Java™ 2: The Complete Reference, Fifth Edition

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McGraw-Hill/Osborne
New York Chicago San Francisco
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A Book for All Programmers

To use this book does not require any previous programming experience. However, if you come from a C/C++ background, then you will be able to advance a bit more rapidly. As most readers will know, Java is similar, in form and spirit, to C/C++. Thus, knowledge of those langauges helps, but is not necessary. Even if you have never programmed before, you can learn to program in Java using this book.

What's Inside

This book covers all aspects of the Java programming language. Part 1 presents an in-depth tutorial of the Java language. It begins with the basics, including such things as data types, control statements, and classes. Part 1 also discusses Java's exception-handling mechanism, multithreading subsystem, packages, and interfaces.

Part 2 examines the standard Java library. As you will learn, much of Java's power is found in its library. Topics include strings, I/O, networking, the standard utilities, the Collections Framework, applets, GUI-based controls, and imaging.

Part 3 looks at some issues relating to the Java development environment, including an overview of Java Beans, Servlets, and Swing.

Part 4 presents a number of high-powered Java applets that serve as extended examples of the way Java can be applied. The final applet, called Scrabblet, is a complete, multiuser networked game. It shows how to handle some of the toughest issues involved in Web-based programming.

What's New in the Fifth Edition

The differences between this and the previous editions of this book mostly involve those features added by Java 2, version 1.4. Of the many new features found in version 1.4, perhaps the most important are the **assert** keyword, the channel-based I/O subsystem, chained exceptions, and networking enhancements. This fifth edition has been fully updated to reflect those and other additions. New features are clearly noted in the text, as are features added by previous releases.

This fifth edition also updates and restores the Sevlets chapter. Previously this chapter relied upon the now out-dated JSDK (Java Servlets Developers Kit) to develop and test servlets. It now uses Apache Tomcat, which is the currently recommended tool.

Don't Forget: Code on the Web

Remember, the source code for all of the examples and projects in this book is available free-of-charge on the Web at **www.osborne.com**.

For Further Study

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When the chronicle of computer languages is written, the following will be said: B led to C, C evolved into C++, and C++ set the stage for Java. To understand Java is to understand the reasons that drove its creation, the forces that shaped it, and the legacy that it inherits. Like the successful computer languages that came before, Java is a blend of the best elements of its rich heritage combined with the innovative concepts required by its unique environment. While the remaining chapters of this book describe the practical aspects of Java—including its syntax, libraries, and applications—in this chapter, you will learn how and why Java came about, and what makes it so important.

Although Java has become inseparably linked with the online environment of the Internet, it is important to remember that Java is first and foremost a programming language. Computer language innovation and development occurs for two fundamental reasons:

- To adapt to changing environments and uses
- To implement refinements and improvements in the art of programming

As you will see, the creation of Java was driven by both elements in nearly equal measure.

Java's Lineage

Java is related to C++, which is a direct descendent of C. Much of the character of Java is inherited from these two languages. From C, Java derives its syntax. Many of Java's object-oriented features were influenced by C++. In fact, several of Java's defining characteristics come from—or are responses to—its predecessors. Moreover, the creation of Java was deeply rooted in the process of refinement and adaptation that has been occurring in computer programming languages for the past three decades. For these reasons, this section reviews the sequence of events and forces that led up to Java. As you will see, each innovation in language design was driven by the need to solve a fundamental problem that the preceding languages could not solve. Java is no exception.

The Birth of Modern Programming: C

The C language shook the computer world. Its impact should not be underestimated, because it fundamentally changed the way programming was approached and thought about. The creation of C was a direct result of the need for a structured, efficient, high-level language that could replace assembly code when creating systems programs. As you probably know, when a computer language is designed, trade-offs are often made, such as the following:

- Ease-of-use versus power
- Safety versus efficiency
- Rigidity versus extensibility

working programmers, reflecting the way that they approached the job of programming. Its features were honed, tested, thought about, and rethought by the people who actually used the language. The result was a language that programmers liked to use. Indeed, C quickly attracted many followers who had a near-religious zeal for it. As such, it found wide and rapid acceptance in the programmer community. In short, C is a language designed by and for programmers. As you will see, Java has inherited this legacy.

The Need for C++

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, C became the dominant computer programming language, and it is still widely used today. Since C is a successful and useful language, you might ask why a need for something else existed. The answer is *complexity*. Throughout the history of programming, the increasing complexity of programs has driven the need for better ways to manage that complexity. C++ is a response to that need. To better understand why managing program complexity is fundamental to the creation of C++, consider the following.

Approaches to programming have changed dramatically since the invention of the computer. For example, when computers were first invented, programming was done by manually toggling in the binary machine instructions by use of the front panel. As long as programs were just a few hundred instructions long, this approach worked. As programs grew, assembly language was invented so that a programmer could deal with larger, increasingly complex programs by using symbolic representations of the machine instructions. As programs continued to grow, high-level languages were introduced that gave the programmer more tools with which to handle complexity.

The first widespread language was, of course, FORTRAN. While FORTRAN was an impressive first step, it is hardly a language that encourages clear and easy-to-understand programs. The 1960s gave birth to *structured programming*. This is the method of programming championed by languages such as C. The use of structured languages enabled programmers to write, for the first time, moderately complex programs fairly easily. However, even with structured programming methods, once a project reaches a certain size, its complexity exceeds what a programmer can manage. By the early 1980s, many projects were pushing the structured approach past its limits. To solve this problem, a new way to program was invented, called *object-oriented programming* (*OOP*). Object-oriented programming is discussed in detail later in this book, but here is a brief definition: OOP is a programming methodology that helps organize complex programs through the use of inheritance, encapsulation, and polymorphism.

In the final analysis, although C is one of the world's great programming languages, there is a limit to its ability to handle complexity. Once a program exceeds somewhere between 25,000 and 100,000 lines of code, it becomes so complex that it is difficult to grasp as a totality. C++ allows this barrier to be broken, and helps the programmer comprehend and manage larger programs.

About the time that the details of Java were being worked out, a second, and ultimately more important, factor was emerging that would play a crucial role in the future of Java. This second force was, of course, the World Wide Web. Had the Web not taken shape at about the same time that Java was being implemented, Java might have remained a useful but obscure language for programming consumer electronics. However, with the emergence of the World Wide Web, Java was propelled to the forefront of computer language design, because the Web, too, demanded portable programs.

Most programmers learn early in their careers that portable programs are as elusive as they are desirable. While the quest for a way to create efficient, portable (platform-independent) programs is nearly as old as the discipline of programming itself, it had taken a back seat to other, more pressing problems. Further, because much of the computer world had divided itself into the three competing camps of Intel, Macintosh, and UNIX, most programmers stayed within their fortified boundaries, and the urgent need for portable code was reduced. However, with the advent of the Internet and the Web, the old problem of portability returned with a vengeance. After all, the Internet consists of a diverse, distributed universe populated with many types of computers, operating systems, and CPUs. Even though many types of platforms are attached to the Internet, users would like them all to be able to run the same program. What was once an irritating but low-priority problem had become a high-profile necessity.

By 1993, it became obvious to members of the Java design team that the problems of portability frequently encountered when creating code for embedded controllers are also found when attempting to create code for the Internet. In fact, the same problem that Java was initially designed to solve on a small scale could also be applied to the Internet on a large scale. This realization caused the focus of Java to switch from consumer electronics to Internet programming. So, while the desire for an architecture-neutral programming language provided the initial spark, the Internet ultimately led to Java's large-scale success.

As mentioned earlier, Java derives much of its character from C and C++. This is by intent. The Java designers knew that using the familiar syntax of C and echoing the object-oriented features of C++ would make their language appealing to the legions of experienced C/C++ programmers. In addition to the surface similarities, Java shares some of the other attributes that helped make C and C++ successful. First, Java was designed, tested, and refined by real, working programmers. It is a language grounded in the needs and experiences of the people who devised it. Thus, Java is also a programmer's language. Second, Java is cohesive and logically consistent. Third, except for those constraints imposed by the Internet environment, Java gives you, the programmer, full control. If you program well, your programs reflect it. If you program poorly, your programs reflect that, too. Put differently, Java is not a language with training wheels. It is a language for professional programmers.

when you read your e-mail, you are viewing passive data. Even when you download a program, the program's code is still only passive data until you execute it. However, a second type of object can be transmitted to your computer: a dynamic, self-executing program. Such a program is an active agent on the client computer, yet is initiated by the server. For example, a program might be provided by the server to display properly the data that the server is sending.

As desirable as dynamic, networked programs are, they also present serious problems in the areas of security and portability. Prior to Java, cyberspace was effectively closed to half the entities that now live there. As you will see, Java addresses those concerns and, by doing so, has opened the door to an exciting new form of program: the applet.

Java Applets and Applications

Java can be used to create two types of programs: applications and applets. An *application* is a program that runs on your computer, under the operating system of that computer. That is, an application created by Java is more or less like one created using C or C++. When used to create applications, Java is not much different from any other computer language. Rather, it is Java's ability to create applets that makes it important. An *applet* is an application designed to be transmitted over the Internet and executed by a Java-compatible Web browser. An applet is actually a tiny Java program, dynamically downloaded across the network, just like an image, sound file, or video clip. The important difference is that an applet is an *intelligent program*, not just an animation or media file. In other words, an applet is a program that can react to user input and dynamically change—not just run the same animation or sound over and over.

As exciting as applets are, they would be nothing more than wishful thinking if Java were not able to address the two fundamental problems associated with them: security and portability. Before continuing, let's define what these two terms mean relative to the Internet.

Security

As you are likely aware, every time that you download a "normal" program, you are risking a viral infection. Prior to Java, most users did not download executable programs frequently, and those who did scanned them for viruses prior to execution. Even so, most users still worried about the possibility of infecting their systems with a virus. In addition to viruses, another type of malicious program exists that must be guarded against. This type of program can gather private information, such as credit card numbers, bank account balances, and passwords, by searching the contents of your computer's local file system. Java answers both of these concerns by providing a "firewall" between a networked application and your computer.

When you use a Java-compatible Web browser, you can safely download Java applets without fear of viral infection or malicious intent. Java achieves this protection by confining a Java program to the Java execution environment and not allowing it

Although Java was designed for interpretation, there is technically nothing about Java that prevents on-the-fly compilation of bytecode into native code. Along these lines, Sun supplies its Just In Time (JIT) compiler for bytecode, which is included in the Java 2 release. When the JIT compiler is part of the JVM, it compiles bytecode into executable code in real time, on a piece-by-piece, demand basis. It is important to understand that it is not possible to compile an entire Java program into executable code all at once, because Java performs various run-time checks that can be done only at run time. Instead, the JIT compiles code as it is needed, during execution. However, the just-in-time approach still yields a significant performance boost. Even when dynamic compilation is applied to bytecode, the portability and safety features still apply, because the run-time system (which performs the compilation) still is in charge of the execution environment. Whether your Java program is actually interpreted in the traditional way or compiled on-the-fly, its functionality is the same.

The Java Buzzwords

No discussion of the genesis of Java is complete without a look at the Java buzzwords. Although the fundamental forces that necessitated the invention of Java are portability and security, other factors also played an important role in molding the final form of the language. The key considerations were summed up by the Java team in the following list of buzzwords:

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

Two of these buzzwords have already been discussed: secure and portable. Let's examine what each of the others implies.

task in traditional programming environments. For example, in C/C++, the programmer must manually allocate and free all dynamic memory. This sometimes leads to problems, because programmers will either forget to free memory that has been previously allocated or, worse, try to free some memory that another part of their code is still using. Java virtually eliminates these problems by managing memory allocation and deallocation for you. (In fact, deallocation is completely automatic, because Java provides garbage collection for unused objects.) Exceptional conditions in traditional environments often arise in situations such as division by zero or "file not found," and they must be managed with clumsy and hard-to-read constructs. Java helps in this area by providing object-oriented exception handling. In a well-written Java program, all run-time errors can—and should—be managed by your program.

Multithreaded

Java was designed to meet the real-world requirement of creating interactive, networked programs. To accomplish this, Java supports multithreaded programming, which allows you to write programs that do many things simultaneously. The Java run-time system comes with an elegant yet sophisticated solution for multiprocess synchronization that enables you to construct smoothly running interactive systems. Java's easy-to-use approach to multithreading allows you to think about the specific behavior of your program, not the multitasking subsystem.

Architecture-Neutral

A central issue for the Java designers was that of code longevity and portability. One of the main problems facing programmers is that no guarantee exists that if you write a program today, it will run tomorrow—even on the same machine. Operating system upgrades, processor upgrades, and changes in core system resources can all combine to make a program malfunction. The Java designers made several hard decisions in the Java language and the Java Virtual Machine in an attempt to alter this situation. Their goal was "write once; run anywhere, any time, forever." To a great extent, this goal was accomplished.

Interpreted and High Performance

As described earlier, Java enables the creation of cross-platform programs by compiling into an intermediate representation called Java bytecode. This code can be interpreted on any system that provides a Java Virtual Machine. Most previous attempts at cross-platform solutions have done so at the expense of performance. Other interpreted systems, such as BASIC, Tcl, and PERL, suffer from almost insurmountable performance deficits. Java, however, was designed to perform well on very low-power CPUs. As explained earlier, while it is true that Java was engineered for interpretation, the Java bytecode was carefully designed so that it would be easy to translate directly into native machine code for very high performance by using a just-in-time compiler. Java run-time systems that provide this feature lose none of the benefits of the platform-independent code. "High-performance cross-platform" is no longer an oxymoron.

The current release of Java is Java 2, version 1.4. This release contains several important upgrades, enhancements, and additions. For example, it adds the new keyword **assert**, chained exceptions, and a channel-based I/O subsystem. It also makes changes to the Collections Framework and the networking classes. In addition, numerous small changes are made throughout. Despite the significant number of new features, version 1.4 maintains nearly 100 percent source-code compatibility with prior versions.

This book covers all versions of Java 2. Of course, most of the material applies to earlier versions of Java, too. Throughout this book, when a feature applies to a specific version of Java, it will be so noted. Otherwise, you can simply assume that it applies to Java, in general. Also, when referring to those features common to all versions of Java 2, this book will simply use the term *Java 2*, without a reference to a version number.

Like all other computer languages, the elements of Java do not exist in isolation. Rather, they work together to form the language as a whole. However, this interrelatedness can make it difficult to describe one aspect of Java without involving several others. Often a discussion of one feature implies prior knowledge of another. For this reason, this chapter presents a quick overview of several key features of Java. The material described here will give you a foothold that will allow you to write and understand simple programs. Most of the topics discussed will be examined in greater detail in the remaining chapters of Part 1.

