Thread class. The Thread class’s default run() method does not do anything, so your class will need to override the run() method. The run() method is the first thing that executes when a thread is started.

As an example, the following class, CountThread, subclasses Thread and overrides its run() method. In this example, the run() method identifies a thread and prints its name to the screen. The for loop counts integers from the start value to the finish value and prints each count to the screen.

Then, before the loop finishes execution, the method prints a string that indicates the thread has finished executing.

```java
public class CountThread extends Thread {
    private int start;
    private int finish;
    public CountThread(int from, int to) {
        this.start = from;
        this.finish = to;
    }

    public void run() {
        System.out.println(this.getName()+ " started executing...");
        for (int i = start; i <= finish; i++) {
            System.out.print (i + " ");
        }
        System.out.println(this.getName() + " finished executing.");
    }
}
```

To test the CountThread class, you can create a test class:

```java
public class ThreadTester {
    static public void main(String[] args) {
        CountThread thread1 = new CountThread(1, 10);
        CountThread thread2 = new CountThread(20, 30);
        thread1.start();
        thread2.start();
    }
}
```
The main() method in the test application creates two CountThread objects: thread1 that counts from 1 to 10, and thread2 that counts from 20 to 30. Both threads are then started by calling their start() methods. The output from this test application could look like this:

```
Thread-0 started executing...
  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Thread-0 finished executing.
Thread-1 started executing...
  20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 Thread-1 finished executing.
```

Notice that the output does not show the thread names as thread1 and thread2. Unless you specifically assign a name to a thread, Java will automatically give it a name of the form Thread-n, where n is a unique number, starting with 0. You can assign a name to a thread in the class constructor or with the setName(String) method.

In this example, Thread-0 started executing first and finished first. However, it could have started first and finished last, or partially started and been interrupted by Thread-1. This is because threads in Java are not guaranteed to execute in any particular sequence. In fact, each time you execute ThreadTester, you might get a different output. Basically, the process of scheduling threads is controlled by the Java thread scheduler, and not the programmer. For more information, see “Thread priority” on page 7-7.

Implementing the Runnable interface

If you want objects of an existing class to execute in their own threads, you can implement the java.lang.Runnable interface. This interface adds threading support to classes that do not inherit from the Thread class. It provides only one method, the run() method, which you have to implement for your class.

Note

If your class subclasses a class other than Thread, for example, Applet, you should use the Runnable interface to create threads.

To create a new CountThread class that implements the Runnable interface, you need to change the class definition of the CountThread class. The class definition code, with the changes highlighted in bold-faced type, would look like this:

```
public class CountThread implements Runnable {

You would also have to change the way the name of the thread is obtained. Because you are not instantiating the class CountThread, you cannot call the getName() method of CountThread’s superclass, in this case, java.lang.Object. This method is not available. Instead, you need to specifically use the Thread.currentThread() method, which returns the thread’s name in a format that is slightly different from the getName() method.
The lifecycle of a thread

The entire class, with changes highlighted in bold-faced type, would then look like this:

```java
public class CountThread implements Runnable {
    private int start;
    private int finish;

    public CountThread(int from, int to) {
        this.start = from;
        this.finish = to;
    }

    public void run() {
        System.out.println(Thread.currentThread() + ' started executing...');
        for (int i=start; i <= finish; i++) {
            System.out.print(i + ' ');
        }
        System.out.println(Thread.currentThread() + ' finished executing.');
    }
}
```

The test application would need to change the way its objects are created. Instead of instantiating `CountThread`, the application needs to create a `Runnable` object from the new class and pass it to one of the thread’s constructors. The code, with the changes highlighted in bold-faced type, would look like this:

```java
public class ThreadTester {
    static public void main(String[] args) {
        CountThreadRun thread1 = new CountThreadRun(1, 10);
        new Thread(thread1).start();
        CountThreadRun thread2 = new CountThreadRun(20, 30);
        new Thread(thread2).start();
    }
}
```

The output from this program would look like this:

```
Thread[Thread-0,5,main] started executing...
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Thread[Thread-0,5,main] finished executing.
Thread[Thread-1,5,main] started executing...
```

The priority and the group are assigned by the Java VM if none are specified.)

See also

- “Thread priority” on page 7-7
- “Thread groups” on page 7-8
The lifecycle of a thread

Defining a thread

The Thread class provides seven constructors. These constructors combine the following three parameters in various ways:

- A Runnable object whose run() method will execute inside the thread.
- A String object to identify the thread.
- A ThreadGroup object to assign the thread to. The ThreadGroup class organizes groups of related threads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thread()</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(Runnable target)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it has target as its run object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(Runnable target, String name)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it has target as its run object and the specified name as its name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(String name)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it has the specified name as its name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(ThreadGroup group, Runnable target)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it belongs to the thread group referred to by group and has target as its run object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(ThreadGroup group, Runnable target, String name)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it has target as its run object, the specified name as its name, and belongs to the thread group referred to by group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread(ThreadGroup group, String name)</td>
<td>Allocates a new Thread object so that it belongs to the thread group referred to by group and has the specified name as its name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you want to associate state with a thread, use a ThreadLocal object when you create the thread. This class allows each thread to have its own independently initialized copy of a private static variable, for example, a user or transaction ID.

Starting a thread

To start a thread call the start() method. This method creates the system resources necessary to run the thread, schedules the thread, and calls the thread’s run() method.

After the start() method returns, the thread is running and is in a runnable state. Because most computers have only a single CPU, the Java VM must schedule threads. For more information see “Thread priority” on page 7-7.
Making a thread not runnable

To put a thread into a not runnable state, use one of following techniques:

- A `sleep()` method: these methods allow you to specify a specific number of seconds and nanoseconds to not run.
- The `wait()` method: this method causes the current thread to wait for a specified condition to be met.
- Block the thread on input or output.

When the thread is not runnable, the thread will not run, even if the processor becomes available. To exit the not runnable state, the condition for the entrance to the not runnable state must be met. For example, if you used the `sleep()` method, the specified number of seconds must have passed. If you used the `wait()` method, another object must tell the waiting thread (with `notify()` or `notifyAll()`) of a change in condition. If a thread is blocked by input or output, the input or output must finish.

You can also use the `join()` method to have a thread wait for an executing thread to finish. You call this method for the thread being waited on. You can specify a timeout for a thread by passing a parameter to the method in milliseconds. The `join()` method waits on the thread until either the timeout has expired or the thread has terminated. This method works in conjunction with the `isAlive()` method — `isAlive()` returns `true` if the thread has been started and not stopped.

Note that the `suspend()` and `resume()` methods have been deprecated. The `suspend()` method is deadlock-prone. If the target thread is locking a monitor that protects a critical system resource when it is suspended, no thread can access this resource until the target thread is resumed. A monitor is a Java object used to verify that only one thread at a time is executing the synchronized methods for the object. For more information, see “Synchronizing threads” on page 7-7.

Stopping a thread

You can no longer stop a thread with the `stop()` method. This method has been deprecated, as it is unsafe. Stopping a thread will cause it to unlock all of the monitors it has locked. If an object previously protected by one of these monitors is in an inconsistent state, other threads will see that object as inconsistent. This can cause your program to be corrupted.

To stop a thread, terminate the `run()` method with a finite loop.

For more information, see the topic in the Java 2 SDK, Standard Edition Documentation called “Why are Thread.stop, Thread.suspend, Thread.resume and runtime.runFinalizersOnExit Deprecated?”

The lifecycle of a thread
**Thread priority**

When a Java thread is created, it inherits its priority from the thread that created it. You can set a thread’s priority using the `setPriority()` method. Thread priorities are represented as integer values ranging from `MIN_PRIORITY` to `MAX_PRIORITY` (constants in the `Thread` class). The thread with the highest priority is executed.

When that thread stops, yields, or becomes not runnable, a lower priority thread will be executed. If two threads of the same priority are waiting, the Java scheduler will choose one of them to run in a round-robin fashion. The thread will run until:

- A higher priority thread becomes runnable.
- The thread yields, by use of the `yield()` method, or its `run()` method exits.
- Its time allotment has expired. This only applies to systems that support time slicing.

This type of scheduling is based on a scheduling algorithm called **fixed priority scheduling**. Threads are run based on their priority when compared to other threads. The thread with the highest priority will always be running.

**Time slicing**

Some operating systems use a scheduling mechanism known as **time-slicing**. Time-slicing divides the CPU into time slots. The system gives the highest priority threads that are of equal priority time to run, until one or more of them finishes, or until a higher priority thread is in a runnable state. Because time-slicing is not supported on all operating systems, your program should not depend on a time-slicing scheduling mechanism.

**Synchronizing threads**

One of the central problems of multithreaded computing is handling situations where more than one thread has access to the same data structure. For example, if one thread was trying to update the elements in a list, while another thread was simultaneously trying to sort them, your program could deadlock or produce incorrect results. To prevent this problem, you need to use thread synchronization.

The simplest way to prevent two objects from accessing the same method at the same time is to require a thread to obtain a lock. While a thread holds the lock, another thread that needs a lock has to wait until the first thread releases the lock. To keep a method thread-safe, use the `synchronized`
Thread groups

keyword when declaring methods that can only be executed by one
thread at a time. Note than you can also synchronize on an object.

For example, if you create a `swap()` method that swaps values using a local
variable and you create two different threads to execute the method, your
program could produce incorrect results. The first thread, due to the Java
scheduler, might only be able to execute the first half of the method. Then,
the second thread might be able to execute the entire method, but using
incorrect values (since the first thread did not complete the operation).
The first thread would then return to finish the method. In this case, it
would appear as if the swapping of values never took place. To prevent
this from happening, use the `synchronized` keyword in your method
declaration.

As a basic rule, any method that modifies an object’s property should be
declared `synchronized`.

Thread groups

Every Java thread is a member of a thread group. A thread group collects
multiple threads into a single object and manipulates all those threads at
once. Thread groups are implemented by the `java.lang.ThreadGroup` class.

The runtime system puts a thread into a thread group during thread
construction. The thread is either put into a default group or into a thread
group you specify when the thread is created. You cannot move a thread
into a new group once the thread has been created.

If you create a thread without specifying a group name in its constructor,
the runtime system places the new thread in the same group as the thread
that created it. Usually, unspecified threads are put into the `main` thread
group. However, if you create a thread in an applet, the new thread might
be put into a thread group other than `main`, depending on the browser or
viewer the applet is running in.

If you construct a thread with a `ThreadGroup`, the group can be:

- A name of your own creation
- A group created by the Java runtime
- A group created by the application in which your applet is running

To obtain the name of the group your thread is part of, use the
group method. Once you know a thread’s group, you can
determine what other threads are in the group and manipulate them all at
once.
Object serialization is the process of storing a complete object to disk or other storage system, ready to be restored at any time. The process of restoring the object is known as deserialization. In this section, you’ll learn why serialization is useful and how Java implements serialization and deserialization.

An object that has been serialized is said to be persistent. Most objects in memory are transient, meaning that they go away when their references drop out of scope or the computer loses power. Persistent objects exist as long as there is a copy of them stored somewhere on a disk, tape, or in ROM.

Why serialize?

Traditionally, saving data to a disk or other storage device required that you define a special data format, write a set of functions to write and read that format, and create a mapping between the file format and the format of your data. The functions to read and write data were either simple and lacked extensibility, or they were complex and difficult to create and maintain.

Java is completely based around objects and object-oriented programming and provides a storage mechanism for objects in the form of serialization. Using the Java way of doing things, you no longer have to worry about details of file formats and input/output (I/O). Instead, you can concentrate on solving your real-world tasks by designing and implementing objects. If, for instance, you make a class persistent and later add new fields to it, you don’t have to worry about modifying routines that read and write the data for you. All fields in a serialized object will automatically be written and restored.
Java serialization

Serialization first appeared as a feature of JDK 1.1. Java’s support for serialization consists of the `Serializable` interface, the `ObjectOutputStream` class and the `ObjectInputStream` class, as well as a few supporting classes and interfaces. We’ll examine all three of these items as we demonstrate an application that can save user information to a disk and read it back.

Suppose, for instance, you wanted to save information about a particular user as shown here.

![Figure 8.1 Saving a user name and password](image)

After the user types in his or her name and password into the appropriate fields, the application should save information about this user to disk. Of course, this is a very simple example, but you can easily imagine saving data about user application preferences, the last document opened, and so on.

Using JBuilder, you can design a user interface like the one shown above. See the *Designing Applications with JBuilder* book if you need help with this task. Name the Name text field `textFieldName`, and the password field `passwordFieldName`. Besides the two labels you can see, add a third one near the bottom of the frame and name it `labelOutput`.

### Using the Serializable interface

Create a new class that represents the current user. It must have properties that represent the user’s name and the user’s password.

To create the new class,

1. Choose File | New Class to display the Class wizard.
2. In the Class Information section, specify the new class name as `UserInfo`. Leave the other fields unchanged.
3. In the Options section, check just the Public and Generate Default Constructor options, unchecking all others.
4 Choose OK.

The Class wizard creates the new class file for you and adds it to the project. Modify the generated code so that it looks like this:

