

Lambda Expression, Method referencing and Modules

Lambda Expression, Method/Constructor referencing, Functional interfaces, Modules and Services

10.1 Introduction to LAMBDA Expressions ("LE")

In much the same way that the addition of generics reshaped Java years ago, lambda expressions are reshaping Java today.

Two important results of LAMBDA expression are—the **default method** (define default behavior for an interface method) and the **method reference** (refer to a method without executing it). For its usefulness **lambda expressions** have been added to C# and C++.

- **LAMBDA expression:** A **lambda expression** is an **anonymous** (i.e., **unnamed**) method. However, this method is **not executed on its own**. Instead, it is **used to implement a method** defined by a **functional interface**. **Lambda expressions** commonly called **closures**.
 - Thus, a **lambda expression** results in a form of **anonymous class**.
 - A **functional interface** defines the **target type** of a **lambda expression**. A **lambda expression** can be used only in a context in which a **target type** is specified.
- **FUNCTIONAL interface:** A functional interface is an interface that contains one and only one abstract method. Normally, this method specifies the intended purpose of the interface. i.e. a **functional interface** typically **represents a single action**. A **functional interface** is sometimes referred to as a **SAM type**, where **SAM** stands for **Single Abstract Method**.
 - **Example:** the standard interface **Runnable** is a **functional interface** because it defines only one method: **run()**. Therefore, **run()** defines the action of **Runnable**.
 - **Implicit members of a functional interface:** A **functional interface** may specify any **public method** defined by **Object**, such as **equals()**, without affecting its “**functional interface**” **status**. The **public Object methods** are considered **implicit members** of a **functional interface** because they are **automatically implemented by an instance** of a **functional interface**.
- **Lambda Operator and Lambda Expression:** The operator **->** operates the **Lambda expression**, it is referred to as the **lambda operator** or the **arrow operator**. It divides a lambda expression into two parts.
 - The **left side** specifies any **parameters** required by the **lambda expression**.
 - On the **right side** is the **lambda body**, which specifies the actions of the **lambda expression**. Java defines two types of **lambda bodies**. One type consists of a **single expression**, and the other type consists of a **block of code**.
 - ✖ Of course, **the method defined by a lambda expression does not have a name**.
 - ✖ A Lambda expression **may or may not have** parameters. When a **lambda** expression requires a **parameter**, it is specified in the **parameter list** on the **left side** of the “**->**”.
 - ✖ **Type of the parameter of a Lambda expression:** You won't need to **explicitly** specify the **type** of a **LE** because, in many cases, its **type can be inferred**. However, it is possible to **explicitly** specify the **type** of a parameter. Like a **named method**, a **lambda expression** can specify as many parameters as needed. Any **valid type** can be used as the **return type** of a **lambda expression**. For example,
 - ▶ **(n) -> (n % 2)==0** this **lambda expression** returns **true** if the value of parameter **n** is **even** and **false** otherwise.
 - Thus (automatically), the return type of this lambda expression is **Boolean**.
 - ✖ **NOTE:** When a lambda expression has **only one parameter**, it is **not necessary to surround the parameter name with parentheses** when it is specified on the left side of the lambda operator. For example: **n -> (n % 2)==0**
 - ▶ **(n) -> 1.0 / n** this **lambda expression** returns the **reciprocal** of the value of **parameter n**.

▷ **Example 1:** Following lambda expressions have **no parameters**:

- ➊ **() -> 98.6** This lambda expression takes no parameters, thus the parameter list is empty. It returns the constant value 98.6. The return type is inferred to be double. It is similar to this method: **double myMeth() { return 98.6; }**
- ➋ **() -> Math.random() * 100** This lambda expression obtains a pseudo-random value from **Math.random()**, multiplies it by **100**, and returns the result. It, too, does not require a parameter.

10.2 Functional Interfaces ("FI")

Recall from Java/C# 4.6, 5.12 and 5.13 that **not all interface methods are abstract**. Beginning with **JDK 8**, it is possible for an **interface** to have **one or more default methods**. **Default methods** are not **abstract**. Neither are **static interface methods**. Thus, **an interface method is abstract only if it is does not specify an implementation**.

- ➌ Therefore a **functional interface** can include **default** and/or **static** methods, but in all cases it must have **one and only one abstract method**. [Because non-default, non-static interface methods are implicitly abstract, there is no need to use the abstract modifier]

10.2.1 Lambda Expression with no Parameters

- ➍ Here is an example of a **functional interface** : **interface MyValue { double getValue(); }**
 - ▶ In this case, the method **getValue()** is **implicitly abstract**, and it is the only method defined by **MyValue**. Thus, **MyValue** is a **functional interface**, and its function is defined by **getValue()**.
- As mentioned earlier, a **lambda expression** is not executed on its **own**. Rather, it forms the **implementation of the abstract method** defined by the **functional interface** that specifies its **target type**.
 - As a result, **a lambda expression can be specified only in a context in which a target type is defined**. One of these contexts is created when a **lambda expression** is assigned to a **functional interface reference**.
 - [Other **target type** contexts include **variable initialization, return statements, and method arguments**, to name a few.]

- **Initializing an interface reference by lambda expression:** Consider a **reference** to the **functional interface MyValue** is declared:

```
MyValue myVal; // Create a reference to a MyValue instance.
```

- ⇒ Next, a **lambda expression** is assigned to that **interface reference**:

```
myVal = () -> 98.6; // Use a lambda in an assignment context.
```

This lambda expression is compatible with **getValue()** because, like **getValue()**, it has **no parameters** & returns a **double result**.

- ☒ In general, the **type** of the **abstract method** defined by the **functional interface** and the **type** of the **lambda expression** must be **compatible**. If they aren't, a **compile-time error** will result.

- ☒ **Initialization:** The above two statements can be combined into a **single** statement: **MyValue myVal = () -> 98.6;**
Here, **myVal** is **initialized** with the **lambda expression**.

- **Lambda expression turn a code segment into an object:** When a **LE** occurs in a **target type context**, an **instance** of a class is automatically created that implements the functional interface, with the **LE** defining the behavior of the **abstract method declared by the functional interface**. When that **method** is called through the **target**, the **lambda expression is executed**.

- ⇒ In the preceding example, the **LE** becomes the implementation for the **getValue()**. As a result, the following displays **98.6**:

```
System.out.println("A constant value: " + myVal.getValue()); // Call getValue(), which is implemented by the previously assigned LE.
```

- Because the **LE** assigned to **myVal** returns the value **98.6**, that is the value obtained when **getValue()** is called.

10.2.2 Parameterized Lambda Expression

- If the **LE** takes one or more parameters, then the **abstract method** in the **FI** must also take the **same number of parameters**. For example, here is a **FI** called **MyParamValue**, which lets you pass a value to **getValue()**:

```
interface MyParamValue{ double getValue(double v); }
```

- ⇒ You can use this **interface** to implement the **reciprocal lambda** shown in the previous section:

```
MyParamValue myPval = (n) -> 1.0 / n;
System.out.println("Reciprocal of 4 is " + myPval.getValue(4.0)); // use myPval to display value
```

- Here, **getValue()** is implemented by the **LE** referred to by **myPval**, which returns the reciprocal of the argument.
► Notice that the **type** of **n** is not specified. Rather, its type is **inferred** from the **context** (i.e. method in the **MyParamValue** interface). In this case, its type is **inferred** from the parameter type of **getValue()** as defined by the **MyParamValue** interface, which is **double**.
► It is also possible to explicitly specify the type of a parameter in a lambda expression: **(double n) -> 1.0 / n;**

⇒ Here, **n** is **explicitly specified** as **double**. Usually it is **not necessary to explicitly specify** the type.

- For a **LE** to be used in a **target type context**, the **type** and **number** of the **LE's parameters** must be compatible with the **FI's abstract method's parameters** and its **return type**. For example, if the **abstract method** specifies **two int** parameters, then the **lambda** must specify **two** parameters whose type either is **explicitly int** or can be **implicitly inferred** as **int** by the context.

- ▷ **Example 2:** The first example assembles the pieces shown in the foregoing section into a complete program.

```
interface MyValue { double getValue(); } // FI without parameter
interface MyParamValue { double getValue(double v); } // Parameterized FI
```

OUTPUT:

```
A constant value: 98.6
Reciprocal of 4 is 0.25
Reciprocal of 8 is 0.125
```

```
class LambdaDemo { public static void main(String args[]) {
    MyValue myVal; // declare an interface reference
    myVal = () -> 98.6;
    System.out.println("A constant value: " + myVal.getValue()); // Call getValue(), which is provided by the previously assigned LE.

    MyParamValue myPval = (n) -> 1.0 / n; // parameterized LE and assign it to a MyParamValue reference.
    System.out.println("Reciprocal of 4 is " + myPval.getValue(4.0)); // Call getValue(v) through the myPval reference.
    System.out.println("Reciprocal of 8 is " + myPval.getValue(8.0)); // Call getValue(v) through the myPval reference.

    // A lambda expression must be compatible with the method defined by the functional interface. Therefore, following won't work:
    // myVal = () -> "three"; // Error! String not compatible with double!
    // myPval = () -> Math.random(); // Error! Parameter required!
}}
```

- ⇒ Here, the **LE myVal = () -> 98.6;** is simply a **constant expression**. When it is assigned to **myVal**, a class instance is constructed in which the lambda expression implements the **getValue()** method in **MyValue**.
⇒ The **LE** must be **compatible with the abstract method that it is intended to implement**. So, the commented-out lines are illegal.
► The first, because a value of type **String** is not compatible with **double**, which is the return type required by **getValue()**.
► The second, because **getValue(int)** in **MyParamValue** requires a parameter, and one is not provided.

- ▷ **Example 3:** A **FI** can be used with any **LE** as long as it is compatible with the **LE**. Following use the same **FI** with 3 different **LEs**:

- ⦿ It defines a **FI** called **NumericTest** that declares the abstract method **test().test()** has **two int** parameters and returns a **boolean** result. Its purpose is to determine if the **two arguments** passed to **test()** satisfy **some condition**.

