Java SE 8

Section 1: Java Basics

Item 1: Define the scope of variables.

Variables

An object stores its state in *fields*.

```
int cadence = 0;
int speed = 0;
int gear = 1;
```

The Java programming language defines the following kinds of variables:

- **Instance Variables (Non-Static Fields)** Technically speaking, objects store their individual states in "non-static fields", that is, fields declared without the `static` keyword. Non-static fields are also known as ***instance variables*** because their values are unique to each *instance* of a class (to each object, in other words); the `currentSpeed` of one bicycle is independent from the `currentSpeed` of another.
- **Class Variables (Static Fields)** A *class variable* is any field declared with the `static` modifier; this tells the compiler that there is exactly one copy of this variable in existence, regardless of how many times the class has been instantiated. A field defining the number of gears for a particular kind of bicycle could be marked as `static` since conceptually the same number of gears will apply to all instances. The code `static int numGears = 6;` would create such a static field. Additionally, the keyword `final` could be added to indicate that the number of gears will never change.
- **Local Variables** Similar to how an object stores its state in fields, a method will often store its temporary state in *local variables*. The syntax for declaring a local variable is similar to declaring a field (for example, `int count = 0;`). There is no special keyword designating a variable as local; that determination comes entirely from the location in which the variable is declared — which is between the opening and closing braces of a method. As such, local variables are only visible to the methods in which they are declared; they are not accessible from the rest of the class.
- **Parameters** You've already seen examples of parameters, both in the `Bicycle` class and in the `main` method of the "Hello World!" application. Recall that the signature for the `main` method is `public static void main(String[] args)`. Here, the `args` variable is the parameter to this method. The important thing to remember is that parameters are always classified as "variables" not "fields". This applies to other parameter-accepting constructs as well (such as constructors and exception handlers) that you'll learn about later in the tutorial.

Naming

- Variable names are case-sensitive. A variable's name can be any legal identifier — an unlimited-length sequence of Unicode letters and digits, beginning with a letter, the dollar sign "`$`", or the underscore character "`_`". The convention, however, is to always begin your variable names with a letter, not "`$`" or "`_`". Additionally, the dollar sign character, by convention, is never used at all. You may find some situations where auto-generated names will contain the dollar sign, but your variable names should always avoid using it. A similar convention exists for the underscore character; while it's technically legal to begin your variable's name with "`_`", this practice is discouraged. White space is not permitted.
- Subsequent characters may be letters, digits, dollar signs, or underscore characters. Conventions (and common sense) apply to this rule as well. When choosing a name for your variables, use full words instead of cryptic abbreviations. Doing so will make your code easier to read and understand. In many

cases it will also make your code self-documenting; fields named `cadence`, `speed`, and `gear`, for example, are much more intuitive than abbreviated versions, such as `s`, `c`, and `g`. Also keep in mind that the name you choose must not be a keyword or reserved word.

- If the name you choose consists of only one word, spell that word in all lowercase letters. If it consists of more than one word, capitalize the first letter of each subsequent word. The names `gearRatio` and `currentGear` are prime examples of this convention. If your variable stores a constant value, such as `static final int NUM_GEARS = 6`, the convention changes slightly, capitalizing every letter and separating subsequent words with the underscore character. By convention, the underscore character is never used elsewhere.

Primitive Data Types

A **signed integer** is an integer that can be both positive and negative. This is as opposed to an **unsigned integer**, which can only be positive.

A **primitive** is a fundamental data type that cannot be broken down into a more simple data type. ... **Java**, for instance, has eight **primitive** data types: boolean – a single TRUE or FALSE value (typically only requires one bit) byte – 8-bit signed integer (-127 to 128)

The Java programming language is statically-typed, which means that all variables must first be declared before they can be used. This involves stating the variable's type and name, as you've already seen:

```
int gear = 1;
```

Doing so tells your program that a field named "gear" exists, holds numerical data, and has an initial value of "1". A variable's data type determines the values it may contain, plus the operations that may be performed on it. In addition to `int`, the Java programming language supports seven other *primitive data types*.

A primitive type is predefined by the language and is named by a reserved keyword.

Primitive values do not share state with other primitive values.

The eight primitive data types supported by the Java programming language are:

- **byte**: The `byte` data type is an 8-bit signed **two's complement integer**. It has a minimum value of -128 and a maximum value of 127 (inclusive). The `byte` data type can be useful for saving memory in large arrays, where the memory savings actually matters. They can also be used in place of `int` where their limits help to clarify your code; the fact that a variable's range is limited can serve as a form of documentation.
- **short**: The `short` data type is a 16-bit signed two's complement integer. It has a minimum value of -32,768 and a maximum value of 32,767 (inclusive). As with `byte`, the same guidelines apply: you can use a `short` to save memory in large arrays, in situations where the memory savings actually matters.
- **int**: By default, the `int` data type is a 32-bit signed two's complement integer, which has a minimum value of -2^{31} and a maximum value of $2^{31}-1$. In Java SE 8 and later, you can use the `int` data type to represent an unsigned 32-bit integer, which has a minimum value of 0 and a maximum value of $2^{32}-1$. Use the Integer class to use `int` data type as an unsigned integer. See the section The Number Classes for more information. Static methods like `compareUnsigned`, `divideUnsigned` etc have been added to the `Integer` class to support the arithmetic operations for unsigned integers.

- **long**: The `long` data type is a 64-bit two's complement integer. The signed long has a minimum value of -2^{63} and a maximum value of $2^{63}-1$. In Java SE 8 and later, you can use the `long` data type to represent an unsigned 64-bit long, which has a minimum value of 0 and a maximum value of $2^{64}-1$. Use this data type when you need a range of values wider than those provided by `int`. The `Long` class also contains methods like `compareUnsigned`, `divideUnsigned` etc to support arithmetic operations for unsigned long.
- **float**: The `float` data type is a single-precision 32-bit IEEE 754 floating point. Its range of values is beyond the scope of this discussion, but is specified in the Floating-Point Types, Formats, and Values section of the Java Language Specification. As with the recommendations for `byte` and `short`, use a `float` (instead of `double`) if you need to save memory in large arrays of floating point numbers. This data type should never be used for precise values, such as currency. For that, you will need to use the java.math.BigDecimal class instead. Numbers and Strings covers `BigDecimal` and other useful classes provided by the Java platform.
- **double**: The `double` data type is a double-precision 64-bit IEEE 754 floating point. Its range of values is beyond the scope of this discussion, but is specified in the Floating-Point Types, Formats, and Values section of the Java Language Specification. For decimal values, this data type is generally the default choice. As mentioned above, this data type should never be used for precise values, such as currency.
- **boolean**: The `boolean` data type has only two possible values: `true` and `false`. Use this data type for simple flags that track true/false conditions. This data type represents one bit of information, but its "size" isn't something that's precisely defined.
- **char**: The `char` data type is a single 16-bit Unicode character. It has a minimum value of `'\u0000'` (or 0) and a maximum value of `'\uffff'` (or 65,535 inclusive).

In addition to the eight primitive data types listed above, the Java programming language also provides special support for character strings via the java.lang.String class. Enclosing your character string within double quotes will automatically create a new `String` object; for example, `String s = "this is a string";`. `String` objects are *immutable*, which means that once created, their values cannot be changed. The `String` class is not technically a primitive data type, but considering the special support given to it by the language, you'll probably tend to think of it as such. You'll learn more about the `String` class in Simple Data Objects

Default Values

It's not always necessary to assign a value when a field is declared. Fields that are declared but not initialized will be set to a reasonable default by the compiler. Generally speaking, this default will be zero or `null`, depending on the data type. Relying on such default values, however, is generally considered bad programming style.

The following chart summarizes the default values for the above data types.

Data Type	**Default Value (for fields)**
byte	0
short	0
int	0
long	0L

float	0.0f
double	0.0d
char	'\u0000'
String (or any object)	null
boolean	false

Local variables are slightly different; the compiler never assigns a default value to an uninitialized local variable. If you cannot initialize your local variable where it is declared, make sure to assign it a value before you attempt to use it. Accessing an uninitialized local variable will result in a compile-time error.

Literals

You may have noticed that the `new` keyword isn't used when initializing a variable of a primitive type. Primitive types are special data types built into the language; they are not objects created from a class. A *literal* is the source code representation of a fixed value; literals are represented directly in your code without requiring computation. As shown below, it's possible to assign a literal to a variable of a primitive type:

```
boolean result = true;
char capitalC = 'C';
byte b = 100;
short s = 10000;
int i = 100000;
```

Integer Literals

An integer literal is of type `long` if it ends with the letter `L` or `l`; otherwise it is of type `int`. It is recommended that you use the upper case letter `L` because the lower case letter `l` is hard to distinguish from the digit `1`.

Values of the integral types `byte`, `short`, `int`, and `long` can be created from `int` literals. Values of type `long` that exceed the range of `int` can be created from `long` literals. Integer literals can be expressed by these number systems:

- Decimal: Base 10, whose digits consists of the numbers 0 through 9; this is the number system you use every day
- Hexadecimal: Base 16, whose digits consist of the numbers 0 through 9 and the letters A through F
- Binary: Base 2, whose digits consists of the numbers 0 and 1 (you can create binary literals in Java SE 7 and later)

For general-purpose programming, the decimal system is likely to be the only number system you'll ever use. However, if you need to use another number system, the following example shows the correct syntax. The prefix `0x` indicates hexadecimal and `0b` indicates binary:

```
// The number 26, in decimal
int decVal = 26;
//  The number 26, in hexadecimal
int hexVal = 0x1a;
// The number 26, in binary
```

```
int binVal = 0b11010;
```

Floating-Point Literals

A floating-point literal is of type `float` if it ends with the letter `F` or `f`; otherwise its type is `double` and it can optionally end with the letter `D` or `d`.

The floating point types (`float` and `double`) can also be expressed using E or e (for scientific notation), F or f (32-bit float literal) and D or d (64-bit double literal; this is the default and by convention is omitted).

```
double d1 = 123.4;
// same value as d1, but in scientific notation
double d2 = 1.234e2;
float f1  = 123.4f;
```

Character and String Literals

Literals of types `char` and `String` may contain any Unicode (UTF-16) characters. If your editor and file system allow it, you can use such characters directly in your code. If not, you can use a "Unicode escape" such as `'\u0108'` (capital C with circumflex), or `"S\u00ED Se\u00F1or"` (Sí Señor in Spanish). Always use 'single quotes' for `char` literals and "double quotes" for `String` literals. Unicode escape sequences may be used elsewhere in a program (such as in field names, for example), not just in `char` or `String` literals.

The Java programming language also supports a few special escape sequences for `char` and `String` literals: `\b` (backspace), `\t` (tab), `\n` (line feed), `\f` (form feed), `\r` (carriage return), `\"` (double quote), `\'` (single quote), and `\\` (backslash).

There's also a special `null` literal that can be used as a value for any reference type. `null` may be assigned to any variable, except variables of primitive types. There's little you can do with a `null` value beyond testing for its presence. Therefore, `null` is often used in programs as a marker to indicate that some object is unavailable.

Finally, there's also a special kind of literal called a *class literal*, formed by taking a type name and appending `".class"`; for example, `String.class`. This refers to the object (of type `Class`) that represents the type itself.

Using Underscore Characters in Numeric Literals

In Java SE 7 and later, any number of underscore characters (_) can appear anywhere between digits in a numerical literal. This feature enables you, for example. to separate groups of digits in numeric literals, which can improve the readability of your code.

For instance, if your code contains numbers with many digits, you can use an underscore character to separate digits in groups of three, similar to how you would use a punctuation mark like a comma, or a space, as a separator.

The following example shows other ways you can use the underscore in numeric literals:

```
long creditCardNumber = 1234_5678_9012_3456L;
long socialSecurityNumber = 999_99_9999L;
float pi =  3.14_15F;
long hexBytes = 0xFF_EC_DE_5E;
long hexWords = 0xCAFE_BABE;
long maxLong = 0x7fff_ffff_ffff_ffffL;
```

```
byte nybbles = 0b0010_0101;
long bytes = 0b11010010_01101001_10010100_10010010;
```

You can place underscores only between digits; you cannot place underscores in the following places:

- At the beginning or end of a number
- Adjacent to a decimal point in a floating point literal
- Prior to an `F` or `L` suffix
- In positions where a string of digits is expected

The following examples demonstrate valid and invalid underscore placements (which are highlighted) in numeric literals:

```
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// adjacent to a decimal point
float pi1 = 3_.1415F;
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// adjacent to a decimal point
float pi2 = 3._1415F;
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// prior to an L suffix
long socialSecurityNumber1 = 999_99_9999_L;

// OK (decimal literal)
int x1 = 5_2;
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// At the end of a literal
int x2 = 52_;
// OK (decimal literal)
int x3 = 5_______2;

// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// in the 0x radix prefix
int x4 = 0_x52;
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// at the beginning of a number
int x5 = 0x_52;
// OK (hexadecimal literal)
int x6 = 0x5_2;
// Invalid: cannot put underscores
// at the end of a number
int x7 = 0x52_;
```

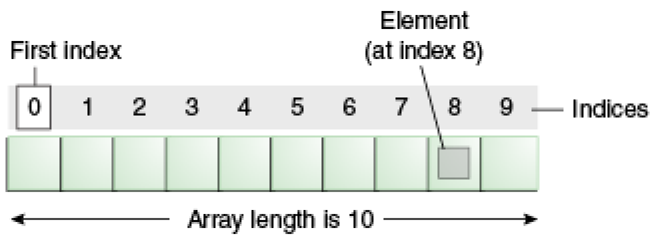
Arrays

An *array* is a container object that holds a fixed number of values of a single type.