```java
package serialize;

public class UserInfo implements java.io.Serializable {
    private String userName = "";
    private String userPassword = "";

    public UserInfo() {
    }

    public String getUserName() {
        return userName;
    }

    public void setUserName(String s) {
        userName = s;
    }

    public String getUserPassword() {
        return userPassword;
    }

    public void setUserPassword(String s) {
        userPassword = s;
    }
}
```

You’ve added a variable that holds the user’s name and another for the user’s password. You’ve also added accessor methods to both fields. You’ll note that the `UserInfo` class implements the `java.io.Serializable` interface. `Serializable` is known as a tagging interface because it specifies no methods to be implemented, but merely “tags” its objects as being of a particular type.

Any object that you expect to serialize must implement the `Serializable` interface. This is critical because the techniques used later in this chapter won’t work otherwise. If, for instance, you try to serialize an object that does not implement this interface, a `NotSerializableException` will be raised.

At this point, you should import the `java.io` package so that your application has access to the input and output classes and interfaces to needs to write and read objects. Add this import statement to those at the top of your frame class:

```java
import java.io.*
```
Before you serialize the UserInfo object, you must instantiate it and set it up with the values that the user enters into the text fields. When the user enters information in the fields and clicks the Serialize button, the values the user entered are stored in the UserInfo object instance:

```java
void jButton1_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    UserInfo user = new UserInfo();  // instantiate a user object
    user.setUserName(textFieldName.getText());
    user.setUserPassword(textFieldPassword.getText());
}
```

If you are using JBuilder’s UI designer, double-click the Serialize button and JBuilder starts the `jButton1_actionPerformed()` event code for you. Instantiate a user object, then add the `user.setUserName()` and `user.setUserPassword()` method calls to the event handler.

Next, open a FileOutputStream to the file that will contain the serialized data. In this example, the file will be called `C:\userInfo.ser`. Add this code to the Serialize button event handler:

```java
try {
    FileOutputStream file = new FileOutputStream("c:\userInfo.ser");
}
```

Create an ObjectOutputStream that will serialize the object and send it to the FileOutputStream by adding this code to the event handler:

```java
ObjectOutputStream out = new ObjectOutputStream(file);
```

Now you’re ready to send the UserInfo object to the file. Do this by calling the ObjectOutputStream’s `writeObject()` method. Call the `flush()` method to flush the output buffer to ensure that the object is actually written to the file.

```java
out.writeObject(u);
out.flush();
```

Close the output stream to free up any resources, such as file descriptors, used by the stream.

```java
out.close();
```

Add code to the handler that catches an IOException if there were any problems writing to the file or if the object does not support the Serializable interface.

```java
catch (java.io.IOException IOE) {
    labelOutput.setText("IOException");
}
```
This is how the event handler for the Serialize button should look in its entirety:

```java
void jButton1_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    UserInfo user = new UserInfo();
    user.setUserName(textFieldName.getText());
    user.setUserPassword(textFieldPassword.getText());
    try {
        FileOutputStream file = new FileOutputStream("c:\userInfo.ser");
        ObjectOutputStream out = new ObjectOutputStream(file);
        out.writeObject(user);
        out.flush();
    } catch (java.io.IOException IOE) {
        labelOutput.setText("IOException");
    }
    finally {
        out.close();
    }
}
```

Now compile your project and run it. Enter values in the Name and Password fields and click the Serialize button. You can verify that the object has been written by opening it in a text editor. (Don’t try to edit it, or the file will probably be corrupted!) Notice that a serialized object contains a mixture of ASCII text and binary data:

![Figure 8.2 The serialized object](#)

**ObjectOutputStream methods**

The `ObjectOutputStream` class contains several useful methods for writing data to a stream. You aren’t restricted to writing objects. Calling `writeInt()`, `writeFloat()`, `writeDouble()`, and so on, will write any of the fundamental types to a stream. If you want to write more than one object or fundamental type to the same stream, you can do so by repeatedly calling these methods against the same `ObjectOutputStream` object. When you do this, however, you must read the objects back in the same order.

**Using input streams**

You have now written the object to the disk, but how do you get it back? Once the user clicks the Deserialize button, you want to read the data back from the disk into a new object.
You can begin the process by creating a new FileInputStream object to read from the file you just wrote. If you are using JBuilder, double-click the Deserialize button in the UI Designer, and in the event handler that JBuilder creates for you, add the highlighted code:

```java
void jButton2_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    try {
        FileInputStream file = new FileInputStream("c:\userInfo.ser");
    }
}
```

Next, create an ObjectInputStream, which gives you the capability to read objects from that file.

```java
ObjectInputStream input = new ObjectInputStream(file);
```

After this, call the ObjectInputStream.readObject() method to read the first object from the file. readObject() returns type Object, so you’ll want to cast it to the appropriate type (UserInfo).

```java
UserInfo user = (UserInfo)input.readObject();
```

When you’re done reading, remember to close the ObjectInputStream, so you free up any resources associated with it, such as file descriptors.

```java
input.close();
```

Finally, you can use the user object as you would any other object of the UserInfo class. In this case, you display the name and password in the third label field you added to the dialog box:

```java
labelOutput.setText("Name is " + user.getUserName() + 
    ", password is: " + 
    user.getUserPassword());
```

Reading from a file could cause an IOException, so you should handle this exception. You might also get a StreamCorruptedException (a subclass of IOException) if the file has been corrupted in any way:

```java
    catch (java.io.IOException IOE) {
        labelOutput.setText("IOException");
    }
```

There’s another exception you must deal with. The readObject() method can throw a ClassNotFoundException. This exception can occur if you attempt to read an object for which you have no implementation. For instance, if this object was written by another program, or you have renamed the UserInfo class since the file was written, you’ll get a ClassNotFoundException.