- ⦿ In **main()**, **three different tests** are created through the use of **lambda expressions**.

- ⦿ One tests if the first argument can be evenly divided by the second; ⦿ the second determines if the first argument is less than the second; ⦿ the third returns true if the absolute values of the arguments are equal.

- ※ Notice that the **LE** that implement these tests have **two parameters** and return a **boolean** result. This is, of course, necessary since **test()** has **two parameters** and returns a **boolean** result.

```

interface NumericTest { boolean test(int n, int m); } //A functional interface that takes two int parameters and returns a boolean result.

class LambdaDemo2 { public static void main(String args[]) { //Following lambda expression determines if one number is a factor of another.
    NumericTest isFactor = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0; //defining first version of test() via the abstract method
    if(isFactor.test(10, 2)) System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");
    if(!isFactor.test(10, 3)) System.out.println("3 is not a factor of 10");
    System.out.println();

    // This lambda expression returns true if the first argument is less than the second.
    NumericTest lessThan = (n, m) -> (n < m); //defining second version of test() via the abstract method
    if(lessThan.test(2, 10)) System.out.println("2 is less than 10");
    if(!lessThan.test(10, 2)) System.out.println("10 is not less than 2");
    System.out.println();

    // Following lambda expression returns true if the absolute values of the arguments are equal.
    NumericTest absEqual = (n, m) -> (n < 0 ? -n : n) == (m < 0 ? -m : m); //defining third version of test() via the abstract method
    if(absEqual.test(4, -4)) System.out.println("Absolute values of 4 and -4 are equal.");
    if(!absEqual.test(4, -5)) System.out.println("Absolute values of 4 and -5 are not equal.");
    System.out.println();    }
}

```

Use the same functional interface with three different lambda expressions

- ☞ Because all three **LEs** are compatible with **test()**, all can be executed through a **NumericTest** reference.
- ☞ **EMBEDDING LAMBDAS:** In this Example there is no need to use three separate **NumericTest reference variables** because the **same one could have been used for all three tests()**. Eg: Create the variable **myTest** and then use it to refer to each **test()**, in turn, as :

```

NumericTest myTest;
myTest = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0;
if(myTest.test(10, 2)) System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");
//...
myTest = (n, m) -> (n < m);
if(myTest.test(2, 10)) System.out.println("2 is less than 10");
//...
myTest = (n, m) -> (n < 0 ? -n : n) == (m < 0 ? -m : m);
if(myTest.test(4, -4)) System.out.println("Absolute values of 4 and -4 are equal.");
//...

```

✖ Of course, using different reference variables called **isFactor**, **lessThan**, and **absEqual**, as the original program does, makes it very clear to which **LE** each variable refers. So **do not embed lambdas wrongfully**.

- Whenever **more than one parameter** is required, the **parameters are specified, separated by commas**, in a **parenthesized list** on the **left side** of the **lambda operator**. Eg: factor test: **(n, d) -> (n % d) == 0** here **n** and **d** are separated by **,**.
- We used **primitive** values as the **parameter types** and **return type** of the **abstract method** defined by a **FI**. However, we can use **object type** values also.

☞ **Example 4:** Following declares a **FI** called **StringTest**. It has a method called **test()** that takes two **String** parameters and returns a **boolean** result.

```

interface StringTest{ boolean test(String aStr, String bStr); } //A functional interface that tests two strings.

class LambdaDemo3{ public static void main(String args[]) {
    StringTest isIn = (a, b) -> a.indexOf(b) != -1; //This lambda expression determines if one string is part of another.
    String str = "This is a test";
    System.out.println("Testing string: " + str);
    if(isIn.test(str, "is a")) System.out.println(" 'is a' found.");
    /* . . . */
}

```

- ☞ Notice, **LE** uses the **indexOf()** method defined by the **String class** to determine **if one string is part of another**. It works because the parameters **a** and **b** are determined by **type inference** to be of type **String**. Thus, it is permissible to call a **String** method on **a**.

- NOTE** In cases in which a **LE** requires **two or more parameters**, and if we need to **explicitly declare the type of a parameter**, then **all of the parameters in the list must have declared types (no type inference allowed for other parameters)**.
- ❖ For example, this is **legal**: **(int n, int d) -> (n % d) == 0**.
But this is **not legal**: **(int n, d) -> (n % d) == 0**. This is also **illegal**: **(n, int d) -> (n % d) == 0**

10.3 Block Lambda Expressions

- **Expression lambdas (single expression):** The lambdas consist of a **single expression** are sometimes called **expression lambdas**. These types of **lambda bodies** are referred to as **expression bodies**. In an **expression body**, the code on the **right side** of the **lambda operator** must consist of a **single expression**, which becomes the **lambda's value**.
- **Block lambdas (expression block):** The type of **lambda expression** in which the code on the **right side** of the **lambda operator** consists of a **block of code** that can contain **more than one statement**. This type of **lambda body** is called a **block body**. Lambdas that have **block bodies** are sometimes referred to as **block lambdas**.
 - ☞ In a **block lambda** you can **declare variables**, use **loops**, specify **if** and **switch** statements, create **nested blocks**, and so on.
 - ☞ A **block lambda** is easy to create. Simply **enclose the body** within **braces** as you would any other block of statements.
 - ☞ You **must explicitly use a return statement** to return a value. This is necessary because a block lambda body does not represent a single expression.

Example 5: Following uses a **block lambda** to find the **smallest positive factor** of an **int** value. It uses an interface called **NumericFunc** that has a method **func()**, which takes one **int** argument and returns an **int** result.

```
interface NumericFunc { int func(int n); }

class BlockLambdaDemo { public static void main(String args[]) {
    // Following block lambda returns the smallest positive factor of a value.
    NumericFunc smallestF = (n) -> {
        int result = 1;
        n = n < 0 ? -n : n; // Get absolute value of n. Ternary operator ? used
        for(int i=2; i <= n/i; i++) if((n % i) == 0) { result = i; break; }
        return result; }; // Block lambda expression ends
    System.out.println("Smallest factor of 12 is " + smallestF.func(12));
    System.out.println("Smallest factor of 11 is " + smallestF.func(11)); }}
```

- ☞ In the program, notice that the **block lambda** declares a variable called **result**, uses a **for** loop, and has a **return** statement.
- ☞ When a return statement occurs within a lambda expression, it simply causes a return from the lambda. It does not cause an enclosing method to return. The **block body** of a lambda is **similar to a method body**.

10.4 Generic Functional Interfaces

A **LE**, itself, cannot specify **type parameters**, hence cannot be **generic**. (Of course, because of type inference, all lambda expressions exhibit some “generic-like” qualities.) However, the **FI** associated with a **LE** can be **generic**. The target type of the **LE** is determined, in part, by the **type arguments(s)** specified when a **FI** reference is declared.

Example 6: To understand the value of generic **FI**, now we combine **NumericTest** (Example 3) and **StringTest** (Example 4) together using type parameter in the generic **FI SomeTest<T>**.

```
interface SomeTest<T> { boolean test(T n, T m); } // A generic FI with two parameters that returns a boolean result.

class GenericFunctionalInterfaceDemo { public static void main(String args[]) {
    SomeTest<Integer> isFactor = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0; // This LE determines if one integer is a factor of another.
    /*...*/
    SomeTest<Double> isFactorD = (n, d) -> (n % d) == 0; // This LE determines if one Double is a factor of another.
    /*...*/
    SomeTest<String> isIn = (a, b) -> a.indexOf(b) != -1; // This LE determines if one string is part of another.
    /*...*/ }}
```

- ☞ The generic **FI SomeTest** is declared as: **interface SomeTest<T> { boolean test(T n, T m); }**
- Here, **T** specifies the type of both parameters for **test()**. i.e. It is compatible with any **LE** with that takes **two parameters** of the **same type** and returns a **boolean result**.
- ☞ The **SomeTest** interface is used to provide a reference to **three different types of lambdas**. The first uses type **Integer**, the second uses type **Double**, and the third uses type **String**.

10.5 Pass an LE as an Argument

A lambda expression can be used in **any context** that provides a **target type**. The **target contexts** used by the preceding examples are **assignment** and **initialization**. Another one is when a lambda expression is **passed as an argument**. It gives you a way to pass executable code as an argument to a method.

Example 7: To illustrate the process of passing an **LE** as an argument, we create three **string functions** that perform the operations:

- | | |
|--|--|
| [1] reverse a string, | ⇒ These functions are implemented as LEs of the FI StringFunc . |
| [2] reverse the case of letters within a string, | ⇒ They are then passed as the first argument to a method called changeStr() . This method applies the string function to the string passed as the second argument to changeStr() and returns the result. Thus, changeStr() can be used to apply a variety of different string functions . |
| [3] replace spaces with hyphens. | |

<pre>interface StringFunc { String func(String str); } // Functional Interface class LambdaArgumentDemo { static String changeStr(StringFunc sf, String s) { return sf.func(s); } public static void main(String args[]) { String inStr = "LE Expand Java"; String outStr; System.out.println("Here is input string: " + inStr); // Following LE reverses the contents of a string and assign it to a StringFunc reference variable. StringFunc reverse = (str) -> { String result = ""; for(int i = str.length()-1; i >= 0; i--) result += str.charAt(i); return result; }; // Pass reverse lambda to the first argument to changeStr(). and the input string as the 2nd argument. outStr = changeStr(reverse, inStr); System.out.println("The string reversed: " + outStr); }</pre>	<pre>/* Following LE replaces spaces with hyphens. And LE directly passed as an argument to changeStr(). */ outStr = changeStr((str) -> str.replace(' ', '-'), inStr); System.out.println("Spaces replaced string: " + outStr); /* This block lambda inverts the case of the string characters. This block is also passed as an argument directly to changeStr(). */ outStr = changeStr ((str) -> { String result = ""; char ch; for(int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) { ch = str.charAt(i); if(Character.isUpperCase(ch)) result += Character.toLowerCase(ch); else result += Character.toUpperCase(ch); } return result; }, inStr); System.out.println("Reversed case string: " + outStr); }}</pre>
---	--

- ☞ The **FI - StringFunc**: **interface StringFunc { String func(String str); }** defines the method **func()**, which takes a **String** argument and returns a **String**. Thus, **func()** can act on a string and return the result.
- ☞ The **LambdaArgumentDemo** class, defines the **changeStr()** method. **changeStr()** has two parameters: The **first** is **FI's StringFunc** type. i.e. it can be passed a reference to any **StringFunc** instance including an instance created by a **LE**. The **second** is **s, string** to be acted on is passed to **s**. The resulting **string** is returned.

```
class LambdaArgumentDemo {
    static String changeStr(StringFunc sf, String s) { return sf.func(s); }}
```

☞ Inside `main()`, define a **block LE** that *reverses the characters* and *assign* it to the **StringFunc reference reverse**.

```
StringFunc reverse = (str) -> {
    String result = "";
    for(int i = str.length() - 1; i >= 0; i--) result += str.charAt(i);
    return result;
};
```

☞ Call `changeStr()`, passing in the **reverse lambda** and **inStr**. Assign the result to **outStr**, and display the result.

```
outStr = changeStr(reverse, inStr);
```

► Because the first parameter to `changeStr()` is of type **StringFunc**, the **reverse lambda** can be passed to it.