The length of an array is established when the array is created.

After creation, its length is fixed.

You have seen an example of arrays already, in the `main` method of the "Hello World!" application.



An array of 10 elements.

Each item in an array is called an *element*, and each element is accessed by its numerical *index*. As shown in the preceding illustration, numbering begins with 0. The 9th element, for example, would therefore be accessed at index 8.

The following program, `ArrayDemo`, creates an array of integers, puts some values in the array, and prints each value to standard output.

```
class ArrayDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // declares an array of integers
        int[] anArray;

        // allocates memory for 10 integers
        anArray = new int[10];

        // initialize first element
        anArray[0] = 100;
        // initialize second element
        anArray[1] = 200;
        // and so forth
        anArray[2] = 300;
        anArray[3] = 400;
        anArray[4] = 500;
        anArray[5] = 600;
        anArray[6] = 700;
        anArray[7] = 800;
        anArray[8] = 900;
        anArray[9] = 1000;

        System.out.println("Element at index 0: "
                           + anArray[0]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 1: "
                           + anArray[1]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 2: "
                           + anArray[2]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 3: "
                           + anArray[3]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 4: "
                           + anArray[4]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 5: "
                           + anArray[5]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 6: "
                           + anArray[6]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 7: "
                           + anArray[7]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 8: "
                           + anArray[8]);
        System.out.println("Element at index 9: "
                           + anArray[9]);
    }
}
```

The output from this program is:

```
Element at index 0: 100
Element at index 1: 200
Element at index 2: 300
Element at index 3: 400
Element at index 4: 500
Element at index 5: 600
Element at index 6: 700
Element at index 7: 800
Element at index 8: 900
Element at index 9: 1000
```

In a real-world programming situation, you would probably use one of the supported *looping constructs* to iterate through each element of the array, rather than write each line individually as in the preceding example. However, the example clearly illustrates the array syntax.

Declaring a Variable to Refer to an Array

The preceding program declares an array (named `anArray`) with the following line of code:

```
// declares an array of integers
int[] anArray;
```

Like declarations for variables of other types, an array declaration has two components: the array's type and the array's name. An array's type is written as *`type`*`[]`, where *`type`* is the data type of the contained elements; the brackets are special symbols indicating that this variable holds an array.

The size of the array is not part of its type (which is why the brackets are empty).

As with variables of other types, the declaration does not actually create an array; it simply tells the compiler that this variable will hold an array of the specified type.

Similarly, you can declare arrays of other types:

```
byte[] anArrayOfBytes;
short[] anArrayOfShorts;
```

```
long[] anArrayOfLongs;
float[] anArrayOfFloats;
double[] anArrayOfDoubles;
boolean[] anArrayOfBooleans;
char[] anArrayOfChars;
String[] anArrayOfStrings;
```

You can also place the brackets after the array's name:

```
// this form is discouraged
float anArrayOfFloats[];
```

However, convention discourages this form; the brackets identify the array type and should appear with the type designation.

Creating, Initializing, and Accessing an Array

One way to create an array is with the `new` operator. The next statement in the `ArrayDemo` program allocates an array with enough memory for 10 integer elements and assigns the array to the `anArray` variable.

```
// create an array of integers
anArray = new int[10];
```

If this statement is missing, then the compiler prints an error like the following, and compilation fails:

```
ArrayDemo.java:4: Variable anArray may not have been initialized.
```

The next few lines assign values to each element of the array:

```
anArray[0] = 100; // initialize first element
anArray[1] = 200; // initialize second element
anArray[2] = 300; // and so forth
```

Each array element is accessed by its numerical index:

```
System.out.println("Element 1 at index 0: " + anArray[0]);
System.out.println("Element 2 at index 1: " + anArray[1]);
System.out.println("Element 3 at index 2: " + anArray[2]);
```

Alternatively, you can use the shortcut syntax to create and initialize an array:

```
int[] anArray = {
    100, 200, 300,
    400, 500, 600,
    700, 800, 900, 1000
};
```

Here the length of the array is determined by the number of values provided between braces and separated by commas.

You can also declare an array of arrays (also known as a *multidimensional* array) by using two or more sets of brackets, such as `String[][] names`. Each element, therefore, must be accessed by a corresponding number of index values.

In the Java programming language, a multidimensional array is an array whose components are themselves arrays.

```
class MultiDimArrayDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String[][] names = {
            {"Mr. ", "Mrs. ", "Ms. "},
            {"Smith", "Jones"}
        };
        // Mr. Smith
        System.out.println(names[0][0] + names[1][0]);
        // Ms. Jones
        System.out.println(names[0][2] + names[1][1]);
    }
}
```

The output from this program is:

```
Mr. Smith
Ms. Jones
```

Finally, you can use the built-in `length` property to determine the size of any array. The following code prints the array's size to standard output:

```
 System.out.println(anArray.length);
```

Copying Arrays

The `System` class has an `arraycopy` method that you can use to efficiently copy data from one array into another:

```
public static void arraycopy(Object src, int srcPos,
                             Object dest, int destPos, int length)
```

The two `Object` arguments specify the array to copy *from* and the array to copy *to*. The three `int` arguments specify the starting position in the source array, the starting position in the destination array, and the number of array elements to copy.

The following program, `ArrayCopyDemo`, declares an array of `char` elements, spelling the word "decaffeinated." It uses the `System.arraycopy` method to copy a subsequence of array components into a second array:

```
class ArrayCopyDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        char[] copyFrom = { 'd', 'e', 'c', 'a', 'f', 'f', 'e',
                           'i', 'n', 'a', 't', 'e', 'd' };
        char[] copyTo = new char[7];

        System.arraycopy(copyFrom, 2, copyTo, 0, 7);
        System.out.println(new String(copyTo));
    }
}
```

The output from this program is:

```
caffein
```

Array Manipulations

Arrays are a powerful and useful concept used in programming.

Java SE provides methods to perform some of the most common manipulations related to arrays. For instance, the `ArrayCopyDemo` example uses the `arraycopy` method of the `System` class instead of manually iterating through the elements of the source array and placing each one into the destination array. This is performed behind the scenes, enabling the developer to use just one line of code to call the method.

For your convenience, Java SE provides several methods for performing array manipulations (common tasks, such as copying, sorting and searching arrays) in the `java.util.Arrays` class. For instance, the previous example can be modified to use the `copyOfRange` method of the `java.util.Arrays` class, as you can see in the `ArrayCopyOfDemo` example. The difference is that using the `copyOfRange` method does not require you to create the destination array before calling the method, because the destination array is returned by the method:

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

        char[] copyFrom = {'d', 'e', 'c', 'a', 'f', 'f', 'e',
            'i', 'n', 'a', 't', 'e', 'd'};

        char[] copyTo = java.util.Arrays.copyOfRange(copyFrom, 2, 9);

        System.out.println(new String(copyTo));
    }
}
```

As you can see, the output from this program is the same (`caffein`), although it requires fewer lines of code. Note that the second parameter of the `copyOfRange` method is the initial index of the range to be copied, inclusively, while the third parameter is the final index of the range to be copied, *exclusively*. In this example, the range to be copied does not include the array element at index 9 (which contains the character `a`).

Some other useful operations provided by methods in the `java.util.Arrays` class, are:

- Searching an array for a specific value to get the index at which it is placed (the `binarySearch` method).
- Comparing two arrays to determine if they are equal or not (the `equals` method).
- Filling an array to place a specific value at each index (the `fill` method).
- Sorting an array into ascending order. This can be done either sequentially, using the `sort` method, or concurrently, using the `parallelSort` method introduced in Java SE 8. Parallel sorting of large arrays on multiprocessor systems is faster than sequential array sorting.

Answers to Questions and Exercises: Variables

Answers to Questions

1. The term "instance variable" is another name for **non-static field**.
2. The term "class variable" is another name for **static field**.
3. A local variable stores temporary state; it is declared inside a **method**.
4. A variable declared within the opening and closing parenthesis of a method is called a **parameter**.
5. What are the eight primitive data types supported by the Java programming language? **byte, short, int, long, float, double, boolean, char**
6. Character strings are represented by the class **java.lang.String**.
7. An **array** is a container object that holds a fixed number of values of a single type.

Answers to Exercises

1. Create a small program that defines some fields. Try creating some illegal field names and see what kind of error the compiler produces. Use the naming rules and conventions as a guide.

   There is no single correct answer here. Your results will vary depending on your code.

2. In the program you created in Exercise 1, try leaving the fields uninitialized and print out their values. Try the same with a local variable and see what kind of compiler errors you can produce. Becoming familiar with common compiler errors will make it easier to recognize bugs in your code.

   Again, there is no single correct answer for this exercise. Your results will vary depending on your code.

Item 2: Define the structure of a Java class.

Lesson: A Closer Look at the "Hello World!" Application

Now that you've seen the "Hello World!" application (and perhaps even compiled and run it), you might be wondering how it works. Here again is its code:

```
class HelloWorldApp {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World!"); // Display the string.
    }
}
```

The "Hello World!" application consists of three primary components: source code comments, the `HelloWorldApp` class definition, and the `main` method.

Source Code Comments

The following bold text defines the *comments* of the "Hello World!" application:

```
/**
 * The HelloWorldApp class implements an application that
 * simply prints "Hello World!" to standard output.
 */
class HelloWorldApp {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World!"); // Display the string.
    }
}
```

Comments are ignored by the compiler but are useful to other programmers. The Java programming language supports three kinds of comments:

`/* text */`

The compiler ignores everything from `/*` to `*/`.

`/** documentation */`

This indicates a documentation comment (*doc comment*, for short). The compiler ignores this kind of comment, just like it ignores comments that use `/*` and `*/`. The `javadoc` tool uses doc comments when preparing automatically generated documentation. For more information on `javadoc`, see the Javadoc™ tool documentation .

`// text`

The compiler ignores everything from `//` to the end of the line.

The `HelloWorldApp` Class Definition

The following bold text begins the class definition block for the "Hello World!" application:

```
/**
 * The HelloWorldApp class implements an application that
 * simply displays "Hello World!" to the standard output.
 */
class HelloWorldApp {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World!"); // Display the string.
    }
}
```

As shown above, the most basic form of a class definition is:

```
class name {
    . . .
}
```

The keyword `class` begins the class definition for a class named `name`, and the code for each class appears between the opening and closing curly braces marked in bold above

The `main` Method

The following bold text begins the definition of the `main` method:

```
/**
 * The HelloWorldApp class implements an application that
 * simply displays "Hello World!" to the standard output.
 */
class HelloWorldApp {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Hello World!"); //Display the string.
    }
}
```

In the Java programming language, every application must contain a `main` method whose signature is:

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

The modifiers `public` and `static` can be written in either order (`public static` or `static public`), but the convention is to use `public static` as shown above. You can name the argument anything you want, but most programmers choose "args" or "argv".

The `main` method is similar to the `main` function in C and C++; it's the entry point for your application and will subsequently invoke all the other methods required by your program.

The `main` method accepts a single argument: an array of elements of type `String`.

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

This array is the mechanism through which the runtime system passes information to your application. For example:

```
java MyApp arg1 arg2
```

Each string in the array is called a ***command-line argument*****. Command-line arguments** let users affect the operation of the application without recompiling it. For example, a sorting program might allow the user to specify that the data be sorted in descending order with this command-line argument:

```
-descending
```

The "Hello World!" application ignores its command-line arguments, but you should be aware of the fact that such arguments do exist.

Finally, the line:

```
System.out.println("Hello World!");
```

uses the `System` class from the core library to print the "Hello World!" message to standard output. Portions of this library (also known as the "Application Programming Interface", or "API")

Answers to Questions and Exercises: Getting Started

Questions

Question 1: When you compile a program written in the Java programming language, the compiler converts the human-readable source file into platform-independent code that a Java Virtual Machine can understand. What is this platform-independent code called?

Answer 1: Bytecode.

Question 2: Which of the following is *not* a valid comment:

a. `/** comment */`
b. `/* comment */`
c. `/* comment`
d. `// comment`

Answer 2: c is an invalid comment.

Question 3: What is the first thing you should check if you see the following error at runtime:

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.NoClassDefFoundError:
HelloWorldApp.java.
```

Answer 3: Check your classpath. Your class cannot be found.

Question 4: What is the correct signature of the `main` method?

Answer 4: The correct signature is `public static void main(String[] args)` or `public static void main(String... args)`

Question 5: When declaring the `main` method, which modifier must come first, `public` or `static`?

Answer 5: They can be in either order, but the convention is `public static`.

Question 6: What parameters does the `main` method define?