```java
    catch (ClassNotFoundException cnfe) {
        labelOutput.setText("ClassNotFoundException");
    }
```

Here is the Deserialize button event handler in its entirety:

```java
void jButton2_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    try {
        FileInputStream file = new FileInputStream("c:\userInfo.ser");
    }
}
```
ObjectInputStream input = new ObjectInputStream(file);
UserInfo user = (UserInfo)input.readObject();
input.close();
labelOutput.setText("Name is " + user.getUserName() + ", password is: " +
user.getUserPassword());
} catch (java.io.IOException IOE) {
  labelOutput.setText("IOException");
} catch (ClassNotFoundException cnfe) {
  labelOutput.setText("ClassNotFoundException");
}

Now when you compile and run your project, enter Name and Password values and click the Serialize button to store the information on your disk. Then click the Deserialize button to read the serialized UserInfo object back again.

Figure 8.3 The object restored

ObjectInputStream methods

ObjectInputStream also has methods such as readDouble(), readFloat(), and so on, which are the counterparts to the writeDouble(), writeFloat(), and such methods. You must call each method in sequence, the same way the objects were written to the stream.

Writing and reading object streams

You might wonder what happens when an object you are serializing contains a field that refers to another object, rather than a primitive type. In this case, both the base object and the secondary object will be written to the stream. You should realize, however, that both objects written to the stream need to implement the Serializable interface. If they don’t, a
Writing and reading object streams

NotSerializableException will be thrown when the writeObject() method is called.

Recall that object serialization can create potential security problems. In the example above, we wrote a password to a serialized object. While this technique might be acceptable in some circumstances, keep security issues in mind when you choose to serialize an object.

Finally, if you want to create a persistent object, but don’t want to use the default serialization mechanism, the Serializable interface documents two methods, writeObject() and readObject(), which you can implement to perform custom serialization. The Externalizable interface also provides a similar mechanism. Consult the JDK documentation for information about these techniques.
An introduction to the Java Virtual Machine

This chapter provides an introduction to the Java Virtual Machine (JVM). While it is important for you to be familiar with basic information concerning the JVM, unless you get into very advanced Java programming, the JVM is typically something you don’t need to worry about. This chapter is for your information only.

Before exploring the Java Virtual Machine, we will explain some of the terminology used in this chapter. First, the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) is the environment in which Java programs execute. The Java Virtual Machine specification essentially defines an abstract computer, and specifies the instructions that this computer can execute. These instructions are called bytecodes. Generally speaking, Java bytecodes are to the JVM what an instruction set is to a CPU. A bytecode is a byte-long instruction that the Java compiler generates, and the Java interpreter executes. When the compiler compiles a .java file, it produces a series of bytecodes and stores them in a .class file. The Java interpreter can then execute the bytecodes stored in the .class file.

Other terminology used in this chapter involves Java applications and applets. It is sometimes appropriate to distinguish between a Java application and a Java applet. In some sections of this chapter, however, that distinction is inappropriate. In such cases, we will use the word app to refer to both Java applications and Java applets.

It is important here to clarify what Java really is. Java is more than just a computer language; it is a computer environment. This is because Java is composed of two separate main elements, each of which is an essential part of Java: the design-time Java (the Java language itself) and the
runtime Java (the JVM). This interpretation of the word Java is a more technical one.

Interestingly enough, the practical interpretation of the word Java is that it stands for the runtime environment — not the language. When you say something like “this machine can run Java,” what you really mean is that the machine supports the Java Runtime Environment (JRE); more precisely, it implements a Java Virtual Machine.

A distinction should be made between the Java Virtual Machine Specification and an implementation of the Java Virtual Machine. The JVM specification is a document (available from Sun’s website) which defines how to implement a JVM. When an implementation of the JVM correctly follows this specification, it essentially ensures that Java apps can run on this implementation of the JVM with the same results those same Java apps produce when running on any other implementation of the JVM. The JVM specification ensures that Java programs will be able to run on any platform.

The JVM specification is platform independent, because it can be implemented on any platform. Note that a specific implementation of the JVM is platform dependent. This is because the JVM implementation is the only portion of Java that directly interacts with the operating system (OS) of your computer. Because each OS is different, any specific JVM implementation must know how to interact with the specific OS for which it is intended.

Having Java programs run under an implementation of the JVM guarantees a predictable runtime environment, because all implementations of the JVM conform to the JVM specification. Even though there are different implementations of the JVM, they all must meet certain requirements to guarantee portability. In other words, whatever differs among the various implementations does not affect portability.

The JVM is responsible for performing the following functions:

- Allocating memory for created objects
- Performing garbage collection
- Handling register and stack operations
- Calling on the host system for certain functions, such as device access
- Monitoring the security of Java apps

Throughout the remaining chapter, we will focus on the last function: security.
Java VM security

One of the JVM’s most important roles is monitoring the security of Java apps. The JVM uses a specific mechanism to force certain security restrictions on Java apps. This mechanism (or security model) has the following roles:

- Determines to what extent the code being run is “trusted” and assigns it the appropriate level of access
- Assures that bytecodes do not perform illegal operations
- Verifies that every bytecode is generated correctly

In the following sections, we will see how these security roles are taken care of in Java.

The security model

In this section, we will look at some of the different elements in Java’s security model. In particular, we will examine the roles of the Java Verifier, the Security Manager and java.security package, and the Class Loader. These are some of the components that make Java apps secure.

The Java verifier

Every time a class is loaded, it must first go through a verification process. The main role of this verification process is to ensure that each bytecode in the class does not violate the specifications of the Java VM. Examples of bytecode violations are type errors and overflowed or underflowed arithmetic operations. The verification process is handled by the Java verifier, and it consists of the following four stages:

1. Verifying the structure of class files.
2. Performing system-level verifications.
3. Validating bytecodes.
4. Performing runtime type and access checks.

The first stage of the verifier is concerned with verifying the structure of the class file. All class files share a common structure; for example, they must always begin with what is called the magic number, whose value is 0xCAFEBABE. At this stage, the verifier also checks that the constant pool is not corrupted (the constant pool is where the class file’s strings and numbers are stored). In addition, the verifier makes sure that there are no added bytes at the end of the class file.

The second stage performs system-level verifications. This involves verifying the validity of all references to the constant pool, and ensuring that classes are subclassed properly.
The third stage involves validating the bytecodes. This is the most significant and complex stage in the entire verification process. Validating a bytecode means checking that its type is valid and that its arguments have the appropriate number and type. The verifier also checks that method calls are passed the correct type and number of arguments, and that each external function returns the proper type.

The final stage is where runtime checks take place. At this stage, externally referenced classes are loaded, and their methods are checked. The method check involves checking that the method calls match the signature of the methods in the external classes. The verifier also monitors access attempts by the currently loaded class to make sure that the class does not violate access restrictions. Another access check is done on variables to ensure that private and protected variables are not accessed illegally.

From this exhaustive verification process, we can see how important the Java verifier is to the security model. It is also important to note that the verification process must be done at the verifier level, and not at the compiler’s, since any compiler can be programmed to generate Java bytecodes. Clearly then, relying on the compiler to perform the verification process is dangerous, since the compiler can be programmed to bypass it. This point illustrates why the JVM is necessary.

If you need more information on the Java verifier, please see the Java Virtual Machine Specification.

The Security Manager and the java.security Package

One of the classes defined in the java.lang package is the SecurityManager class. This class checks the security policy on Java apps to determine if the running app has permission to perform certain dangerous operations. The security policy’s main role is to determine access rights. In Java 1.1, the SecurityManager class was solely responsible for setting the security policy, but in Java 2 and above, a much more detailed and robust security model is achieved using the new java.security package. The SecurityManager class has several methods that begin with “check”. In Java 1.1, the default implementation of those “check” methods was to throw a SecurityException. Since Java 2, the default implementation of most of the “check” methods calls SecurityManager.checkPermission(), and that method’s default implementation in turn calls java.security.AccessController.checkPermission(). It is AccessController which is responsible for the actual algorithm for checking permissions.

The SecurityManager class contains many methods used to check whether a particular operation is permitted. The checkRead() and checkWrite() methods, for example, check whether the method caller has the right to perform a read or write operation, respectively, to a specified file. They do this by calling checkPermission(), which in turn calls AccessController.checkPermission(). Many of the methods in the JDK use
Java VM security

the SecurityManager before performing dangerous operations. The JDK does this for legacy reasons; SecurityManager existed in earlier versions of the JDK when there was a much more limited security model. In your apps, you may want to call AccessController.checkPermission() directly, instead of using the SecurityManager class (which calls the same method indirectly anyway).

The static System.setSecurityManager() method can be used to load the default security manager into the environment. Now, whenever a Java app needs to perform a dangerous operation, it can consult with the SecurityManager object that is loaded into the environment.

The way Java apps use the SecurityManager class is generally the same. An instance of SecurityManager is first created, either by using a special command line argument when the app is started ("-Djava.security.manager"), or in code similar to the following:

```java
SecurityManager security = System.getSecurityManager();
```

The System.getSecurityManager() method returns an instance of the currently loaded SecurityManager. If no SecurityManager has been set using the System.setSecurityManager() method, System.getSecurityManager() returns null; otherwise, it returns an instance of the SecurityManager that was loaded into the environment. Now, let’s assume that the app wants to check whether it can read a file. It does so as follows:

```java
if (security != null) {
    security.checkRead(fileName);
}
```

The if statement first checks whether a SecurityManager object exists, then it makes the call to the checkRead() method. If checkRead() does not permit the operation, a SecurityException is thrown and the operation never takes place; otherwise, all goes well.

There is typically a security manager loaded when an applet is running, because most Java-enabled browsers automatically use one. An application, on the other hand, does not automatically use a security manager, unless one is loaded into the environment using the System.setSecurityManager() method, or from the command line when starting the application. To use the same security policy for an application as for an applet, you must make sure the security manager is loaded.

In order to specify your own security policy, you will need to work with the classes in the java.security package. Important classes in this package include Policy, Permission, and AccessController. You should not subclass SecurityManager except as a last resort, and then with extreme caution. An in-depth discussion of the security package is outside the scope of this book. The default security policy should suffice for most beginning Java developers. When you do find you are concerned with more advanced security topics, or just for more information on the java.security package,
Java VM security

please see the “Security Architecture” document in the JDK documentation.

The class loader

The class loader works alongside the security manager to monitor the security of Java apps. The main roles of the class loader are summarized below:

- Determines whether the class it is attempting to load has already been loaded
- Loads class files into the Virtual Machine
- Determines the permissions assigned to the loaded class in accordance with the security policy
- Provides certain information about loaded classes to the security manager
- Determines the path from which the class should be loaded (System classes are always loaded from the `BOOTCLASSPATH`)

Each instance of a class is associated with a class loader object, which is an instance of a subclass of the abstract class `java.lang.ClassLoader`. Class loading happens automatically when a class is instantiated. It is possible to create a custom class loader by subclassing `ClassLoader` or one of its existing subclasses, but in most cases this is not necessary. If you need more information about the class loader mechanism, see the documentation for `java.lang.ClassLoader` and the “Security Architecture” document in the JDK documentation.

So far, we’ve seen how the Java verifier, the `SecurityManager`, and the class loader work to ensure the security of Java apps. In addition to these, there are other mechanisms not described in this chapter, such as those in the `java.security` package, which add to the security of Java apps. There is also a measure of security built into the Java language itself, but that is outside the scope of this chapter.

What about Just-In-Time compilers?

It is appropriate to include a brief discussion of Just-In-Time (JIT) compilers in this chapter. JIT compilers translate Java bytecodes into native machine instructions to be directly executed by the CPU. This obviously boosts the performance of Java apps. But if native instructions are executed instead of bytecodes, what happens to the verification process mentioned earlier? Actually, the verification process does not change because the Java verifier still verifies the bytecodes before they are translated.
Chapter 10

Working with the Java Native Interface (JNI)

This chapter explains how to invoke native methods in Java applications using the Java Native Method Interface (JNI). It begins by explaining how the JNI works, then discusses the native keyword and how any Java method can become a native method. Finally, it examines the JDK’s javah tool, which is used to generate C header files for Java classes.

Even though Java code is designed to run on multiple platforms, there are certain situations where it may not be enough by itself. For example,

- The standard Java class library doesn’t support platform-dependent features needed by your application.
- You want to access an existing library from another language and make it accessible to your Java code.
- You have code you want to implement in a lower-level program like assembly, then have your Java application call it.

The Java Native Interface is a standard cross-platform programming interface included in the JDK. It enables you to write Java programs that can operate with applications and libraries written in other programming languages, such as C, C++, and assembly.

Using JNI, you can write Java native methods to create, inspect, and update Java objects (including arrays and strings), call Java methods, catch and throw exceptions, load classes and obtain class information, and perform runtime type checking.

In addition, you can use the Invocation API to embed the Java Virtual Machine into your native applications, then use the JNI interface pointer...
How JNI works

to access VM features. This allows you to make existing applications Java-enabled without having to link with the VM source code.

How JNI works

In order to achieve Java’s main goal of platform independence, Sun did not standardize its implementation of the Java Virtual Machine; in other words, Sun did not want to rigidly specify the internal architecture of the JVM, but allowed vendors to have their own implementations of the JVM. This does not preclude Java from being platform-independent, because every JVM implementation must still comply with certain standards needed to achieve platform independence (such as the standard structure of a .class file).

The only problem with this scenario is that accessing native libraries from Java apps becomes difficult, since the runtime system differs across the various JVM implementations. For that reason, Sun came up with the JNI as a standard way for accessing native libraries from Java applications.

The way native methods are accessed from Java applications changed in the JDK 1.1. The old way allowed a Java class to directly access methods in a native library. The new implementation uses the JNI as an intermediate layer between a Java class and a native library. Instead of having the JVM make direct calls to native methods, the JVM uses a pointer to the JNI to make the actual calls. This way, even if the JVM implementations are different, the layer they use to access the native methods (the JNI) is always the same.

Using the native keyword

Making Java methods native is very easy. Below is a summary of the required steps:

1. Delete the body of the method.
2. Add a semicolon at the end of the method’s signature.
3. Add the native keyword at the beginning of the method’s signature.
4. Include the method’s body in a native library to be loaded at runtime.

For example, assume the following method exists in a Java class:

```java
public void nativeMethod () {
    //the method's body
}
```

This is how the method becomes native:

```java
public native void nativeMethod ();
```
Now that you’ve declared the method to be native, its actual implementation will be included in a native library. It is the duty of the class, of which this method is a member, to invoke the library so its implementation becomes globally available. The easiest way to have the class invoke the library is to add the following to the class:

```java
static {
    System.loadLibrary (nameOfLibrary);
}
```

A static code block is always executed once when the class is first loaded. You can include virtually anything in a static code block. However, loading libraries is the most common use for it. If, for some reason, the library fails to load, an UnsatisfiedLinkError exception will be thrown once a method from that library is called. The JVM will add the correct extension to its name (.dll in Windows, and .so in UNIX) — you don’t have to specify it in the library name.

**Using the javah tool**

The JDK supplies a tool called javah, which is used to generate C header files for Java classes. The following is the general syntax for using javah:

```
javah [options] className
```

className represents the name of the class (without the .class extension) for which you want to generate a C header file. You can specify more than one class at the command line. For each class, javah adds a .h file to the class’s directory by default. To put the .h files in a different directory, use the -o option. If a class is in a package, you must specify the package along with the class name.

For example, to generate a header file for the class myClass in the package myPackage, do the following:

```
javah myPackage.myClass
```

The generated header file will include the package name, (myPackage_myClass.h).

Below is a list of some of the javah options:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-jni</td>
<td>Creates a JNI header file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-verbose</td>
<td>Displays progress information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-version</td>
<td>Displays the version of javah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-o directoryName</td>
<td>Outputs the .h file in specified directory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-classpath path</td>
<td>Overrides the default class path</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using the javah tool

The contents of the .h file generated by javah include all the function prototypes for the native methods in the class. The prototypes are modified to allow the Java runtime system to find and invoke the native methods. This modification basically involves changing the name of the method according to a naming convention established for native method invocation. The modified name includes the prefix Java_ to the class and method names. So, if you have a native method called nativeMethod in a class called, myClass, the name that appears in the myClass.h file is Java_myClass_nativeMethod.

For more information on JNI, see the following:

- Java Native Interface at http://java.sun.com/j2se/1.3/docs/guide/jni/

The following books on Java Native Interface are also available:

  amazon.com
  fatbrain.com

- “Essential Jni: Java Native Interface (Essential Java)”, by Rob Gordon
  amazon.com
  fatbrain.com
Java 2 platform editions

The Java 2 Platform is available in several editions used for various purposes. Because Java is a language that can run anywhere and on any platform, it is used in a variety of environments and has been packaged in several editions: Java 2 Standard Edition (J2SE), Java 2 Enterprise Edition (J2EE), and Java 2 Micro Edition (J2ME). In some cases, as in the development of enterprise applications, a larger set of packages is used. In other cases, as in consumer electronic products, only a small portion of the language is used. Each edition contains a Java 2 Software Development Kit (SDK) used to develop applications and a Java 2 Runtime Environment (JRE) used to run applications.

Table 11.1  Java 2 Platform editions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Java 2 Platform</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard Edition</td>
<td>J2SE</td>
<td>Contains classes that are the core of the Java language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise Edition</td>
<td>J2EE</td>
<td>Contains J2SE classes and additional classes for developing enterprise applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Edition</td>
<td>J2ME</td>
<td>Contains a subset of J2SE classes and is used in consumer electronic products.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Java class libraries

Java, like most programming languages, relies heavily on pre-built libraries to support certain functionality. In the Java language, these groups of related classes called packages vary by Java edition. Each
edition is used for specific purposes, such as applications, enterprise applications, and consumer products.

The Java 2 Platform, Standard Edition (J2SE) provides developers with a feature-rich, stable, secure, cross-platform development environment. This Java edition supports such core features as database connectivity, user interface design, input/output, and network programming and includes the fundamental packages of the Java language. Some of these J2SE packages are listed in the following table.

### Table 11.2  J2SE packages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Package</th>
<th>Package Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>java.lang</td>
<td>Classes that contain the main core of the Java language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>java.util</td>
<td>Support for utility data structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/O</td>
<td>java.io</td>
<td>Support for various types of input/output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>java.text</td>
<td>Localization support for handling text, dates, numbers, and messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>java.math</td>
<td>Classes for performing arbitrary-precision integer and floating-point arithmetic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWT</td>
<td>java.awt</td>
<td>User interface design and event-handling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swing</td>
<td>javax.swing</td>
<td>Classes for creating all-Java, lightweight components that behave similarly on all platforms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Javax</td>
<td>javax</td>
<td>Extensions to the Java language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applet</td>
<td>java.applet</td>
<td>Classes for creating applets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>java.beans</td>
<td>Classes for developing JavaBeans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>java.lang.reflect</td>
<td>Classes used to obtain runtime class information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQL</td>
<td>java.sql</td>
<td>Support for accessing and processing data in databases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMI</td>
<td>java.rmi</td>
<td>Support for distributed programming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>java.net</td>
<td>Classes that support development of networking applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>java.security</td>
<td>Support for cryptographic security.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Java keywords

These tables cover the following types of keywords:

- Data and return types and terms
- Packages, classes, members, and interfaces
- Access modifiers
- Loops and flow controls

11-2  Getting Started with Java
• Exception handling
• Reserved

Data and return types and terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>Boolean values.</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>16 bits, one character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>one byte, integer.</td>
<td>float</td>
<td>4 bytes, single-precision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>2 bytes, integer.</td>
<td>double</td>
<td>8 bytes, double-precision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>8 bytes, integer.</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>4 bytes, integer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strictfp (proposed) Method or class to use standard precision in floating-point intermediate calculations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void</td>
<td>Return type where no return value is required.</td>
<td>return</td>
<td>Exit the current code block with any resulting values.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Packages, classes, members, and interfaces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>package</td>
<td>Declares a package name for all classes defined in source files with the same package declaration.</td>
<td>import</td>
<td>Makes all classes in the imported class or package visible to the current program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td>Declares a Java class.</td>
<td>new</td>
<td>Instantiates a class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super</td>
<td>Inside a subclass, refers to the superclass.</td>
<td>instanceof</td>
<td>Checks an object’s inheritance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>final</td>
<td>This class can’t be extended.</td>
<td>abstract</td>
<td>This method or class must be extended to be used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extends</td>
<td>Creates a subclass.</td>
<td>implements</td>
<td>In a class definition, implements a defined interface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interface</td>
<td>Abstracts a class’s interface from its implementation (tells what to do, not how to do it).</td>
<td>synchronized</td>
<td>Makes a code block thread-safe.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Java keywords

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| native | The body of this method
is provided by a link to a
native library. | this | Refers to the current object. |
| static | Member is available to
the whole class, not just
one object. | transient | This variable’s value won’t
persist when the object is
stored. |
| volatile | This variable’s value can
change unexpectedly. | |

Access modifiers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| public | Class: accessible from
anywhere. Subclass: accessible as
long as its class is accessible. | protected | Access limited to member’s
class’s package. |
| private | Access limited to
member’s own class. | package | Default access level; don’t
use it explicitly. Cannot be subclassed by
another package. |

Loops and flow controls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>Selection statement.</td>
<td>else</td>
<td>Selection statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>switch</td>
<td>Selection statement.</td>
<td>case</td>
<td>Selection statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td>Breakout statement.</td>
<td>default</td>
<td>Fallback statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for</td>
<td>Iteration statement.</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>Iteration statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while</td>
<td>Iteration statement.</td>
<td>continue</td>
<td>Iteration statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assert</td>
<td>Checks a condition before allowing a statement to be executed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Java language quick reference

Converting and casting data types

Exception handling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>throws</td>
<td>Lists the exceptions a method could throw.</td>
<td>throw</td>
<td>Transfers control of the method to the exception handler.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>try</td>
<td>Opening exception-handling statement.</td>
<td>catch</td>
<td>Captures the exception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally</td>
<td>Runs its code before terminating the program.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reserved

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>goto</td>
<td>Reserved for future use.</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>Reserved for future use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Converting and casting data types

An object or variable’s data type can be altered for a single operation when a different type is required. Widening conversions (from a smaller class or data type to a larger) can be implicit, but it’s good practice to convert explicitly. Narrowing conversions must be explicitly converted, or cast. Novice programmers should avoid casts; they can be a rich source of errors and confusion.

For narrowing casts, put the type you want to cast to in parentheses immediately before the variable you want to cast: \( int \times \). This is what it looks like in context, where \( x \) is the variable being cast, float is the original data type, int is the target data type, and \( y \) is the variable storing the new value:

```java
float x = 1.00; //declaring x as a float
int y = (int)x; //casting x to an int named y
```

This assumes that the value of \( x \) would fit inside of int. Note that \( x \)’s decimal values are lost in the conversion. Java rounds decimals down to the nearest whole number.

Note that Unicode sequences can represent numbers, letters, symbols, or nonprinting characters such as line breaks or tabs. For more information on Unicode, see http://www.unicode.org/
This section contains tables of the following conversions:

- Primitive to primitive
- Primitive to String
- Primitive to reference
- String to primitive
- Reference to primitive
- Reference to reference

## Primitive to primitive

Java doesn’t support casting to or from `boolean` values. In order to work around Java’s strict logical typing, you must assign an appropriate equivalent value to the variable and then convert that. 0 and 1 are often used to represent `false` and `true` values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From other primitive type <code>p</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>boolean t</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>t = p != 0;</code></td>
<td>Other primitive types include <code>byte, short, char, int, long, double, float.</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>boolean t</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>byte b</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>b = (byte)(t ? 1 : 0);</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>boolean t</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>int, long, double, or float m</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>m = t ? 1 : 0;</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>boolean t</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>short s</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>s = (short) (t ? 1 : 0);</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>boolean t</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>byte b</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>b = (byte) (t ? 1 : 0);</code></td>
<td>You can omit the single quotes, but they are recommended.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>boolean t</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>char c</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>c = (char) (t?'1':'0');</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From <code>short, char, int, long, double, or float n</code>&lt;br&gt;To <code>byte b</code>:<code>&lt;br&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;<code>b = (byte)n;</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Converting and casting data types

### Converting from Primitive to String

**From** `byte b`  
**To** `short, int, long, double, or float n:`

```java
n = b;
```

**From** `byte b`  
**To** `char c`:

```java
c = (char)b;
```

### Primitive to String

Primitive data types are mutable; reference types are immutable objects. Casting to or from a reference type is risky.

Java doesn’t support casting to or from `boolean` values. In order to work around Java’s strict logical typing, you must assign an appropriate equivalent value to the variable and then convert that. 0 and 1 are often used to represent `false` and `true` values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** `boolean t`  
**To** `String gg:`

```java
gg = t ? "true" : "false";
```

| **From** `byte b`  
**To** `String gg:`

```java
gg = Integer.toString(b);
```

**or**

```java
gg = String.valueOf(b);
```

**The following may be substituted for `toString`, where appropriate:**

- `toBinaryString`
- `toOctalString`
- `toHexString`

**Where you are using a base other than 10 or 2 (such as 8):**

```java
gg = Integer.toString(b, 7);
```

| **From** `short` or `int n`  
**To** `String gg:`

```java
gg = Integer.toString(n);
```

**or**

```java
gg = String.valueOf(n);
```

**The following may be substituted for `toString`, where appropriate:**

- `toBinaryString`
- `toOctalString`
- `toHexString`

**Where you are using a base other than 10 (such as 8):**

```java
gg = Integer.toString(n, 7);
```

| **From** `char c`  
**To** `String gg:`

```java
gg = String.valueOf(c);
```
Converting and casting data types

### Syntax

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>String gg:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| long n | String gg: | gg = Long.toString(n);  
or | gg = String.valueOf(n); |

**Comments**

The following may be substituted for `toString`, where appropriate:

- `toBinaryString`
- `toOctalString`
- `toHexString`

Where you are using a base other than 10 or 2 (such as 8):

- `gg = Integer.toString(n, 7);`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>String gg:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| float f | String gg: | gg = Float.toString(f);  
or | gg = String.valueOf(f); |

**Comments**

These casts protect more data.

**Double precision:**

- `java.text.DecimalFormat df2 = new java.text.DecimalFormat("##0.00");
  gg = df2.format(f);`

**Scientific notation (protects exponents) (JDK 1.2.x and up):**

- `java.text.DecimalFormat de = new java.text.DecimalFormat("0.0E0");
  gg = de.format(f);`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>String gg:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| double d | String gg: | gg = Double.toString(d);  
or | gg = String.valueOf(d); |

**Comments**

These casts protect more data.

**Double precision:**

- `java.text.DecimalFormat df2 = new java.text.DecimalFormat("##0.00");
  gg = df2.format(d);`

**Scientific notation (JDK 1.2.x and up):**

- `java.text.DecimalFormat de = new java.text.DecimalFormat("0.0E0");
  gg = de.format(d);`

### Primitive to reference

Java provides classes that correspond to primitive data types and provide methods that facilitate conversions.

Note that primitive data types are mutable; reference types are immutable objects. Casting to or from a reference type is risky.

Java doesn’t support casting to or from boolean values. In order to work around Java’s strict logical typing, you must assign an appropriate
Converting and casting data types

Equivalent value to the variable and then convert that. 0 and 1 are often used to represent false and true values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tt = new Boolean(t);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Primitive type p (other than boolean)</td>
<td>For char c, put single quotes around the zero:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tt = new Boolean(p != 0);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For char, see next column.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cc = new Character(t ? '1' : '0');</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cc = new Character((char) b);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From char c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cc = new Character(c);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From short, int, long, float, or double n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cc = new Character((char)n);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii = new Integer(t ? 1 : 0);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii = new Integer(b);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From short, char, or int n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii = new Integer(n);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From long, float, or double f</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii = new Integer((int) f);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Long nn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nn = new Long(t ? 1 : 0);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Long nn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nn = new Long(b);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From short, char, int, or long s To long nn:</td>
<td>nn = new Long(s);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From float, double f To long nn:</td>
<td>nn = new Long((long)f);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t To float ff:</td>
<td>ff = new Float(t ? 1 : 0);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From byte b To float ff:</td>
<td>ff = new Float(b);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From short, char, int, long, float, or double n To float ff:</td>
<td>ff = new Float(n);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From boolean t To double dd:</td>
<td>dd = new Double(t ? 1 : 0);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From byte b To double dd:</td>
<td>dd = new Double(b);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From short, char, int, long, float, or double n To double dd:</td>
<td>dd = new Double(n);</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

String to primitive

Note that primitive data types are mutable; reference types are immutable objects. Casting to or from a reference type is risky.

Java doesn’t support casting to or from boolean values. In order to work around Java’s strict logical typing, you must assign an appropriate equivalent value to the variable and then convert that. The numbers
0 and 1, the strings “true” and “false”, or equally intuitive values are used here to represent \texttt{true} and \texttt{false} values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From \texttt{String \textit{gg}} To \texttt{boolean \textit{t}}:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| \begin{verbatim}
t = new Boolean(\textit{gg}.trim()).booleanValue();
\end{verbatim} | \textbf{Caution:} \textit{t} will only be \texttt{true} when the value of \textit{gg} is “true” (case insensitive); if the string is “1”, “yes”, or any other affirmative, this conversion will return a \texttt{false} value. |
| From \texttt{String gg} To \texttt{byte \textit{b}}: |
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{b} = (byte)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim());
} catch (NumberFormatException \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | \textbf{Note:} If the value of \textit{gg} is null, \texttt{trim()} will throw a \texttt{NullPointerException}. If you don’t use \texttt{trim()}, make sure there’s no trailing white space. For bases other than 10, such as 8:
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{b} = (byte)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim(), 8);
} catch (NumberFormatExcepcion \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | |
| From \texttt{String gg} To \texttt{short \textit{s}}: |
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{s} = (short)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim());
} catch (NumberFormatException \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | \textbf{Note:} If the value of \textit{gg} is null, \texttt{trim()} will throw a \texttt{NullPointerException}. If you don’t use \texttt{trim()}, make sure there’s no trailing white space. For bases other than 10, such as 8:
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{s} = (short)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim(), 8);
} catch (NumberFormatExcepcion \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | |
| From \texttt{String gg} To \texttt{char \textit{c}}: |
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{c} = (char)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim());
} catch (NumberFormatException \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | \textbf{Note:} If the value of \textit{gg} is null, \texttt{trim()} will throw a \texttt{NullPointerException}. If you don’t use \texttt{trim()}, make sure there’s no trailing white space. For bases other than 10, such as 8:
| \begin{verbatim}
try {
  \textit{c} = (char)Integer.parseInt(\textit{gg}.trim(), 8);
} catch (NumberFormatExcepcion \textit{e}) {
  ... 
}
\end{verbatim} | |
## Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** String `gg`  
**To** int `i`  
try {  
  `i = Integer.parseInt(gg.trim());`  
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} | Note: If the value of `gg` is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don't use `trim()`, make sure there's no trailing white space.  
For bases other than 10, such as 8:  
try {  
  `i = Integer.parseInt(gg.trim(), 7);`  
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} |
| **From** String `gg`  
**To** long `n`  
try {  
  `n = Long.parseLong(gg.trim());`  
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} | Note: If the value of `gg` is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don't use `trim()`, make sure there's no trailing white space. |
| **From** String `gg`  
**To** float `f`  
try {  
  `f = Float.valueOf(gg.trim()).floatValue;`  
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} | Note: If the value of `gg` is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don't use `trim()`, make sure there's no trailing white space.  
For JDK 1.2.x or better:  
```java
try {  
  f = Float.parseFloat(gg.trim());
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} |
| **From** String `gg`  
**To** double `d`  
try {  
  `d = Double.valueOf(gg.trim()).doubleValue;`  
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} | Note: If the value of `gg` is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don't use `trim()`, make sure there's no trailing white space.  
For JDK 1.2.x or better:  
```java
try {  
  d = Double.parseDouble(gg.trim());
}  
catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ```
  ...
  ```
} |