Object-Oriented Programming

Object-oriented programming is at the core of Java. In fact, all Java programs are object-oriented—this isn't an option the way that it is in C++, for example. OOP is so integral to Java that you must understand its basic principles before you can write even simple Java programs. Therefore, this chapter begins with a discussion of the theoretical aspects of OOP.

Two Paradigms

As you know, all computer programs consist of two elements: code and data. Furthermore, a program can be conceptually organized around its code or around its data. That is, some programs are written around "what is happening" and others are written around "who is being affected." These are the two paradigms that govern how a program is constructed. The first way is called the *process-oriented model.* This approach characterizes a program as a series of linear steps (that is, code). The process-oriented model can be thought of as *code acting on data.* Procedural languages such as C employ this model to considerable success. However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, problems with this approach appear as programs grow larger and more complex.

To manage increasing complexity, the second approach, called *object-oriented programming,* was conceived. Object-oriented programming organizes a program around its data (that is, objects) and a set of well-defined interfaces to that data. An object-oriented program can be characterized as *data controlling access to code.* As you will see, by switching the controlling entity to data, you can achieve several organizational benefits.

Abstraction

An essential element of object-oriented programming is *abstraction.* Humans manage complexity through abstraction. For example, people do not think of a car as a set of tens of thousands of individual parts. They think of it as a well-defined object with its own unique behavior. This abstraction allows people to use a car to drive to the grocery store without being overwhelmed by the complexity of the parts that form the car. They can ignore the details of how the engine, transmission, and braking systems work. Instead they are free to utilize the object as a whole.

manufacturers can implement one in any way they please. However, from the driver's point of view, they all work the same. This same idea can be applied to programming. The power of encapsulated code is that everyone knows how to access it and thus can use it regardless of the implementation details—and without fear of unexpected side effects.

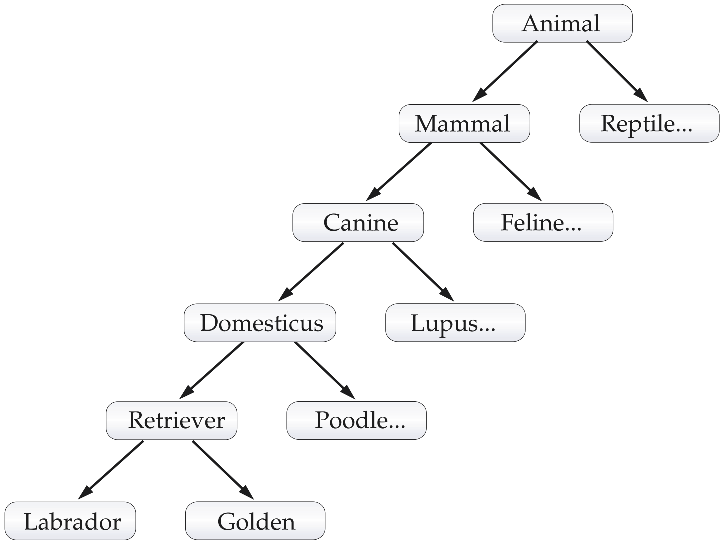
In Java the basis of encapsulation is the class. Although the class will be examined in great detail later in this book, the following brief discussion will be helpful now. A *class* defines the structure and behavior (data and code) that will be shared by a set of objects. Each object of a given class contains the structure and behavior defined by the class, as if it were stamped out by a mold in the shape of the class. For this reason, objects are sometimes referred to as *instances of a class.* Thus, a class is a logical construct; an object has physical reality.

When you create a class, you will specify the code and data that constitute that class. Collectively, these elements are called *members* of the class. Specifically, the data defined by the class are referred to as *member variables* or *instance variables.* The code that operates on that data is referred to as *member methods* or just *methods.* (If you are familiar with C/C++, it may help to know that what a Java programmer calls a *method,* a C/C++ programmer calls a *function.*) In properly written Java programs, the methods define how the member variables can be used. This means that the behavior and interface of a class are defined by the methods that operate on its instance data.

Since the purpose of a class is to encapsulate complexity, there are mechanisms for hiding the complexity of the implementation inside the class. Each method or variable in a class may be marked private or public. The *public* interface of a class represents everything that external users of the class need to know, or may know. The *private* methods and data can only be accessed by code that is a member of the class. Therefore, any other code that is not a member of the class cannot access a private method or variable. Since the private members of a class may only be accessed by other parts of your program through the class' public methods, you can ensure that no improper actions take place. Of course, this means that the public interface should be carefully designed not to expose too much of the inner workings of a class (see Figure 2-1).

Inheritance

Inheritance is the process by which one object acquires the properties of another object. This is important because it supports the concept of hierarchical classification. As mentioned earlier, most knowledge is made manageable by hierarchical (that is, top-down) classifications. For example, a Golden Retriever is part of the classification *dog,* which in turn is part of the *mammal* class, which is under the larger class *animal.* Without the use of hierarchies, each object would need to define all of its characteristics explicitly. However, by use of inheritance, an object need only define those qualities that make it unique within its class. It can inherit its general attributes from its parent. Thus, it is the inheritance mechanism that makes it possible for one object to be a specific instance of a more general case. Let's take a closer look at this process.



Inheritance interacts with encapsulation as well. If a given class encapsulates some attributes, then any subclass will have the same attributes *plus* any that it adds as part of its specialization (see Figure 2-2). This is a key concept which lets object-oriented programs grow in complexity linearly rather than geometrically. A new subclass inherits all of the attributes of all of its ancestors. It does not have unpredictable interactions with the majority of the rest of the code in the system.

Polymorphism

Polymorphism (from the Greek, meaning "many forms") is a feature that allows one interface to be used for a general class of actions. The specific action is determined by the exact nature of the situation. Consider a stack (which is a last-in, first-out list). You might have a program that requires three types of stacks. One stack is used for integer values, one for floating-point values, and one for characters. The algorithm that implements each stack is the same, even though the data being stored differs. In a non–object-oriented language, you would be required to create three different sets of stack routines, with each set using different names. However, because of polymorphism, in Java you can specify a general set of stack routines that all share the same names.

More generally, the concept of polymorphism is often expressed by the phrase "one interface, multiple methods." This means that it is possible to design a generic interface to a group of related activities. This helps reduce complexity by allowing the same interface to be used to specify a *general class of action.* It is the compiler's job to select the *specific action* (that is, method) as it applies to each situation. You, the programmer, do not need to make this selection manually. You need only remember and utilize the general interface.

Extending the dog analogy, a dog's sense of smell is polymorphic. If the dog smells a cat, it will bark and run after it. If the dog smells its food, it will salivate and run to its bowl. The same sense of smell is at work in both situations. The difference is what is being smelled, that is, the type of data being operated upon by the dog's nose! This same general concept can be implemented in Java as it applies to methods within a Java program.

Polymorphism, Encapsulation, and Inheritance Work Together

When properly applied, polymorphism, encapsulation, and inheritance combine to produce a programming environment that supports the development of far more robust and scaleable programs than does the process-oriented model. A well-designed hierarchy of classes is the basis for reusing the code in which you have invested time and effort developing and testing. Encapsulation allows you to migrate your implementations over time without breaking the code that depends on the public interface of your classes. Polymorphism allows you to create clean, sensible, readable, and resilient code.

Of the two real-world examples, the automobile more completely illustrates the power of object-oriented design. Dogs are fun to think about from an inheritance standpoint, but cars are more like programs. All drivers rely on inheritance to drive different types (subclasses) of vehicles. Whether the vehicle is a school bus, a Mercedes sedan, a Porsche, or the family minivan, drivers can all more or less find and operate the steering wheel, the brakes, and the accelerator. After a bit of gear grinding, most people can even manage the difference between a stick shift and an automatic, because they fundamentally understand their common superclass, the transmission.

People interface with encapsulated features on cars all the time. The brake and gas pedals hide an incredible array of complexity with an interface so simple you can operate them with your feet! The implementation of the engine, the style of brakes, and the size of the tires have no effect on how you interface with the class definition of the pedals.

The final attribute, polymorphism, is clearly reflected in the ability of car manufacturers to offer a wide array of options on basically the same vehicle. For example, you can get an antilock braking system or traditional brakes, power or rack-and-pinion steering, 4-, 6-, or 8-cylinder engines. Either way, you will still press the break pedal to stop, turn the steering wheel to change direction, and press the accelerator when you want to move. The same interface can be used to control a number of different implementations.

As you can see, it is through the application of encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism that the individual parts are transformed into the object known as a car. The same is also true of computer programs. By the application of object-oriented principles, the various parts of a complex program can be brought together to form a cohesive, robust, maintainable whole.

guess, your operating system must be capable of supporting long filenames. This means that DOS and Windows 3.1 are not capable of supporting Java. However, Windows 95/98 and Windows NT/2000/XP work just fine.

As you can see by looking at the program, the name of the class defined by the program is also **Example**. This is not a coincidence. In Java, all code must reside inside a class. By convention, the name of that class should match the name of the file that holds the program. You should also make sure that the capitalization of the filename matches the class name. The reason for this is that Java is case-sensitive. At this point, the convention that filenames correspond to class names may seem arbitrary. However, this convention makes it easier to maintain and organize your programs.

Compiling the Program

To compile the **Example** program, execute the compiler, **javac**, specifying the name of the source file on the command line, as shown here:

```
C:\>javac Example.java
```

The **javac** compiler creates a file called **Example.class** that contains the bytecode version of the program. As discussed earlier, the Java bytecode is the intermediate representation of your program that contains instructions the Java interpreter will execute. Thus, the output of **javac** is not code that can be directly executed.

To actually run the program, you must use the Java interpreter, called **java**. To do so, pass the class name **Example** as a command-line argument, as shown here:

```
C:\>java Example
```

When the program is run, the following output is displayed:

```
This is a simple Java program.
```

When Java source code is compiled, each individual class is put into its own output file named after the class and using the **.class** extension. This is why it is a good idea to give your Java source files the same name as the class they contain—the name of the source file will match the name of the **.class** file. When you execute the Java interpreter as just shown, you are actually specifying the name of the class that you want the interpreter to execute. It will automatically search for a file by that name that has the **.class** extension. If it finds the file, it will execute the code contained in the specified class.

comments for longer remarks and single-line comments for brief, line-by-line descriptions.

The next line of code is shown here:

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

This line begins the **main( )** method. As the comment preceding it suggests, this is the line at which the program will begin executing. All Java applications begin execution by calling **main( )**. (This is just like C/C++.) The exact meaning of each part of this line cannot be given now, since it involves a detailed understanding of Java's approach to encapsulation. However, since most of the examples in the first part of this book will use this line of code, let's take a brief look at each part now.

The **public** keyword is an *access specifier*, which allows the programmer to control the visibility of class members. When a class member is preceded by **public**, then that member may be accessed by code outside the class in which it is declared. (The opposite of **public** is **private**, which prevents a member from being used by code defined outside of its class.) In this case, **main( )** must be declared as **public**, since it must be called by code outside of its class when the program is started. The keyword **static** allows **main( )** to be called without having to instantiate a particular instance of the class. This is necessary since **main( )** is called by the Java interpreter before any objects are made. The keyword **void** simply tells the compiler that **main( )** does not return a value. As you will see, methods may also return values. If all this seems a bit confusing, don't worry. All of these concepts will be discussed in detail in subsequent chapters.

As stated, **main( )** is the method called when a Java application begins. Keep in mind that Java is case-sensitive. Thus, **Main** is different from **main**. It is important to understand that the Java compiler will compile classes that do not contain a **main( )** method. But the Java interpreter has no way to run these classes. So, if you had typed **Main** instead of **main**, the compiler would still compile your program. However, the Java interpreter would report an error because it would be unable to find the **main( )** method.

Any information that you need to pass to a method is received by variables specified within the set of parentheses that follow the name of the method. These variables are called *parameters.* If there are no parameters required for a given method, you still need to include the empty parentheses. In **main( )**, there is only one parameter, albeit a complicated one. **String args[ ]** declares a parameter named **args**, which is an array of instances of the class **String**. (*Arrays* are collections of similar objects.) Objects of type **String** store character strings. In this case, **args** receives any command-line arguments present when the program is executed. This program does not make use of this information, but other programs shown later in this book will.

The last character on the line is the **{**. This signals the start of **main( )**'s body. All of the code that comprises a method will occur between the method's opening curly brace and its closing curly brace.

```
class Example2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int num; // this declares a variable called num

    num = 100; // this assigns num the value 100

    System.out.println("This is num: " + num);

    num = num * 2;

    System.out.print("The value of num * 2 is ");
    System.out.println(num);
  }
}
```

When you run this program, you will see the following output:

```
This is num: 100
The value of num * 2 is 200
```

Let's take a close look at why this output is generated. The first new line in the program is shown here:

```
int num; // this declares a variable called num
```

This line declares an integer variable called **num**. Java (like most other languages) requires that variables be declared before they are used.

Following is the general form of a variable declaration:

type var-name;

Here, *type* specifies the type of variable being declared, and *var-name* is the name of the variable. If you want to declare more than one variable of the specified type, you may use a comma-separated list of variable names. Java defines several data types, including integer, character, and floating-point. The keyword **int** specifies an integer type.

In the program, the line

```
num = 100; // this assigns num the value 100
```

Here, *condition* is a Boolean expression. If *condition* is true, then the statement is executed. If *condition* is false, then the statement is bypassed. Here is an example:

```
if(num < 100) println("num is less than 100");
```

In this case, if **num** contains a value that is less than 100, the conditional expression is true, and **println( )** will execute. If **num** contains a value greater than or equal to 100, then the **println( )** method is bypassed.

As you will see in Chapter 4, Java defines a full complement of relational operators which may be used in a conditional expression. Here are a few:

Operator	Meaning
<	Less than
>	Greater than
==	Equal to

Notice that the test for equality is the double equal sign.

Here is a program that illustrates the **if** statement:

```
/*
  Demonstrate the if.

  Call this file "IfSample.java".
*/
class IfSample {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x, y;

    x = 10;
    y = 20;

    if(x < y) System.out.println("x is less than y");

    x = x * 2;
    if(x == y) System.out.println("x now equal to y");

    x = x * 2;
    if(x > y) System.out.println("x now greater than y");
```

```
*/
class ForTest {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x;

    for(x = 0; x<10; x = x+1)
      System.out.println("This is x: " + x);
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
This is x: 0
This is x: 1
This is x: 2
This is x: 3
This is x: 4
This is x: 5
This is x: 6
This is x: 7
This is x: 8
This is x: 9
```

In this example, **x** is the loop control variable. It is initialized to zero in the initialization portion of the **for**. At the start of each iteration (including the first one), the conditional test **x < 10** is performed. If the outcome of this test is true, the **println( )** statement is executed, and then the iteration portion of the loop is executed. This process continues until the conditional test is false.