☞ Following lambdas *replace spaces with hyphens* and *invert the case of the letters*. Notice that both of these lambdas are **embedded** in the call to `changeStr()`, itself, rather than using a separate **StringFunc variable**.

```
// This lambda expression replaces spaces with hyphens. And LE directly passed as an argument to changeStr()
outStr = changeStr( str) -> str.replace(' ', '-'), inStr);

// This block lambda inverts the case of the characters in the string. This block is also passed as an argument directly in the call to changeStr().
outStr = changeStr( str) -> {
    String result = "";
    char ch;
    for(int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) { ch = str.charAt(i);
        if(Character.isUpperCase(ch)) result += Character.toLowerCase(ch);
        else result += Character.toUpperCase(ch);
    }
    return result;}, inStr);
```

► **Embedding** the **space-replacing-lambda** in the call to `changeStr()` is convenient: because it is a short, expression lambda that simply calls `replace()` to replace **spaces** with **"-"**. [The `replace()` method is defined by the **String class**.]

► For the sake of illustration, the **case-inverting-lambda** block is also **embedded** in the call to `changeStr()`. Though, it is technically ok to pass **whole-lambda-block** as a parameter (but a bad practice), it is better to **assign** such a lambda to a **separate reference variable** (as **string-reversing lambda**), and then **pass** that **variable** to the **method**.

NOTE

[1] **`isUpperCase()`, `toUpperCase()`, and `toLowerCase()`**: The static methods **`isUpperCase()`**, **`toUpperCase()`**, and **`toLowerCase()`** defined by **Character**. Recall that **Character** is a **wrapper class** for **char**.

- ❖ The **`isUpperCase()`** method returns **true** if its argument is an uppercase letter and false otherwise.
- ❖ The **`toUpperCase()`** and **`toLowerCase()`** perform the indicated action and return the result.

[2] In addition to variable initialization, assignment, and argument passing, some other places constitute a target type context for a lambda expression. They are:

[1] **Casts**, [2] **the ? operator**, [3] **array initializers**, [4] **return statements**, [5] **LEs, themselves**

10.6 Lambda Expressions and Variable Capture

A **LE** can obtain or set the value of an **instance** variable or **static** variable and call a **method** defined by its **enclosing class** (enclosing scope). A **LE** also has access to **this** (both explicitly and implicitly), which **refers to the invoking instance** of the **LE's** enclosing class.

□ **Effectively final variable:** An **effectively final** variable is one whose value *does not change after it is first assigned*. There is **no need** to **explicitly declare** such a variable as **final**, although doing so would not be an error. (The **this** parameter of an **enclosing scope** is automatically effectively **final**, and **LEs** do not have a **this** of their own.)

□ **Variable capture:** when a **LE** uses a **local variable** from its **enclosing scope** (or class), a special situation is created that is referred to as a **variable capture**. In this case, a **LE** may only use **local variables** that are **effectively final**. (**LE** cannot modify that variable.)

- ☛ It is important to understand that a **local variable** of the **enclosing scope** cannot be modified by the **LE**. Doing so would remove its **effectively final status**, thus rendering it **illegal** for **capture**.

☛ **Example 8:** The following program illustrates the difference between **effectively final** and **mutable local variables**. **Capturing** a local variable from the **enclosing scope**.

```
interface MyFunc { int func(int n); }

class VarCapture { public static void main(String args[]) {
    int num = 10; // A local variable that can be captured.
    MyFunc myLambda = (n) -> {
        int v = num + n; // This use of num is OK. It does not modify num.
        /* modifying num inside lambda */ // num++;
        // illegal because it attempts to modify the value of num.
        return v; };
    System.out.println(myLambda.func(8)); // Use the lambda. This will display 18.
    // num = 9; // modifying num outside lambda also illegal; also cause an error, removing the effectively final status from num.
}}
```

☛ Here, **num** is **effectively final** and can be used inside **myLambda**. Hence, **println()** outputs **18**. When **func()** is called with the argument **8**, the value of **v** inside the lambda is set by adding **num** (which is **10**) to the value passed to **n** (which is **8**). Thus, **func()** returns **18**.

► This works because **num** is **not modified** after it is initialized at the start. However, if **num** were to be modified, either **inside the lambda** or **outside of lambda**, **num** would lose its **effectively final status**. This would cause an **error**, and the program would **not compile**.

10.7 Exception and LE

A **LE** can throw an **exception**. If it throws a **checked exception**, however, then that **exception must be compatible** with the exception(s) listed in the **throws** clause of **the abstract** method in the **FI**. For example, if a **LE** throws an **IOException**, then the **abstract method** in the **FI** must list **IOException** in a **throws** clause.

Example 9: **LE** throwing an **exception** is demonstrated by the following program:

```
import java.io.*;
interface MyIOAction { boolean ioAction(Reader rdr) throws IOException; } //IOException is specified in throws of ioAction() in MyIOAction.

class LambdaExceptionDemo { public static void main(String args[]) { double[] values = { 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0 };
    // This block lambda could throw an IOException.
    MyIOAction myIO = (rdr) -> { int ch = rdr.read(); // now read() can throw IOException
        return true; }; }}
```

- ☞ Because a call to **read()** could result in an **IOException**, the **ioAction()** method of the **FI MyIOAction** must include **IOException** in a throws clause. Without it, the **program will not compile** because the **LE** will no longer be compatible with **ioAction()**.

10.8 Use an array parameter in LE

Since, the **type** of a **LE parameter** will be inferred from the **target context**. Thus, if the **target context** requires an **array**, then the **parameter's type** will **automatically be inferred as an array**. However, when the **type of the parameter is inferred**, the **parameter** to the **LE** is **not specified** using the **normal array syntax**. Rather, the parameter is **specified as a simple name**, such as **n**, not as **n[]**.

Example 10: Here is a **generic FI** called **MyTransform**, which can be used to apply some transform to the elements of an array:

```
interface MyTransform<T> { void transform(T[] a); } //A functional interface.

MyTransform<Double> sqrts = (v) -> { for(int i=0; i < v.length; i++) v[i] = Math.sqrt(v[i]); }; // LE block that use array type defined in FI
```

- ☞ Here, the type of **a** in **transform()** is **Double[]**, because **Double** is specified as the type parameter for **MyTransform LE** when **sqrts** is declared. Therefore, the **type of v** in the **LE** is **inferred** as **Double[]**. It is **not necessary (or legal)** to specify it as **v[]**.
- ☞ It is legal to declare the **lambda parameter** as **<Double[] v>**, because doing so **explicitly declares** the **type of the parameter**.

10.9 Method References (MRf) and Constructor References (CRf) & Introducing separator ' :: '

A **method reference (MRf)** is a way to **refer to a method without executing it**. It relates to **LE** because it, too, requires a **target type context** that consists of a compatible **FI**. When evaluated, a **MRf** also creates an instance of a **FI**. Methods participating **MRf** are called **predicates**.

- **MRf to static Methods:** A **MRf** to a **static method** is created by specifying the **method name** preceded by its **class name**, as follows:
ClassName :: methodName

► Notice that the **class name** is separated from the **method name** by a double colon ' :: ' separator.

- ☞ This **MRf** can be used anywhere in which it is compatible with its **target type**.

Example 11: The following program demonstrates the **static MRf**.

```
interface IntPredicate { boolean test(int n); }

class MyIntPredicates {
    // returns true if a number is prime.
    static boolean isPrime(int n) {
        if(n < 2) return false;
        for(int i=2; i <= n/i; i++) { if((n % i) == 0) return false; }
        return true; }
    // returns true if a number is even.
    static boolean isEven(int n) { return (n % 2) == 0; }
    // returns true if a number is positive.
    static boolean isPositive(int n) { return n > 0; }
}
```

```
class MethodRefDemo {
    /* can be passed a reference to any instance of IntPredicate FI to following numTest methods first parameter, including one created by a method reference.*/
    static boolean numTest(IntPredicate p, int v) { return p.test(v); }
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        boolean result;
        // Here, a MRf to isPrime is passed to numTest().
        result = numTest(MyIntPredicates :: isPrime, 17);
        if(result) System.out.println("17 is prime.");
        // Next, a MRf to isEven is used.
        result = numTest(MyIntPredicates :: isEven, 12);
        if(result) System.out.println("12 is even.");
        // Now, a MRf to isPositive is passed.
        result = numTest(MyIntPredicates :: isPositive, 11);
        if(result) System.out.println("11 is positive."); }}
```

- ☞ A **FI** called **IntPredicate** is created first it has a method called **test()** with **int** parameter and it returns **boolean**. Thus, it can be used to **test an integer value against some condition**.
- ☞ Inside **MyIntPredicates**, three **static** methods are defined, called **isPrime()**, **isEven()**, and **isPositive()**.
- ☞ Inside **MethodRefDemo**, a method called **numTest()** is created it takes a **reference** to **IntPredicate** as its **first parameter**. Its **second parameter** specifies the integer being tested.
- ☞ Inside **main()**, three different tests are performed by calling **numTest()**, passing in a **MRf** to the **test** to perform.
 - First, a **reference** to the **static** method **isPrime()** is passed as the first argument to **numTest()**. This works because **isPrime** is compatible with the **IntPredicate FI**. Thus, the "**expression**" **MyIntPredicates :: isPrime** evaluates to a **reference to an object** in which **isPrime()** provides the implementation of **test()** in **IntPredicate**. The other two calls to **numTest()** work in the same way.
 - Also notice, all 3 **static** methods **boolean isPrime(int n)**, **boolean isEven(int n)**, **boolean isPositive(int n)** are in same form as **FI** method **boolean test(int n)**;

- **MRf to Instance Methods:** The syntax to create a **reference to an instance method on a specific object**, **objRef :: methodName**

- ☞ i.e. the **syntax** is similar to that used for a **static method**, except that an **object reference** is used instead of a **class name**.
 - ☛ Thus, the **method** referred to by the **MRf** operates relative to **objRef**.