Answer 6: The `main` method defines a single parameter, usually named `args`, whose type is an array of `String` objects.

Exercises

Exercise 1: Change the `HelloWorldApp.java` program so that it displays `Hola Mundo!` instead of `Hello World!`.

Answer 1: This is the only line of code that must change:

```
System.out.println("Hola Mundo!"); //Display the string.
```

Exercise 2: You can find a slightly modified version of `HelloWorldApp` here: `HelloWorldApp2.java`

The program has an error. Fix the error so that the program successfully compiles and runs. What was the error?

Answer 2: Here's the error you get when you try to compile the program:

```
HelloWorldApp2.java:7: unclosed string literal
        System.out.println("Hello World!); //Display the string.
                           ^
HelloWorldApp2.java:7: ')' expected
        System.out.println("Hello World!); //Display the string.
                                                                 ^
2 errors
```

To fix this mistake, you need to close the quotation marks around the string. Here is the correct line of code:

```
 System.out.println("Hello World!"); //Display the string.
```

Class

Here is sample code for a possible implementation of a `Bicycle` class, to give you an overview of a class declaration. Subsequent sections of this lesson will back up and explain class declarations step by step. For the moment, don't concern yourself with the details.

```
public class Bicycle {

    // the Bicycle class has
    // three fields
    public int cadence;
    public int gear;
    public int speed;

    // the Bicycle class has
    // one constructor
    public Bicycle(int startCadence, int startSpeed, int startGear) {
        gear = startGear;
        cadence = startCadence;
        speed = startSpeed;
    }

    // the Bicycle class has
    // four methods
    public void setCadence(int newValue) {
        cadence = newValue;
    }

    public void setGear(int newValue) {
        gear = newValue;
    }

    public void applyBrake(int decrement) {
        speed -= decrement;
    }

    public void speedUp(int increment) {
        speed += increment;
    }

}
```

A class declaration for a `MountainBike` class that is a subclass of `Bicycle` might look like this:

```
public class MountainBike extends Bicycle {

    // the MountainBike subclass has
    // one field
    public int seatHeight;

    // the MountainBike subclass has
    // one constructor
    public MountainBike(int startHeight, int startCadence,
                        int startSpeed, int startGear) {
        super(startCadence, startSpeed, startGear);
        seatHeight = startHeight;
    }

    // the MountainBike subclass has
    // one method
    public void setHeight(int newValue) {
        seatHeight = newValue;
    }

}
```

`MountainBike` inherits all the fields and methods of `Bicycle` and adds the field `seatHeight` and a method to set it (mountain bikes have seats that can be moved up and down as the terrain demands).

Declaring Classes

You've seen classes defined in the following way:

```
class MyClass {
    // field, constructor, and
    // method declarations
}
```

This is a *class declaration*. The *class body* (the area between the braces) contains all the code that provides for the life cycle of the objects created from the class: constructors for initializing new objects, declarations for the fields that provide the state of the class and its objects, and methods to implement the behavior of the class and its objects.

The preceding class declaration is a minimal one. It contains only those components of a class declaration that are required. You can provide more information about the class, such as the name of its superclass, whether it implements any interfaces, and so on, at the start of the class declaration. For example,

```
class MyClass extends MySuperClass implements YourInterface {
    // field, constructor, and
    // method declarations
}
```

means that `MyClass` is a subclass of `MySuperClass` and that it implements the `YourInterface` interface.

You can also add modifiers like *public* or *private* at the very beginning—so you can see that the opening line of a class declaration can become quite complicated. The modifiers *public* and *private*, which determine what other classes can access `MyClass`, are discussed later in this lesson. The lesson on interfaces and inheritance will explain how and why you would use the *extends* and *implements* keywords in a class declaration. For the moment you do not need to worry about these extra complications.

In general, class declarations can include these components, in order:

1. Modifiers such as *public*, *private*, and a number of others that you will encounter later.
2. The class name, with the initial letter capitalized by convention.
3. The name of the class's parent (superclass), if any, preceded by the keyword *extends*. A class can only *extend* (subclass) one parent.
4. A comma-separated list of interfaces implemented by the class, if any, preceded by the keyword *implements*. A class can *implement* more than one interface.
5. The class body, surrounded by braces, {}.

Declaring Member Variables

There are several kinds of variables:

- Member variables in a class—these are called *fields*.
- Variables in a method or block of code—these are called *local variables*.
- Variables in method declarations—these are called *parameters*.

The `Bicycle` class uses the following lines of code to define its fields:

```
public int cadence;
public int gear;
public int speed;
```

Field declarations are composed of three components, in order:

1. Zero or more modifiers, such as `public` or `private`.
2. The field's type.
3. The field's name.

The fields of `Bicycle` are named `cadence`, `gear`, and `speed` and are all of data type integer (`int`). The `public` keyword identifies these fields as public members, accessible by any object that can access the class.

Access Modifiers

The first (left-most) modifier used lets you control what other classes have access to a member field. For the moment, consider only `public` and `private`. Other access modifiers will be discussed later.

- `public` modifier—the field is accessible from all classes.
- `private` modifier—the field is accessible only within its own class.

In the spirit of encapsulation, it is common to make fields private. This means that they can only be *directly* accessed from the Bicycle class. We still need access to these values, however. This can be done *indirectly* by adding public methods that obtain the field values for us:

```java
public class Bicycle {

    private int cadence;
    private int gear;
    private int speed;

    public Bicycle(int startCadence, int startSpeed, int startGear) {
        gear = startGear;
        cadence = startCadence;
        speed = startSpeed;
    }

    public int getCadence() {
        return cadence;
    }

    public void setCadence(int newValue) {
        cadence = newValue;
    }

    public int getGear() {
        return gear;
    }

    public void setGear(int newValue) {
        gear = newValue;
    }

    public int getSpeed() {
        return speed;
    }

    public void applyBrake(int decrement) {
        speed -= decrement;
    }

    public void speedUp(int increment) {
        speed += increment;
    }
}
```

Types

All variables must have a type. You can use primitive types such as `int`, `float`, `boolean`, etc. Or you can use reference types, such as strings, arrays, or objects.

Variable Names

All variables, whether they are fields, local variables, or parameters, follow the same naming rules and conventions that were covered in the Language Basics lesson, Variables—Naming.

In this lesson, be aware that the same naming rules and conventions are used for method and class names, except that

- the first letter of a class name should be capitalized, and

- the first (or only) word in a method name should be a verb.

Defining Methods

Here is an example of a typical method declaration:

```
public double calculateAnswer(double wingSpan, int numberOfEngines,
                              double length, double grossTons) {
    //do the calculation here
}
```

The only required elements of a method declaration are the method's return type, name, a pair of parentheses, `()`, and a body between braces, `{}`.

More generally, method declarations have six components, in order:

1. Modifiers—such as `public`, `private`, and others you will learn about later.
2. The return type—the data type of the value returned by the method, or `void` if the method does not return a value.
3. The method name—the rules for field names apply to method names as well, but the convention is a little different.
4. The parameter list in parenthesis—a comma-delimited list of input parameters, preceded by their data types, enclosed by parentheses, `()`. If there are no parameters, you must use empty parentheses.
5. An exception list—to be discussed later.
6. The method body, enclosed between braces—the method's code, including the declaration of local variables, goes here.

Modifiers, return types, and parameters will be discussed later in this lesson. Exceptions are discussed in a later lesson.

Definition: Two of the components of a method declaration comprise the *method signature*—the method's name and the parameter types.

The signature of the method declared above is:

```
calculateAnswer(double, int, double, double)
```

Naming a Method

Although a method name can be any legal identifier, code conventions restrict method names. By convention, method names should be a verb in lowercase or a multi-word name that begins with a verb in lowercase, followed by adjectives, nouns, etc. In multi-word names, the first letter of each of the second and following words should be capitalized. Here are some examples:

```
run
runFast
getBackground
getFinalData
compareTo
```

```
setX
isEmpty
```

Typically, a method has a unique name within its class. However, a method might have the same name as other methods due to *method overloading*.

Overloading Methods

The Java programming language supports *overloading* methods, and Java can distinguish between methods with different *method signatures*. This means that methods within a class can have the same name if they have different parameter lists (there are some qualifications to this that will be discussed in the lesson titled "Interfaces and Inheritance").

Suppose that you have a class that can use calligraphy to draw various types of data (strings, integers, and so on) and that contains a method for drawing each data type. It is cumbersome to use a new name for each method—for example, `drawString`, `drawInteger`, `drawFloat`, and so on. In the Java programming language, you can use the same name for all the drawing methods but pass a different argument list to each method. Thus, the data drawing class might declare four methods named `draw`, each of which has a different parameter list.

```
public class DataArtist {
    ...
    public void draw(String s) {
        ...
    }
    public void draw(int i) {
        ...
    }
    public void draw(double f) {
        ...
    }
    public void draw(int i, double f) {
        ...
    }
}
```

Overloaded methods are differentiated by the number and the type of the arguments passed into the method. In the code sample, `draw(String s)` and `draw(int i)` are distinct and unique methods because they require different argument types.

You cannot declare more than one method with the same name and the same number and type of arguments, because the compiler cannot tell them apart.

The compiler does not consider return type when differentiating methods, so you cannot declare two methods with the same signature even if they have a different return type.

Note: Overloaded methods should be used sparingly, as they can make code much less readable.

Providing Constructors for Your Classes

A class contains constructors that are invoked to create objects from the class blueprint. Constructor declarations look like method declarations—except that they use the name of the class and have no return type. For example, `Bicycle` has one constructor:

```
public Bicycle(int startCadence, int startSpeed, int startGear) {
    gear = startGear;
    cadence = startCadence;
    speed = startSpeed;
}
```

To create a new `Bicycle` object called `myBike`, a constructor is called by the `new` operator:

```
Bicycle myBike = new Bicycle(30, 0, 8);
```

`new Bicycle(30, 0, 8)` creates space in memory for the object and initializes its fields.

Although `Bicycle` only has one constructor, it could have others, including a no-argument constructor:

```
public Bicycle() {
    gear = 1;
    cadence = 10;
    speed = 0;
}
```

`Bicycle yourBike = new Bicycle();` invokes the no-argument constructor to create a new `Bicycle` object called `yourBike`.

Both constructors could have been declared in `Bicycle` because they have different argument lists. As with methods, the Java platform differentiates constructors on the basis of the number of arguments in the list and their types. You cannot write two constructors that have the same number and type of arguments for the same class, because the platform would not be able to tell them apart. Doing so causes a compile-time error.

You don't have to provide any constructors for your class, but you must be careful when doing this. The compiler automatically provides a no-argument, default constructor for any class without constructors. This default constructor will call the no-argument constructor of the superclass. In this situation, the compiler will complain if the superclass doesn't have a no-argument constructor so you must verify that it does. If your class has no explicit superclass, then it has an implicit superclass of `Object`, which *does* have a no-argument constructor.

You can use a superclass constructor yourself. The `MountainBike` class at the beginning of this lesson did just that. This will be discussed later, in the lesson on interfaces and inheritance.

You can use access modifiers in a constructor's declaration to control which other classes can call the constructor.

Note: If another class cannot call a `MyClass` constructor, it cannot directly create `MyClass` objects.

Passing Information to a Method or a Constructor

The declaration for a method or a constructor declares the number and the type of the arguments for that method or constructor. For example, the following is a method that computes the monthly payments for a home loan, based on the amount of the loan, the interest rate, the length of the loan (the number of periods), and the future value of the loan:

```
public double computePayment(
                  double loanAmt,
                  double rate,
                  double futureValue,
                  int numPeriods) {
    double interest = rate / 100.0;
    double partial1 = Math.pow((1 + interest),
                    - numPeriods);
    double denominator = (1 - partial1) / interest;
    double answer = (-loanAmt / denominator)
                    - ((futureValue * partial1) / denominator);
    return answer;
}
```

This method has four parameters: the loan amount, the interest rate, the future value and the number of periods. The first three are double-precision floating point numbers, and the fourth is an integer. The parameters are used in the method body and at runtime will take on the values of the arguments that are passed in.

Note: *Parameters* refers to the list of variables in a method declaration. *Arguments* are the actual values that are passed in when the method is invoked. When you invoke a method, the arguments used must match the declaration's parameters in type and order.

Parameter Types

You can use any data type for a parameter of a method or a constructor. This includes primitive data types, such as doubles, floats, and integers, as you saw in the `computePayment` method, and reference data types, such as objects and arrays.

Here's an example of a method that accepts an array as an argument. In this example, the method creates a new `Polygon` object and initializes it from an array of `Point` objects (assume that `Point` is a class that represents an x, y coordinate):

```
public Polygon polygonFrom(Point[] corners) {
    // method body goes here
}
```

Note: If you want to pass a method into a method, then use a lambda expression or a method reference.

Arbitrary Number of Arguments

You can use a construct called *varargs* to pass an arbitrary number of values to a method. You use varargs when you don't know how many of a particular type of argument will be passed to the method. It's a shortcut to creating an array manually (the previous method could have used varargs rather than an array).