As a point of interest, in professionally written Java programs you will almost never see the iteration portion of the loop written as shown in the preceding program. That is, you will seldom see statements like this:

```
x = x + 1;
```

The reason is that Java includes a special increment operator which performs this operation more efficiently. The increment operator is **++**. (That is, two plus signs back to back.) The increment operator increases its operand by one. By use of the increment operator, the preceding statement can be written like this:

```
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x, y;

    y = 20;

    // the target of this loop is a block
    for(x = 0; x<10; x++) {
      System.out.println("This is x: " + x);
      System.out.println("This is y: " + y);
      y = y - 2;
    }
  }
}
```

The output generated by this program is shown here:

```
This is x: 0
This is y: 20
This is x: 1
This is y: 18
This is x: 2
This is y: 16
This is x: 3
This is y: 14
This is x: 4
This is y: 12
This is x: 5
This is y: 10
This is x: 6
This is y: 8
This is x: 7
This is y: 6
This is x: 8
This is y: 4
This is x: 9
This is y: 2
```

In this case, the target of the **for** loop is a block of code and not just a single statement. Thus, each time the loop iterates, the three statements inside the block will be executed. This fact is, of course, evidenced by the output generated by the program.

Comments

As mentioned, there are three types of comments defined by Java. You have already seen two: single-line and multiline. The third type is called a *documentation comment.* This type of comment is used to produce an HTML file that documents your program. The documentation comment begins with a **/**** and ends with a ***/**. Documentation comments are explained in Appendix A.

Separators

In Java, there are a few characters that are used as separators. The most commonly used separator in Java is the semicolon. As you have seen, it is used to terminate statements. The separators are shown in the following table:

Symbol	Name	Purpose
( )	Parentheses	Used to contain lists of parameters in method definition and invocation. Also used for defining precedence in expressions, containing expressions in control statements, and surrounding cast types.
{ }	Braces	Used to contain the values of automatically initialized arrays. Also used to define a block of code, for classes, methods, and local scopes.
[ ]	Brackets	Used to declare array types. Also used when dereferencing array values.
;	Semicolon	Terminates statements.
,	Comma	Separates consecutive identifiers in a variable declaration. Also used to chain statements together inside a **for** statement.
.	Period	Used to separate package names from subpackages and classes. Also used to separate a variable or method from a reference variable.

The Java Keywords

There are 49 reserved keywords currently defined in the Java language (see Table 2-1). These keywords, combined with the syntax of the operators and separators, form the definition of the Java language. These keywords cannot be used as names for a variable, class, or method.

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This chapter examines three of Java's most fundamental elements: data types, variables, and arrays. As with all modern programming languages, Java supports several types of data. You may use these types to declare variables and to create arrays. As you will see, Java's approach to these items is clean, efficient, and cohesive.

Java Is a Strongly Typed Language

It is important to state at the outset that Java is a strongly typed language. Indeed, part of Java's safety and robustness comes from this fact. Let's see what this means. First, every variable has a type, every expression has a type, and every type is strictly defined. Second, all assignments, whether explicit or via parameter passing in method calls, are checked for type compatibility. There are no automatic coercions or conversions of conflicting types as in some languages. The Java compiler checks all expressions and parameters to ensure that the types are compatible. Any type mismatches are errors that must be corrected before the compiler will finish compiling the class.

Note *If you come from a C or C++ background, keep in mind that Java is more strictly typed than either language. For example, in C/C++ you can assign a floating-point value to an integer. In Java, you cannot. Also, in C there is not necessarily strong type-checking between a parameter and an argument. In Java, there is. You might find Java's strong type-checking a bit tedious at first. But remember, in the long run it will help reduce the possibility of errors in your code.*

The Simple Types

Java defines eight simple (or elemental) types of data: **byte**, **short**, **int**, **long**, **char**, **float**, **double**, and **boolean**. These can be put in four groups:

- Integers This group includes **byte**, **short**, **int**, and **long**, which are for whole-valued signed numbers.
- Floating-point numbers This group includes **float** and **double**, which represent numbers with fractional precision.
- Characters This group includes **char**, which represents symbols in a character set, like letters and numbers.
- Boolean This group includes **boolean**, which is a special type for representing true/false values.

You can use these types as-is, or to construct arrays or your own class types. Thus, they form the basis for all other types of data that you can create.

byte

The smallest integer type is **byte**. This is a signed 8-bit type that has a range from –128 to 127. Variables of type **byte** are especially useful when you're working with a stream of data from a network or file. They are also useful when you're working with raw binary data that may not be directly compatible with Java's other built-in types.

Byte variables are declared by use of the **byte** keyword. For example, the following declares two **byte** variables called **b** and **c**:

```
byte b, c;
```

short

short is a signed 16-bit type. It has a range from –32,768 to 32,767. It is probably the least-used Java type, since it is defined as having its high byte first (called *big-endian* format). This type is mostly applicable to 16-bit computers, which are becoming increasingly scarce.

Here are some examples of **short** variable declarations:

```
short s;
short t;
```

Note *"Endianness" describes how multibyte data types, such as **short**, **int**, and **long**, are stored in memory. If it takes 2 bytes to represent a **short**, then which one comes first, the most significant or the least significant? To say that a machine is big-endian, means that the most significant byte is first, followed by the least significant one. Machines such as the SPARC and PowerPC are big-endian, while the Intel x86 series is little-endian.*

int

The most commonly used integer type is **int**. It is a signed 32-bit type that has a range from –2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647. In addition to other uses, variables of type **int** are commonly employed to control loops and to index arrays. Any time you have an integer expression involving **byte**s, **short**s, **int**s, and literal numbers, the entire expression is *promoted* to **int** before the calculation is done.

The **int** type is the most versatile and efficient type, and it should be used most of the time when you want to create a number for counting or indexing arrays or doing integer math. It may seem that using **short** or **byte** will save space, but there is no guarantee that Java won't promote those types to **int** internally anyway. Remember, type determines behavior, not size. (The only exception is arrays, where **byte** is guaranteed to use only one byte per array element, **short** will use two bytes, and **int** will use four.)

floating-point types and operators. There are two kinds of floating-point types, **float** and **double**, which represent single- and double-precision numbers, respectively. Their width and ranges are shown here:

Name	Width in Bits	Approximate Range
double	64	4.9e–324 to 1.8e+308
float	32	1.4e–045 to 3.4e+038

Each of these floating-point types is examined next.

float

The type **float** specifies a *single-precision* value that uses 32 bits of storage. Single precision is faster on some processors and takes half as much space as double precision, but will become imprecise when the values are either very large or very small. Variables of type **float** are useful when you need a fractional component, but don't require a large degree of precision. For example, **float** can be useful when representing dollars and cents.

Here are some example **float** variable declarations:

```
float hightemp, lowtemp;
```

double

Double precision, as denoted by the **double** keyword, uses 64 bits to store a value. Double precision is actually faster than single precision on some modern processors that have been optimized for high-speed mathematical calculations. All transcendental math functions, such as **sin( )**, **cos( )**, and **sqrt( )**, return **double** values. When you need to maintain accuracy over many iterative calculations, or are manipulating large-valued numbers, **double** is the best choice.

Here is a short program that uses **double** variables to compute the area of a circle:

```
// Compute the area of a circle.
class Area {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    double pi, r, a;

    r = 10.8; // radius of circle
    pi = 3.1416; // pi, approximately
    a = pi * r * r; // compute area
```

This program displays the following output:

```
ch1 and ch2: X Y
```

Notice that **ch1** is assigned the value 88, which is the ASCII (and Unicode) value that corresponds to the letter *X*. As mentioned, the ASCII character set occupies the first 127 values in the Unicode character set. For this reason, all the “old tricks” that you have used with characters in the past will work in Java, too.

Even though **char**s are not integers, in many cases you can operate on them as if they were integers. This allows you to add two characters together, or to increment the value of a character variable. For example, consider the following program:

```
// char variables behave like integers.
class CharDemo2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    char ch1;

    ch1 = 'X';
    System.out.println("ch1 contains " + ch1);

    ch1++; // increment ch1
    System.out.println("ch1 is now " + ch1);
  }
}
```

The output generated by this program is shown here:

```
ch1 contains X
ch1 is now Y
```

In the program, **ch1** is first given the value *X*. Next, **ch1** is incremented. This results in **ch1** containing *Y*, the next character in the ASCII (and Unicode) sequence.

Booleans

Java has a simple type, called **boolean**, for logical values. It can have only one of two possible values, **true** or **false**. This is the type returned by all relational operators, such as **a < b**. **boolean** is also the type *required* by the conditional expressions that govern the control statements such as **if** and **for**.

Here is a program that demonstrates the **boolean** type:

A Closer Look at Literals

Literals were mentioned briefly in Chapter 2. Now that the built-in types have been formally described, let's take a closer look at them.

Integer Literals

Integers are probably the most commonly used type in the typical program. Any whole number value is an integer literal. Examples are 1, 2, 3, and 42. These are all decimal values, meaning they are describing a base 10 number. There are two other bases which can be used in integer literals, *octal* (base eight) and *hexadecimal* (base 16). Octal values are denoted in Java by a leading zero. Normal decimal numbers cannot have a leading zero. Thus, the seemingly valid value 09 will produce an error from the compiler, since 9 is outside of octal's 0 to 7 range. A more common base for numbers used by programmers is hexadecimal, which matches cleanly with modulo 8 word sizes, such as 8, 16, 32, and 64 bits. You signify a hexadecimal constant with a leading zero-x, (**0x** or **0X**). The range of a hexadecimal digit is 0 to 15, so *A* through *F* (or *a* through *f*) are substituted for 10 through 15.

Integer literals create an **int** value, which in Java is a 32-bit integer value. Since Java is strongly typed, you might be wondering how it is possible to assign an integer literal to one of Java's other integer types, such as **byte** or **long**, without causing a type mismatch error. Fortunately, such situations are easily handled. When a literal value is assigned to a **byte** or **short** variable, no error is generated if the literal value is within the range of the target type. Also, an integer literal can always be assigned to a **long** variable. However, to specify a **long** literal, you will need to explicitly tell the compiler that the literal value is of type **long**. You do this by appending an upper- or lowercase *L* to the literal. For example, 0x7fffffffffffffffL or 9223372036854775807L is the largest **long**.

Floating-Point Literals

Floating-point numbers represent decimal values with a fractional component. They can be expressed in either standard or scientific notation. *Standard notation* consists of a whole number component followed by a decimal point followed by a fractional component. For example, 2.0, 3.14159, and 0.6667 represent valid standard-notation floating-point numbers. *Scientific notation* uses a standard-notation, floating-point number plus a suffix that specifies a power of 10 by which the number is to be multiplied. The exponent is indicated by an *E* or *e* followed by a decimal number, which can be positive or negative. Examples include 6.022E23, 314159E–05, and 2e+100.

Floating-point literals in Java default to **double** precision. To specify a **float** literal, you must append an *F* or *f* to the constant. You can also explicitly specify a **double** literal by appending a *D* or *d*. Doing so is, of course, redundant. The default **double** type consumes 64 bits of storage, while the less-accurate **float** type requires only 32 bits.

String Literals

String literals in Java are specified like they are in most other languages—by enclosing a sequence of characters between a pair of double quotes. Examples of string literals are

```
"Hello World"
"two\nlines"
"\"This is in quotes\""
```

The escape sequences and octal/hexadecimal notations that were defined for character literals work the same way inside of string literals. One important thing to note about Java strings is that they must begin and end on the same line. There is no line-continuation escape sequence as there is in other languages.

Note *As you may know, in some other languages, including C/C++, strings are implemented as arrays of characters. However, this is not the case in Java. Strings are actually object types. As you will see later in this book, because Java implements strings as objects, Java includes extensive string-handling capabilities that are both powerful and easy to use.*

Variables

The variable is the basic unit of storage in a Java program. A variable is defined by the combination of an identifier, a type, and an optional initializer. In addition, all variables have a scope, which defines their visibility, and a lifetime. These elements are examined next.

Declaring a Variable

In Java, all variables must be declared before they can be used. The basic form of a variable declaration is shown here:

type identifier [= *value*][, *identifier* [= *value*] ...] ;

The *type* is one of Java's atomic types, or the name of a class or interface. (Class and interface types are discussed later in Part I of this book.) The *identifier* is the name of the variable. You can initialize the variable by specifying an equal sign and a value. Keep in mind that the initialization expression must result in a value of the same (or compatible) type as that specified for the variable. To declare more than one variable of the specified type, use a comma-separated list.

The Scope and Lifetime of Variables

So far, all of the variables used have been declared at the start of the **main( )** method. However, Java allows variables to be declared within any block. As explained in Chapter 2, a block is begun with an opening curly brace and ended by a closing curly brace. A block defines a *scope.* Thus, each time you start a new block, you are creating a new scope. As you probably know from your previous programming experience, a scope determines what objects are visible to other parts of your program. It also determines the lifetime of those objects.

Most other computer languages define two general categories of scopes: global and local. However, these traditional scopes do not fit well with Java's strict, object-oriented model. While it is possible to create what amounts to being a global scope, it is by far the exception, not the rule. In Java, the two major scopes are those defined by a class and those defined by a method. Even this distinction is somewhat artificial. However, since the class scope has several unique properties and attributes that do not apply to the scope defined by a method, this distinction makes some sense. Because of the differences, a discussion of class scope (and variables declared within it) is deferred until Chapter 6, when classes are described. For now, we will only examine the scopes defined by or within a method.

The scope defined by a method begins with its opening curly brace. However, if that method has parameters, they too are included within the method's scope. Although this book will look more closely at parameters in Chapter 5, for the sake of this discussion, they work the same as any other method variable.

As a general rule, variables declared inside a scope are not visible (that is, accessible) to code that is defined outside that scope. Thus, when you declare a variable within a scope, you are localizing that variable and protecting it from unauthorized access and/or modification. Indeed, the scope rules provide the foundation for encapsulation.

Scopes can be nested. For example, each time you create a block of code, you are creating a new, nested scope. When this occurs, the outer scope encloses the inner scope. This means that objects declared in the outer scope will be visible to code within the inner scope. However, the reverse is not true. Objects declared within the inner scope will not be visible outside it.

To understand the effect of nested scopes, consider the following program:

```
// Demonstrate block scope.
class Scope {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x; // known to all code within main

    x = 10;
    if(x == 10) { // start new scope
```

```
// Demonstrate lifetime of a variable.
class LifeTime {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x;

    for(x = 0; x < 3; x++) {
      int y = -1; // y is initialized each time block is entered
      System.out.println("y is: " + y); // this always prints -1
      y = 100;
      System.out.println("y is now: " + y);
    }
  }
}
```

The output generated by this program is shown here:

```
y is: -1
y is now: 100
y is: -1
y is now: 100
y is: -1
y is now: 100
```

As you can see, **y** is always reinitialized to –1 each time the inner **for** loop is entered. Even though it is subsequently assigned the value 100, this value is lost.