Example 12: Following illustrates this point. It uses the same **IntPredicate** interface and **test()** method as **Example 11**.

```
// A FI for numeric predicates that operate on integer values.
interface IntPredicate { boolean test(int n); }

/* MyIntNum class stores an int value and defines the
instance method isFactor(), which returns true if its
argument is a factor of the stored value. */

class MyIntNum { private int v;
    MyIntNum(int x) { v = x; }
    int getNum() { return v; }

    // instance method: Return true if n is a factor of v.
    boolean isFactor(int n) {
        return (v % n) == 0; } }

class MethodRefDemo2 { public static void main(String args[]) {
    boolean result;
    MyIntNum myNum = new MyIntNum(12);
    MyIntNum myNum2 = new MyIntNum(16);

    /* A MRF to an instance method */
    IntPredicate ip = myNum :: isFactor; // a MRF to isFactor on myNum is created.
    result = ip.test(3); // MRF ip is used to call isFactor() via test().
    if(result) System.out.println("3 is a factor of " + myNum.getNum());

    ip = myNum2 :: isFactor; // a MRF to isFactor on myNum2 is created.
    result = ip.test(3); // MRF ip is used to call isFactor() via test().
    if(!result) System.out.println("3 is not a factor of " + myNum2.getNum()); } }
```

- ☞ **MyIntNum** stores an **int** and defines **isFactor()** - tests passed value is a **factor** of stored value by **MyIntNum** instance.
 - ☞ Inside **main()** two **MyIntNum** instances are created. Then **numTest()** called, passing in a **MRf** to the **isFactor()** method and the value to be checked. In each case, the **MRf** operates relative to the specific object.
 - ☞ Pay special attention to the line: **IntPredicate ip = myNum::isFactor;**
 - ▶ The **MRf** assigned to **ip** refers to an **instance method isFactor()** on **myNum**. Thus, when **test()** is called through that **reference**, as: **result = ip.test(3);** the method will call **isFactor()** on **myNum**, which is the **object specified** when the **MRf** was created.
 - ▶ The same situation occurs with the **MRf myNum2::isFactor**, except that **isFactor()** will be called on **myNum2**.

Use an instance method reference to refer to any instance: To Specify an *instance method* that can be used with *any object* of a given class—not just a specified object: Create a **MRF** as: **ClassName::instanceMethodName**

- Here, the *name of the class* is used *instead of* a *specific object*, even though an *instance method* is *specified*.
 - With this form, the *first parameter* of the **FI** matches the *invoking object* and the *second parameter* matches the *parameter (if any) specified by the method*.

 Example 13: It reworks the previous **Example 12**. First, it replaces **IntPredicate FI** with the **MyIntNumPredicate FI**.

```

/* A FI for numeric predicates that operate on an object of type MyIntNum and
   an integer value. */

interface MyIntNumPredicate {
    boolean test(MyIntNum mv, int n);
}

/* MyIntNum class stores an int value and defines the instance method
   isFactor(), which returns true if its argument is a factor of the stored value. */

class MyIntNum { private int v;
    MyIntNum(int x) { v = x; }
    int getNum() { return v; }

    // Return true if n is a factor of v.
    boolean isFactor(int n){ return (v % n) == 0; } }

class MethodRefDemo3 { public static void main(String args[]) {
    boolean result;
    MyIntNum myNum = new MyIntNum(12);
    MyIntNum myNum2 = new MyIntNum(16);

    // This makes inp refer to the instance method isFactor().
    /* MRf to any object of type MyIntNum */ MyIntNumPredicate inp = MyIntNum::isFactor;

    result = inp.test(myNum, 3);           // calls isFactor() on myNum.
    if(result) System.out.println("3 is a factor of " + myNum.getNum());

    result = inp.test(myNum2, 3);          // calls isFactor() on myNum2.
    if(!result) System.out.println("3 is not a factor of " + myNum2.getNum());
}}}

```

- ☞ The first parameter to **test()** is of type **MyIntNum**. It will be used to *receive the object being operated upon*. This allows the program to create a **MRF** to the *instance method* **isFactor()** that can be used with any **MyIntNum** object.
 - ☞ Pay special attention to this line: **MyIntNumPredicate** *inp* = **MyIntNum**::**isFactor**;
 - It creates a **MRF** to the instance method **isFactor()** that will work with any object of type **MyIntNum**. For example, when **test()** is called through the *inp*, as shown here: **result** = *inp*.**test**(*myNum*, 3); it results in a call to *myNum.isFactor(3)*. [In other words, *myNum* becomes the object on which **isFactor(3)** is called.]

- Specify a *MR* to a *generic method*:** Because of *type inference* most often we don't need to *explicitly specify a type argument* to a *generic method* when obtaining its *MR*. However Java does include a syntax to handle those cases.

Generally: ➤ When a **generic method** is specified as a **MRF**, its **type argument** comes **after** `::` and **before** the **method name**.
 ➤ In cases in which a **generic class** is specified, the **type argument** **follows** the **class name** and **precedes** the `::`.

```
interface SomeTest<T> { boolean test(T n, T m); }      class MyClass { static <T> boolean myGenMeth(T x, T y) { boolean result = false;  
    return result; } }
```

Then this statement is valid: **SomeTest<Integer> mRef = MyClass::<Integer>myGenMeth;**

Here, *type argument* for the *generic method* `myGenMeth` is explicitly specified. Notice that the type argument occurs after `::`.

Constructor References (CRf): CRf are created in similar way of MRF. The general form of the syntax is:

constructor references (cxy): cxy are created in similar way of **my**. The general form of the syntax is: **classname::new**

- This **reference** can be assigned to any *EI reference* that defines a **method** compatible with the **constructor**.

Example 14: Here is a simple example to Demonstrate a Constructor reference.

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

```
    trace MyFunc { MyClass func(String s); }
```

```
MyClass mc = myClassCons.func("Testing"); // instance of MyClass via that CRF.
```

```
// Use the instance of MyClass just created.  
MyClass myObject = new MyClass("Hello");
```

```
System.out.println("str in mc is " + mc.getStr());}}
```

➤ Here, notice that the ***func()*** method of ***MyFunc*** returns a reference of type ***MyClass*** and has a ***String*** parameter.

Notice `MyClass` defines two constructors. First is **parameterized** of type `String`. Second is the **default**, parameterless.

Now examining the line: **MyFunc myClassCons = MyClass::new;** Here the expression **MyClass::new**

creates a **reference** to the *MyClass* constructor. In this case, because `func()` in *MyFunc* takes a **String** parameter, `new MyClass()`

creates a `MyClass` to the `MyClass` constructor. In this case, because `Value(s)` in `MyClass` takes a `String` parameter, `New` refers to the *matching parameterized* constructor `MyClass(String s)`, not the *default* constructor.

```
// MyFunc is a FI whose method returns a MyClass reference.
interface MyFunc { MyClass func(String s); }

class MyClass { private String str;
    MyClass(String s) {str = s;} // parameterized constructor
    MyClass() { str = ""; } // default constructor.
    String getStr() { return str; } }
```

- Here, notice that the **func()** method of **MyFunc** returns a reference of type **MyClass** and has a **String** parameter.
 - Notice, **MyClass** defines two constructors. First is **parameterized** of type **String**. Second is the **default**, **parameterless**.
 - Now, examine the line: **MyFunc myClassCons = MyClass::new;** Here, the expression **MyClass::new** creates a **reference** to the **MyClass constructor**. In this case, because **func()** in **MyFunc** takes a **String** parameter, **new** refers to the **matching parameterized** constructor **MyClass(String s)**, not the **default** constructor.

- The **CRf** is assigned to a **MyFunc** reference called **myClassCons**. Now **myClassCons** has become another way to call **MyClass(String s)**, as this line shows: **MyClass mc = myClassCons.func("Testing");**
- If you want **MyClass::new** to use **MyClass's default constructor**, then use a **FI** that defines a **parameterless method**. For example, if you define **MyFunc2**, as shown here: **interface MyFunc2 { MyClass func(); }**
 - ❖ A **CRf** then the following line will assign to **MyClassCons** a reference to **MyClass's default (i.e., parameterless) constructor**:
MyFunc2 myClassCons = MyClass::new;

✗ In general, the **constructor** that will be used when **::new** is specified is the one whose **parameters** match those specified by the **FI**.

□ CRf for a generic class: In the case of creating a **CRf** for a **generic class**, you can specify the **type parameter** in the **normal way, after the class name**. For example, if **MyGenClass** is declared like this: **MyGenClass<T> { // ... }**
Then **MyGenClass<Integer>::new;** creates a CRf with a **type argument of Integer**.

⌚ Because of **type inference**, you **won't always need** to specify the type argument, but you can **when necessary**.

□ CRf for an array: To create a **CRf** for an array use this form: **type[]::new** Here, **type** specifies the **type of object** being created.