To use varargs, you follow the type of the last parameter by an ellipsis (three dots, ...), then a space, and the parameter name. The method can then be called with any number of that parameter, including none.

```
public Polygon polygonFrom(Point... corners) {
    int numberOfSides = corners.length;
    double squareOfSide1, lengthOfSide1;
    squareOfSide1 = (corners[1].x - corners[0].x)
                     * (corners[1].x - corners[0].x)
                     + (corners[1].y - corners[0].y)
                     * (corners[1].y - corners[0].y);
    lengthOfSide1 = Math.sqrt(squareOfSide1);

    // more method body code follows that creates and returns a
    // polygon connecting the Points
}
```

You can see that, inside the method, `corners` is treated like an array. The method can be called either with an array or with a sequence of arguments. The code in the method body will treat the parameter as an array in either case.

You will most commonly see varargs with the printing methods; for example, this `printf` method:

```
public PrintStream printf(String format, Object... args)
```

allows you to print an arbitrary number of objects. It can be called like this:

```
System.out.printf("%s: %d, %s%n", name, idnum, address);
```

or like this

```
System.out.printf("%s: %d, %s, %s, %s%n", name, idnum, address, phone,
email);
```

or with yet a different number of arguments.

Parameter Names

When you declare a parameter to a method or a constructor, you provide a name for that parameter. This name is used within the method body to refer to the passed-in argument.

The name of a parameter must be unique in its scope. It cannot be the same as the name of another parameter for the same method or constructor, and it cannot be the name of a local variable within the method or constructor.

A parameter can have the same name as one of the class's fields. If this is the case, the parameter is said to *shadow* the field. Shadowing fields can make your code difficult to read and is conventionally used only within constructors and methods that set a particular field. For example, consider the following `Circle` class and its `setOrigin` method:

```
public class Circle {
    private int x, y, radius;
    public void setOrigin(int x, int y) {
        ...
    }
}
```

The `Circle` class has three fields: `x`, `y`, and `radius`. The `setOrigin` method has two parameters, each of which has the same name as one of the fields. Each method parameter shadows the field that shares its name. So using the simple names `x` or `y` within the body of the method refers to the parameter, *not* to the field. To access the field, you must use a qualified name. This will be discussed later in this lesson in the section titled "Using the `this` Keyword."

Passing Primitive Data Type Arguments

Primitive arguments, such as an `int` or a `double`, are passed into methods *by value*. This means that any changes to the values of the parameters exist only within the scope of the method. When the method returns, the parameters are gone and any changes to them are lost. Here is an example:

```
public class PassPrimitiveByValue {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        int x = 3;

        // invoke passMethod() with
        // x as argument
        passMethod(x);

        // print x to see if its
        // value has changed
        System.out.println("After invoking passMethod, x = " + x);

    }

    // change parameter in passMethod()
    public static void passMethod(int p) {
        p = 10;
    }
}
```

When you run this program, the output is:

```
After invoking passMethod, x = 3
```

Passing Reference Data Type Arguments

Reference data type parameters, such as objects, are also passed into methods *by value*. This means that when the method returns, the passed-in reference still references the same object as before. *However*, the values of the object's fields *can* be changed in the method, if they have the proper access level.

For example, consider a method in an arbitrary class that moves `Circle` objects:

```
public void moveCircle(Circle circle, int deltaX, int deltaY) {
    // code to move origin of circle to x+deltaX, y+deltaY
    circle.setX(circle.getX() + deltaX);
    circle.setY(circle.getY() + deltaY);

    // code to assign a new reference to circle
    circle = new Circle(0, 0);
}
```

Let the method be invoked with these arguments:

```
moveCircle(myCircle, 23, 56)
```

Inside the method, `circle` initially refers to `myCircle`. The method changes the x and y coordinates of the object that `circle` references (i.e., `myCircle`) by 23 and 56, respectively. These changes will persist when the method returns. Then `circle` is assigned a reference to a new `Circle` object with `x = y = 0`. This reassignment has no permanence, however, because the reference was passed in by value and cannot change. Within the method, the object pointed to by `circle` has changed, but, when the method returns, `myCircle` still references the same `Circle` object as before the method was called.

Objects

A typical Java program creates many objects, which as you know, interact by invoking methods. Through these object interactions, a program can carry out various tasks, such as implementing a GUI, running an animation, or sending and receiving information over a network. Once an object has completed the work for which it was created, its resources are recycled for use by other objects.

Here's a small program, called `CreateObjectDemo`, that creates three objects: one `Point` object and two `Rectangle` objects. You will need all three source files to compile this program.

```
public class CreateObjectDemo {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        // Declare and create a point object and two rectangle objects.
        Point originOne = new Point(23, 94);
        Rectangle rectOne = new Rectangle(originOne, 100, 200);
        Rectangle rectTwo = new Rectangle(50, 100);

        // display rectOne's width, height, and area
        System.out.println("Width of rectOne: " + rectOne.width);
        System.out.println("Height of rectOne: " + rectOne.height);
        System.out.println("Area of rectOne: " + rectOne.getArea());

        // set rectTwo's position
        rectTwo.origin = originOne;

        // display rectTwo's position
        System.out.println("X Position of rectTwo: " + rectTwo.origin.x);
        System.out.println("Y Position of rectTwo: " + rectTwo.origin.y);

        // move rectTwo and display its new position
        rectTwo.move(40, 72);
        System.out.println("X Position of rectTwo: " + rectTwo.origin.x);
        System.out.println("Y Position of rectTwo: " + rectTwo.origin.y);
    }
}
```

This program creates, manipulates, and displays information about various objects. Here's the output:

```
Width of rectOne: 100
Height of rectOne: 200
Area of rectOne: 20000
X Position of rectTwo: 23
Y Position of rectTwo: 94
X Position of rectTwo: 40
Y Position of rectTwo: 72
```

The following three sections use the above example to describe the life cycle of an object within a program. From them, you will learn how to write code that creates and uses objects in your own programs. You will also learn how the system cleans up after an object when its life has ended.

Creating Objects

As you know, a class provides the blueprint for objects; you create an object from a class. Each of the following statements taken from the `CreateObjectDemo` program creates an object and assigns it to a variable:

```
Point originOne = new Point(23, 94);
Rectangle rectOne = new Rectangle(originOne, 100, 200);
Rectangle rectTwo = new Rectangle(50, 100);
```

The first line creates an object of the `Point` class, and the second and third lines each create an object of the `Rectangle` class.

Each of these statements has three parts (discussed in detail below):

1. **Declaration**: The code set in **bold** are all variable declarations that associate a variable name with an object type.
2. **Instantiation**: The `new` keyword is a Java operator that creates the object.
3. **Initialization**: The `new` operator is followed by a call to a constructor, which initializes the new object.

Declaring a Variable to Refer to an Object

Previously, you learned that to declare a variable, you write:

```
type name;
```

This notifies the compiler that you will use *name* to refer to data whose type is *type*. With a primitive variable, this declaration also reserves the proper amount of memory for the variable.

You can also declare a reference variable on its own line. For example:

```
Point originOne;
```

If you declare `originOne` like this, its value will be undetermined until an object is actually created and assigned to it. Simply declaring a reference variable does not create an object. For that, you need to use the `new` operator, as described in the next section. You must assign an object to `originOne` before you use it in your code. Otherwise, you will get a compiler error.

A variable in this state, which currently references no object, can be illustrated as follows (the variable name, `originOne`, plus a reference pointing to nothing):

Instantiating a Class

The `new` operator instantiates a class by allocating memory for a new object and returning a reference to that memory. The `new` operator also invokes the object constructor.

Note: The phrase "instantiating a class" means the same thing as "creating an object." When you create an object, you are creating an "instance" of a class, therefore "instantiating" a class.

The `new` operator requires a single, postfix argument: a call to a constructor. The name of the constructor provides the name of the class to instantiate.

The `new` operator returns a reference to the object it created. This reference is usually assigned to a variable of the appropriate type, like:

```
Point originOne = new Point(23, 94);
```

The reference returned by the `new` operator does not have to be assigned to a variable. It can also be used directly in an expression. For example:

```
int height = new Rectangle().height;
```

This statement will be discussed in the next section.

Initializing an Object

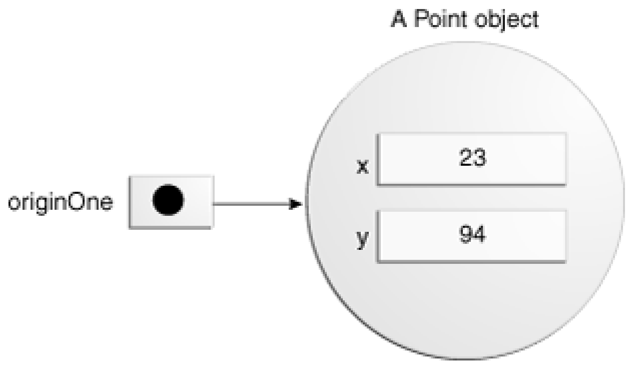
Here's the code for the `Point` class:

```
public class Point {
    public int x = 0;
    public int y = 0;
    //constructor
    public Point(int a, int b) {
        x = a;
        y = b;
    }
}
```

This class contains a single constructor. You can recognize a constructor because its declaration uses the same name as the class and it has no return type. The constructor in the `Point` class takes two integer arguments, as declared by the code `(int a, int b)`. The following statement provides 23 and 94 as values for those arguments:

```
Point originOne = new Point(23, 94);
```

The result of executing this statement can be illustrated in the next figure:



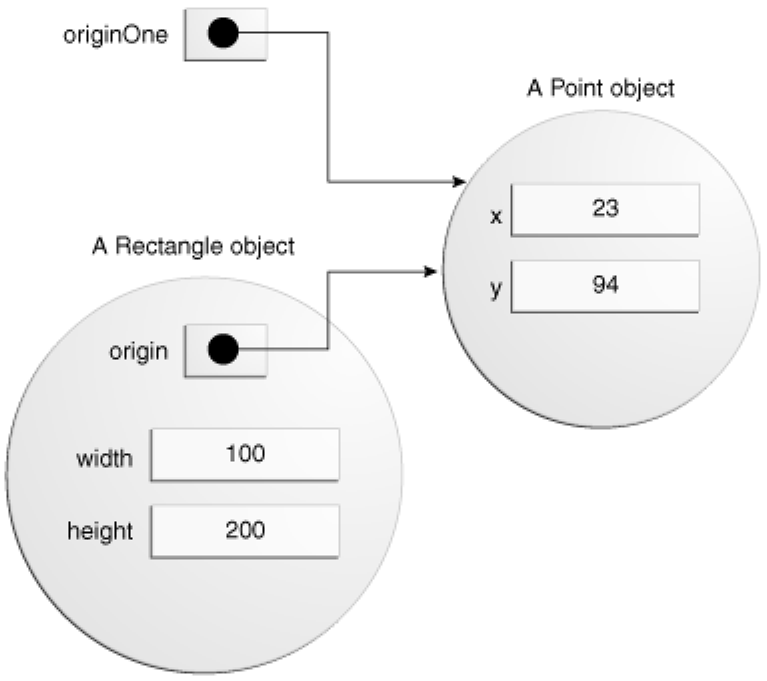
Here's the code for the `Rectangle` class, which contains four constructors:

```
public class Rectangle {
    public int width = 0;
    public int height = 0;
    public Point origin;

    // four constructors
    public Rectangle() {
        origin = new Point(0, 0);
    }
    public Rectangle(Point p) {
        origin = p;
    }
    public Rectangle(int w, int h) {
        origin = new Point(0, 0);
        width = w;
        height = h;
    }
    public Rectangle(Point p, int w, int h) {
        origin = p;
        width = w;
        height = h;
    }

    // a method for moving the rectangle
    public void move(int x, int y) {
        origin.x = x;
        origin.y = y;
    }

    // a method for computing the area of the rectangle
    public int getArea() {
        return width * height;
    }
}
```

Each constructor lets you provide initial values for the rectangle's origin, width, and height, using both primitive and reference types. If a class has multiple constructors, they must have different signatures. The Java compiler differentiates the constructors based on the number and the type of the arguments. When the Java compiler encounters the following code, it knows to call the constructor in the `Rectangle` class that requires a `Point` argument followed by two integer arguments:

```
Rectangle rectOne = new Rectangle(originOne, 100, 200);
```

This calls one of `Rectangle`'s constructors that initializes `origin` to `originOne`. Also, the constructor sets `width` to 100 and `height` to 200. Now there are two references to the same `Point object`—an object can have multiple references to it, as shown in the next figure:



The following line of code calls the `Rectangle` constructor that requires two integer arguments, which provide the initial values for `width` and `height`. If you inspect the code within the constructor, you will see that it creates a new `Point` object whose `x` and `y` values are initialized to 0:

```
Rectangle rectTwo = new Rectangle(50, 100);
```

The `Rectangle` constructor used in the following statement doesn't take any arguments, so it's called a *no-argument constructor*:

```
Rectangle rect = new Rectangle();
```

All classes have at least one constructor. If a class does not explicitly declare any, the Java compiler automatically provides a no-argument constructor, called the *default constructor*. This default constructor calls the class parent's no-argument constructor, or the `Object` constructor if the class has no other parent. If the parent has no constructor (`Object` does have one), the compiler will reject the program.