One last point: Although blocks can be nested, you cannot declare a variable to have the same name as one in an outer scope. In this regard, Java differs from C and C++. Here is an example that tries to declare two separate variables with the same name. In Java, this is illegal. In C/C++, it would be legal and the two **bar**s would be separate.

```
// This program will not compile
class ScopeErr {
   public static void main(String args[]) {
     int bar = 1;
     {              // creates a new scope
       int bar = 2; // Compile-time error – bar already defined!
     }
   }
}
```

than the range of a **byte**, it will be reduced modulo (the remainder of an integer division by the) **byte**'s range.

```
int a;
byte b;
// ...
b = (byte) a;
```

A different type of conversion will occur when a floating-point value is assigned to an integer type: *truncation*. As you know, integers do not have fractional components. Thus, when a floating-point value is assigned to an integer type, the fractional component is lost. For example, if the value 1.23 is assigned to an integer, the resulting value will simply be 1. The 0.23 will have been truncated. Of course, if the size of the whole number component is too large to fit into the target integer type, then that value will be reduced modulo the target type's range.

The following program demonstrates some type conversions that require casts:

```
// Demonstrate casts.
class Conversion {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    byte b;
    int i = 257;
    double d = 323.142;

    System.out.println("\nConversion of int to byte.");
    b = (byte) i;
    System.out.println("i and b " + i + " " + b);

    System.out.println("\nConversion of double to int.");
    i = (int) d;
    System.out.println("d and i " + d + " " + i);

    System.out.println("\nConversion of double to byte.");
    b = (byte) d;
    System.out.println("d and b " + d + " " + b);
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

The code is attempting to store 50 * 2, a perfectly valid **byte** value, back into a **byte** variable. However, because the operands were automatically promoted to **int** when the expression was evaluated, the result has also been promoted to **int**. Thus, the result of the expression is now of type **int**, which cannot be assigned to a **byte** without the use of a cast. This is true even if, as in this particular case, the value being assigned would still fit in the target type.

In cases where you understand the consequences of overflow, you should use an explicit cast, such as

```
byte b = 50;
b = (byte)(b * 2);
```

which yields the correct value of 100.

The Type Promotion Rules

In addition to the elevation of **byte**s and **short**s to **int**, Java defines several *type promotion rules* that apply to expressions. They are as follows. First, all **byte** and **short** values are promoted to **int**, as just described. Then, if one operand is a **long**, the whole expression is promoted to **long**. If one operand is a **float,** the entire expression is promoted to **float**. If any of the operands is **double**, the result is **double**.

The following program demonstrates how each value in the expression gets promoted to match the second argument to each binary operator:

```
class Promote {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    byte b = 42;
    char c = 'a';
    short s = 1024;
    int i = 50000;
    float f = 5.67f;
    double d = .1234;
    double result = (f * b) + (i / c) - (d * s);
    System.out.println((f * b) + " + " + (i / c) + " - " + (d * s));
    System.out.println("result = " + result);
  }
}
```

Let's look closely at the type promotions that occur in this line from the program:

you must allocate one using **new** and assign it to **month_days**. **new** is a special operator that allocates memory.

You will look more closely at **new** in a later chapter, but you need to use it now to allocate memory for arrays. The general form of **new** as it applies to one-dimensional arrays appears as follows:

array-var = new *type*[*size*];

Here, *type* specifies the type of data being allocated, *size* specifies the number of elements in the array, and *array-var* is the array variable that is linked to the array. That is, to use **new** to allocate an array, you must specify the type and number of elements to allocate. The elements in the array allocated by **new** will automatically be initialized to zero. This example allocates a 12-element array of integers and links them to **month_days**.

```
month_days = new int[12];
```

After this statement executes, **month_days** will refer to an array of 12 integers. Further, all elements in the array will be initialized to zero.

Let's review: Obtaining an array is a two-step process. First, you must declare a variable of the desired array type. Second, you must allocate the memory that will hold the array, using **new**, and assign it to the array variable. Thus, in Java all arrays are dynamically allocated. If the concept of dynamic allocation is unfamiliar to you, don't worry. It will be described at length later in this book.

Once you have allocated an array, you can access a specific element in the array by specifying its index within square brackets. All array indexes start at zero. For example, this statement assigns the value 28 to the second element of **month_days**.

```
month_days[1] = 28;
```

The next line displays the value stored at index 3.

```
System.out.println(month_days[3]);
```

Putting together all the pieces, here is a program that creates an array of the number of days in each month.

```
// Demonstrate a one-dimensional array.
class Array {
    int month_days[] = { 31, 28, 31, 30, 31, 30, 31, 31, 30, 31,
                         30, 31 };
    System.out.println("April has " + month_days[3] + " days.");
  }
}
```

When you run this program, you see the same output as that generated by the previous version.

Java strictly checks to make sure you do not accidentally try to store or reference values outside of the range of the array. The Java run-time system will check to be sure that all array indexes are in the correct range. (In this regard, Java is fundamentally different from C/C++, which provide no run-time boundary checks.) For example, the run-time system will check the value of each index into **month_days** to make sure that it is between 0 and 11 inclusive. If you try to access elements outside the range of the array (negative numbers or numbers greater than the length of the array), you will cause a run-time error.

Here is one more example that uses a one-dimensional array. It finds the average of a set of numbers.

```
// Average an array of values.
class Average {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    double nums[] = {10.1, 11.2, 12.3, 13.4, 14.5};
    double result = 0;
    int i;

    for(i=0; i<5; i++)
      result = result + nums[i];

    System.out.println("Average is " + result / 5);
  }
}
```

Multidimensional Arrays

In Java, *multidimensional arrays* are actually arrays of arrays. These, as you might expect, look and act like regular multidimensional arrays. However, as you will see, The following program numbers each element in the array from left to right, top to bottom, and then displays these values:

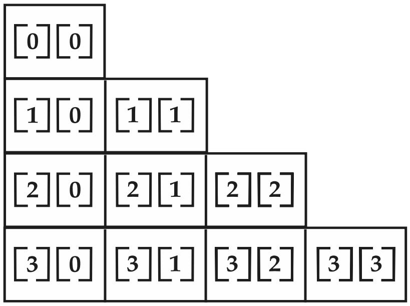
```
// Demonstrate a two-dimensional array.
class TwoDArray {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int twoD[][]= new int[4][5];
    int i, j, k = 0;

    for(i=0; i<4; i++)
      for(j=0; j<5; j++) {
        twoD[i][j] = k;
        k++;

     }

    for(i=0; i<4; i++) {
      for(j=0; j<5; j++)
        System.out.print(twoD[i][j] + " ");
      System.out.println();
    }
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
0 1 2 3 4
5 6 7 8 9
10 11 12 13 14
15 16 17 18 19
```

When you allocate memory for a multidimensional array, you need only specify the memory for the first (leftmost) dimension. You can allocate the remaining dimensions separately. For example, this following code allocates memory for the first dimension of **twoD** when it is declared. It allocates the second dimension manually.

```
int twoD[][] = new int[4][];
twoD[0] = new int[5];
twoD[1] = new int[5];
twoD[2] = new int[5];
twoD[3] = new int[5];
```



The use of uneven (or, irregular) multidimensional arrays is not recommended for most applications, because it runs contrary to what people expect to find when a multidimensional array is encountered. However, it can be used effectively in some situations. For example, if you need a very large two-dimensional array that is sparsely populated (that is, one in which not all of the elements will be used), then an irregular array might be a perfect solution.

It is possible to initialize multidimensional arrays. To do so, simply enclose each dimension's initializer within its own set of curly braces. The following program creates a matrix where each element contains the product of the row and column indexes. Also notice that you can use expressions as well as literal values inside of array initializers.

```
// Initialize a two-dimensional array.
class Matrix {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    double m[][] = {
      { 0*0, 1*0, 2*0, 3*0 },
      { 0*1, 1*1, 2*1, 3*1 },
      { 0*2, 1*2, 2*2, 3*2 },
      { 0*3, 1*3, 2*3, 3*3 }
    };
    int i, j;

    for(i=0; i<4; i++) {
      for(j=0; j<4; j++)
        System.out.print(m[i][j] + " ");
      System.out.println();
    }
  }
}
```

```
0 0 0 0 0
0 1 2 3 4
0 2 4 6 8
0 3 6 9 12

0 0 0 0 0
0 2 4 6 8
0 4 8 12 16
0 6 12 18 24
```

Alternative Array Declaration Syntax

There is a second form that may be used to declare an array:

type[ ] *var-name;*

Here, the square brackets follow the type specifier, and not the name of the array variable. For example, the following two declarations are equivalent:

```
int al[] = new int[3];
int[] a2 = new int[3];
```

The following declarations are also equivalent:

```
char twod1[][] = new char[3][4];
char[][] twod2 = new char[3][4];
```

This alternative declaration form is included as a convenience, and is also useful when specifying an array as a return type for a method.

A Few Words About Strings

As you may have noticed, in the preceding discussion of data types and arrays there has been no mention of strings or a string data type. This is not because Java does not support such a type—it does. It is just that Java's string type, called **String**, is not a simple type. Nor is it simply an array of characters (as are strings in C/C++). Rather, **String** defines an object, and a full description of it requires an understanding of several object-related features. As such, it will be covered later in this book, after objects are described. However, so that you can use simple strings in example programs, the following brief introduction is in order.

The **String** type is used to declare string variables. You can also declare arrays of strings. A quoted string constant can be assigned to a **String** variable. A variable

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Java provides a rich operator environment. Most of its operators can be divided into the following four groups: arithmetic, bitwise, relational, and logical. Java also defines some additional operators that handle certain special situations. This chapter describes all of Java's operators except for the type comparison operator **instanceof**, which is examined in Chapter 12.

Note *If you are familiar with C/C++/C#, then you will be pleased to know that most operators in Java work just like they do in those languages. However, there are some subtle differences, so a careful reading is advised.*

Arithmetic Operators

Arithmetic operators are used in mathematical expressions in the same way that they are used in algebra. The following table lists the arithmetic operators:

Operator	Result
+	Addition
–	Subtraction (also unary minus)
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulus
++	Increment
+=	Addition assignment
–=	Subtraction assignment
*=	Multiplication assignment
/=	Division assignment
%=	Modulus assignment
– –	Decrement

The operands of the arithmetic operators must be of a numeric type. You cannot use them on **boolean** types, but you can use them on **char** types, since the **char** type in Java is, essentially, a subset of **int**.

The Basic Arithmetic Operators

The basic arithmetic operations—addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division—all behave as you would expect for all numeric types. The minus operator also has a unary form which negates its single operand. Remember that when the division

```
d = -1
e = 1

Floating Point Arithmetic
da = 2.0
db = 6.0
dc = 1.5
dd = -0.5
de = 0.5
```

The Modulus Operator

The modulus operator, %, returns the remainder of a division operation. It can be applied to floating-point types as well as integer types. (This differs from C/C++, in which the % can only be applied to integer types.) The following example program demonstrates the %:

```
// Demonstrate the % operator.
class Modulus {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int x = 42;
    double y = 42.25;

    System.out.println("x mod 10 = " + x % 10);
    System.out.println("y mod 10 = " + y % 10);
  }
}
```

When you run this program you will get the following output:

```
x mod 10 = 2
y mod 10 = 2.25
```

Arithmetic Assignment Operators

Java provides special operators that can be used to combine an arithmetic operation with an assignment. As you probably know, statements like the following are quite common in programming:

```
a = a + 4;
```

In Java, you can rewrite this statement as shown here:

```
      c += a * b;
      c %= 6;
      System.out.println("a = " + a);
      System.out.println("b = " + b);
      System.out.println("c = " + c);
    }
  }
```

The output of this program is shown here:

```
a = 6
b = 8
c = 3
```

Increment and Decrement

The ++ and the – – are Java's increment and decrement operators. They were introduced in Chapter 2. Here they will be discussed in detail. As you will see, they have some special properties that make them quite interesting. Let's begin by reviewing precisely what the increment and decrement operators do.

The increment operator increases its operand by one. The decrement operator decreases its operand by one. For example, this statement:

```
x = x + 1;
```

can be rewritten like this by use of the increment operator:

```
x++;
```

Similarly, this statement:

```
x = x - 1;
```

is equivalent to

```
x--;
```

```
    int d;
    c = ++b;
    d = a++;
    c++;
    System.out.println("a = " + a);
    System.out.println("b = " + b);
    System.out.println("c = " + c);
    System.out.println("d = " + d);
  }
}
```

The output of this program follows:

```
a = 2
b = 3
c = 4
d = 1
```

The Bitwise Operators

Java defines several *bitwise operators* which can be applied to the integer types, **long**, **int**, **short**, **char**, and **byte**. These operators act upon the individual bits of their operands. They are summarized in the following table:

Operator	**Result**
~	Bitwise unary NOT
&	Bitwise AND
|	Bitwise OR
^	Bitwise exclusive OR
>>	Shift right
>>>	Shift right zero fill
<<	Shift left
&=	Bitwise AND assignment
|=	Bitwise OR assignment

The Bitwise Logical Operators

The bitwise logical operators are **&**, **|**, **^**, and **~**. The following table shows the outcome of each operation. In the discussion that follows, keep in mind that the bitwise operators are applied to each individual bit within each operand.

A	B	A | B	A & B	A ^ B	~A
0	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0

The Bitwise NOT

Also called the *bitwise complement,* the unary NOT operator, **~**, inverts all of the bits of its operand. For example, the number 42, which has the following bit pattern:

```
  00101010
```

becomes

```
  11010101
```

after the NOT operator is applied.

The Bitwise AND

The AND operator, **&**, produces a 1 bit if both operands are also 1. A zero is produced in all other cases. Here is an example:

```
   00101010    42
  &00001111    15
  --------------
   00001010    10
```

The Bitwise OR

The OR operator, **|**, combines bits such that if either of the bits in the operands is a 1, then the resultant bit is a 1, as shown here:

```
   00101010    42
  | 00001111    15
  --------------
   00101111    47
```

In this example, **a** and **b** have bit patterns which present all four possibilities for two binary digits: 0-0, 0-1, 1-0, and 1-1. You can see how the **|** and **&** operate on each bit by the results in **c** and **d**. The values assigned to **e** and **f** are the same and illustrate how the **^** works. The string array named **binary** holds the human-readable, binary representation of the numbers 0 through 15. In this example, the array is indexed to show the binary representation of each result. The array is constructed such that the correct string representation of a binary value **n** is stored in **binary[n]**. The value of **~a** is ANDed with **0x0f** (0000 1111 in binary) in order to reduce its value to less than 16, so it can be printed by use of the **binary** array. Here is the output from this program:

```
        a = 0011
        b = 0110
      a|b = 0111
      a&b = 0010
      a^b = 0101
~a&b|a&~b = 0101
       ~a = 1100
```

The Left Shift

The left shift operator, **<<**, shifts all of the bits in a value to the left a specified number of times. It has this general form:

value << *num*

Here, *num* specifies the number of positions to left-shift the value in *value.* That is, the **<<** moves all of the bits in the specified value to the left by the number of bit positions specified by *num.* For each shift left, the high-order bit is shifted out (and lost), and a zero is brought in on the right. This means that when a left shift is applied to an **int** operand, bits are lost once they are shifted past bit position 31. If the operand is a **long**, then bits are lost after bit position 63.

Java's automatic type promotions produce unexpected results when you are shifting **byte** and **short** values. As you know, **byte** and **short** values are promoted to **int** when an expression is evaluated. Furthermore, the result of such an expression is also an **int**. This means that the outcome of a left shift on a **byte** or **short** value will be an **int**, and the bits shifted left will not be lost until they shift past bit position 31. Furthermore, a negative **byte** or **short** value will be sign-extended when it is promoted to **int**. Thus, the high-order bits will be filled with 1's. For these reasons, to perform a left shift on a **byte** or **short** implies that you must discard the high-order bytes of the **int** result. For example, if you left-shift a **byte** value, that value will first be promoted to **int** and then shifted. This means that you must discard the top three bytes of the result if what you want is the result of a shifted **byte** value. The easiest way to do this is to simply cast the result back into a **byte**. The following program demonstrates this concept:

The program generates the following output:

```
536870908
1073741816
2147483632
-32
```

The starting value was carefully chosen so that after being shifted left 4 bit positions, it would produce –32. As you can see, when a 1 bit is shifted into bit 31, the number is interpreted as negative.

The Right Shift

The right shift operator, **>>**, shifts all of the bits in a value to the right a specified number of times. Its general form is shown here:

value >> *num*

Here, *num* specifies the number of positions to right-shift the value in *value*. That is, the **>>** moves all of the bits in the specified value to the right the number of bit positions specified by *num*.

The following code fragment shifts the value 32 to the right by two positions, resulting in **a** being set to 8:

```
int a = 32;
a = a >> 2; // a now contains 8
```

When a value has bits that are "shifted off," those bits are lost. For example, the next code fragment shifts the value 35 to the right two positions, which causes the two low-order bits to be lost, resulting again in **a** being set to 8.

```
int a = 35;
a = a >> 2; // a still contains 8
```

Looking at the same operation in binary shows more clearly how this happens:

```
00100011    35
>> 2
00001000     8
```

sometimes this is undesirable. For example, if you are shifting something that does not represent a numeric value, you may not want sign extension to take place. This situation is common when you are working with pixel-based values and graphics. In these cases you will generally want to shift a zero into the high-order bit no matter what its initial value was. This is known as an *unsigned shift*. To accomplish this, you will use Java's unsigned, shift-right operator, **>>>**, which always shifts zeros into the high-order bit.

The following code fragment demonstrates the **>>>**. Here, **a** is set to –1, which sets all 32 bits to 1 in binary. This value is then shifted right 24 bits, filling the top 24 bits with zeros, ignoring normal sign extension. This sets **a** to 255.

```
int a = -1;
a = a >>> 24;
```

Here is the same operation in binary form to further illustrate what is happening:

```
11111111 11111111 11111111 11111111    –1  in binary as an int
>>>24
00000000 00000000 00000000 11111111   255  in binary as an int
```

The **>>>** operator is often not as useful as you might like, since it is only meaningful for 32- and 64-bit values. Remember, smaller values are automatically promoted to **int** in expressions. This means that sign-extension occurs and that the shift will take place on a 32-bit rather than on an 8- or 16-bit value. That is, one might expect an unsigned right shift on a **byte** value to zero-fill beginning at bit 7. But this is not the case, since it is a 32-bit value that is actually being shifted. The following program demonstrates this effect:

```
// Unsigned shifting a byte value.
class ByteUShift {
  static public void main(String args[]) {
    char hex[] = {
      '0', '1', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',
      '8', '9', 'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f'
    };
    byte b = (byte) 0xf1;
    byte c = (byte) (b >> 4);
    byte d = (byte) (b >>> 4);
    byte e = (byte) ((b & 0xff) >> 4);
```

The following program creates a few integer variables and then uses the shorthand form of bitwise operator assignments to manipulate the variables:

```
class OpBitEquals {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int a = 1;
    int b = 2;
    int c = 3;

    a |= 4;
    b >>= 1;
    c <<= 1;
    a ^= c;
    System.out.println("a = " + a);
    System.out.println("b = " + b);
    System.out.println("c = " + c);
  }
}
```

The output of this program is shown here:

```
a = 3
b = 1
c = 6
```

Relational Operators

The *relational operators* determine the relationship that one operand has to the other. Specifically, they determine equality and ordering. The relational operators are shown here:

Operator	Result
==	Equal to
!=	Not equal to
>	Greater than

Boolean Logical Operators

The Boolean logical operators shown here operate only on **boolean** operands. All of the binary logical operators combine two **boolean** values to form a resultant **boolean** value.

Operator	Result
&	Logical AND
|	Logical OR
^	Logical XOR (exclusive OR)
||	Short-circuit OR
&&	Short-circuit AND
!	Logical unary NOT
&=	AND assignment
|=	OR assignment
^=	XOR assignment
==	Equal to
!=	Not equal to
?:	Ternary if-then-else

The logical Boolean operators, **&**, **|**, and **^**, operate on **boolean** values in the same way that they operate on the bits of an integer. The logical **!** operator inverts the Boolean state: **!true == false** and **!false == true**. The following table shows the effect of each logical operation:

A	B	A | B	A & B	A ^ B	!A
False	False	False	False	False	True
True	False	True	False	True	False
False	True	True	False	True	True
True	True	True	True	False	False

Here is a program that is almost the same as the **BitLogic** example shown earlier, but it operates on **boolean** logical values instead of binary bits:

operator results in **false** when **A** is **false**, no matter what **B** is. If you use the || and **&&** forms, rather than the | and **&** forms of these operators, Java will not bother to evaluate the right-hand operand when the outcome of the expression can be determined by the left operand alone. This is very useful when the right-hand operand depends on the left one being **true** or **false** in order to function properly. For example, the following code fragment shows how you can take advantage of short-circuit logical evaluation to be sure that a division operation will be valid before evaluating it:

```
if (denom != 0 && num / denom > 10)
```

Since the short-circuit form of AND (**&&**) is used, there is no risk of causing a run-time exception when **denom** is zero. If this line of code were written using the single **&** version of AND, both sides would have to be evaluated, causing a run-time exception when **denom** is zero.

It is standard practice to use the short-circuit forms of AND and OR in cases involving Boolean logic, leaving the single-character versions exclusively for bitwise operations. However, there are exceptions to this rule. For example, consider the following statement:

```
if(c==1 & e++ < 100) d = 100;
```

Here, using a single **&** ensures that the increment operation will be applied to **e** whether **c** is equal to 1 or not.

The Assignment Operator

You have been using the assignment operator since Chapter 2. Now it is time to take a formal look at it. The *assignment operator* is the single equal sign, **=**. The assignment operator works in Java much as it does in any other computer language. It has this general form:

var = expression;

Here, the type of *var* must be compatible with the type of *expression.*

The assignment operator does have one interesting attribute that you may not be familiar with: it allows you to create a chain of assignments. For example, consider this fragment:

```
    int i, k;

    i = 10;
    k = i < 0 ? -i : i; // get absolute value of i
    System.out.print("Absolute value of ");
    System.out.println(i + " is " + k);

    i = -10;
    k = i < 0 ? -i : i; // get absolute value of i
    System.out.print("Absolute value of ");
    System.out.println(i + " is " + k);
  }
}
```

The output generated by the program is shown here:

```
Absolute value of 10 is 10
Absolute value of -10 is 10
```

Operator Precedence

Table 4-1 shows the order of precedence for Java operators, from highest to lowest. Notice that the first row shows items that you may not normally think of as operators: parentheses, square brackets, and the dot operator. Parentheses are used to alter the precedence of an operation. As you know from the previous chapter, the square brackets provide array indexing. The dot operator is used to dereference objects and will be discussed later in this book.

Using Parentheses

Parentheses raise the precedence of the operations that are inside them. This is often necessary to obtain the result you desire. For example, consider the following expression:

```
a >> b + 3
```

In addition to altering the normal precedence of an operator, parentheses can sometimes be used to help clarify the meaning of an expression. For anyone reading your code, a complicated expression can be difficult to understand. Adding redundant but clarifying parentheses to complex expressions can help prevent confusion later. For example, which of the following expressions is easier to read?

```
a | 4 + c >> b & 7
(a | (((4 + c) >> b) & 7))
```

One other point: parentheses (redundant or not) do not degrade the performance of your program. Therefore, adding parentheses to reduce ambiguity does not negatively affect your program.

A programming language uses *control* statements to cause the flow of execution to advance and branch based on changes to the state of a program. Java's program control statements can be put into the following categories: selection, iteration, and jump. *Selection* statements allow your program to choose different paths of execution based upon the outcome of an expression or the state of a variable. *Iteration* statements enable program execution to repeat one or more statements (that is, iteration statements form loops). *Jump* statements allow your program to execute in a nonlinear fashion. All of Java's control statements are examined here.

Note *If you know C/C++/C#, then Java's control statements will be familiar territory. In fact, Java's control statements are nearly identical to those in those languages. However, there are a few differences—especially in the* ***break*** *and* ***continue*** *statements.*

Java's Selection Statements

Java supports two selection statements: **if** and **switch**. These statements allow you to control the flow of your program's execution based upon conditions known only during run time. You will be pleasantly surprised by the power and flexibility contained in these two statements.

if

The **if** statement was introduced in Chapter 2. It is examined in detail here. The **if** statement is Java's conditional branch statement. It can be used to route program execution through two different paths. Here is the general form of the **if** statement:

if (*condition*) *statement1*;
else *statement2*;

Here, each *statement* may be a single statement or a compound statement enclosed in curly braces (that is, a *block*). The *condition* is any expression that returns a **boolean** value. The **else** clause is optional.

The **if** works like this: If the *condition* is true, then *statement1* is executed. Otherwise, *statement2* (if it exists) is executed. In no case will both statements be executed. For example, consider the following:

```
int a, b;
// ...
if(a < b) a = 0;
else b = 0;
```

It seems clear that the statement **bytesAvailable = n;** was intended to be executed inside the **else** clause, because of the indentation level. However, as you recall, whitespace is insignificant to Java, and there is no way for the compiler to know what was intended. This code will compile without complaint, but it will behave incorrectly when run. The preceding example is fixed in the code that follows:

```
int bytesAvailable;
// ...
if (bytesAvailable > 0) {
  ProcessData();
  bytesAvailable -= n;
} else {
  waitForMoreData();
  bytesAvailable = n;
}
```

Nested ifs

A *nested* **if** is an **if** statement that is the target of another **if** or **else**. Nested **if**s are very common in programming. When you nest **if**s, the main thing to remember is that an **else** statement always refers to the nearest **if** statement that is within the same block as the **else** and that is not already associated with an **else**. Here is an example:

```
if(i == 10) {
  if(j < 20) a = b;
  if(k > 100) c = d; // this if is
  else a = c;        // associated with this else
}
else a = d;          // this else refers to if(i == 10)
```

As the comments indicate, the final **else** is not associated with **if(j<20)**, because it is not in the same block (even though it is the nearest **if** without an **else**). Rather, the final **else** is associated with **if(i==10)**. The inner **else** refers to **if(k>100)**, because it is the closest **if** within the same block.

The if-else-if Ladder

A common programming construct that is based upon a sequence of nested **if**s is the ***if-else-if*** *ladder*. It looks like this:

```
 if(condition)
  statement;
else if(condition)
```

You might want to experiment with this program before moving on. As you will find, no matter what value you give **month**, one and only one assignment statement within the ladder will be executed.

switch

The **switch** statement is Java's multiway branch statement. It provides an easy way to dispatch execution to different parts of your code based on the value of an expression. As such, it often provides a better alternative than a large series of **if-else-if** statements. Here is the general form of a **switch** statement:

```
switch (expression) {
  case value1:
     // statement sequence
    break;
  case value2:
     // statement sequence
    break;
.
.
.
  case valueN:
     // statement sequence
    break;
  default:
     // default statement sequence
}
```

The *expression* must be of type **byte**, **short**, **int**, or **char**; each of the *values* specified in the **case** statements must be of a type compatible with the expression. Each **case** value must be a unique literal (that is, it must be a constant, not a variable). Duplicate **case** values are not allowed.

The **switch** statement works like this: The value of the expression is compared with each of the literal values in the **case** statements. If a match is found, the code sequence following that **case** statement is executed. If none of the constants matches the value of the expression, then the **default** statement is executed. However, the **default** statement is optional. If no **case** matches and no **default** is present, then no further action is taken.

The **break** statement is used inside the **switch** to terminate a statement sequence. When a **break** statement is encountered, execution branches to the first line of code that follows the entire **switch** statement. This has the effect of "jumping out" of the **switch**.

Here is a simple example that uses a **switch** statement:

```
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    for(int i=0; i<12; i++)
      switch(i) {
        case 0:
        case 1:
        case 2:
        case 3:
        case 4:
          System.out.println("i is less than 5");
          break;
        case 5:
        case 6:
        case 7:
        case 8:
        case 9:
          System.out.println("i is less than 10");
          break;
        default:
          System.out.println("i is 10 or more");
      }
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
i is less than 5
i is less than 5
i is less than 5
i is less than 5
i is less than 5
i is less than 10
i is less than 10
i is less than 10
i is less than 10
i is less than 10
i is 10 or more
i is 10 or more
```

Nested switch Statements

You can use a **switch** as part of the statement sequence of an outer **switch**. This is called a *nested* **switch**. Since a **switch** statement defines its own block, no conflicts arise between the **case** constants in the inner **switch** and those in the outer **switch**. For example, the following fragment is perfectly valid:

```
switch(count) {
  case 1:
    switch(target) { // nested switch
      case 0:
        System.out.println("target is zero");
        break;
      case 1: // no conflicts with outer switch
        System.out.println("target is one");
        break;
    }
    break;
  case 2: // ...
```

Here, the **case 1:** statement in the inner switch does not conflict with the **case 1:** statement in the outer switch. The **count** variable is only compared with the list of cases at the outer level. If **count** is 1, then **target** is compared with the inner list cases.

In summary, there are three important features of the **switch** statement to note:

- The **switch** differs from the **if** in that **switch** can only test for equality, whereas **if** can evaluate any type of Boolean expression. That is, the **switch** looks only for a match between the value of the expression and one of its **case** constants.
- No two **case** constants in the same **switch** can have identical values. Of course, a **switch** statement enclosed by an outer **switch** can have **case** constants in common.
- A **switch** statement is usually more efficient than a set of nested **if**s.

The last point is particularly interesting because it gives insight into how the Java compiler works. When it compiles a **switch** statement, the Java compiler will inspect each of the **case** constants and create a “jump table” that it will use for selecting the path of execution depending on the value of the expression. Therefore, if you need to select among a large group of values, a **switch** statement will run much faster than the equivalent logic coded using a sequence of **if-else**s. The compiler can do this because it knows that the **case** constants are all the same type and simply must be compared for equality with the **switch** expression. The compiler has no such knowledge of a long list of **if** expressions.