✗ Example 15: Assuming the form of **MyClass** shown in the preceding example and given the **MyClassArrayCreator FI** shown:

```
interface MyClassArrayCreator { MyClass[] func(int n); }
```

Following creates an array of **MyClass** objects and gives each element an initial value:

```
MyClassArrayCreator mcArrayCons = MyClass[]::new;
MyClass[] a = mcArrayCons.func(3);
for(int i=0; i < 3; i++) a[i] = new MyClass(i);
```

⌚ Here, the call to **func(3)** causes a **three-element array** to be created.

✗ Generally, Any **FI** that will be used to *create an array* must **contain a method that takes a single int parameter** and returns a **reference** to the **array** of the **specified size**.

✗ To create a **generic FI** that can be used with **other types of classes**, as: **interface MyArrayCreator<T> { T[] func(int n); }**

⇒ For example, you could create an array of five **Thread** objects like this:

```
MyArrayCreator<Thread> mcArrayCons = Thread[]::new;
Thread[] thrds = mcArrayCons.func(5);
```

10.10 Predefined FIs (PREDICATE interfaces) and LEs with API Library

In many cases you won't need to define your own **FIs** because **JDK 8** adds a new package called **java.util.function** that provides several **predefined FIs**. Some given in the following table:

Interface	Purpose
UnaryOperator<T>	Apply a unary operation to an object of type T and return the result, which is also of type T . Its method is called apply() .
BinaryOperator<T>	Apply an operation to two objects of type T and return the result, which is also of type T . Its method is called apply() .
Consumer<T>	Apply an operation on an object of type T . Its method is called accept() .
Supplier<T>	Return an object of type T . Its method is called get() .
Function<T, R>	Apply an operation to an object of type T and return the result as an object of type R . Its method is called apply() .
Predicate<T>	Determine if an object of type T fulfills some constraint. Returns a boolean value that indicates the outcome. Its method is called test() .

✗ Example 14: The following program shows the **Predicate interface** in action. It uses **Predicate** as the **FI** for a **LE** that determines if a number is **even**. **Predicate's abstract method** is called **test()**, and it is: **boolean test(T val)** It must return **true** if **val** satisfies some constraint or condition. As it is used following, it will return **true** if **val** is **even**.

```
import java.util.function.Predicate; // Import the Predicate interface.
```

```
class UsePredicateInterface { public static void main(String args[]) {
    Predicate<Integer> isEven = (n) -> (n % 2) == 0; // This lambda uses the built-in Predicate<Integer> to determine if n is even.
    if(isEven.test(4)) System.out.println("4 is even");     if(!isEven.test(5)) System.out.println("5 is odd"); }}
```

□ Lambda expressions resulted in new capabilities being incorporated into the API library: the new stream package **java.util.stream** is added to the **Java API library**. This package defines several stream classes, the most general of which is **Stream**.

⌚ A **stream** can represent a **sequence of objects**. A stream supports many types of operations that let you create a **pipeline** that performs a **series of actions on the data**. Often, these actions are represented by **LEs**.

► Eg: using the **stream API**, you can construct sequences of actions that resemble, in concept, the type of database queries for which you might use **SQL**. Furthermore, in many cases, such actions can be performed in parallel, thus providing a high level of efficiency, especially when large data sets are involved.

NOTE: Although the **streams** supported by the new **stream API** have **some similarities with the I/O streams** described in **Chapter 6**, they are not the same.

10.11 MODULE Intro

A **Module** is **set of packages** designed for re-use. **Modules** let you control which **parts of a module** are accessible to **other modules** and which are not. Through the use of **modules** you can create more **reliable, scalable** programs.

□ As a general rule, **modules are most helpful to large applications** because they help reduce the management complexity often associated with a **large software system**. [Small programs also benefit from modules because the Java API library has now been organized into modules. Thus, it is now possible to specify which parts of the API are required by your program and which are not. This makes it possible to deploy programs with a smaller runtime footprint, which is especially important when creating code for small devices, such as those intended to be part of the **Internet of Things (IoT)**.]

□ Module: A **module** is a **grouping of packages and resources** that can be **collectively referred** to by the **module's name**. A **module declaration** specifies the **module's name** and defines the **relationship** a **module and its packages** have to other **modules**.

⌚ Actually module determines the **structure of a program**. It helps to easily **control** and **manage** what part of the code **can be reused** and the parts **can't be reused**. It is the **largest building block** of codes in **Java**.

- Module declarations** are *program statements* in a **Java source file** and are supported by several *module-related keywords* added to Java by **JDK 9**. They are:

exports	module	open	opens	provides	requires	to	transitive	uses	with
----------------	---------------	-------------	--------------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------	-------------------	-------------	-------------

These keywords are recognized as keywords only in the **context of a module declaration**. Otherwise, they are interpreted as **identifiers** in other situations [not now recommended]. So there is *no chance of conflict* with pre-JDK 9 code. Because they are **context-sensitive**, the **module-related** keywords are formally called **restricted keywords**.

10.12 MODULE: Declaration and Use

- moduleinfo.java and module descriptor:** A **module declaration** is contained in a file called **moduleinfo.java**, i.e. a **module** is defined in a **Java source file**. This file is then compiled by **javac** into a class file and is known as a **module descriptor**.

The **moduleinfo.java** file must contain **only a module definition**. It is not a general purpose file.

- A **module declaration** begins with the keyword **module**. General form: **module moduleName { /* module definition */ }**

The name of the module is specified by **moduleName**, which must be a valid **Java identifier** or a **sequence of identifiers** separated by **periods**.

The **module definition** is specified within the **braces**. Although a module definition may be empty (which results in a declaration that simply names the module), typically it specifies **one or more clauses** that define the **characteristics** of the **module**.

- Accessibility Mechanism comparison:** Let's compare the **Accessibility** between parts of source file, before and after **JDK 9**.

Before JDK 9	After Module introduced
❖ Public	❖ Public to all
❖ Protected	❖ Public to friend module ❖ Public to only current module ❖ Private
❖ Private	❖ Protected ❖ Package ❖ Private

Before JDK 9, reuse of codes done by, **classes** – using **inheritance**, **Interfaces** – by **abstraction**, **Packages** – by **arranging classes**.

- requires and exports:** A **module** is able to specify that it requires another **module**. A **dependence relationship** is specified by use of a **requires** statement. By default, the **presence of the required module** is checked at both **compile time** and **run time**.

A **module** is able to control which, if any, of **its packages** are accessible by **another module**. To do this, use the **exports** keyword. **Public**, **protected** types in a package are accessible to other modules only if they are **explicitly exported**.

- Giving module names:** The **name of a module** (such as **appfuncs**) is the **prefix of the name of a package** (such as **appfuncs.simplefuncs**) that it contains. This is not required, but when creating **modules** suitable for **distribution**, you must be **careful with the names** you choose because you will want those names to be **unique**.

Reverse domain naming: In this method, the **reverse domain name of the domain** that "owns" the project is used as a **prefix** for the **module**. Eg: a project associated with **xyz.com** would use **com.xyz** as the **module prefix**. (Same for **package names**.)

Check the **Java documentation** for current recommendations it may change over time to time.

NOTE : We use the **commandlinetools** to **create**, **compile**, and **run modulebased** code. This approach shows the fundamentals of the module system, including how it **utilizes directories**. You will need to **manually create** a number of **directories** and ensure that each file is placed in its proper directory.

- Example 15:** Following creates a **modular application** that demonstrates some simple mathematical functions. It illustrates the **core concepts** and procedures required to **create**, **compile**, and **run** module-based code. The **application** defines **two modules**:

[1] The first module is called **appstart**. It contains a package called **appstart.mymodappdemo** that defines the application's **entry point** in a class called **MyModAppDemo** [i.e. this class contains **main()**].

[2] The second module is called **appfuncs**. It contains a package called **appfuncs.simplefuncs** that includes the class **SimpleMathFuncs**. This class defines three **static methods** that implement some simple **mathematical functions**.

- Create directory tree:** Create a directory called **mymodapp**. This is the **top-level directory** for the entire **application**.

Under **mymodapp**, create a **subdirectory** called **appsrc**. This is the **top-level** directory for the application's **source code**.

Under **appsrc**, create the **subdirectory appstart**. Under this directory, create a **subdirectory** also called **appstart**. Under this directory, create the directory **mymodappdemo**. Thus, beginning with **appsrc**, you will have created this tree:

mymodapp\appsrc\appstart\appstart\mymodappdemo

Also under **appsrc**, create the **subdirectory appfuncs**. Under this directory, create a **subdirectory** also called **appfuncs**. Under this directory, create the directory called **simplefuncs**. Thus, beginning with **appsrc**, you will have created this tree:

mymodapp\appsrc\appfuncs\appfuncs\simplefuncs

- After setting up these directories, we can create the application's source files. This example will use four source files. Two are the source files that define the application: **SimpleMathFuncs.java** and **MyModAppDemo.java**. Then we use two **moduleinfo.java** source files one for **appstart** directory and another for **appfuncs** directory.

SimpleMathFuncs.java: Notice that **SimpleMathFuncs** is packaged in **appfuncs.simplefuncs**. **SimpleMathFuncs** defines three simple **static math functions**. [The first, **isFactor()**, returns true if a is a factor of b. The **lcf()** method returns the least common factor of a and b. The **gcf()** method returns the greatest common factor of a and b. In both cases, 1 is returned if no common factors are found.]

This file must be put in: **appsrc\appfuncs\appfuncs\simplefuncs** It is **appfuncs.simplefuncs package directory**.

```
package appfuncs.simplefuncs; // notice package declaration
```

```
public class SimpleMathFuncs {
```

```
    public static boolean isFactor(int a, int b) { if((b%a) == 0) return true; return false;}
```

```
    public static int lcf(int a, int b) { a = Math.abs(a); b = Math.abs(b); int min = a < b ? a : b;
```

```
        for(int i = 2; i <= min/2; i++) { if(isFactor(i, a) && isFactor(i, b)) return i; }
```

```
        return 1; }
```

```

public static int gcf(int a, int b) { a = Math.abs(a); b = Math.abs(b); int min = a < b ? a : b;
for(int i = min/2; i >= 2; i--) { if (isFactor(i, a) && isFactor(i, b)) return i; }
return 1; }

```

- ❖ ***MyModAppDemo.java:*** Uses the methods in ***SimpleMathFuncs***. Notice that it is packaged in ***appstart.mymodappdemo***. Also note that it ***imports*** the ***SimpleMathFuncs class*** because it depends on ***SimpleMathFuncs*** for its operation.