Using Objects

Once you've created an object, you probably want to use it for something. You may need to use the value of one of its fields, change one of its fields, or call one of its methods to perform an action.

Referencing an Object's Fields

Object fields are accessed by their name. You must use a name that is unambiguous.

You may use a simple name for a field within its own class. For example, we can add a statement *within* the `Rectangle` class that prints the `width` and `height`:

```
System.out.println("Width and height are: " + width + ", " + height);
```

In this case, `width` and `height` are simple names.

Code that is outside the object's class must use an object reference or expression, followed by the dot (.) operator, followed by a simple field name, as in:

```
objectReference.fieldName
```

For example, the code in the `CreateObjectDemo` class is outside the code for the `Rectangle` class. So to refer to the `origin`, `width`, and `height` fields within the `Rectangle` object named `rectOne`, the `CreateObjectDemo` class must use the names `rectOne.origin`, `rectOne.width`, and `rectOne.height`, respectively. The program uses two of these names to display the `width` and the `height` of `rectOne`:

```
System.out.println("Width of rectOne: "  + rectOne.width);
System.out.println("Height of rectOne: " + rectOne.height);
```

Attempting to use the simple names `width` and `height` from the code in the `CreateObjectDemo` class doesn't make sense — those fields exist only within an object — and results in a compiler error.

Later, the program uses similar code to display information about `rectTwo`. Objects of the same type have their own copy of the same instance fields. Thus, each `Rectangle` object has fields named `origin`, `width`, and `height`. When you access an instance field through an object reference, you reference that particular object's field. The two objects `rectOne` and `rectTwo` in the `CreateObjectDemo` program have different `origin`, `width`, and `height` fields.

To access a field, you can use a named reference to an object, as in the previous examples, or you can use any expression that returns an object reference. Recall that the `new` operator returns a reference to an object. So you could use the value returned from new to access a new object's fields:

```
int height = new Rectangle().height;
```

This statement creates a new `Rectangle` object and immediately gets its height. In essence, the statement calculates the default height of a `Rectangle`. Note that after this statement has been executed, the program no longer has a reference to the created `Rectangle`, because the program never stored the reference anywhere. The object is unreferenced, and its resources are free to be recycled by the Java Virtual Machine.

Calling an Object's Methods

You also use an object reference to invoke an object's method. You append the method's simple name to the object reference, with an intervening dot operator (.). Also, you provide, within enclosing parentheses, any arguments to the method. If the method does not require any arguments, use empty parentheses.

```
objectReference.methodName(argumentList);
```

or:

```
objectReference.methodName();
```

The `Rectangle` class has two methods: `getArea()` to compute the rectangle's area and `move()` to change the rectangle's origin. Here's the `CreateObjectDemo` code that invokes these two methods:

```
System.out.println("Area of rectOne: " + rectOne.getArea());
...
rectTwo.move(40, 72);
```

The first statement invokes `rectOne`'s `getArea()` method and displays the results. The second line moves `rectTwo` because the `move()` method assigns new values to the object's `origin.x` and `origin.y`.

As with instance fields, *objectReference* must be a reference to an object. You can use a variable name, but you also can use any expression that returns an object reference. The `new` operator returns an object reference, so you can use the value returned from new to invoke a new object's methods:

```
new Rectangle(100, 50).getArea()
```

The expression `new Rectangle(100, 50)` returns an object reference that refers to a `Rectangle` object. As shown, you can use the dot notation to invoke the new `Rectangle`'s `getArea()` method to compute the area of the new rectangle.

Some methods, such as `getArea()`, return a value. For methods that return a value, you can use the method invocation in expressions. You can assign the return value to a variable, use it to make decisions, or control a loop. This code assigns the value returned by `getArea()` to the variable `areaOfRectangle`:

```
int areaOfRectangle = new Rectangle(100, 50).getArea();
```

Remember, invoking a method on a particular object is the same as sending a message to that object. In this case, the object that `getArea()` is invoked on is the rectangle returned by the constructor.

The Garbage Collector

Some object-oriented languages require that you keep track of all the objects you create and that you explicitly destroy them when they are no longer needed. Managing memory explicitly is tedious and error-prone. The Java platform allows you to create as many objects as you want (limited, of course, by what your system can handle), and you don't have to worry about destroying them. The Java runtime environment deletes objects when it determines that they are no longer being used. This process is called *garbage collection*.

An object is eligible for garbage collection when there are no more references to that object. References that are held in a variable are usually dropped when the variable goes out of scope. Or, you can explicitly drop an object reference by setting the variable to the special value `null`. Remember that a program can have multiple references to the same object; all references to an object must be dropped before the object is eligible for garbage collection.

The Java runtime environment has a garbage collector that periodically frees the memory used by objects that are no longer referenced. The garbage collector does its job automatically when it determines that the time is right.

Returning a Value from a Method

A method returns to the code that invoked it when it

- completes all the statements in the method,
- reaches a `return` statement, or
- throws an exception (covered later),

whichever occurs first.

You declare a method's return type in its method declaration. Within the body of the method, you use the `return` statement to return the value.

Any method declared `void` doesn't return a value. It does not need to contain a `return` statement, but it may do so. In such a case, a `return` statement can be used to branch out of a control flow block and exit the method and is simply used like this:

```
return;
```

If you try to return a value from a method that is declared `void`, you will get a compiler error.

Any method that is not declared `void` must contain a `return` statement with a corresponding return value, like this:

```
return returnValue;
```

The data type of the return value must match the method's declared return type; you can't return an integer value from a method declared to return a boolean.

The `getArea()` method in the `Rectangle` `Rectangle` class that was discussed in the sections on objects returns an integer:

```
    // a method for computing the area of the rectangle
    public int getArea() {
        return width * height;
    }
```

This method returns the integer that the expression `width*height` evaluates to.

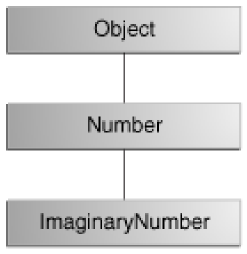
The `getArea` method returns a primitive type. A method can also return a reference type. For example, in a program to manipulate `Bicycle` objects, we might have a method like this:

```
public Bicycle seeWhosFastest(Bicycle myBike, Bicycle yourBike,
                              Environment env) {
    Bicycle fastest;
    // code to calculate which bike is
    // faster, given each bike's gear
    // and cadence and given the
    // environment (terrain and wind)
    return fastest;
}
```

Returning a Class or Interface

If this section confuses you, skip it and return to it after you have finished the lesson on interfaces and inheritance.

When a method uses a class name as its return type, such as `whosFastest` does, the class of the type of the returned object must be either a subclass of, or the exact class of, the return type. Suppose that you have a class hierarchy in which `ImaginaryNumber` is a subclass of `java.lang.Number`, which is in turn a subclass of `Object`, as illustrated in the following figure.



The class hierarchy for ImaginaryNumber

Now suppose that you have a method declared to return a `Number`:

```
public Number returnANumber() {
    ...
}
```

The `returnANumber` method can return an `ImaginaryNumber` but not an `Object`. `ImaginaryNumber` is a `Number` because it's a subclass of `Number`. However, an `Object` is not necessarily a `Number` — it could be a `String` or another type.

You can override a method and define it to return a subclass of the original method, like this:

```
public ImaginaryNumber returnANumber() {
    ...
}
```

This technique, called *covariant return type*, means that the return type is allowed to vary in the same direction as the subclass.

Note: You also can use interface names as return types. In this case, the object returned must implement the specified interface.

Using the this Keyword

Within an instance method or a constructor, `this` is a reference to the *current object* — the object whose method or constructor is being called. You can refer to any member of the current object from within an instance method or a constructor by using `this`.

Using `this` with a Field

The most common reason for using the `this` keyword is because a field is shadowed by a method or constructor parameter.

For example, the `Point` class was written like this

```
public class Point {
    public int x = 0;
    public int y = 0;

    //constructor
    public Point(int a, int b) {
        x = a;
        y = b;
    }
}
```

but it could have been written like this:

```
public class Point {
    public int x = 0;
    public int y = 0;

    //constructor
    public Point(int x, int y) {
        this.x = x;
        this.y = y;
    }
}
```

Each argument to the constructor shadows one of the object's fields — inside the constructor **`x`** is a local copy of the constructor's first argument. To refer to the `Point` field **`x`**, the constructor must use **`this.x`**.

Using `this` with a Constructor

From within a constructor, you can also use the `this` keyword to call another constructor in the same class. Doing so is called an *explicit constructor invocation*. Here's another `Rectangle` class, with a different implementation from the one in the Objects section.

```
public class Rectangle {
    private int x, y;
    private int width, height;
    public Rectangle() {
        this(0, 0, 1, 1);
    }
    public Rectangle(int width, int height) {
        this(0, 0, width, height);
    }
    public Rectangle(int x, int y, int width, int height) {
        this.x = x;
        this.y = y;
        this.width = width;
        this.height = height;
    }
    ...
}
```

This class contains a set of constructors. Each constructor initializes some or all of the rectangle's member variables. The constructors provide a default value for any member variable whose initial value is not provided by an argument. For example, the no-argument constructor creates a 1x1 `Rectangle` at coordinates 0,0. The two-argument constructor calls the four-argument constructor, passing in the width and height but always using the 0,0 coordinates. As before, the compiler determines which constructor to call, based on the number and the type of arguments.

If present, the invocation of another constructor must be the first line in the constructor.

Controlling Access to Members of a Class

Access level modifiers determine whether other classes can use a particular field or invoke a particular method. There are two levels of access control:

- At the top level—`public`, or *package-private* (no explicit modifier).
- At the member level—`public`, `private`, `protected`, or *package-private* (no explicit modifier).

A class may be declared with the modifier `public`, in which case that class is visible to all classes everywhere. If a class has no modifier (the default, also known as *package-private*), it is visible only within its own package (packages are named groups of related classes — you will learn about them in a later lesson.)

At the member level, you can also use the `public` modifier or no modifier (*package-private*) just as with top-level classes, and with the same meaning. For members, there are two additional access modifiers: `private` and `protected`. The `private` modifier specifies that the member can only be accessed in its own class. The `protected` modifier specifies that the member can only be accessed within its own package (as with *package-private*) and, in addition, by a subclass of its class in another package.

The following table shows the access to members permitted by each modifier.

Access Levels

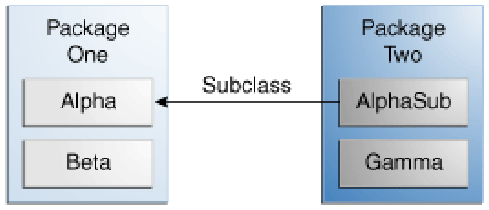
Modifier	Class	Package	Subclass	World
`public`	Y	Y	Y	Y

`protected`	Y	Y	Y	N
no modifier	Y	Y	N	N
`private`	Y	N	N	N

The first data column indicates whether the class itself has access to the member defined by the access level. As you can see, a class always has access to its own members. The second column indicates whether classes in the same package as the class (regardless of their parentage) have access to the member. The third column indicates whether subclasses of the class declared outside this package have access to the member. The fourth column indicates whether all classes have access to the member.

Access levels affect you in two ways. First, when you use classes that come from another source, such as the classes in the Java platform, access levels determine which members of those classes your own classes can use. Second, when you write a class, you need to decide what access level every member variable and every method in your class should have.

Let's look at a collection of classes and see how access levels affect visibility. The following figure shows the four classes in this example and how they are related.



Classes and Packages of the Example Used to Illustrate Access Levels

The following table shows where the members of the Alpha class are visible for each of the access modifiers that can be applied to them.

Visibility				
Modifier	**Alpha**	**Beta**	**Alphasub**	**Gamma**
`public`	Y	Y	Y	Y
`protected`	Y	Y	Y	N
no modifier	Y	Y	N	N
`private`	Y	N	N	N

Tips on Choosing an Access Level:

If other programmers use your class, you want to ensure that errors from misuse cannot happen. Access levels can help you do this.

- Use the most restrictive access level that makes sense for a particular member. Use `private` unless you have a good reason not to.
- Avoid `public` fields except for constants. (Many of the examples in the tutorial use public fields. This may help to illustrate some points concisely, but is not recommended for production code.) Public fields tend to link you to a particular implementation and limit your flexibility in changing your code.

Understanding Class Members

In this section, we discuss the use of the `static` keyword to create fields and methods that belong to the class, rather than to an instance of the class.

Class Variables

When a number of objects are created from the same class blueprint, they each have their own distinct copies of *instance variables*. In the case of the `Bicycle` class, the instance variables are `cadence`, `gear`, and `speed`. Each `Bicycle` object has its own values for these variables, stored in different memory locations.

Sometimes, you want to have variables that are common to all objects. This is accomplished with the `static` modifier. Fields that have the `static` modifier in their declaration are called *static fields* or *class variables*. They are associated with the class, rather than with any object. Every instance of the class shares a class variable, which is in one fixed location in memory. Any object can change the value of a class variable, but class variables can also be manipulated without creating an instance of the class.