```
tick 3
tick 2
tick 1
```

Since the **while** loop evaluates its conditional expression at the top of the loop, the body of the loop will not execute even once if the condition is false to begin with. For example, in the following fragment, the call to **println( )** is never executed:

```
int a = 10, b = 20;

while(a > b)
  System.out.println("This will not be displayed");
```

The body of the **while** (or any other of Java's loops) can be empty. This is because a *null statement* (one that consists only of a semicolon) is syntactically valid in Java. For example, consider the following program:

```
// The target of a loop can be empty.
class NoBody {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int i, j;

    i = 100;
    j = 200;

    // find midpoint between i and j
    while(++i < --j) ; // no body in this loop

    System.out.println("Midpoint is " + i);
  }
}
```

This program finds the midpoint between **i** and **j**. It generates the following output:

```
Midpoint is 150
```

Here is how the **while** loop works. The value of **i** is incremented, and the value of **j** is decremented. These values are then compared with one another. If the new value of **i** is still less than the new value of **j**, then the loop repeats. If **i** is equal to or greater than **j**, the loop stops. Upon exit from the loop, **i** will hold a value that is midway between the original values of **i** and **j**. (Of course, this procedure only works when **i** is less than **j**

In this example, the expression **(– –n > 0)** combines the decrement of **n** and the test for zero into one expression. Here is how it works. First, the – –n statement executes, decrementing **n** and returning the new value of **n**. This value is then compared with zero. If it is greater than zero, the loop continues; otherwise it terminates.

The **do-while** loop is especially useful when you process a menu selection, because you will usually want the body of a menu loop to execute at least once. Consider the following program which implements a very simple help system for Java's selection and iteration statements:

```
// Using a do-while to process a menu selection
class Menu {
  public static void main(String args[])
    throws java.io.IOException {
    char choice;

    do {
      System.out.println("Help on:");
      System.out.println("  1. if");
      System.out.println("  2. switch");
      System.out.println("  3. while");
      System.out.println("  4. do-while");
      System.out.println("  5. for\n");
      System.out.println("Choose one:");
      choice = (char) System.in.read();
    } while( choice < '1' || choice > '5');

    System.out.println("\n");

    switch(choice) {
      case '1':
        System.out.println("The if:\n");
        System.out.println("if(condition) statement;");
        System.out.println("else statement;");
        break;
      case '2':
```

In the program, the **do-while** loop is used to verify that the user has entered a valid choice. If not, then the user is reprompted. Since the menu must be displayed at least once, the **do-while** is the perfect loop to accomplish this.

A few other points about this example: Notice that characters are read from the keyboard by calling **System.in.read( )**. This is one of Java's console input functions. Although Java's console I/O methods won't be discussed in detail until Chapter 12, **System.in.read( )** is used here to obtain the user's choice. It reads characters from standard input (returned as integers, which is why the return value was cast to **char**). By default, standard input is line buffered, so you must press ENTER before any characters that you type will be sent to your program.

Java's console input is quite limited and awkward to work with. Further, most real-world Java programs and applets will be graphical and window-based. For these reasons, not much use of console input has been made in this book. However, it is useful in this context. One other point: Because **System.in.read( )** is being used, the program must specify the **throws java.io.IOException** clause. This line is necessary to handle input errors. It is part of Java's exception handling features, which are discussed in Chapter 10.

for

You were introduced to a simple form of the **for** loop in Chapter 2. As you will see, it is a powerful and versatile construct. Here is the general form of the **for** statement:

```
for(initialization; condition; iteration) {
  // body
}
```

If only one statement is being repeated, there is no need for the curly braces.

The **for** loop operates as follows. When the loop first starts, the *initialization* portion of the loop is executed. Generally, this is an expression that sets the value of the *loop control variable,* which acts as a counter that controls the loop. It is important to understand that the initialization expression is only executed once. Next, *condition* is evaluated. This must be a Boolean expression. It usually tests the loop control variable against a target value. If this expression is true, then the body of the loop is executed. If it is false, the loop terminates. Next, the *iteration* portion of the loop is executed. This is usually an expression that increments or decrements the loop control variable. The loop then iterates, first evaluating the conditional expression, then executing the body of the loop, and then executing the iteration expression with each pass. This process repeats until the controlling expression is false.

Here is a version of the "tick" program that uses a **for** loop:

```
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int num;
    boolean isPrime = true;

    num = 14;
    for(int i=2; i <= num/2; i++) {
      if((num % i) == 0) {
        isPrime = false;
        break;
      }
    }
    if(isPrime) System.out.println("Prime");
    else System.out.println("Not Prime");
  }
}
```

Using the Comma

There will be times when you will want to include more than one statement in the initialization and iteration portions of the **for** loop. For example, consider the loop in the following program:

```
class Sample {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int a, b;

    b = 4;
    for(a=1; a<b; a++) {
      System.out.println("a = " + a);
      System.out.println("b = " + b);
      b--;
    }
  }
}
```

As you can see, the loop is controlled by the interaction of two variables. Since the loop is governed by two variables, it would be useful if both could be included in the **for** statement, itself, instead of **b** being handled manually. Fortunately, Java provides a way to accomplish this. To allow two or more variables to control a **for** loop, Java permits you to include multiple statements in both the initialization and iteration portions of the **for**. Each statement is separated from the next by a comma.

```
    // ...
    if(interrupted()) done = true;
  }
```

In this example, the **for** loop continues to run until the **boolean** variable **done** is set to **true**. It does not test the value of **i**.

Here is another interesting **for** loop variation. Either the initialization or the iteration expression or both may be absent, as in this next program:

```
// Parts of the for loop can be empty.
class ForVar {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int i;
    boolean done = false;

    i = 0;
    for( ; !done; ) {
      System.out.println("i is " + i);
      if(i == 10) done = true;
      i++;
    }
  }
}
```

Here, the initialization and iteration expressions have been moved out of the **for**. Thus, parts of the **for** are empty. While this is of no value in this simple example—indeed, it would be considered quite poor style—there can be times when this type of approach makes sense. For example, if the initial condition is set through a complex expression elsewhere in the program or if the loop control variable changes in a nonsequential manner determined by actions that occur within the body of the loop, it may be appropriate to leave these parts of the **for** empty.

Here is one more **for** loop variation. You can intentionally create an infinite loop (a loop that never terminates) if you leave all three parts of the **for** empty. For example:

```
for( ; ; ) {
  // ...
}
```

This loop will run forever, because there is no condition under which it will terminate. Although there are some programs, such as operating system command processors,

Note *In addition to the jump statements discussed here, Java supports one other way that you can change your program's flow of execution: through exception handling. Exception handling provides a structured method by which run-time errors can be trapped and handled by your program. It is supported by the keywords **try**, **catch**, **throw**, **throws**, and **finally**. In essence, the exception handling mechanism allows your program to perform a nonlocal branch. Since exception handling is a large topic, it is discussed in its own chapter, Chapter 10.*

Using break

In Java, the **break** statement has three uses. First, as you have seen, it terminates a statement sequence in a **switch** statement. Second, it can be used to exit a loop. Third, it can be used as a "civilized" form of goto. The last two uses are explained here.

Using break to Exit a Loop

By using **break**, you can force immediate termination of a loop, bypassing the conditional expression and any remaining code in the body of the loop. When a **break** statement is encountered inside a loop, the loop is terminated and program control resumes at the next statement following the loop. Here is a simple example:

```
// Using break to exit a loop.
class BreakLoop {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    for(int i=0; i<100; i++) {
      if(i == 10) break; // terminate loop if i is 10
      System.out.println("i: " + i);
    }
    System.out.println("Loop complete.");
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
i: 0
i: 1
i: 2
i: 3
i: 4
i: 5
i: 6
i: 7
i: 8
```

This program generates the following output:

```
Pass 0: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Pass 1: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Pass 2: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Loops complete.
```

As you can see, the **break** statement in the inner loop only causes termination of that loop. The outer loop is unaffected.

Here are two other points to remember about **break**. First, more than one **break** statement may appear in a loop. However, be careful. Too many **break** statements have the tendency to destructure your code. Second, the **break** that terminates a **switch** statement affects only that **switch** statement and not any enclosing loops.

Remember ***break*** *was not designed to provide the normal means by which a loop is terminated. The loop's conditional expression serves this purpose. The* ***break*** *statement should be used to cancel a loop only when some sort of special situation occurs.*

Using break as a Form of Goto

In addition to its uses with the **switch** statement and loops, the **break** statement can also be employed by itself to provide a "civilized" form of the goto statement. Java does not have a goto statement, because it provides a way to branch in an arbitrary and unstructured manner. This usually makes goto-ridden code hard to understand and hard to maintain. It also prohibits certain compiler optimizations. There are, however, a few places where the goto is a valuable and legitimate construct for flow control. For example, the goto can be useful when you are exiting from a deeply nested set of loops. To handle such situations, Java defines an expanded form of the **break** statement. By using this form of **break**, you can break out of one or more blocks of code. These blocks need not be part of a loop or a **switch**. They can be any block. Further, you can specify precisely where execution will resume, because this form of **break** works with a label. As you will see, **break** gives you the benefits of a goto without its problems.

The general form of the labeled **break** statement is shown here:

break *label*;

Here, *label* is the name of a label that identifies a block of code. When this form of **break** executes, control is transferred out of the named block of code. The labeled block of code must enclose the **break** statement, but it does not need to be the immediately enclosing block. This means that you can use a labeled **break** statement to exit from a set of nested blocks. But you cannot use **break** to transfer control to a block of code that does not enclose the **break** statement.

```
      }
       System.out.println("This will not print");
     }
     System.out.println("Loops complete.");
   }
 }
```

This program generates the following output:

```
Pass 0: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Loops complete.
```

As you can see, when the inner loop breaks to the outer loop, both loops have been terminated.

Keep in mind that you cannot break to any label which is not defined for an enclosing block. For example, the following program is invalid and will not compile:

```
// This program contains an error.
class BreakErr {
  public static void main(String args[]) {

    one: for(int i=0; i<3; i++) {
      System.out.print("Pass " + i + ": ");
    }

    for(int j=0; j<100; j++) {
      if(j == 10) break one; // WRONG
      System.out.print(j + " ");
    }
  }
}
```

Since the loop labeled **one** does not enclose the **break** statement, it is not possible to transfer control to that block.

Using continue

Sometimes it is useful to force an early iteration of a loop. That is, you might want to continue running the loop, but stop processing the remainder of the code in its body for this particular iteration. This is, in effect, a goto just past the body of the loop, to the loop's end. The **continue** statement performs such an action. In **while** and **do-while** loops, a **continue** statement causes control to be transferred directly to the conditional expression that controls the loop. In a **for** loop, control goes first to the iteration portion

The **continue** statement in this example terminates the loop counting **j** and continues with the next iteration of the loop counting **i**. Here is the output of this program:

```
0
0 1
0 2 4
0 3 6 9
0 4 8 12 16
0 5 10 15 20 25
0 6 12 18 24 30 36
0 7 14 21 28 35 42 49
0 8 16 24 32 40 48 56 64
0 9 18 27 36 45 54 63 72 81
```

Good uses of **continue** are rare. One reason is that Java provides a rich set of loop statements which fit most applications. However, for those special circumstances in which early iteration is needed, the **continue** statement provides a structured way to accomplish it.

return

The last control statement is **return**. The **return** statement is used to explicitly return from a method. That is, it causes program control to transfer back to the caller of the method. As such, it is categorized as a jump statement. Although a full discussion of **return** must wait until methods are discussed in Chapter 7, a brief look at **return** is presented here.

At any time in a method the **return** statement can be used to cause execution to branch back to the caller of the method. Thus, the **return** statement immediately terminates the method in which it is executed. The following example illustrates this point. Here, **return** causes execution to return to the Java run-time system, since it is the run-time system that calls **main( )**.

```
// Demonstrate return.
class Return {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    boolean t = true;
```

This page intentionally left blank.

The class is at the core of Java. It is the logical construct upon which the entire Java language is built because it defines the shape and nature of an object. As such, the class forms the basis for object-oriented programming in Java. Any concept you wish to implement in a Java program must be encapsulated within a class.

Because the class is so fundamental to Java, this and the next few chapters will be devoted to it. Here, you will be introduced to the basic elements of a class and learn how a class can be used to create objects. You will also learn about methods, constructors, and the **this** keyword.

Class Fundamentals

Classes have been used since the beginning of this book. However, until now, only the most rudimentary form of a class has been used. The classes created in the preceding chapters primarily exist simply to encapsulate the **main( )** method, which has been used to demonstrate the basics of the Java syntax. As you will see, classes are substantially more powerful than the limited ones presented so far.

Perhaps the most important thing to understand about a class is that it defines a new data type. Once defined, this new type can be used to create objects of that type. Thus, a class is a *template* for an object, and an object is an *instance* of a class. Because an object is an instance of a class, you will often see the two words *object* and *instance* used interchangeably.

The General Form of a Class

When you define a class, you declare its exact form and nature. You do this by specifying the data that it contains and the code that operates on that data. While very simple classes may contain only code or only data, most real-world classes contain both. As you will see, a class' code defines the interface to its data.

A class is declared by use of the **class** keyword. The classes that have been used up to this point are actually very limited examples of its complete form. Classes can (and usually do) get much more complex. The general form of a **class** definition is shown here:

```
class classname {
  type instance-variable1;
  type instance-variable2;
  // ...
  type instance-variableN;

  type methodname1(parameter-list) {
        // body of method
  }
  type methodname2(parameter-list) {
        // body of method
```

that a **class** declaration only creates a template; it does not create an actual object. Thus, the preceding code does not cause any objects of type **Box** to come into existence.

To actually create a **Box** object, you will use a statement like the following:

```
Box mybox = new Box(); // create a Box object called mybox
```

After this statement executes, **mybox** will be an instance of **Box**. Thus, it will have "physical" reality. For the moment, don't worry about the details of this statement.

Again, each time you create an instance of a class, you are creating an object that contains its own copy of each instance variable defined by the class. Thus, every **Box** object will contain its own copies of the instance variables **width**, **height**, and **depth**. To access these variables, you will use the *dot* (.) operator. The dot operator links the name of the object with the name of an instance variable. For example, to assign the **width** variable of **mybox** the value 100, you would use the following statement:

```
mybox.width = 100;
```

This statement tells the compiler to assign the copy of **width** that is contained within the **mybox** object the value of 100. In general, you use the dot operator to access both the instance variables and the methods within an object.

Here is a complete program that uses the **Box** class:

```
/* A program that uses the Box class.