❖ * This file must be put in: ***appsrc\appstart\appstart\mymodappdemo*** It is ***appstart.mymodappdemo package directory***.

```

package appstart.mymodappdemo; //Notice the package declaration
import appfuncs.simplefuncs.SimpleMathFuncs; //import statement.

public class MyModAppDemo { public static void main(String[] args) {
if(SimpleMathFuncs.isFactor(2, 10)) System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");
System.out.println("Smallest factor common to both 35 and 105 is " + SimpleMathFuncs.lcf(35, 105));
System.out.println("Largest factor common to both 35 and 105 is " + SimpleMathFuncs.gcf(35, 105)); }
}

```

- ❖ Now we need to add ***module-info.java*** files **for each module**. These files contain the ***module definitions***. First, add following, which defines the ***appfuncs module***:

// Module definition for the functions module : Define a module for appfuncs.

```

module appfuncs { exports appfuncs.simplefuncs; /*Exports the package appfuncs.simplefuncs. */ }

```

❖ Notice that ***appfuncs*** exports the package ***appfuncs.simplefuncs***, which makes it ***accessible*** to other ***modules***.

❖ This file must be put into this directory: ***appsrc\appfuncs*** i.e, it goes in the ***appfuncs module*** directory, which is above the package directories.

❖ To add the ***moduleinfo.java*** file for the ***appstart*** module:

// Module definition for the main application module : Define a module for appstart.

```

module appstart { requires appfuncs; /*Requires the module appfuncs. */ }

```

❖ Notice that ***appstart*** requires the module ***appfuncs***. This file must be put into its module directory: ***appsrc\appstart***

⌚ Compile and Run:

Didn't work --- First create the following directory (folder): in ***mymodapp***

Didn't work --- ***mymodapp\appmodules\appfuncs***

Didn't work --- ***javac*** must run inside ***mymodapp***: **C:\Users\User\mymodapp> javac**

Didn't work --- Power shell command : **PS C:\Users\User\mymodapp> javac -d appmodules\appfuncs appsrc\appfuncs\appfuncs\simplefuncs\SimpleMathFuncs.java**

- ❖ Like all other Java programs, module-based programs are ***compiled*** using ***javac***. In this case we need to ***explicitly specify a module path***. A module path tells the compiler where the compiled files will be located.

❖ Execute the ***javac*** commands from the ***mymodapp*** directory in order for the paths to be correct.

- ❖ Compile the ***SimpleMathFuncs.java*** file, using following command:

javac -d appmodules\appfuncs appsrc\appfuncs\appfuncs\simplefuncs\SimpleMathFuncs.java

- This command must be executed from the ***mymodapp*** directory. Notice the use of the ***-d*** option. This tells ***javac*** where to put the output ***.class*** file. For the examples in this chapter, the top of the directory tree for compiled code is ***appmodules***.
- This command will automatically create the output package directories for ***appfuncs.simplefuncs*** under ***appmodules\appfuncs*** as needed.

- ❖ Next, here is the ***javac*** command that compiles the ***moduleinfo.java*** file for the ***appfuncs*** module:

javac -d appmodules\appfuncs appsrc\appfuncs\module-info.java

- This puts the ***moduleinfo.class*** file into the ***appmodules\appfuncs*** directory.
- However, we can combine above two command lines into a single one. It is usually easier to compile a module's ***moduleinfo.java*** file and its ***source files*** in one command line.

**javac -d appmodules\appfuncs appsrc\appfuncs\module-info.java
appsrc\appfuncs\appfuncs\simplefuncs\SimpleMathFuncs.java**

- ❖ Now, compile the ***moduleinfo.java*** and ***MyModAppDemo.java*** files for the ***appstart*** module, using following command:

**javac --module-path appmodules -d appmodules\appstart appsrc\appstart\module-info.java
appsrc\appstart\appstart\mymodappdemo\MyModAppDemo.java**

- Notice the ***--module-path*** option. It specifies the ***module path***, which is the path on which the ***compiler*** will look for the ***user-defined modules*** required by the ***moduleinfo.java*** file. In this case, it will look for the ***appfuncs*** module because it is needed by the ***appstart*** module.
- It also specifies the ***output directory*** as ***appmodules\appstart***. This means that the ***moduleinfo.class*** file will be in the ***appmodules\appstart*** module directory and ***MyModAppDemo.class*** will be in the ***appmodules\appstart\mymodappdemo*** package directory.

- ❖ Once you have completed the compilation, you can ***run the application*** with this java command:

java --module-path appmodules -m appstart/appstart.mymodappdemo.MyModAppDemo

- Here, the ***--module-path*** option specifies the path to the application's modules. [***appmodules*** is the directory at the top of the ***compiled modules tree***].
- The ***-m*** option specifies the class that contains the entry point of the application and, in this case, the name of the class that contains the ***main()*** method.

10.13 requires and exports : Details

The two foundational features of the module system: the ability to ***specify a dependence*** and the ability to ***satisfy that dependence***. These capabilities are specified through the use of the ***requires*** and ***exports*** statements within a module declaration.

- ❑ ***General form of the requires statement:*** ***requires moduleName;*** Here, ***moduleName*** specifies the ***name of a module*** that is required by the module in which the ***requires*** statement occurs. This means that the required module must be present in order for the current module to compile.
 - ⇒ In the language of modules, the ***current module*** is said to ***read*** the module specified in the ***requires*** statement.
- ❑ ***General form of the exports statement:*** ***exports packageName;*** Here, ***packageName*** specifies the ***name of the package*** that is ***exported*** by the module in which this ***statement occurs***. When a module ***exports a package***, it makes all of the ***public*** and ***protected*** types (including members) in the package ***accessible to other modules***.
 - ⇒ If a ***package*** within a module is ***not exported***, then it is ***private*** to that module, including all of its ***public*** types.

public & ***protected*** types of a package, whether ***exported*** or not, are always accessible within that package's ***module***. ***exports*** makes them accessible to outside modules.

- 👉 **requires** and **exports** work together. If one module depends on another, then it must specify that dependence with **requires**. The module on which another depends must explicitly **export** (i.e., make accessible) the packages that the dependent module needs. If either side is missing, the dependent module will **not compile**.
- 👉 **requires** and **exports** must occur only within a **module statement**. Furthermore, a **module statement** must occur by itself in a **file** called **moduleinfo.java**.

10.14 java.base And PLATFORM modules

Java **API packages** have been incorporated into **modules**. The **API modules** are referred to as **platform modules**, and their names all begin with the prefix **java**. Here are some examples: **java.base**, **java.desktop**, and **java.xml**. By modularizing **API**, it becomes possible to deploy an application with only the packages that it requires, rather than the entire **Java Runtime Environment (JRE)**.

- ◻ **java.base:** Of the platform modules, the most important is **java.base**. It **includes** and **exports** those packages **fundamental** to Java, such as **java.lang**, **java.io**, and **java.util**, among many others.

- 👉 **java.base** is automatically accessible and automatically required by all modules. There is no need **requires java.base** statement in a module declaration.
- 👉 **java.lang** is also automatically available to all programs without **import** statement, since **java.base** module is automatically accessible to all module-based programs without explicitly requesting it.
- 👉 That's why **System.out.println()** worked without specifying a **requires** statement for the module that contains the **System** class.

👉 Since **java.base** contains the **java.lang** package, and **java.lang** contains the **System** class, **MyModAppDemo** in the preceding example can automatically use **System.out.println()** without a **requires** statement. Same applies to **Math** class in **SimpleMathFuncs**, because the **Math** class is also in **java.lang**.

👉 Many of the **API** classes you will commonly need are in the packages included in **java.base**. Thus, the **automatic** inclusion of **java.base** simplifies the creation of module-based code because Java's core packages are automatically accessible.

👉 Beginning with **JDK 9**, the documentation for the **Java API** now tells you the **name of the module** in which a **package** is contained. If the module is **java.base**, then you can use the contents of that package directly. Otherwise, your module declaration must include a **requires** clause for the desired module.

👉 **Compact profiles:** **Compact profiles** are a feature that, in some situations, let you specify a subset of the **API library**. They are not part of the **module system**.

10.15 LEGACY code and the UNNAMED module

Java ensures backward compatibility with preexisting code. Support for legacy code is provided by two key features.

- ◻ The first is the **unnamed module**. When you use code that is not part of a **named module**, it automatically becomes part of the **unnamed module**. The unnamed module has two important attributes.
 - 👉 First, all of the **packages** in the **unnamed module** are automatically **exported**.
 - 👉 Second, the **unnamed module** can access any and **all other modules**. Thus, when a program does not use modules, all **API modules** in the **Java platform** are automatically accessible through the **unnamed module**.
- ◻ The second key feature that supports **legacy code** is the **automatic** use of the **class path**, rather than the **module path**. When you compile a program that **does not use modules**, the **class path mechanism is employed**, just as it has been since Java's original release.
- ◻ Modularizing simple programs would simply add **clutter** and **complicate** them for no reason or benefit. Modules are often of the greatest benefit when creating **commercial programs**.