## Reference to primitive

Java provides classes that correspond to the primitive data types. This table shows how to convert a variable from one of these classes to a primitive data type for a single operation.
To convert from a reference type to a primitive, you must first get the value of the reference as a primitive, then cast the primitive.

Primitive data types are mutable; reference types are immutable objects. Converting to or from a reference type is risky.

Java doesn’t support casting to or from boolean values. In order to work around Java’s strict logical typing, you must assign an appropriate equivalent value to the variable and then convert that. 0 and 1 are often used to represent false and true values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t = tt.booleanValue();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b = (byte)(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To short s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s = (short)(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To char c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c = (char)(tt.booleanValue() ? '1' : '0');</td>
<td>You may omit the single quotes, but they are recommended.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Boolean tt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To int, long, float, or double n:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t = cc.charValue() != 0;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b = (byte)cc.charValue();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To short s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s = (short)cc.charValue();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Character cc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To char, int, long, float, or double n:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = cc.charValue();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To boolean t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t = ii.intValue() != 0;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Integer ii</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To byte b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b = ii.byteValue();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| From `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `nn`  
To `short` `s`:  
  
  ```java
  s = nn.shortValue();
  ```  |
| From `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `nn`  
To `char` `c`:  
  
  ```java
  c = (char)nn.intValue();
  ```  |
| From `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `nn`  
To `int` `i`:  
  
  ```java
  i = nn.intValue();
  ```  |
| From `Integer` `ii`  
To `long` `n`:  
  
  ```java
  n = ii.longValue();
  ```  |
| From `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `dd`  
To `long` `n`:  
  
  ```java
  n = dd.longValue();
  ```  |
| From `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `nn`  
To `float` `f`:  
  
  ```java
  f = nn.floatValue();
  ```  |
| From `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, or `Double` `nn`  
To `double` `d`:  
  
  ```java
  d = nn.doubleValue();
  ```  |

### Reference to reference

Java provides classes that correspond to the primitive data types. This table shows how to convert a variable from one of these classes to another for a single operation.

**Note** For legal class to class conversions apart from what’s shown here, widening conversions are implicit. Narrowing casts use this syntax:

```java
castFromObjectName = (CastToObjectClass)castToObjectName;
```

You must cast between classes that are in the same inheritance hierarchy. If you cast an object to an incompatible class, it will throw a `ClassCastException`.
## Converting and Casting Data Types

Reference types are immutable objects. Converting between reference types is risky.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** String *gg*  
**To** Boolean *tt*:  
    
        tt = new Boolean(*gg*.trim()); | Note: If the value of *gg* is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don’t use `trim()`, make sure there’s no trailing white space.  
Alternative:  
    
    tt = Boolean.valueOf(*gg*.trim()); |
| **From** String *gg*  
**To** Character *cc*:  
    
        cc = new Character(*gg*.charAt(<index>)); | Note: If the value of *gg* is null, `trim()` will throw a `NullPointerException`. If you don’t use `trim()`, make sure there’s no trailing white space. |
| **From** String *gg*  
**To** Integer *ii*:  
    
        try {  
            *ii* = new Integer(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch (NumberFormatException *e*) {  
    
        } | Alternative:  
    
        try {  
            *ii* = Integer.valueOf(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch (NumberFormatException *e*) {  
    
        } |
| **From** String *gg*  
**To** Long *nn*:  
    
        try {  
            *nn* = new Long(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch (NumberFormatException *e*) {  
    
        } | Alternative:  
    
        try {  
            *nn* = Long.valueOf(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch (NumberFormatException *e*) {  
    
        } |
| **From** String *gg*  
**To** Float *ff*:  
    
        try {  
            *ff* = new Float(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch (NumberFormatException *e*) {  
    
        } | Alternative:  
    
        try {  
            *ff* = Float.valueOf(*gg*.trim());  
        }  
        catch  
    
    ```
## Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** String gg  
**To** Double dd:  
try {  
  dd = new Double(gg.trim());  
} catch ...  
} | **Note:** If the value of gg is null, trim() will throw a NullPointerException. If you don’t use trim(), make sure there’s no trailing white space.  
**Alternative:**  
try {  
  dd = Double.valueOf(gg.trim());  
} catch (NumberFormatException e) {  
  ...  
} |
| **From** Boolean tt  
**To** Character cc:  
cc = new Character(tt.booleanValue() ? '1': '0'); | |
| **From** Boolean tt  
**To** Integer ii:  
ii = new Integer(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0); | |
| **From** Boolean tt  
**To** Long nn:  
nn = new Long(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0); | |
| **From** Boolean tt  
**To** Float ff:  
ff = new Float(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0); | |
| **From** Boolean tt  
**To** Double dd:  
dd = new Double(tt.booleanValue() ? 1 : 0); | |
| **From** Character cc  
**To** Boolean tt:  
  tt = new Boolean(cc.charValue() != '0'); | |
| **From** Character cc  
**To** Integer ii:  
  ii = new Integer(cc.charValue()); | |
| **From** Character cc  
**To** Long nn:  
  nn = new Long(cc.charValue()); | |
| **From** any class rr  
**To** String gg:  
  gg = rr.toString(); | |
## Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** Float ff  
**To** String gg:  

gg = ff.toString(); | These variations protect more data.  
Double precision:  
```
java.text.DecimalFormat df2  
    = new  
java.text.DecimalFormat("###,##0.00*");  
gg = df2.format(ff.floatValue());
```
Scientific notation (JDK 1.2.x on up):  
```
java.text.DecimalFormat de  
    = new  
java.text.DecimalFormat("0.000000E00");  
gg = de.format(ff.floatValue());
```

| From Double dd  
**To** String gg:  

gg = dd.toString(); | These variations protect more data.  
Double precision:  
```
java.text.DecimalFormat df2  
    = new  
java.text.DecimalFormat("###,##0.00*");  
gg = df2.format(dd.doubleValue());
```
Scientific notation (JDK 1.2.x on up):  
```
java.text.DecimalFormat de  
    = new  
java.text.DecimalFormat("0.000000000E00");  
gg = de.format(dd.doubleValue());
```

| From Integer ii  
**To** Boolean tt:  

tt = new Boolean(ii.intValue() != 0); |  
| From Integer ii  
**To** Character cc:  

cc = new Character((char)ii.intValue()); |  

| From Integer ii  
**To** Long nn:  

nn = new Long(ii.intValue()); |  
| From Integer ii  
**To** Float ff:  

ff = new Float(ii.intValue()); |  

| From Integer ii  
**To** Double dd:  

dd = new Double(ii.intValue()); |  

*Java language quick reference  11-17*
### Converting and casting data types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntax</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **From** Long nn  
**To** Boolean tt:  
tt = new Boolean(nn.longValue() != 0); | |
| **From** Long nn  
**To** Character cc:  
cc = new Character((char)nn.intValue()); | Note: Some Unicode values may be rendered as nonprintable characters.  
Consult [http://www.unicode.org/](http://www.unicode.org/) |
| **From** Long nn  
**To** Integer ii:  
ii = new Integer(nn.intValue()); | |
| **From** Long nn  
**To** Float ff:  
ff = new Float(nn.longValue()); | |
| **From** Long nn  
**To** Double dd:  
dd = new Double(nn.longValue()); | |
| **From** Float ff  
**To** Boolean tt:  
tt = new Boolean(ff.floatValue() != 0); | |
| **From** Float ff  
**To** Character cc:  
cc = new Character((char)ff.intValue()); | Note: Some Unicode values may be rendered as nonprintable characters.  
Consult [http://www.unicode.org/](http://www.unicode.org/) |
| **From** Float ff  
**To** Integer ii:  
ii = new Integer(ff.intValue()); | |
| **From** Float ff  
**To** Long nn:  
nn = new Long(ff.longValue()); | |
| **From** Float ff  
**To** Double dd:  
dd = new Double(ff.floatValue()); | |
| **From** Double dd  
**To** Boolean tt:  
tt = new Boolean(dd.doubleValue() != 0); | |
| **From** Double dd  
**To** Character cc:  
cc = new Character((char)dd.intValue()); | Note: Some Unicode values may be rendered as nonprintable characters.  
Consult [http://www.unicode.org/](http://www.unicode.org/) |
Escape sequences