For example, suppose you want to create a number of `Bicycle` objects and assign each a serial number, beginning with 1 for the first object. This ID number is unique to each object and is therefore an instance variable. At the same time, you need a field to keep track of how many `Bicycle` objects have been created so that you know what ID to assign to the next one. Such a field is not related to any individual object, but to the class as a whole. For this you need a class variable, `numberOfBicycles`, as follows:

```
public class Bicycle {

    private int cadence;
    private int gear;
    private int speed;

    // add an instance variable for the object ID
    private int id;

    // add a class variable for the
    // number of Bicycle objects instantiated
    private static int numberOfBicycles = 0;
        ...
}
```

Class variables are referenced by the class name itself, as in

```
Bicycle.numberOfBicycles
```

This makes it clear that they are class variables.

Note: You can also refer to static fields with an object reference like

`myBike.numberOfBicycles`
but this is discouraged because it does not make it clear that they are class variables.

You can use the `Bicycle` constructor to set the `id` instance variable and increment the `numberOfBicycles` class variable:

```
public class Bicycle {

    private int cadence;
    private int gear;
    private int speed;
    private int id;
    private static int numberOfBicycles = 0;

    public Bicycle(int startCadence, int startSpeed, int startGear){
        gear = startGear;
        cadence = startCadence;
        speed = startSpeed;

        // increment number of Bicycles
        // and assign ID number
        id = ++numberOfBicycles;
    }

    // new method to return the ID instance variable
    public int getID() {
        return id;
    }
        ...
}
```

Class Methods

The Java programming language supports static methods as well as static variables. Static methods, which have the `static` modifier in their declarations, should be invoked with the class name, without the need for creating an instance of the class, as in

```
ClassName.methodName(args)
```

Note: You can also refer to static methods with an object reference like

`instanceName.methodName(args)`
but this is discouraged because it does not make it clear that they are class methods.

A common use for static methods is to access static fields. For example, we could add a static method to the `Bicycle` class to access the `numberOfBicycles` static field:

```
public static int getNumberOfBicycles() {
    return numberOfBicycles;
}
```

Not all combinations of instance and class variables and methods are allowed:

- Instance methods can access instance variables and instance methods directly.
- Instance methods can access class variables and class methods directly.
- Class methods can access class variables and class methods directly.
- Class methods ***cannot*** access instance variables or instance methods directly—they must use an object reference. Also, class methods cannot use the `this` keyword as there is no instance for `this` to refer to.

Constants

The `static` modifier, in combination with the `final` modifier, is also used to define constants. The `final` modifier indicates that the value of this field cannot change.

For example, the following variable declaration defines a constant named `PI`, whose value is an approximation of pi (the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter):

```
static final double PI = 3.141592653589793;
```

Constants defined in this way cannot be reassigned, and it is a compile-time error if your program tries to do so. By convention, the names of constant values are spelled in uppercase letters. If the name is composed of more than one word, the words are separated by an underscore (_).

Note: If a primitive type or a string is defined as a constant and the value is known at compile time, the compiler replaces the constant name everywhere in the code with its value. This is called a *compile-time constant*. If the value of the constant in the outside world changes (for example, if it is legislated that pi actually should be 3.975), you will need to recompile any classes that use this constant to get the current value.

The `Bicycle` Class

After all the modifications made in this section, the `Bicycle` class is now:

```
public class Bicycle {

    private int cadence;
    private int gear;
    private int speed;

    private int id;

    private static int numberOfBicycles = 0;


    public Bicycle(int startCadence,
                   int startSpeed,
                   int startGear) {
        gear = startGear;
        cadence = startCadence;
        speed = startSpeed;

        id = ++numberOfBicycles;
    }

    public int getID() {
        return id;
    }

    public static int getNumberOfBicycles() {
        return numberOfBicycles;
    }

    public int getCadence() {
        return cadence;
    }

    public void setCadence(int newValue) {
        cadence = newValue;
    }

    public int getGear(){
        return gear;
    }

    public void setGear(int newValue) {
        gear = newValue;
    }

    public int getSpeed() {
        return speed;
    }

    public void applyBrake(int decrement) {
        speed -= decrement;
    }

    public void speedUp(int increment) {
        speed += increment;
    }
}
```

Initializing Fields

As you have seen, you can often provide an initial value for a field in its declaration:

```
public class BedAndBreakfast {

    // initialize to 10
    public static int capacity = 10;
    // initialize to false
    private boolean full = false;
}
```

This works well when the initialization value is available and the initialization can be put on one line. However, this form of initialization has limitations because of its simplicity. If initialization requires some logic (for example, error handling or a `for` loop to fill a complex array), simple assignment is inadequate. Instance variables can be initialized in constructors, where error handling or other logic can be used. To provide the same capability for class variables, the Java programming language includes *static initialization blocks*.

Note: It is not necessary to declare fields at the beginning of the class definition, although this is the most common practice. It is only necessary that they be declared and initialized before they are used.

Static Initialization Blocks

A *static initialization block* is a normal block of code enclosed in braces, `{ }`, and preceded by the `static` keyword. Here is an example:

```
static {
    // whatever code is needed for initialization goes here
}
```

A class can have any number of static initialization blocks, and they can appear anywhere in the class body. The runtime system guarantees that static initialization blocks are called in the order that they appear in the source code.

There is an alternative to static blocks — you can write a private static method:

```
class Whatever {
    public static varType myVar = initializeClassVariable();

    private static varType initializeClassVariable() {

        // initialization code goes here
    }
}
```

The advantage of private static methods is that they can be reused later if you need to reinitialize the class variable.

Initializing Instance Members

Normally, you would put code to initialize an instance variable in a constructor. There are two alternatives to using a constructor to initialize instance variables: initializer blocks and final methods.

Initializer blocks for instance variables look just like static initializer blocks, but without the `static` keyword:

```
{
    // whatever code is needed for initialization goes here
}
```

The Java compiler copies initializer blocks into every constructor. Therefore, this approach can be used to share a block of code between multiple constructors.

A *final method* cannot be overridden in a subclass. This is discussed in the lesson on interfaces and inheritance. Here is an example of using a final method for initializing an instance variable:

```
class Whatever {
    private varType myVar = initializeInstanceVariable();

    protected final varType initializeInstanceVariable() {

        // initialization code goes here
    }
}
```

This is especially useful if subclasses might want to reuse the initialization method. The method is final because calling non-final methods during instance initialization can cause problems.

Summary of Creating and Using Classes and Objects

A class declaration names the class and encloses the class body between braces. The class name can be preceded by modifiers. The class body contains fields, methods, and constructors for the class. A class uses fields to contain state information and uses methods to implement behavior. Constructors that initialize a new instance of a class use the name of the class and look like methods without a return type.

You control access to classes and members in the same way: by using an access modifier such as `public` in their declaration.

You specify a class variable or a class method by using the `static` keyword in the member's declaration. A member that is not declared as `static` is implicitly an instance member. Class variables are shared by all instances of a class and can be accessed through the class name as well as an instance reference. Instances of a class get their own copy of each instance variable, which must be accessed through an instance reference.

You create an object from a class by using the `new` operator and a constructor. The new operator returns a reference to the object that was created. You can assign the reference to a variable or use it directly.

Instance variables and methods that are accessible to code outside of the class that they are declared in can be referred to by using a qualified name. The qualified name of an instance variable looks like this:

```
objectReference.variableName
```

The qualified name of a method looks like this:

```
objectReference.methodName(argumentList)
```

or:

```
objectReference.methodName()
```

The garbage collector automatically cleans up unused objects. An object is unused if the program holds no more references to it. You can explicitly drop a reference by setting the variable holding the reference to `null`.

Answers to Questions and Exercises: Classes

Questions

1. Consider the following class:

```
public class IdentifyMyParts {
    public static int x = 7;
    public int y = 3;
}
```

   a. **Question**: What are the class variables?

      Answer: x

   b. **Question**: What are the instance variables?

      Answer: y

   c. **Question**: What is the output from the following code:

```
IdentifyMyParts a = new IdentifyMyParts();
IdentifyMyParts b = new IdentifyMyParts();
a.y = 5;
b.y = 6;
a.x = 1;
b.x = 2;
System.out.println("a.y = " + a.y);
System.out.println("b.y = " + b.y);
System.out.println("a.x = " + a.x);
System.out.println("b.x = " + b.x);
System.out.println("IdentifyMyParts.x = " + IdentifyMyParts.x);
```

Answer: Here is the output:

```
a.y = 5
b.y = 6
a.x = 2
b.x = 2
IdentifyMyParts.x = 2
```

Because `x` is defined as a `public static int` in the class `IdentifyMyParts`, every reference to `x` will have the value that was last assigned because `x` is a static variable (and therefore a class variable) shared across all instances of the class. That is, there is only one `x`: when the value of `x` changes in any instance it affects the value of `x` for all instances of `IdentifyMyParts`.

This is covered in the Class Variables section of Understanding Instance and Class Members.

Exercises

1. **Exercise**: Write a class whose instances represent a single playing card from a deck of cards. Playing cards have two distinguishing properties: rank and suit. Be sure to keep your solution as you will be asked to rewrite it in Enum Types.

   Answer: Card.java

```java
public class Card {
    private final int rank;
    private final int suit;

    // Kinds of suits
    public final static int DIAMONDS = 1;
    public final static int CLUBS    = 2;
    public final static int HEARTS   = 3;
    public final static int SPADES   = 4;

    // Kinds of ranks
    public final static int ACE   = 1;
    public final static int DEUCE = 2;
    public final static int THREE = 3;
    public final static int FOUR  = 4;
    public final static int FIVE  = 5;
    public final static int SIX   = 6;
    public final static int SEVEN = 7;
    public final static int EIGHT = 8;
    public final static int NINE  = 9;
    public final static int TEN   = 10;
    public final static int JACK  = 11;
    public final static int QUEEN = 12;
    public final static int KING  = 13;

    public Card(int rank, int suit) {
        assert isValidRank(rank);
        assert isValidSuit(suit);
        this.rank = rank;
        this.suit = suit;
    }

    public int getSuit() {
        return suit;
    }

    public int getRank() {
        return rank;
    }

    public static boolean isValidRank(int rank) {
        return ACE <= rank && rank <= KING;
    }

    public static boolean isValidSuit(int suit) {
        return DIAMONDS <= suit && suit <= SPADES;
    }

    public static String rankToString(int rank) {
        switch (rank) {
        case ACE:
            return "Ace";
        case DEUCE:
            return "Deuce";
        case THREE:
            return "Three";
        case FOUR:
            return "Four";
        case FIVE:
            return "Five";
        case SIX:
            return "Six";
        case SEVEN:
            return "Seven";
        case EIGHT:
            return "Eight";
        case NINE:
            return "Nine";
        case TEN:
            return "Ten";
        case JACK:
            return "Jack";
        case QUEEN:
            return "Queen";
        case KING:
            return "King";
        default:
            //Handle an illegal argument.  There are generally two
            //ways to handle invalid arguments, throwing an exception
            //(see the section on Handling Exceptions) or return null
            return null;
        }
    }

    public static String suitToString(int suit) {
        switch (suit) {
        case DIAMONDS:
            return "Diamonds";
        case CLUBS:
            return "Clubs";
        case HEARTS:
            return "Hearts";
        case SPADES:
            return "Spades";
        default:
            return null;
        }
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        // must run program with -ea flag (java -ea ..) to
        // use assert statements
        assert rankToString(ACE) == "Ace";
        assert rankToString(DEUCE) == "Deuce";
        assert rankToString(THREE) == "Three";
        assert rankToString(FOUR) == "Four";
        assert rankToString(FIVE) == "Five";
        assert rankToString(SIX) == "Six";
        assert rankToString(SEVEN) == "Seven";
        assert rankToString(EIGHT) == "Eight";
        assert rankToString(NINE) == "Nine";
        assert rankToString(TEN) == "Ten";
        assert rankToString(JACK) == "Jack";
        assert rankToString(QUEEN) == "Queen";
        assert rankToString(KING) == "King";

        assert suitToString(DIAMONDS) == "Diamonds";
        assert suitToString(CLUBS) == "Clubs";
        assert suitToString(HEARTS) == "Hearts";
        assert suitToString(SPADES) == "Spades";

    }
}
```

2. **Exercise**: Write a class whose instances represents a **full** deck of cards. You should also keep this solution.

   Answer: Deck.java.

```
import java.util.*;

public class Deck {

    public static int numSuits = 4;
    public static int numRanks = 13;
    public static int numCards = numSuits * numRanks;

    private Card[][] cards;

    public Deck() {
        cards = new Card[numSuits][numRanks];
        for (int suit = Card.DIAMONDS; suit <= Card.SPADES; suit++) {
            for (int rank = Card.ACE; rank <= Card.KING; rank++) {
                cards[suit-1][rank-1] = new Card(rank, suit);
            }
        }
    }

    public Card getCard(int suit, int rank) {
        return cards[suit-1][rank-1];
    }
}
```

3. **Exercise**: Write a small program to test your deck and card classes. The program can be as simple as creating a deck of cards and displaying its cards.