10.16 The **to** clause and **requires transitive**, multi-module compilation

- ◻ **to clause:** In some specialized development situations, it can be desirable to make a package accessible to only a specific set of modules, not all other modules. In an **exports** statement, the **to** clause specifies a **list of one or more modules** that have **access to the exported package**. Furthermore, only those modules named in the **to** clause will have access. In the language of **modules**, the **to** clause creates what is known as a **qualified export**. The form of exports that includes **to** is shown here:

exports packageName to moduleNames;

- 👉 Here, **moduleName** is a **comma-separated list** of **modules** to which the exporting module grants access.
- 👉 You can try the **to** clause by changing the **moduleinfo.java** file for the **appfunc**s module, as shown here:

```
module appfunc { exports appfunc . simplefunc to appstart; /*A qualified export: Exports the package appfunc.simplefunc to appstart.*/ }
```

Now, **simplefunc** is exported only to **appstart** and to no other modules. After making this change, you can **recompile** the application by using this **javac** command:

```
javac -d appmodules --module-source-path appsrc appsrc\appstart\appstart\mymodappdemo\MyModAppDemo.java
```

- ◻ **multi-module compilation mode:** Notice the command line, it specifies the **module-source-path** option. The **module source path** specifies the **top** of the **module source tree**. The **module-source-path** option automatically **compiles** the files in the **tree** under the **specified directory**, which is **appsrc** in this example. The **module-source-path** option must be used with the **-d** option to ensure that the **compiled modules** are stored in their proper directories under **appmodules**. This form of **javac** is called **multi-module mode** because it enables more than one module to be compiled at a time.
 - 👉 The **multi-module** compilation mode is especially helpful here because the **to clause** refers to a **specific module**, and the **requiring module** must have access to the **exported package**. Thus, in this case, both **appstart** and **appfunc**s are needed to avoid warnings and/or errors during compilation. **Multi-module mode** avoids this problem because both modules are being compiled at the same time.
 - 👉 The **multi-module** mode also **automatically finds and compiles all source files** for the application, *creating the necessary output directories*.

- ◻ **requires transitive:** Consider a situation in which there are three modules, **A**, **B**, and **C**, that have the dependences: **A requires B**. **B requires C**. Since **A** depends on **B** and **B** depends on **C**, **A** has an **indirect dependence** on **C**. As long as **A** does **not directly** use any of the contents of **C**, then you can simply have **A require B** in its **module-info** file, and have **B export** the packages required by **A** in its **module-info** file, as shown here:

```
/*A's module-info file*/ module A { requires B; }
/*B's module-info file*/ module B { exports somepack; requires C; }
```

- 👉 Here, **somepack** is a **placeholder** for the package **exported** by **B** and **used** by **A**.
- 👉 Although this works as long as **A** does not need to use anything **defined** in **C**, a problem occurs if **A** does **want to access a type** in **C**. There are two solutions:
 - 👉 The **first solution** is to simply add a **requires C** statement to **A**'s file, as: **module A { requires B; requires C; /* also require C */ }**
 - 👉 This solution works, but if **B** will be used by **many modules**, you must add **requires C** to **all module definitions** that **require B**. This tedious & error prone.
 - 👉 A better solution using **requires transitive**: You can create an **implied dependence** on **C**. **Implied dependence** is also referred to as **implied readability**. To create an **implied dependence**, add the **transitive keyword** after **requires** in the clause that requires the module upon which an **implied readability** is needed. In the case of this example, you would change **B**'s **module-info** file as: **module B{ exports somepack; requires transitive C; }**
 - 👉 Here, **C** is now **required as transitive**. Now, any module that **depends** on **B** will also automatically **depend** on **C**. Thus, **A** would automatically have access to **C**.
- 👉 In a **requires** statement, if **transitive** is immediately followed by a **separator** (such as a **semicolon**), it is interpreted as an **identifier** rather than a **keyword**.

10.17 SERVICES

In programming, it is often useful to separate **what must be done** from **how it is done**. One way this is accomplished in Java is through the use of **interfaces**. The **interface** specifies the **what**, and the **implementing class** specifies the **how**.

⌚ This concept can be expanded so that the **implementing class** is provided by **code** that is **outside** your program, through the use of a **plugin**. Using such an approach, the capabilities of an application can be enhanced, upgraded, or altered by simply changing the **plugin**. The **core** of the application itself remains **unchanged**. Java supports a **pluggable** application architecture through the use of **services** and **service providers**. In large, commercial applications, Java's module system provides support for them.

▢ **Service and Service Provider:** In Java, a **service** is a **program unit** whose functionality is defined by an **interface** or an **abstract class**. Thus, a service specifies in a general way some form of program activity. A **concrete implementation of a service** is supplied by a **service provider**. In other words, a **service** defines the **form of some action**, and the **service provider** supplies that action.

⌚ As mentioned, **services** are often used to support a **pluggable architecture**. For example, a **service** might be used to support the **translation** of one language into another. In this case, the **service** supports **translation in general**. The **service provider** supplies a **specific translation**, such as **German to English** or **French to Chinese**. Because all service providers implement the same **interface**, different translators can be used to translate different languages without having to change the core of the application. You can simply change the **service provider**.

⌚ **Service providers** are supported by the **ServiceLoader** class. **ServiceLoader** is a **generic class** packaged in **java.util**. It is declared like:

class ServiceLoader<S>

Here, **S** specifies the **service type**.

⌚ **Service providers** are loaded by the **load()** method. It has several forms; the one we will use is:

public static <S> ServiceLoader<S> load(Class <S> serviceType)

► Here, **serviceType** specifies the **Class object** for the desired service type. Recall from **Java/C# Chapter 9 : Generics** that **Class** is a class that **encapsulates information** about a class. There are a variety of ways to obtain a Class instance. The way we will use here is called a **class literal**. A **class literal** has general form:

Here, **className.class** specifies the **name of the class**.

► When **load()** is called, it returns a **ServiceLoader instance** for the application. This object supports **iteration** and can be cycled through by use of a **for-each for loop**. Therefore, to find a specific provider, simply search for it using a loop.

▢ **Service-Based Keywords:** Modules support services through the use of the keywords **provides**, **uses**, and **with**. When used together, they enable you to **specify a module** that **provides a service**, a module that **needs that service**, and the **specific implementation of that service**. Furthermore, the module system ensures that the service and service providers are **available and will be found**.

⌚ A module specifies that it provides a service with a **provides** statement. To **provide** a service, the module indicates both the **name of the service** and its **implementation**. General form of provides:

provides serviceType with implementationTypes;

► Here, **serviceType** specifies the **type of the service**, which is often an **interface**, although **abstract classes** are also used.

► A **comma-separated list** of the implementation types is specified by **implementationTypes**.

⌚ A module indicates that it requires a service with a **uses** statement. Form:

uses serviceType;

serviceType specifies the type of the service required.

⌚ The **specific type of service provider** is declared by **with**.

10.18 Example of A Module-Based Service (Example 16)

⌚ Consider **Example 15**, to it we will add two new modules:

- ❖ The first is called **userfuncs**. It will define **interfaces** that support functions that perform **binary operations** in which each **argument** is an **int** and the **result** is an **int**.
- ❖ The second module is called **userfuncsimp**, and it contains **concrete implementations** of the **interfaces**.

⌚ This example expands the original version of the application by providing support for functions beyond those built into the application. Recall that the **SimpleMathFuncs** class supplies three builtin functions: **isFactor()**, **lcf()**, and **gcf()**. Although it would be possible to add more functions to this class, doing so requires modifying and recompiling the application. By implementing services, it becomes possible to “**plug in**” new functions at run time without modifying the application, and that is what this example will do.

⌚ Create two directory tree: **appsrc\userfuncs\userfuncs\binaryfuncs** and **appsrc\userfuncsimp\userfuncsimp\binaryfuncsimp**

⌚ Here, the **service** supplies functions that **take** two **int** arguments and **return** an **int** result. Of course, other types of functions can be supported if **additional interfaces** are provided, but support for **binary integer** functions is sufficient for our purposes and keeps the source code size of the example manageable.

⌚ **The Service Interfaces:** Two **service-related interfaces** are needed. One specifies the **form of an action**, and the other specifies the **form of the provider of that action**. Both go in the **binaryfuncs** directory, and are in the **userfuncs.binaryfuncs** package.

⌚ **BinaryFunc:** Following is the first interface, called **BinaryFunc**, declares the **form of a binary function**. It defines a function that takes two **int** arguments and returns an **int** result. Thus, it can **describe any binary operation** on two **ints** that returns an **int**

```
package userfuncs.binaryfuncs;
public interface BinaryFunc { public String getName(); // Obtain the name of the function
                           public int func(int a, int b); /* This is the function to perform. It will be provided by specific implementations */ }
```

BinaryFunc declares the form of an object that can implement a binary integer function. This is specified by **func()**. The name of the function is obtainable from **getName()**. Name will be used to determine what type of function is implemented. This interface is implemented by a class that supplies a binary function.

⌚ **BinFuncProvider:** Following is the second interface, which declares the form of the **service provider**. It is called **BinFuncProvider**. This interface obtains **BinaryFunc** instances

```
package userfuncs.binaryfuncs;
import userfuncs.binaryfuncs.BinaryFunc;
public interface BinFuncProvider { public BinaryFunc get(); // Obtain a BinaryFunc }
```

BinFuncProvider declares only one method, **get()**, which is used to obtain an instance of **BinaryFunc**. This interface must be implemented by a class that wants to provide instances of **BinaryFunc**.

⌚ **The Implementation Classes:** In this example, two **concrete implementations** of **BinaryFunc** are supported. The first is **AbsPlus**, which returns the sum of the absolute values of its arguments. The second is **AbsMinus**, which returns the result of subtracting the absolute value of the second argument from the absolute value of the first argument. These are provided by the classes **AbsPlusProvider** and **AbsMinusProvider**.

⌚ **AbsPlus:** The source code for these classes must be stored in the **binaryfuncsimp** directory, and they are all part of the **userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp** package. **AbsPlus** provides a concrete implementation of **BinaryFunc**. It returns the result of **abs(a) + abs(b)**. The code for **AbsPlus** is shown here:

```
package userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp;
import userfuncs.binaryfuncs.BinaryFunc;
public class AbsPlus implements BinaryFunc {
    public String getName() { return "absPlus"; /* Return name of this function */
                           // Implement the AbsPlus function : Implement func() for absolute-value addition.
                           public int func(int a, int b) { return Math.abs(a) + Math.abs(b); } }
```

AbsPlus implements **func()** such that it returns the result of adding the absolute values of **a** and **b**. Notice that **getName()** returns the “**absPlus**” string. It identifies this function.