   Call this file BoxDemo.java
*/
class Box {
  double width;
  double height;
  double depth;
}

// This class declares an object of type Box.
class BoxDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Box mybox = new Box();
    double vol;

    // assign values to mybox's instance variables
    mybox.width = 10;
    double vol;

    // assign values to mybox1's instance variables
    mybox1.width = 10;
    mybox1.height = 20;
    mybox1.depth = 15;

    /* assign different values to mybox2's
       instance variables */
    mybox2.width = 3;
    mybox2.height = 6;
    mybox2.depth = 9;

    // compute volume of first box
    vol = mybox1.width * mybox1.height * mybox1.depth;
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

    // compute volume of second box
    vol = mybox2.width * mybox2.height * mybox2.depth;
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
  }
}
```

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
Volume is 3000.0
Volume is 162.0
```

As you can see, **mybox1**'s data is completely separate from the data contained in **mybox2**.

Declaring Objects

As just explained, when you create a class, you are creating a new data type. You can use this type to declare objects of that type. However, obtaining objects of a class is a two-step process. First, you must declare a variable of the class type. This variable does not define an object. Instead, it is simply a variable that can *refer* to an object. Second, you must acquire an actual, physical copy of the object and assign it to that variable. You can do this using the **new** operator. The **new** operator dynamically allocates (that is, allocates at run time) memory for an object and returns a reference to it. This reference is, more or less, the address in memory of the object allocated by **new**.

Note *Those readers familiar with C/C++ have probably noticed that object references appear to be similar to pointers. This suspicion is, essentially, correct. An object reference is similar to a memory pointer. The main difference—and the key to Java's safety—is that you cannot manipulate references as you can actual pointers. Thus, you cannot cause an object reference to point to an arbitrary memory location or manipulate it like an integer.*

A Closer Look at new

As just explained, the **new** operator dynamically allocates memory for an object. It has this general form:

class-var = new *classname*( );

Here, *class-var* is a variable of the class type being created. The *classname* is the name of the class that is being instantiated. The class name followed by parentheses specifies the *constructor* for the class. A constructor defines what occurs when an object of a class is created. Constructors are an important part of all classes and have many significant attributes. Most real-world classes explicitly define their own constructors within their class definition. However, if no explicit constructor is specified, then Java will automatically supply a default constructor. This is the case with **Box**. For now, we will use the default constructor. Soon, you will see how to define your own constructors.

At this point, you might be wondering why you do not need to use **new** for such things as integers or characters. The answer is that Java's simple types are not implemented as objects. Rather, they are implemented as "normal" variables. This is done in the interest of efficiency. As you will see, objects have many features and attributes that require Java to treat them differently than it treats the simple types. By not applying the same overhead to the simple types that applies to objects, Java can implement the simple types more efficiently. Later, you will see object versions of the simple types that are available for your use in those situations in which complete objects of these types are needed.

It is important to understand that **new** allocates memory for an object during run time. The advantage of this approach is that your program can create as many or as few objects as it needs during the execution of your program. However, since memory is finite, it is possible that **new** will not be able to allocate memory for an object because insufficient memory exists. If this happens, a run-time exception will occur. (You will learn how to handle this and other exceptions in Chapter 10.) For the sample programs in this book, you won't need to worry about running out of memory, but you will need to consider this possibility in real-world programs that you write.

Let's once again review the distinction between a class and an object. A class creates a new data type that can be used to create objects. That is, a class creates a logical framework that defines the relationship between its members. When you declare an object of a class, you are creating an instance of that class. Thus, a class is a logical construct. An object has physical reality. (That is, an object occupies space in memory.) It is important to keep this distinction clearly in mind.

Introducing Methods

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, classes usually consist of two things: instance variables and methods. The topic of methods is a large one because Java gives them so much power and flexibility. In fact, much of the next chapter is devoted to methods. However, there are some fundamentals that you need to learn now so that you can begin to add methods to your classes.

This is the general form of a method:

```
type name(parameter-list) {
  // body of method
}
```

Here, *type* specifies the type of data returned by the method. This can be any valid type, including class types that you create. If the method does not return a value, its return type must be **void**. The name of the method is specified by *name.* This can be any legal identifier other than those already used by other items within the current scope. The *parameter-list* is a sequence of type and identifier pairs separated by commas. Parameters are essentially variables that receive the value of the *arguments* passed to the method when it is called. If the method has no parameters, then the parameter list will be empty.

Methods that have a return type other than **void** return a value to the calling routine using the following form of the **return** statement:

```
return value;
```

Here, *value* is the value returned.

In the next few sections, you will see how to create various types of methods, including those that take parameters and those that return values.

Adding a Method to the Box Class

Although it is perfectly fine to create a class that contains only data, it rarely happens. Most of the time you will use methods to access the instance variables defined by the class. In fact, methods define the interface to most classes. This allows the class implementor to hide the specific layout of internal data structures behind cleaner method abstractions. In addition to defining methods that provide access to data, you can also define methods that are used internally by the class itself.

Let's begin by adding a method to the **Box** class. It may have occurred to you while looking at the preceding programs that the computation of a box's volume was something that was best handled by the **Box** class rather than the **BoxDemo** class. After

```
Volume is 3000.0
Volume is 162.0
```

Look closely at the following two lines of code:

```
mybox1.volume();
mybox2.volume();
```

The first line here invokes the **volume( )** method on **mybox1**. That is, it calls **volume( )** relative to the **mybox1** object, using the object's name followed by the dot operator. Thus, the call to **mybox1.volume( )** displays the volume of the box defined by **mybox1**, and the call to **mybox2.volume( )** displays the volume of the box defined by **mybox2**. Each time **volume( )** is invoked, it displays the volume for the specified box.

If you are unfamiliar with the concept of calling a method, the following discussion will help clear things up. When **mybox1.volume( )** is executed, the Java run-time system transfers control to the code defined inside **volume( )**. After the statements inside **volume( )** have executed, control is returned to the calling routine, and execution resumes with the line of code following the call. In the most general sense, a method is Java's way of implementing subroutines.

There is something very important to notice inside the **volume( )** method: the instance variables **width**, **height**, and **depth** are referred to directly, without preceding them with an object name or the dot operator. When a method uses an instance variable that is defined by its class, it does so directly, without explicit reference to an object and without use of the dot operator. This is easy to understand if you think about it. A method is always invoked relative to some object of its class. Once this invocation has occurred, the object is known. Thus, within a method, there is no need to specify the object a second time. This means that **width**, **height**, and **depth** inside **volume( )** implicitly refer to the copies of those variables found in the object that invokes **volume( )**.

Let's review: When an instance variable is accessed by code that is not part of the class in which that instance variable is defined, it must be done through an object, by use of the dot operator. However, when an instance variable is accessed by code that is part of the same class as the instance variable, that variable can be referred to directly. The same thing applies to methods.

Returning a Value

While the implementation of **volume( )** does move the computation of a box's volume inside the **Box** class where it belongs, it is not the best way to do it. For example, what if another part of your program wanted to know the volume of a box, but not display its value? A better way to implement **volume( )** is to have it compute the volume of the box and return the result to the caller. The following example, an improved version of the preceding program, does just that:

As you can see, when **volume( )** is called, it is put on the right side of an assignment statement. On the left is a variable, in this case **vol**, that will receive the value returned by **volume( )**. Thus, after

```
vol = mybox1.volume();
```

executes, the value of **mybox1.volume( )** is 3,000 and this value then is stored in **vol**.

There are two important things to understand about returning values:

- The type of data returned by a method must be compatible with the return type specified by the method. For example, if the return type of some method is **boolean**, you could not return an integer.
- The variable receiving the value returned by a method (such as **vol**, in this case) must also be compatible with the return type specified for the method.

One more point: The preceding program can be written a bit more efficiently because there is actually no need for the **vol** variable. The call to **volume( )** could have been used in the **println( )** statement directly, as shown here:

```
System.out.println("Volume is " + mybox1.volume());
```

In this case, when **println( )** is executed, **mybox1.volume( )** will be called automatically and its value will be passed to **println( )**.

Adding a Method That Takes Parameters

While some methods don't need parameters, most do. Parameters allow a method to be generalized. That is, a parameterized method can operate on a variety of data and/or be used in a number of slightly different situations. To illustrate this point, let's use a very simple example. Here is a method that returns the square of the number 10:

```
int square()
{
  return 10 * 10;
}
```

While this method does, indeed, return the value of 10 squared, its use is very limited. However, if you modify the method so that it takes a parameter, as shown next, then you can make **square( )** much more useful.

Thus, a better approach to setting the dimensions of a box is to create a method that takes the dimension of a box in its parameters and sets each instance variable appropriately. This concept is implemented by the following program:

```
// This program uses a parameterized method.

class Box {
  double width;
  double height;
  double depth;

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }

  // sets dimensions of box
  void setDim(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }
}

class BoxDemo5 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Box mybox1 = new Box();
    Box mybox2 = new Box();
    double vol;

    // initialize each box
    mybox1.setDim(10, 20, 15);
    mybox2.setDim(3, 6, 9);

    // get volume of first box
    vol = mybox1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

    // get volume of second box
    vol = mybox2.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
  }
}
```

```
  double depth;

  // This is the constructor for Box.
  Box() {
    System.out.println("Constructing Box");
    width = 10;
    height = 10;
    depth = 10;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}

class BoxDemo6 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    // declare, allocate, and initialize Box objects
    Box mybox1 = new Box();
    Box mybox2 = new Box();

    double vol;

    // get volume of first box
    vol = mybox1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

    // get volume of second box
    vol = mybox2.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
  }
}
```

When this program is run, it generates the following results:

```
Constructing Box
Constructing Box
Volume is 1000.0
Volume is 1000.0
```

```
  // This is the constructor for Box.
  Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}

class BoxDemo7 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    // declare, allocate, and initialize Box objects
    Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);
    Box mybox2 = new Box(3, 6, 9);

    double vol;

    // get volume of first box
    vol = mybox1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

    // get volume of second box
    vol = mybox2.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
  }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
Volume is 3000.0
Volume is 162.0
```

As you can see, each object is initialized as specified in the parameters to its constructor. For example, in the following line,

Box( ), which uses **width**, **height**, and **depth** for parameter names and then uses **this** to access the instance variables by the same name:

```
// Use this to resolve name-space collisions.
Box(double width, double height, double depth) {
  this.width = width;
  this.height = height;
  this.depth = depth;
}
```

A word of caution: The use of **this** in such a context can sometimes be confusing, and some programmers are careful not to use local variables and formal parameter names that hide instance variables. Of course, other programmers believe the contrary—that it is a good convention to use the same names for clarity, and use **this** to overcome the instance variable hiding. It is a matter of taste which approach you adopt.

Although **this** is of no significant value in the examples just shown, it is very useful in certain situations.

Garbage Collection

Since objects are dynamically allocated by using the **new** operator, you might be wondering how such objects are destroyed and their memory released for later reallocation. In some languages, such as C++, dynamically allocated objects must be manually released by use of a **delete** operator. Java takes a different approach; it handles deallocation for you automatically. The technique that accomplishes this is called *garbage collection.* It works like this: when no references to an object exist, that object is assumed to be no longer needed, and the memory occupied by the object can be reclaimed. There is no explicit need to destroy objects as in C++. Garbage collection only occurs sporadically (if at all) during the execution of your program. It will not occur simply because one or more objects exist that are no longer used. Furthermore, different Java run-time implementations will take varying approaches to garbage collection, but for the most part, you should not have to think about it while writing your programs.

The finalize( ) Method

Sometimes an object will need to perform some action when it is destroyed. For example, if an object is holding some non-Java resource such as a file handle or window character font, then you might want to make sure these resources are freed before an object is destroyed. To handle such situations, Java provides a mechanism or how the data is actually managed within the class. In a sense, a class is like a "data engine." No knowledge of what goes on inside the engine is required to use the engine through its controls. In fact, since the details are hidden, its inner workings can be changed as needed. As long as your code uses the class through its methods, internal details can change without causing side effects outside the class.

To see a practical application of the preceding discussion, let's develop one of the archetypal examples of encapsulation: the stack. A *stack* stores data using first-in, last-out ordering. That is, a stack is like a stack of plates on a table—the first plate put down on the table is the last plate to be used. Stacks are controlled through two operations traditionally called *push* and *pop.* To put an item on top of the stack, you will use push. To take an item off the stack, you will use pop. As you will see, it is easy to encapsulate the entire stack mechanism.

Here is a class called **Stack** that implements a stack for integers:

```
// This class defines an integer stack that can hold 10 values.
class Stack {
  int stck[] = new int[10];
  int tos;

  // Initialize top-of-stack
  Stack() {
    tos = -1;
  }

  // Push an item onto the stack
  void push(int item) {
    if(tos==9)
      System.out.println("Stack is full.");
    else
      stck[++tos] = item;
  }

  // Pop an item from the stack
  int pop() {
    if(tos < 0) {
      System.out.println("Stack underflow.");
      return 0;
    }
    else
      return stck[tos--];
  }
}
```

```
1
0
Stack in mystack2:
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
```

As you can see, the contents of each stack are separate.

One last point about the **Stack** class. As it is currently implemented, it is possible for the array that holds the stack, **stck**, to be altered by code outside of the **Stack** class. This leaves **Stack** open to misuse or mischief. In the next chapter, you will see how to remedy this situation.

This chapter continues the discussion of methods and classes begun in the preceding chapter. It examines several topics relating to methods, including overloading, parameter passing, and recursion. The chapter then returns to the class, discussing access control, the use of the keyword **static**, and one of Java's most important built-in classes: **String**.

Overloading Methods

In Java it is possible to define two or more methods within the same class that share the same name, as long as their parameter declarations are different. When this is the case, the methods are said to be *overloaded,* and the process is referred to as *method overloading.* Method overloading is one of the ways that Java implements polymorphism. If you have never used a language that allows the overloading of methods, then the concept may seem strange at first. But as you will see, method overloading is one of Java's most exciting and useful features.