   Answer: DisplayDeck.java

```
import java.util.*;

public class DisplayDeck {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Deck deck = new Deck();
        for (int suit = Card.DIAMONDS; suit <= Card.SPADES; suit++) {
            for (int rank = Card.ACE; rank <= Card.KING; rank++) {
                Card card = deck.getCard(suit, rank);
                System.out.format("%s of %s%n",
                    card.rankToString(card.getRank()),
                    card.suitToString(card.getSuit()));
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Item 4: Import other Java packages to make them accessible in your code.

Creating and Using Packages

To make types easier to find and use, to avoid naming conflicts, and to control access, programmers bundle groups of related types into packages.

Definition: A *package* is a grouping of related types providing access protection and name space management. Note that *types* refers to classes, interfaces, enumerations, and annotation types. Enumerations and annotation types are special kinds of classes and interfaces, respectively, so *types* are often referred to in this lesson simply as *classes and interfaces*.

The types that are part of the Java platform are members of various packages that bundle classes by function: fundamental classes are in `java.lang`, classes for reading and writing (input and output) are in `java.io`, and so on. You can put your types in packages too.

Suppose you write a group of classes that represent graphic objects, such as circles, rectangles, lines, and points. You also write an interface, `Draggable`, that classes implement if they can be dragged with the mouse.

```
//in the Draggable.java file
public interface Draggable {
    ...
}

//in the Graphic.java file
public abstract class Graphic {
    ...
}

//in the Circle.java file
public class Circle extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Rectangle.java file
```

```
public class Rectangle extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Point.java file
public class Point extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Line.java file
public class Line extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}
```

You should bundle these classes and the interface in a package for several reasons, including the following:

- You and other programmers can easily determine that these types are related.
- You and other programmers know where to find types that can provide graphics-related functions.
- The names of your types won't conflict with the type names in other packages because the package creates a new namespace.
- You can allow types within the package to have unrestricted access to one another yet still restrict access for types outside the package.

Creating a Package

To create a package, you choose a name for the package (naming conventions are discussed in the next section) and put a `package` statement with that name at the top of *every source file* that contains the types (classes, interfaces, enumerations, and annotation types) that you want to include in the package.

The package statement (for example, `package graphics;`) must be the first line in the source file. There can be only one package statement in each source file, and it applies to all types in the file.

Note: If you put multiple types in a single source file, only one can be `public`, and it must have the same name as the source file. For example, you can define `public class Circle` in the file `Circle.java`, define `public interface Draggable` in the file `Draggable.java`, define `public enum Day` in the file `Day.java`, and so forth.

You can include non-public types in the same file as a public type (this is strongly discouraged, unless the non-public types are small and closely related to the public type), but only the public type will be accessible from outside of the package. All the top-level, non-public types will be *package private*.

If you put the graphics interface and classes listed in the preceding section in a package called `graphics`, you would need six source files, like this:

```
//in the Draggable.java file
package graphics;
public interface Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Graphic.java file
package graphics;
public abstract class Graphic {
    . . .
}

//in the Circle.java file
package graphics;
public class Circle extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Rectangle.java file
package graphics;
public class Rectangle extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Point.java file
package graphics;
public class Point extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}

//in the Line.java file
package graphics;
public class Line extends Graphic
    implements Draggable {
    . . .
}
```

If you do not use a `package` statement, your type ends up in an unnamed package. Generally speaking, an unnamed package is only for small or temporary applications or when you are just beginning the development process. Otherwise, classes and interfaces belong in named packages.

Naming a Package

With programmers worldwide writing classes and interfaces using the Java programming language, it is likely that many programmers will use the same name for different types. In fact, the previous example does just that: It defines a `Rectangle` class when there is already a `Rectangle` class in the `java.awt` package. Still, the compiler allows both classes to have the same name if they are in different packages. The fully qualified name of each `Rectangle` class includes the package name. That is, the fully qualified name of the `Rectangle` class in the `graphics` package is `graphics.Rectangle`, and the fully qualified name of the `Rectangle` class in the `java.awt` package is `java.awt.Rectangle`.

This works well unless two independent programmers use the same name for their packages. What prevents this problem? Convention.

Naming Conventions

Package names are written in all lower case to avoid conflict with the names of classes or interfaces.

Companies use their reversed Internet domain name to begin their package names—for example, `com.example.mypackage` for a package named `mypackage` created by a programmer at `example.com`.

Name collisions that occur within a single company need to be handled by convention within that company, perhaps by including the region or the project name after the company name (for example, `com.example.region.mypackage`).

Packages in the Java language itself begin with `java.` or `javax.`

In some cases, the internet domain name may not be a valid package name. This can occur if the domain name contains a hyphen or other special character, if the package name begins with a digit or other character that is illegal to use as the beginning of a Java name, or if the package name contains a reserved Java keyword, such as "int". In this event, the suggested convention is to add an underscore. For example:

Legalizing Package Names

Domain Name	Package Name Prefix
`hyphenated-name.example.org`	`org.example.hyphenated_name`
`example.int`	`int_.example`
`123name.example.com`	`com.example._123name`

Using Package Members

The types that comprise a package are known as the *package members*.

To use a `public` package member from outside its package, you must do one of the following:

- Refer to the member by its fully qualified name
- Import the package member
- Import the member's entire package

Each is appropriate for different situations, as explained in the sections that follow.

Referring to a Package Member by Its Qualified Name

So far, most of the examples in this tutorial have referred to types by their simple names, such as `Rectangle` and `StackOfInts`. You can use a package member's simple name if the code you are writing is in the same package as that member or if that member has been imported.

However, if you are trying to use a member from a different package and that package has not been imported, you must use the member's fully qualified name, which includes the package name. Here is the fully qualified name for the `Rectangle` class declared in the `graphics` package in the previous example.

```
graphics.Rectangle
```

You could use this qualified name to create an instance of `graphics.Rectangle`:

```
graphics.Rectangle myRect = new graphics.Rectangle();
```

Qualified names are all right for infrequent use. When a name is used repetitively, however, typing the name repeatedly becomes tedious and the code becomes difficult to read. As an alternative, you can *import* the member or its package and then use its simple name.

Importing a Package Member

To import a specific member into the current file, put an `import` statement at the beginning of the file before any type definitions but after the `package` statement, if there is one. Here's how you would import the `Rectangle` class from the `graphics` package created in the previous section.

```
import graphics.Rectangle;
```

Now you can refer to the `Rectangle` class by its simple name.

```
Rectangle myRectangle = new Rectangle();
```

This approach works well if you use just a few members from the `graphics` package. But if you use many types from a package, you should import the entire package.

Importing an Entire Package

To import all the types contained in a particular package, use the `import` statement with the asterisk `(*)` wildcard character.

```
import graphics.*;
```

Now you can refer to any class or interface in the `graphics` package by its simple name.

```
Circle myCircle = new Circle();
Rectangle myRectangle = new Rectangle();
```

The asterisk in the `import` statement can be used only to specify all the classes within a package, as shown here. It cannot be used to match a subset of the classes in a package. For example, the following does not match all the classes in the `graphics` package that begin with `A`.

```
// does not work
import graphics.A*;
```

Instead, it generates a compiler error. With the `import` statement, you generally import only a single package member or an entire package.

Note: Another, less common form of `import` allows you to import the public nested classes of an enclosing class. For example, if the `graphics.Rectangle` class contained useful nested classes, such as `Rectangle.DoubleWide` and `Rectangle.Square`, you could import `Rectangle` and its nested classes by using the following *two* statements.

```
import graphics.Rectangle;
import graphics.Rectangle.*;
```
Be aware that the second import statement will *not* import `Rectangle`.

Another less common form of `import`, the *static import statement*, will be discussed at the end of this section.

For convenience, the Java compiler automatically imports two entire packages for each source file: (1) the `java.lang` package and (2) the current package (the package for the current file).

Apparent Hierarchies of Packages

At first, packages appear to be hierarchical, but they are not. For example, the Java API includes a `java.awt` package, a `java.awt.color` package, a `java.awt.font` package, and many others that begin with `java.awt`. However, the `java.awt.color` package, the `java.awt.font` package, and other `java.awt.xxxx` packages are *not included* in the `java.awt` package. The prefix `java.awt` (the Java Abstract Window Toolkit) is used for a number of related packages to make the relationship evident, but not to show inclusion.

Importing `java.awt.*` imports all of the types in the `java.awt` package, but it *does not import* `java.awt.color`, `java.awt.font`, or any other `java.awt.xxxx` packages. If you plan to use the classes and other types in `java.awt.color` as well as those in `java.awt`, you must import both packages with all their files:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.color.*;
```

Name Ambiguities

If a member in one package shares its name with a member in another package and both packages are imported, you must refer to each member by its qualified name. For example, the `graphics` package defined a class named `Rectangle`. The `java.awt` package also contains a `Rectangle` class. If both `graphics` and `java.awt` have been imported, the following is ambiguous.

```
Rectangle rect;
```

In such a situation, you have to use the member's fully qualified name to indicate exactly which `Rectangle` class you want. For example,

```
graphics.Rectangle rect;
```

The Static Import Statement

There are situations where you need frequent access to static final fields (constants) and static methods from one or two classes. Prefixing the name of these classes over and over can result in cluttered code. The *static import* statement gives you a way to import the constants and static methods that you want to use so that you do not need to prefix the name of their class.

The `java.lang.Math` class defines the `PI` constant and many static methods, including methods for calculating sines, cosines, tangents, square roots, maxima, minima, exponents, and many more. For example,

```
public static final double PI
    = 3.141592653589793;
public static double cos(double a)
{
    ...
}
```

Ordinarily, to use these objects from another class, you prefix the class name, as follows.

```
double r = Math.cos(Math.PI * theta);
```

You can use the static import statement to import the static members of java.lang.Math so that you don't need to prefix the class name, `Math`. The static members of `Math` can be imported either individually:

```
import static java.lang.Math.PI;
```

or as a group:

```
import static java.lang.Math.*;
```

Once they have been imported, the static members can be used without qualification. For example, the previous code snippet would become:

```
double r = cos(PI * theta);
```

Obviously, you can write your own classes that contain constants and static methods that you use frequently, and then use the static import statement. For example,

```
import static mypackage.MyConstants.*;
```

Note: Use static import very sparingly. Overusing static import can result in code that is difficult to read and maintain, because readers of the code won't know which class defines a particular static object. Used properly, static import makes code more readable by removing class name repetition.

Managing Source and Class Files

Many implementations of the Java platform rely on hierarchical file systems to manage source and class files, although *The Java Language Specification* does not require this. The strategy is as follows.

Put the source code for a class, interface, enumeration, or annotation type in a text file whose name is the simple name of the type and whose extension is `.java`. For example:

```
//in the Rectangle.java file
package graphics;
public class Rectangle {
   ...
}
```

Then, put the source file in a directory whose name reflects the name of the package to which the type belongs:

```
.....\graphics\Rectangle.java
```

The qualified name of the package member and the path name to the file are parallel, assuming the Microsoft Windows file name separator backslash (for UNIX, use the forward slash).

- **class name –** `graphics.Rectangle`
- **pathname to file –** `graphics\Rectangle.java`

As you should recall, by convention a company uses its reversed Internet domain name for its package names. The Example company, whose Internet domain name is `example.com`, would precede all its package names with `com.example`. Each component of the package name corresponds to a subdirectory. So, if the Example company had a `com.example.graphics` package that contained a `Rectangle.java` source file, it would be contained in a series of subdirectories like this:

```
....\com\example\graphics\Rectangle.java
```

When you compile a source file, the compiler creates a different output file for each type defined in it. The base name of the output file is the name of the type, and its extension is `.class`. For example, if the source file is like this

```
//in the Rectangle.java file
package com.example.graphics;
public class Rectangle {
      . . .
}

class Helper{
      . . .
}
```

then the compiled files will be located at:

```
<path to the parent directory of the output
files>\com\example\graphics\Rectangle.class
<path to the parent directory of the output
files>\com\example\graphics\Helper.class
```

Like the `.java` source files, the compiled `.class` files should be in a series of directories that reflect the package name. However, the path to the `.class` files does not have to be the same as the path to the `.java` source files. You can arrange your source and class directories separately, as:

```
<path_one>\sources\com\example\graphics\Rectangle.java

<path_two>\classes\com\example\graphics\Rectangle.class
```

By doing this, you can give the `classes` directory to other programmers without revealing your sources. You also need to manage source and class files in this manner so that the compiler and the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) can find all the types your program uses.

The full path to the `classes` directory, `<path_two>\classes`, is called the *class path*, and is set with the `CLASSPATH` system variable. Both the compiler and the JVM construct the path to your `.class` files by adding the package name to the class path. For example, if

```
<path_two>\classes
```

is your class path, and the package name is

```
com.example.graphics,
```

then the compiler and JVM look for `.class files` in

```
<path_two>\classes\com\example\graphics.
```

A class path may include several paths, separated by a semicolon (Windows) or colon (UNIX). By default, the compiler and the JVM search the current directory and the JAR file containing the Java platform classes so that these directories are automatically in your class path.