- ☞ **AbsMinus:** *AbsMinus* provides a *concrete implementation* of *BinaryFunc*. It returns the result of *abs(a) - abs(b)*.

```
package userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp;
import userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs.BinaryFunc;
public class AbsMinus implements BinaryFunc {   public String getName() { return "absMinus"; /* Return name of this function */ }
                                                 // Implement the AbsMinus function : Implement func() for absolute-value subtraction.
                                                 public int func(int a, int b) { return Math.abs(a) - Math.abs(b) } }
```

Here, *func()* is implemented to return the difference between the absolute values of *a* and *b*, and the string "**absMinus**" is returned by *getName()*.

- ☞ **Implementing providers:** To obtain an instance of *AbsPlus*, the *AbsPlusProvider* is used. It implements *BinFuncProvider* and is shown here:

```
package userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp;
import userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs.*;
public class AbsPlusProvider implements BinFuncProvider {
    public BinaryFunc get() { return new AbsPlus(); /* Returns an AbsPlus object. */ }}
```

get() simply returns a *newAbsPlus()* object. [Though above is simple, it is important to point out that some service providers will be much more complex.]

- The provider for *AbsMinus* is called *AbsMinusProvider* and is:

```
package userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp;
import userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs;
public class AbsMinusProvider implements BinFuncProvider {
    public BinaryFunc get() { return new AbsMinus(); /* Returns an AbsMinus object. */ }}
```

Its *get()* method returns an object of *AbsMinus*.

- ⌚ **The Module Definition Files:** Next, two *module definition* files are needed. The first is for the *userfuncsimp* module. It is shown here:

```
module userfuncsimp { exports userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs; }
```

- This code must be contained in a *module-info.java* file that is in the *userfuncsimp* module directory. Notice that it exports the *userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs* package. This is the package that defines the *BinaryFunc* and *BinFuncProvider* interfaces.

- ⌚ The second *module-info.java* file is shown next. It defines the module that contains the implementations. It goes in the *userfuncsimp* module directory.

```
module userfuncsimp { requires userfuncsimp;
                      provides userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs.BinFuncProvider with
                          userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp.AbsPlusProvider, userfuncsimp.binaryfuncsimp.AbsMinusProvider; }
```

This module requires *userfuncsimp* because that is where *BinaryFunc* and *BinFuncProvider* are contained, and those interfaces are needed by the implementations. The module provides *BinFuncProvider* implementations with the classes *AbsPlusProvider* and *AbsMinusProvider*.

- ⌚ **Demonstrate the Service Providers in MyModAppDemo inside main():** For the use of the *services* and *service providers*, the *main()* method of *MyModAppDemo* is expanded to use *AbsPlus* and *AbsMinus*. It does so by loading them at *run time* by use of *ServiceLoader.load()*. Here is the updated code:

```
package appstart.mymodappdemo;
import java.util.ServiceLoader; import appfuncsimp.simplefuncs.SimpleMathFuncs; import userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs.*;
public class MyModAppDemo { public static void main(String[] args) {
    // First, use built-in functions as before
    if(SimpleMathFuncs.isFactor(2, 10)) System.out.println("2 is a factor of 10");
    System.out.println("Smallest factor common to both 35 and 105 is " + SimpleMathFuncs.lcf(35, 105));
    System.out.println("Largest factor common to both 35 and 105 is " + SimpleMathFuncs.gcf(35, 105));

    // Now, use service-based, user-defined operations.
    ServiceLoader<BinFuncProvider> ldr = ServiceLoader.load(BinFuncProvider.class); // Get a service loader for binary functions.
    BinaryFunc binOp = null;

    // Find the provider for absPlus and obtain the function using for-each-for-loop
    for(BinFuncProvider bfp : ldr) { if(bfp.getName().equals("absPlus")) { binOp = bfp.get(); break; } }

    if(binOp != null) System.out.println("Result of absPlus function: " + binOp.func(12, -4));
    else System.out.println("absPlus function not found");
    binOp = null;

    // Now, find the provider for absMinus and obtain the function,
    for (BinFuncProvider bfp : ldr) { if (bfp.getName().equals("absMinus")) { binOp = bfp.get(); break; } }

    if(binOp != null) System.out.println("Result of absMinus function: " + binOp.func(12, -4));
    else System.out.println("absMinus function not found"); }}
```

- ☞ A service loader for services of type *BinFuncProvider* is created with this statement:

```
ServiceLoader<BinFuncProvider> ldr = ServiceLoader.load(BinFuncProvider.class);
```

Notice that the type parameter to *ServiceLoader* is *BinFuncProvider*. This is also the type used in the call to *load()*. This means that *providers that implement* this interface will be found. Thus, after this statement executes, *BinFuncProvider* classes in the *module* will be available through *ldr*. In this case, both *AbsPlusProvider* and *AbsMinusProvider* will be available.

- ☞ Next, a *reference* of type *BinaryFunc* called *binOp* is declared and initialized to *null*. It will be used to refer to an implementation that supplies a *specific type* of *binary function*.

- ☞ Next, the following loop searches *ldr* for one that has the "**absPlus**" name.

```
for(BinFuncProvider bfp : ldr) { if(bfp.getName().equals("absPlus")) { binOp = bfp.get(); break; } }
```

Here, a *for-each* loop iterates through *ldr*. Inside the loop, the name of the function supplied by the provider is checked. If it matches "**absPlus**", that function is assigned to *binOp* by calling the provider's *get()* method.

- ☞ If the function is found, it is executed by this statement: *if(binOp != null) System.out.println("Result of absPlus function: " + binOp.func(12, -4))*; Because *binOp* refers to an instance of *AbsPlus*, the call to *func()* performs an absolute value addition. A similar sequence is used to find and execute *AbsMinus*.

- ⌚ **Module definition for the main application module:** Because *MyModAppDemo* now uses *BinFuncProvider*, its module definition file must include a *uses* statement that specifies this fact. Recall that *MyModAppDemo* is in the *appstart* module. Therefore, you must change the *module-info.java* file for *appstart* as:

```
module appstart { requires appfuncsimp; requires userfuncsimp;
                  uses userfuncsimp.binaryfuncs.BinFuncProvider; /* appstart now uses BinFuncProvider */ }
```

- ⌚ **Compile and Run:** execute the commands: `javac -d appmodules --module-source-path appsrcc userfuncsimp\module-info.java`
`appsrscc\appstart\appstart\mymodappdemo\MyModAppDemo.java`
`java --module-path appmodules -m appstart/appstart/mymodappdemo.MyModAppDemo`

- ☞ If either the *provides* statement in the *userfuncsimp* module or the *uses* statement in the *appstart* module were missing, the application would fail.

10.19 Runtime MODULE FEATURES

There are three more features: **open module**, the **opens statement**, and the use of **requires static**. Each of these features is designed to handle a specialized situation.

- **Open Modules:** By default, the types in a module's packages are accessible only if they are **explicitly exported** via an **exports** statement. But there can be circumstances in which it is useful to **enable runtime access** to all packages in the module, whether a **package is exported or not**. To allow this, you can create an **open module**. An **open module** is declared by preceding the module keyword with the **open** modifier, as shown here:

```
open module moduleName { /*module definition */ }
```

- ☞ In an **open** module, **types** in all packages are accessible at **run time**. Understand, however, that only those packages that are **explicitly exported** are available at **compile time**. Thus, the **open** modifier affects only **runtime accessibility**.
- ☞ The primary reason for an **open module** is to enable the **packages** in the **module** to be accessed through **reflection**. **Reflection** is the feature that lets a program analyze code at **run time**. **Reflection** can be quite important to certain types of programs that require **runtime** access to a **thirdparty library**.

- **The opens Statement:** It is possible for a module to **open a specific package** for **runtime access** by other **modules** and for **reflective access** rather than **opening an entire module**. To do so, use the **opens statement**, shown here:

```
opens packageName;
```

- ☞ Here, **packageName** specifies the package to **open**. It is also possible to include a **to** clause, which names those **modules** for which the **package** is opened.
- ☞ It is important to understand that **opens** does not grant **compile-time** access. It is used only to **open a package** for **runtime** and **reflective** access.
- ☞ An **opens statement** **cannot** be used in an **open module**. Remember, all **packages** in an **open module** are already **open**.

- **requires static:** As you know, **requires** specifies a **dependence** that, by default, is enforced both during **compilation** and at **run time**. However, it is possible to relax this requirement in such a way that a **module** is **not required** at **run time**. This is accomplished by use of the **static** modifier in a **requires statement**. For example, this specifies that **mymod** is required for **compilation**, but **not at run time**.

```
requires static mymod;
```

- ☞ Here, **static** makes **mymod** optional at **run time**. This can be helpful in a situation in which a program can utilize **functionality** if it is **present**, but **not require** it.

10.20 Module graph

During compilation, the **compiler** resolves the **dependence relationships** between **modules** by creating a **module graph** that represents the **dependences**. The process ensures that all **dependences** are **resolved**, including those that occur **indirectly**. For example, if module **A** requires module **B** and **B** requires module **C**, then the **module graph** will contain module **C** even if **A** does not use it directly.

- **Module graphs** can be depicted visually in a **drawing** to illustrate the **relationship between modules**. Here is a simple example. It is the graph for the **Example 15**, (Because **java.base** is automatically included, it is not shown in the diagram.):

appstart → appfuncs

- ☞ In Java, the **arrows point** from the **dependent** module **to** the **required** module. Thus, a drawing of a module graph depicts what modules have access to what other modules. Frankly, only the smallest applications can have their module graphs visually represented because of the complexity typically involved in many commercial applications.

CONTINUING YOUR STUDY OF MODULES

Beginning with **JDK 9**, the **JDK** includes the **jlink** tool that assembles a **modular application** into a **runtime image** that has only those modules related to the application. This saves both **space** and **download time**. A modular application can be packaged into a **JAR** file. (**JAR** stands for **Java ARchive**. It is a **file format** typically used for **application deployment**.) As a result, the **jar tool** now has options that **support modules**. For example, it can now recognize a **module path**. A **JAR** file that contains a **module-info.class** file is called a **modular JAR file**. For specialized advanced work with modules, you will want to learn about **layers of modules**, **automatic modules**, and the technique by which modules can be added during **compilation** or **execution**.