An octal character is represented by a sequence of three octal digits, and a Unicode character is represented by a sequence of four hexadecimal digits. Octal characters are preceded by the standard escape mark, \, and Unicode characters are preceded by \u. For example, the decimal number 57 is represented by the octal code \071 and the Unicode sequence \u0039. Unicode sequences can represent numbers, letters, symbols, or nonprinting characters such as line breaks or tabs. For more information on Unicode, see http://www.unicode.org/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Escape Sequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Backslash</td>
<td>\</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backspace</td>
<td>\b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carriage return</td>
<td>\r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double quote</td>
<td>'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form feed</td>
<td>\f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal tab</td>
<td>\t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New line</td>
<td>\n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octal character</td>
<td>\DDD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single quote</td>
<td>'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unicode character</td>
<td>\uHHHH</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Getting Started with Java

Operators

This section lists the following:

- Basic operators
- Arithmetic operators
- Logical operators
- Assignment operators
- Comparison operators
- Bitwise operators
- Ternary operator

Basic operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Operand Description</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>object member</td>
<td>Accesses a member of the object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;type&gt;</td>
<td>data type</td>
<td>Casts a variable to a different data type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>Joins up strings (concatenator).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>number</td>
<td>Adds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>number</td>
<td>This is the unary minus (reverses number sign).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:</td>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>This is the boolean NOT operator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>integer, boolean</td>
<td>This is both the bitwise (integer) and boolean AND operator. When doubled (&amp;&amp;), it is the boolean conditional AND.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>most elements with variables</td>
<td>Assigns an element to another element (for instance, a value to a variable, or a class to an instance). This can be combined with other operators to perform the other operation and assign the resulting value. For instance, += adds the left-hand value to the right, then assigns the new value to the right-hand side of the expression.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. It’s important to distinguish between an operator and a delimiter. Parentheses are used around args (for instance) as delimiters that mark the args in the statement. They are used around a data type as operators that change a variable’s data type to the one inside the parentheses.

2. A unary operator affects a single operand, a binary operator affects two operands, and a ternary operator affects three operands.
## Arithmetic operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Preced.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>++/--</code></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Auto-increment/decrement: Adds one to, or subtracts one from, its single operand. If the value of <code>i</code> is 4, <code>++i</code> is 5. A pre-increment (<code>++i</code>) increments the value by one and assigns the new value to the variable. A post-increment (<code>i++</code>) increments the value but leaves the variable with the original value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+-</code></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Unary plus/minus: sets or changes the positive/negative value of a single number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>*</code></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Multiplication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>/</code></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Division.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%</code></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Modulus: Divides the first operand by the second operand and returns the remainder (not the result).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+-</code></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Addition/subtraction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Logical operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Preced.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>!</code></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Boolean NOT (unary) Changes true to false or false to true. Because of its low precedence, you may need to use parentheses around this statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&amp;</code></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Evaluation AND (binary) Yields true only if both operands are true. Always evaluates both operands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>^</code></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Evaluation XOR (binary) Yields true if only one operand is true. Evaluates both operands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>`</td>
<td>`</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Assignment operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Preced.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Assign the value on the right to the variable on the left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Add the value on the right to the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Subtract the value on the right from the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Multiply the value on the right with the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Divide the value on the right from the value of the variable on the left; assign the new value to the original variable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Comparison operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Preced.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Less than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Less than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Greater than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!=</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Not equal to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Operators

### Bitwise operators

**Note**
A signed integer is one whose left-most bit is used to indicate the integer’s positive or negative sign: the bit is 1 if the integer is negative, 0 if positive. In Java, integers are always signed, whereas in C/C++ they are signed only by default. In Java, the shift operators preserve the sign bit, so that the sign bit is duplicated, then shifted. For example, right shifting 10010011 by 1 is 11001001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Preced.</th>
<th>Assoc.</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Bitwise NOT Inverts each bit of the operand, so each 0 becomes 1 and vice versa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;=</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Signed left shift Shifts the bits of the left operand to the left, by the number of digits specified in the right operand, with 0's shifted in from the right. High-order bits are lost.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;=</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Signed right shift Shifts the bits of the left operand to the right, by the number of digits specified in the right operand. If the left operand is negative, 0's are shifted in from the left; if it is positive, 1's are shifted in. This preserves the original sign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Zero-fill right shift Shifts right, but always fills in with 0's.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Bitwise AND Can be used with = to assign the value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Bitwise XOR Can be used with = to assign the value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left-shift with assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;=</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Right-shift with assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Zero-fill right shift with assignment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Ternary operator

The ternary operator ?: performs a very simple if-then-else operation inside of a single statement. If the first term is true, it evaluates the second; if the second term is false, it uses the third. This is the syntax:

```java
<expression 1> ? <expression 2> : <expression 3>;
```

For example:

```java
int x = 3, y = 4, max;
max = (x > y) ? x : y;
```

This operation assigns to `max` the value of whichever is greater, `x` or `y`. 
Chapter 12

Learning more about Java

Resources on the Java language abound. The http://java.sun.com web site of Sun Microsystems is a good place to search for more information; you’ll find many interesting links. If you’re new to Java, you’ll especially want to see Sun’s online Java tutorial at http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/.

Online glossaries

To quickly find definitions of Java terms, see one of Sun’s online glossaries:

- Sun Microsystem’s Java Glossary in HTML: http://java.sun.com/docs/glossary.html#top
- Sun Microsystem’s Java Glossary in Java: http://java.sun.com/docs/glossary.html
There are many excellent books about programming with Java. To see a list of Java titles on the Borland Developer Network, go to http://bdn.borland.com/books/java/0,1427,c|3,00.html.

Sun also publishes their Java Series of books. See the list of titles at http://java.sun.com/docs/books/. You’ll find books for all levels of Java programming.

Besides browsing through Java books at your favorite book store, you might also simply type Java books into your favorite web search engine to find lists of recommended books that Java programmer’s like or that various publishers are offering.
Symbols

.(dot) operator 6-2
?: ternary operator 3-3

A

abstract classes 6-16
abstract keyword 11-3
access modifiers 4-5, 6-11
default 6-12
not specified 6-12
outside of a package 6-12
table of 11-4
within a package 6-12
AccessController class 9-4
accessing members 6-11
accessor methods 6-12
applet package 5-7
applications
  example for developing 6-4
arithmetic operators
  defined 3-2
table of 3-8, 11-21
using 3-7
arrays
  accessing 3-15
defined 2-4
indexing 3-15
  representing strings 5-19
  using 3-13
assert keyword 11-4
assignment operators
  defined 3-2
table of 3-10, 11-22
AWT package 5-6

B

basic data types 2-2
basic operators
  table of 11-20
beans package 5-8
bits
  shifting, signed and unsigned 3-11
bitwise operators 3-11
defined 3-3
table of 3-12, 11-23
bitwise shifts 3-11
boolean keyword 11-3
boolean operators
  defined 3-2
table of 3-9
break keyword 11-4
break statements 4-11
BufferedOutputStream class 5-25
byte keyword 11-3
bytecodes 9-1
  translating into native instructions 9-6
  violations 9-3

C

C header files 10-3
calling methods 6-3
case keyword 11-4
casting 4-2
  See also type conversions
catch keyword 11-5
char keyword 11-3
character arrays 5-19
character literals 4-4
  See also escape sequences
checkPermission() 9-4
checkRead() 9-5
checkWrite() 9-5
child classes 6-8
class definitions 6-2
grouping 6-24
class files
  compilation 9-1
  structure of 9-3
class inheritance 6-8
class keyword 11-3
class libraries 5-1
class loader 9-6
classes
  accessing members 6-11
defined 6-2
  implementing interfaces 6-17
  objects vs. 6-2
  type wrapper 5-13
ClassLoader class 9-6
ClassNotFoundException exception 8-6
code
  comments 3-3
  reusing 6-24
code blocks
  defined 3-5
  static 10-3
comments 3-3
comparison operators
defined 3-3
table of 3-11, 11-22
compilers
just-in-time (JIT) 9-6
composite data types 2-3
arrays 2-4
Strings 2-3
conditional statements 4-12
if-else 4-12
switch 4-12
constructors 6-3
calling parent 6-11
multiple 6-11
superclasses 6-11
syntax 3-14
using 3-14
continue keyword 11-4
continue statements 4-11
control characters 4-4
See also escape sequences
control statements 4-11
conversions
primitive to primitive 11-6
primitive to String 11-7
primitives to reference types 11-8
reference to primitive 11-12
reference to reference 11-14
String to primitive 11-10
tables of 11-5
creating a thread 7-5
creating an object 3-14
D
daemon threads 7-1
data and return types
table of 11-3
data members 6-2
accessing 6-11
data types
arrays 2-4
composite 2-3
converting and casting 4-2
defined 2-2
numeric, table of 2-3
primitive 2-2, 5-13
reading 8-7
Strings 2-3
writing to streams 8-5
DataOutputStream class 5-26
declaring a variable 2-5
declaring classes 6-2
declaring packages 6-24
default keyword 6-11, 11-4
defining classes 6-2
deserialization
defined 8-1
element 8-5
deserializing objects 8-1
developing applications 6-4
do keyword 11-4
do loops
using 4-10
dot operator 6-2
double keyword 11-3
E
else keyword 11-4
Enterprise Edition (J2EE) 5-2
Enumeration interface 5-18
escape sequences 4-4
table of 11-19
exception handling 4-13
defined 4-3
keywords, table of 11-5
exceptions
catch blocks 4-14
finally blocks 4-15
statements 4-14
throw keyword 4-15
throws keyword 4-15
try blocks 4-14
extends keyword 6-8, 11-3
external packages
importing 6-24
Externalizable interface 8-7
F
File class 5-27
file classes 5-27
RandomAccessFile class 5-28
file input/output 5-27
FileInputStream class 5-22, 8-5
FileOutputStream class 5-26, 8-4
final keyword 11-3
finalizers 6-3
finally keyword 11-5
float keyword 11-3
flow control
defined 4-3
using 4-9
flush() 8-4
for keyword 11-4
for loops
using 4-10
freeing stream resources 8-5
functions 2-5
See also methods