Setting the CLASSPATH System Variable

To display the current `CLASSPATH` variable, use these commands in Windows and UNIX (Bourne shell):

```
In Windows:   C:\> set CLASSPATH
In UNIX:      % echo $CLASSPATH
```

To delete the current contents of the `CLASSPATH` variable, use these commands:

```
In Windows:   C:\> set CLASSPATH=
In UNIX:      % unset CLASSPATH; export CLASSPATH
```

To set the `CLASSPATH` variable, use these commands (for example):

```
In Windows:   C:\> set CLASSPATH=C:\users\george\java\classes
In UNIX:      % CLASSPATH=/home/george/java/classes; export CLASSPATH
```

Summary of Creating and Using Packages

To create a package for a type, put a `package` statement as the first statement in the source file that contains the type (class, interface, enumeration, or annotation type).

To use a public type that's in a different package, you have three choices: (1) use the fully qualified name of the type, (2) import the type, or (3) import the entire package of which the type is a member.

The path names for a package's source and class files mirror the name of the package.

You might have to set your `CLASSPATH` so that the compiler and the JVM can find the `.class` files for your types.

Item 5: Compare and contrast the features and components of Java such as: platform independence, object orientation, encapsulation, etc.

About the Java Technology

Java technology is both a programming language and a platform.

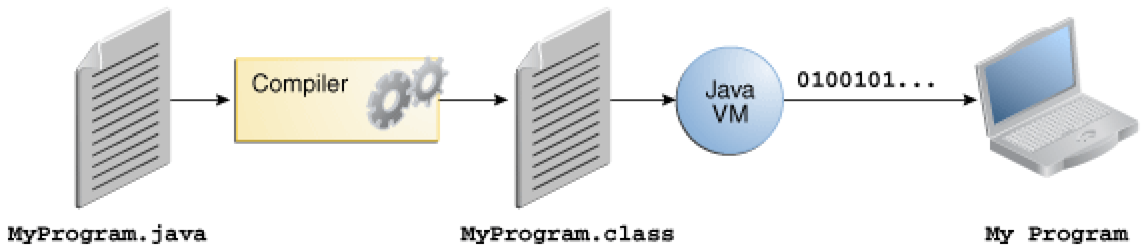
The Java Programming Language

The Java programming language is a high-level language that can be characterized by all of the following buzzwords:

- Simple
- Object oriented
- Distributed
- Multithreaded
- Dynamic
- Architecture neutral
- Portable
- High performance
- Robust
- Secure

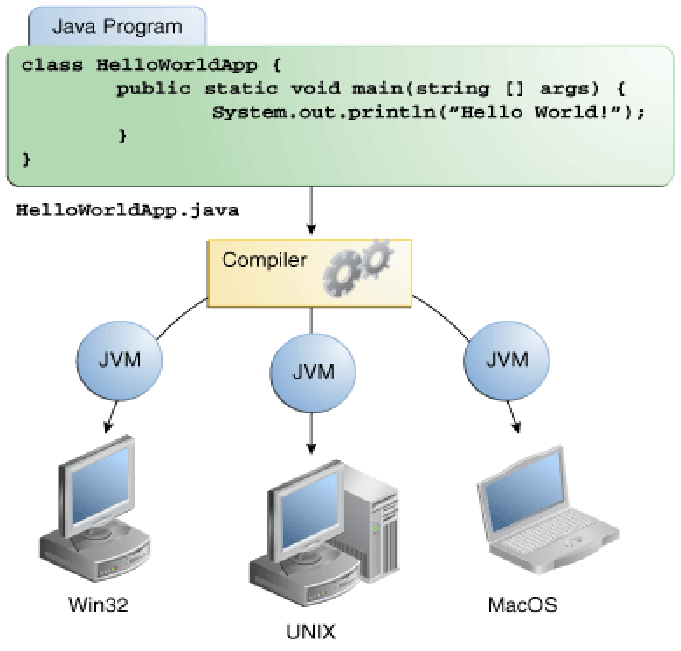
Each of the preceding buzzwords is explained in *The Java Language Environment* , a white paper written by James Gosling and Henry McGilton.

In the Java programming language, all source code is first written in plain text files ending with the `.java` extension. Those source files are then compiled into `.class` files by the `javac` compiler. A `.class` file does not contain code that is native to your processor; it instead contains *bytecodes* — the machine language of the Java Virtual Machine[1] (Java VM). The `java` launcher tool then runs your application with an instance of the Java Virtual Machine.



An overview of the software development process.

Because the Java VM is available on many different operating systems, the same `.class` files are capable of running on Microsoft Windows, the Solaris™ Operating System (Solaris OS), Linux, or Mac OS. Some virtual machines, such as the Java SE HotSpot at a Glance, perform additional steps at runtime to give your application a performance boost. This includes various tasks such as finding performance bottlenecks and recompiling (to native code) frequently used sections of code.



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

Through the Java VM, the same application is capable of running on multiple platforms.

The Java Platform

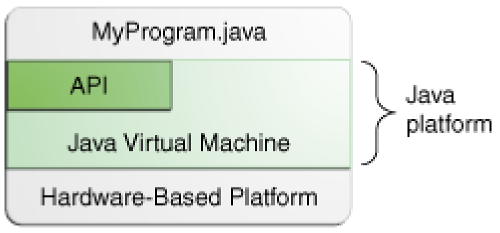
A *platform* is the hardware or software environment in which a program runs. We've already mentioned some of the most popular platforms like Microsoft Windows, Linux, Solaris OS, and Mac OS. Most platforms can be described as a combination of the operating system and underlying hardware. The Java platform differs from most other platforms in that it's a software-only platform that runs on top of other hardware-based platforms.

The Java platform has two components:

- The *Java Virtual Machine*
- The *Java Application Programming Interface* (API)

You've already been introduced to the Java Virtual Machine; it's the base for the Java platform and is ported onto various hardware-based platforms.

The API is a large collection of ready-made software components that provide many useful capabilities. It is grouped into libraries of related classes and interfaces; these libraries are known as *packages*. The next section, What Can Java Technology Do? highlights some of the functionality provided by the API.



The API and Java Virtual Machine insulate the program from the underlying hardware.

As a platform-independent environment, the Java platform can be a bit slower than native code. However, advances in compiler and virtual machine technologies are bringing performance close to that of native code without threatening portability.

The terms"Java Virtual Machine" and "JVM" mean a Virtual Machine for the Java platform.

What Can Java Technology Do?

The general-purpose, high-level Java programming language is a powerful software platform. Every full implementation of the Java platform gives you the following features:

- **Development Tools**: The development tools provide everything you'll need for compiling, running, monitoring, debugging, and documenting your applications. As a new developer, the main tools you'll be using are the `javac` compiler, the `java` launcher, and the `javadoc` documentation tool.
- **Application Programming Interface (API)**: The API provides the core functionality of the Java programming language. It offers a wide array of useful classes ready for use in your own applications. It spans everything from basic objects, to networking and security, to XML generation and database access, and more. The core API is very large; to get an overview of what it contains, consult the Java Platform Standard Edition 8 Documentation.
- **Deployment Technologies**: The JDK software provides standard mechanisms such as the Java Web Start software and Java Plug-In software for deploying your applications to end users.
- **User Interface Toolkits**: The JavaFX, Swing, and Java 2D toolkits make it possible to create sophisticated Graphical User Interfaces (GUIs).
- **Integration Libraries**: Integration libraries such as the Java IDL API, JDBC API, Java Naming and Directory Interface (JNDI) API, Java RMI, and Java Remote Method Invocation over Internet Inter-ORB Protocol Technology (Java RMI-IIOP Technology) enable database access and manipulation of remote objects.

How Will Java Technology Change My Life?

We can't promise you fame, fortune, or even a job if you learn the Java programming language. Still, it is likely to make your programs better and requires less effort than other languages. We believe that Java technology will help you do the following:

- **Get started quickly**: Although the Java programming language is a powerful object-oriented language, it's easy to learn, especially for programmers already familiar with C or C++.
- **Write less code**: Comparisons of program metrics (class counts, method counts, and so on) suggest that a program written in the Java programming language can be four times smaller than the same program written in C++.
- **Write better code**: The Java programming language encourages good coding practices, and automatic garbage collection helps you avoid memory leaks. Its object orientation, its JavaBeans™ component architecture, and its wide-ranging, easily extendible API let you reuse existing, tested code and introduce fewer bugs.
- **Develop programs more quickly**: The Java programming language is simpler than C++, and as such, your development time could be up to twice as fast when writing in it. Your programs will also require fewer lines of code.
- **Avoid platform dependencies**: You can keep your program portable by avoiding the use of libraries written in other languages.
- **Write once, run anywhere**: Because applications written in the Java programming language are compiled into machine-independent bytecodes, they run consistently on any Java platform.
- **Distribute software more easily**: With Java Web Start software, users will be able to launch your applications with a single click of the mouse. An automatic version check at startup ensures that users are always up to date with the latest version of your software. If an update is available, the Java Web Start software will automatically update their installation.

Section 2: Working with Java Data Types

Item 1: Declare and initialize variables (including casting of primitive data types).

Variables

As you learned in the previous lesson, an object stores its state in *fields*.

```
int cadence = 0;
int speed = 0;
int gear = 1;
```

The What Is an Object? discussion introduced you to fields, but you probably have still a few questions, such as: What are the rules and conventions for naming a field? Besides `int`, what other data types are there? Do fields have to be initialized when they are declared? Are fields assigned a default value if they are not explicitly initialized? We'll explore the answers to such questions in this lesson, but before we do, there are a few technical distinctions you must first become aware of. In the Java programming language, the terms "field" and "variable" are both used; this is a common source of confusion among new developers, since both often seem to refer to the same thing.

The Java programming language defines the following kinds of variables:

- **Instance Variables (Non-Static Fields)** Technically speaking, objects store their individual states in "non-static fields", that is, fields declared without the `static` keyword. Non-static fields are also known as *instance variables* because their values are unique to each *instance* of a class (to each object, in other words); the `currentSpeed` of one bicycle is independent from the `currentSpeed` of another.
- **Class Variables (Static Fields)** A *class variable* is any field declared with the `static` modifier; this tells the compiler that there is exactly one copy of this variable in existence, regardless of how many times the class has been instantiated. A field defining the number of gears for a particular kind of bicycle could be marked as `static` since conceptually the same number of gears will apply to all instances. The code `static int numGears = 6;` would create such a static field. Additionally, the keyword `final` could be added to indicate that the number of gears will never change.
- **Local Variables** Similar to how an object stores its state in fields, a method will often store its temporary state in *local variables*. The syntax for declaring a local variable is similar to declaring a field (for example, `int count = 0;`). There is no special keyword designating a variable as local; that determination comes entirely from the location in which the variable is declared — which is between the opening and closing braces of a method. As such, local variables are only visible to the methods in which they are declared; they are not accessible from the rest of the class.
- **Parameters** You've already seen examples of parameters, both in the `Bicycle` class and in the `main` method of the "Hello World!" application. Recall that the signature for the `main` method is `public static void main(String[] args)`. Here, the `args` variable is the parameter to this method. The important thing to remember is that parameters are always classified as "variables" not "fields". This applies to other parameter-accepting constructs as well (such as constructors and exception handlers) that you'll learn about later in the tutorial.

Having said that, the remainder of this tutorial uses the following general guidelines when discussing fields and variables. If we are talking about "fields in general" (excluding local variables and parameters), we may simply say "fields". If the discussion applies to "all of the above", we may simply say "variables". If the context calls for a distinction, we will use specific terms (static field, local variables, etc.) as appropriate. You may also occasionally see the term "member" used as well. A type's fields, methods, and nested types are collectively called its *members*.

Naming

Every programming language has its own set of rules and conventions for the kinds of names that you're allowed to use, and the Java programming language is no different. The rules and conventions for naming your variables can be summarized as follows:

- Variable names are case-sensitive. A variable's name can be any legal identifier — an unlimited-length sequence of Unicode letters and digits, beginning with a letter, the dollar sign "`$`", or the underscore character "`_`". The convention, however, is to always begin your variable names with a letter, not "`$`" or "`_`". Additionally, the dollar sign character, by convention, is never used at all. You may find some situations where auto-generated names will contain the dollar sign, but your variable names should always avoid using it. A similar convention exists for the underscore character; while it's technically legal to begin your variable's name with "`_`", this practice is discouraged. White space is not permitted.
- Subsequent characters may be letters, digits, dollar signs, or underscore characters. Conventions (and common sense) apply to this rule as well. When choosing a name for your variables, use full words instead of cryptic abbreviations. Doing so will make your code easier to read and understand. In many cases it will also make your code self-documenting; fields named `cadence`, `speed`, and `gear`, for example, are much more intuitive than abbreviated versions, such as `s`, `c`, and `g`. Also keep in mind that the name you choose must not be a keyword or reserved word.
- If the name you choose consists of only one word, spell that word in all lowercase letters. If it consists of more than one word, capitalize the first letter of each subsequent word. The names `gearRatio` and `currentGear` are prime examples of this convention. If your variable stores a constant value, such as `static final int NUM_GEARS = 6`, the convention changes slightly, capitalizing every letter and separating subsequent words with the underscore character. By convention, the underscore character is never used elsewhere.