G

garbage collection 6-2, 6-3
role of JVM 9-2
getter methods 6-12
grouping threads 7-8

H

handling exceptions 4-13
See also exceptions
header files 10-3

I

identifiers
defined 2-1
if keyword 11-4
if-else statements
using 4-12
implements keyword 6-17, 11-3
implicit type casting
defined 4-8
import keyword 11-3
import statements 6-24
inheritance 6-8
multiple 6-10
single 6-10
input stream classes 5-21
FileInputStream 5-22
InputStream 5-22
input streams 8-5
input/output (io) package 5-5
InputStream class 5-22
instance of keyword 11-3
instance variables 6-2
instantiating
abstract classes 6-16
classes 6-2
defined 3-14, 6-2
int keyword 11-3
interface keyword 6-17, 11-3
Interface wizard 6-17
interfaces
defined 6-17
Java Native Interface
replacing multiple inheritance 6-17

J

J2EE (Java 2 Enterprise Edition) 5-2
J2ME (Java 2 Micro Edition) 5-2
J2SE (Java 2 Standard Edition) 5-2, 11-1

Java
defined 9-2
object-oriented language 6-1
Java 2 Enterprise Edition 5-2
Java 2 Micro Edition 5-2
Java 2 Standard Edition 5-2, 5-3, 11-1
Java bytecodes 9-1
Java class libraries 5-1
Java class loader 9-6
Java editions 5-1, 11-1
table of 5-1, 11-1
Java language
glossaries 12-1
resources 12-1
Java Native Interface 10-1, 10-2
See also JNI
Java Runtime Environment 9-2
See also JRE
Java security package 9-4
Java verifier 9-3
Java Virtual Machine 9-1
See also JVM
java.applet package 5-7
java.awt package 5-6
java.beans package 5-8
java.io package 5-5
java.lang package 5-4
java.lang.reflect package 5-9
java.math package 5-6
java.net package 5-11
java.rmi package 5-10
java.security package 5-11
java.sql package 5-10
java.text package 5-5
java.util package 5-5
javah 10-3
options 10-3
javax packages 5-7
javax.swing package 5-6
JIT compilers (just-in-time) 9-6
JNI (Java Native Interface)
JRE (Java Runtime Environment)
relation to JVM 9-2
just-in-time compilers (JIT) 9-6
JVM (Java Virtual Machine)
adventages 9-2
and JNI 10-2
class loader 9-6
definition 9-1
instructions 9-1
introduction 9-1
main roles 9-2
memory management 9-2
portability 9-2
relation to JRE 9-2
security 9-2
specification vs. implementation 9-2
verifier 9-3

K

keywords
access modifiers 4-5, 11-4
data and return types 11-3
defined 3-1
exception handling 11-5
loops 11-4
packages, classes, members, interfaces 11-3
reserved 11-5
tables of 11-2

L

language package 5-4
Math class 5-14
Object class 5-12
String class 5-14
StringBuffer class 5-16
System class 5-17
type wrapper classes 5-13
libraries
accessing native 10-2
Java class 5-1
static code blocks 10-3
literals
defined 2-4
logical operators
defined 3-2
table of 3-9, 11-21
long keyword 11-3
loop controls
break statements 4-11
continue statements 4-11
loop statements
defined 4-3
loops
conditional statements 4-12
controlling execution 4-11
keywords, table of 11-4
terminating 4-9
loops, using 4-9
do 4-10
for 4-10
if-else 4-12
switch 4-12
while 4-9

M

Math class 5-14
math functions 5-14
math operators
table of 3-8
using 3-7
math package 5-6
member access 3-15
member variables 6-2
memory allocation
getting StringBuffer 5-17
memory management
role of JVM 9-2
method calls 6-3, 10-2
methods 2-5
accessing 10-2
declaration 6-3
defined 6-2
implementation 6-3
main 4-7
overloading 6-11
overriding 6-17
static 4-7
using 3-13
Micro Edition (J2ME) 5-2
multiple inheritance 6-10
replaced by interfaces 6-17
multiple threads 7-1

N

narrowing type conversions 4-8
native code interface 10-2
See also JNI
native keyword 10-2, 11-3
native machine instructions 9-6
networking package 5-11
new keyword 11-3
new operator 6-2
nonprinting characters 4-4
See also escape sequences
NotSerializableException exception 8-3
numeric data types, table of 2-3

O

Object class 5-12
object references 6-2
object streams
read/writes 8-7
ObjectInputStream class 8-2, 8-5
methods 8-7
object-oriented programming 6-1
example 6-4
ObjectOutputStream class 8-2, 8-4
methods 8-5
objects
allocating memory for 6-2
classes vs. 6-2
deallocating memory for 6-2
defined 6-2
deserialization 8-1
referencing 8-7
serializing 8-1
operators
access 3-15
arithmetic 3-7
arithmetic, table of 11-21
assignment, table of 3-10, 11-22
basic 11-20
bitwise 3-11
bitwise, table of 11-23
comparison, table of 3-11, 11-22
defined 3-2
logical or boolean 3-9
logical, table of 11-21
tables of 11-20
ternary 3-12, 11-23
using 3-7
output stream classes 5-24
BufferedOutputStream 5-25
DataOutputStream 5-26
FileOutputStream 5-26, 8-4
OutputStream 5-24
PrintStream 5-24
OutputStream class 5-24
overloading methods 6-11
overriding methods 6-17
package keyword 11-3, 11-4
package statements 6-24
packages
accessing class members 6-12
accessing members outside 6-12
declaring 6-24
defined 6-24
importing 6-24
Java, table of 5-3
parent classes 6-8
persistent objects 8-1
platform independence
pointers 10-2
polymorphism 6-17
example 6-18
portability
of Java 9-2
primitive data types 2-2
converting to other primitive types 11-6
converting to reference 11-8
converting to Strings 11-7
defined 5-13
PrintStream class 5-24
private keyword 6-11, 6-12, 11-4
protected keyword 6-11, 6-12, 11-4
prototypes 10-4
public keyword 4-5, 6-11, 6-12, 11-4
R
RandomAccessFile class 5-28
reading data types 8-7
reading object streams 8-7
readObject() 8-5, 8-7
reference data types
converting to other reference 11-14
converting to primitive 11-12
referencing objects 6-2, 8-7
reflections package 5-9
reserved keywords
table of 11-5
resources
freeing stream 8-5
restoring objects 8-1
return keyword 11-3
return statements 4-3
return types 4-3
RMI package 5-10
run() 7-2
Runnable interface
implementing 7-3
runtime environment, Java 9-2
See also JRE
S
saving objects 8-1
scope
defined 3-5
security
applet vs. application 9-5
class loader 9-6
in the JVM 9-2
serialization and 8-7
security manager 9-4
security package 5-11, 9-4
security policy 9-4
SecurityManager class 9-4
Serializable interface 8-2
serialization
defined 8-1
reasons for 8-1
security and 8-7
serializing objects 8-1
setSecurityManager() 9-5
setter methods 6-12
setting thread priority 7-7
short keyword 11-3
single inheritance 6-10
source code
reusing 6-24
SQL package 5-10
Standard Edition (J2SE) 5-2, 11-1
starting a thread 7-5
statements
defined 3-5
static code blocks 10-3
static keyword 4-5, 11-3
stopping a thread 7-6
storing objects to disk 8-1
stream resources
freeing 8-5
streams 8-4, 8-5
input streams 5-21
output streams 5-24
partitioning as tokens 5-29
read/writes 8-7
StreamTokenizer class 5-29
strictfp keyword 11-3
String class 5-14
String data type
converting to primitive 11-10
defined 2-3
StringBuffer class 5-16
strings 4-1
constructing 5-14
handling 4-1, 4-4
manipulating 4-1
subroutines 2-5
See also methods
super keyword 6-11, 11-3
superclasses 6-10
Swing package 5-6
switch keyword 11-4
switch statements 4-12
synchronized keyword 11-3
synchronizing threads 7-7
System class 5-17

T

ternary operator 3-12, 11-23
defined 3-3
test conditions, aborting 4-11
text package 5-5
this keyword 11-3

Thread class
subclassing 7-2
Thread constructors 7-5
ThreadGroup class 7-8
threads 7-1
creating 7-5
customizing run() method 7-2
demon threads 7-1
groups 7-8
implementing Runnable interface 7-3
lifecycle 7-1
making not runnable 7-6
multiple threads 7-1
priority 7-7
starting 7-5
stopping 7-6
synchronizing 7-7
time-slicing 7-7
throw keyword 11-5
throws keyword 11-5
time-slicing 7-7
tokens 5-29
transient keyword 11-3
transient objects 8-1
try keyword 11-5
type casting 4-2
See also type conversions
type conversions 4-2
implicit casting 4-8
narrowing explicit 4-8
tables of 11-5
widening conversions, table of 4-2
type wrapper classes 5-13
types
reading 8-7
writing to streams 8-5

U

UnsatisfiedLineError exceptions 10-3
utility classes 5-5
utility package 5-5
Enumeration interface 5-18
Vector class 5-19

V

values
comparing 3-11
variable declarations 2-5
variables
defined 2-4
instance 6-2
member 6-2
objects as 6-2
Vector class 5-19
verification
of Java bytecodes 9-3
Virtual Machine, Java 9-1
See also JVM
void keyword 4-5, 11-3
void return type
defined 4-3

while keyword 11-4
while loops
using 4-9
widening conversions
table of 4-2
wrapper classes 5-13
writeObject() 8-4, 8-7
writing object streams 8-7
writing to file streams 8-4

X
XML processing 5-9