When an overloaded method is invoked, Java uses the type and/or number of arguments as its guide to determine which version of the overloaded method to actually call. Thus, overloaded methods must differ in the type and/or number of their parameters. While overloaded methods may have different return types, the return type alone is insufficient to distinguish two versions of a method. When Java encounters a call to an overloaded method, it simply executes the version of the method whose parameters match the arguments used in the call.

Here is a simple example that illustrates method overloading:

```
// Demonstrate method overloading.
class OverloadDemo {
  void test() {
    System.out.println("No parameters");
  }

  // Overload test for one integer parameter.
  void test(int a) {
    System.out.println("a: " + a);
  }

  // Overload test for two integer parameters.
  void test(int a, int b) {
    System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);
  }

  // overload test for a double parameter
  double test(double a) {
    System.out.println("No parameters");
  }

  // Overload test for two integer parameters.
  void test(int a, int b) {
    System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);
  }

  // overload test for a double parameter
  void test(double a) {
    System.out.println("Inside test(double) a: " + a);
  }
}

class Overload {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    OverloadDemo ob = new OverloadDemo();
    int i = 88;

    ob.test();
    ob.test(10, 20);

    ob.test(i); // this will invoke test(double)
    ob.test(123.2); // this will invoke test(double)
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
No parameters
a and b: 10 20
Inside test(double) a: 88
Inside test(double) a: 123.2
```

As you can see, this version of **OverloadDemo** does not define **test(int)**. Therefore, when **test( )** is called with an integer argument inside **Overload**, no matching method is found. However, Java can automatically convert an integer into a **double**, and this conversion can be used to resolve the call. Therefore, after **test(int)** is not found, Java elevates **i** to **double** and then calls **test(double)**. Of course, if **test(int)** had been defined,

```
class Box {
  double width;
  double height;
  double depth;

  // This is the constructor for Box.
  Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}
```

As you can see, the **Box( )** constructor requires three parameters. This means that all declarations of **Box** objects must pass three arguments to the **Box( )** constructor. For example, the following statement is currently invalid:

```
Box ob = new Box();
```

Since **Box( )** requires three arguments, it's an error to call it without them. This raises some important questions. What if you simply wanted a box and did not care (or know) what its initial dimensions were? Or, what if you want to be able to initialize a cube by specifying only one value that would be used for all three dimensions? As the **Box** class is currently written, these other options are not available to you.

Fortunately, the solution to these problems is quite easy: simply overload the **Box** constructor so that it handles the situations just described. Here is a program that contains an improved version of **Box** that does just that:

```
/* Here, Box defines three constructors to initialize
   the dimensions of a box various ways.
*/
class Box {
  double width;
  double height;
  double depth;
```

```
    // get volume of cube
    vol = mycube.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of mycube is " + vol);
  }
}
```

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
Volume of mybox1 is 3000.0
Volume of mybox2 is -1.0
Volume of mycube is 343.0
```

As you can see, the proper overloaded constructor is called based upon the parameters specified when **new** is executed.

Using Objects as Parameters

So far we have only been using simple types as parameters to methods. However, it is both correct and common to pass objects to methods. For example, consider the following short program:

```
// Objects may be passed to methods.
class Test {
  int a, b;

  Test(int i, int j) {
    a = i;
    b = j;
  }

  // return true if o is equal to the invoking object
  boolean equals(Test o) {
    if(o.a == a && o.b == b) return true;
    else return false;
  }
}

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

```
  // constructor used when all dimensions specified
  Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }

  // constructor used when no dimensions specified
  Box() {
    width = -1;  // use -1 to indicate
    height = -1; // an uninitialized
    depth = -1;  // box
  }

  // constructor used when cube is created
  Box(double len) {
    width = height = depth = len;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}

class OverloadCons2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    // create boxes using the various constructors
    Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);
    Box mybox2 = new Box();
    Box mycube = new Box(7);

    Box myclone = new Box(mybox1);

    double vol;

    // get volume of first box
    vol = mybox1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of mybox1 is " + vol);
```

```
class CallByValue {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Test ob = new Test();

    int a = 15, b = 20;

    System.out.println("a and b before call: " +
                       a + " " + b);

    ob.meth(a, b);

    System.out.println("a and b after call: " +
                       a + " " + b);
  }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
a and b before call: 15 20
a and b after call: 15 20
```

As you can see, the operations that occur inside **meth( )** have no effect on the values of **a** and **b** used in the call; their values here did not change to 30 and 10.

When you pass an object to a method, the situation changes dramatically, because objects are passed by reference. Keep in mind that when you create a variable of a class type, you are only creating a reference to an object. Thus, when you pass this reference to a method, the parameter that receives it will refer to the same object as that referred to by the argument. This effectively means that objects are passed to methods by use of call-by-reference. Changes to the object inside the method *do* affect the object used as an argument. For example, consider the following program:

```
// Objects are passed by reference.

class Test {
  int a, b;

  Test(int i, int j) {
    a = i;
    b = j;
  }
```

Returning Objects

A method can return any type of data, including class types that you create. For example, in the following program, the **incrByTen( )** method returns an object in which the value of **a** is ten greater than it is in the invoking object.

```
// Returning an object.
class Test {
  int a;

  Test(int i) {
    a = i;
  }

  Test incrByTen() {
    Test temp = new Test(a+10);
    return temp;
  }
}

class RetOb {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Test ob1 = new Test(2);
    Test ob2;

    ob2 = ob1.incrByTen();
    System.out.println("ob1.a: " + ob1.a);
    System.out.println("ob2.a: " + ob2.a);

    ob2 = ob2.incrByTen();
    System.out.println("ob2.a after second increase: "
                       + ob2.a);
  }
}
```

The output generated by this program is shown here:

```
ob1.a: 2
ob2.a: 12
ob2.a after second increase: 22
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
Factorial of 3 is 6
Factorial of 4 is 24
Factorial of 5 is 120
```

If you are unfamiliar with recursive methods, then the operation of **fact( )** may seem a bit confusing. Here is how it works. When **fact( )** is called with an argument of 1, the function returns 1; otherwise it returns the product of **fact(n–1)*n**. To evaluate this expression, **fact( )** is called with **n–1**. This process repeats until **n** equals 1 and the calls to the method begin returning.

To better understand how the **fact( )** method works, let's go through a short example. When you compute the factorial of 3, the first call to **fact( )** will cause a second call to be made with an argument of 2. This invocation will cause **fact( )** to be called a third time with an argument of 1. This call will return 1, which is then multiplied by 2 (the value of **n** in the second invocation). This result (which is 2) is then returned to the original invocation of **fact( )** and multiplied by 3 (the original value of **n**). This yields the answer, 6. You might find it interesting to insert **println( )** statements into **fact( )** which will show at what level each call is and what the intermediate answers are.

When a method calls itself, new local variables and parameters are allocated storage on the stack, and the method code is executed with these new variables from the start. A recursive call does not make a new copy of the method. Only the arguments are new. As each recursive call returns, the old local variables and parameters are removed from the stack, and execution resumes at the point of the call inside the method. Recursive methods could be said to "telescope" out and back.

Recursive versions of many routines may execute a bit more slowly than the iterative equivalent because of the added overhead of the additional function calls. Many recursive calls to a method could cause a stack overrun. Because storage for parameters and local variables is on the stack and each new call creates a new copy of these variables, it is possible that the stack could be exhausted. If this occurs, the Java run-time system will cause an exception. However, you probably will not have to worry about this unless a recursive routine runs wild.

The main advantage to recursive methods is that they can be used to create clearer and simpler versions of several algorithms than can their iterative relatives. For example, the QuickSort sorting algorithm is quite difficult to implement in an iterative way. Some problems, especially AI-related ones, seem to lend themselves to recursive solutions. Finally, some people seem to think recursively more easily than iteratively.

When writing recursive methods, you must have an **if** statement somewhere to force the method to return without the recursive call being executed. If you don't do this, once you call the method, it will never return. This is a very common error in working with recursion. Use **println( )** statements liberally during development so that

```
[7] 7
[8] 8
[9] 9
```

Introducing Access Control

As you know, encapsulation links data with the code that manipulates it. However, encapsulation provides another important attribute: *access control.* Through encapsulation, you can control what parts of a program can access the members of a class. By controlling access, you can prevent misuse. For example, allowing access to data only through a well-defined set of methods, you can prevent the misuse of that data. Thus, when correctly implemented, a class creates a "black box" which may be used, but the inner workings of which are not open to tampering. However, the classes that were presented earlier do not completely meet this goal. For example, consider the **Stack** class shown at the end of Chapter 6. While it is true that the methods **push( )** and **pop( )** do provide a controlled interface to the stack, this interface is not enforced. That is, it is possible for another part of the program to bypass these methods and access the stack directly. Of course, in the wrong hands, this could lead to trouble. In this section you will be introduced to the mechanism by which you can precisely control access to the various members of a class.

How a member can be accessed is determined by the *access specifier* that modifies its declaration. Java supplies a rich set of access specifiers. Some aspects of access control are related mostly to inheritance or packages. (A *package* is, essentially, a grouping of classes.) These parts of Java's access control mechanism will be discussed later. Here, let's begin by examining access control as it applies to a single class. Once you understand the fundamentals of access control, the rest will be easy.

Java's access specifiers are **public**, **private**, and **protected**. Java also defines a default access level. **protected** applies only when inheritance is involved. The other access specifiers are described next.

Let's begin by defining **public** and **private**. When a member of a class is modified by the **public** specifier, then that member can be accessed by any other code. When a member of a class is specified as **private**, then that member can only be accessed by other members of its class. Now you can understand why **main( )** has always been preceded by the **public** specifier. It is called by code that is outside the program—that is, by the Java run-time system. When no access specifier is used, then by default the member of a class is public within its own package, but cannot be accessed outside of its package. (Packages are discussed in the following chapter.)

In the classes developed so far, all members of a class have used the default access mode, which is essentially public. However, this is not what you will typically want to be the case. Usually, you will want to restrict access to the data members of a class—allowing access only through methods. Also, there will be times when you will want to define methods which are private to a class.

```
    System.out.println("a, b, and c: " + ob.a + " " +
                       ob.b + " " + ob.getc());
  }
}
```

As you can see, inside the **Test** class, **a** uses default access, which for this example is the same as specifying **public**. **b** is explicitly specified as **public**. Member **c** is given private access. This means that it cannot be accessed by code outside of its class. So, inside the **AccessTest** class, **c** cannot be used directly. It must be accessed through its public methods: **setc( )** and **getc( )**. If you were to remove the comment symbol from the beginning of the following line,

```
//  ob.c = 100; // Error!
```

then you would not be able to compile this program because of the access violation.

To see how access control can be applied to a more practical example, consider the following improved version of the **Stack** class shown at the end of Chapter 6.

```
// This class defines an integer stack that can hold 10 values.
class Stack {
  /* Now, both stck and tos are private.  This means
     that they cannot be accidentally or maliciously
     altered in a way that would be harmful to the stack.
  */
  private int stck[] = new int[10];
  private int tos;

  // Initialize top-of-stack
  Stack() {
    tos = -1;
  }

  // Push an item onto the stack
  void push(int item) {
    if(tos==9)
      System.out.println("Stack is full.");
    else
      stck[++tos] = item;
  }
```

```
    }
  }
```

Although methods will usually provide access to the data defined by a class, this does not always have to be the case. It is perfectly proper to allow an instance variable to be public when there is good reason to do so. For example, most of the simple classes in this book were created with little concern about controlling access to instance variables for the sake of simplicity. However, in most real-world classes, you will need to allow operations on data only through methods. The next chapter will return to the topic of access control. As you will see, it is particularly important when inheritance is involved.

Understanding static

There will be times when you will want to define a class member that will be used independently of any object of that class. Normally a class member must be accessed only in conjunction with an object of its class. However, it is possible to create a member that can be used by itself, without reference to a specific instance. To create such a member, precede its declaration with the keyword **static**. When a member is declared **static**, it can be accessed before any objects of its class are created, and without reference to any object. You can declare both methods and variables to be **static**. The most common example of a **static** member is **main( )**. **main( )** is declared as **static** because it must be called before any objects exist.

Instance variables declared as **static** are, essentially, global variables. When objects of its class are declared, no copy of a **static** variable is made. Instead, all instances of the class share the same **static** variable.

Methods declared as **static** have several restrictions:

- They can only call other **static** methods.
- They must only access **static** data.
- They cannot refer to **this** or **super** in any way. (The keyword **super** relates to inheritance and is described in the next chapter.)

If you need to do computation in order to initialize your **static** variables, you can declare a **static** block which gets executed exactly once, when the class is first loaded. The following example shows a class that has a **static** method, some **static** variables, and a **static** initialization block:

```
// Demonstrate static variables, methods, and blocks.
class UseStatic {
```

classname.method( )

Here, *classname* is the name of the class in which the **static** method is declared. As you can see, this format is similar to that used to call non-**static** methods through object- reference variables. A **static** variable can be accessed in the same way—by use of the dot operator on the name of the class. This is how Java implements a controlled version of global methods and global variables.

Here is an example. Inside **main( )**, the **static** method **callme( )** and the **static** variable **b** are accessed outside of their class.

```
class StaticDemo {
  static int a = 42;
  static int b = 99;
  static void callme() {
    System.out.println("a = " + a);
  }
}

class StaticByName {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    StaticDemo.callme();
    System.out.println("b = " + StaticDemo.b);
  }
}
```

Here is the output of this program:

```
a = 42
b = 99
```

Introducing final

A variable can be declared as **final**. Doing so prevents its contents from being modified. This means that you must initialize a **final** variable when it is declared. (In this usage, **final** is similar to **const** in C/C++/C#.) For example:

```
final int FILE_NEW = 1;
final int FILE_OPEN = 2;
final int FILE_SAVE = 3;
final int FILE_SAVEAS = 4;
final int FILE_QUIT = 5;
```

You can put the **length** member to good use in many situations. For example, here is an improved version of the **Stack** class. As you might recall, the earlier versions of this class always created a ten-element stack. The following version lets you create stacks of any size. The value of **stck.length** is used to prevent the stack from overflowing.

```
// Improved Stack class that uses the length array member.
class Stack {
  private int stck[];
  private int tos;

  // allocate and initialize stack
  Stack(int size) {
    stck = new int[size];
    tos = -1;
  }

  // Push an item onto the stack
  void push(int item) {
    if(tos==stck.length-1) // use length member
      System.out.println("Stack is full.");
    else
      stck[++tos] = item;
  }

  // Pop an item from the stack
  int pop() {
    if(tos < 0) {
      System.out.println("Stack underflow.");
      return 0;
    }
    else
      return stck[tos--];
  }
}

class TestStack2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Stack mystack1 = new Stack(5);
    Stack mystack2 = new Stack(8);
  void test() {
    Inner inner = new Inner();
    inner.display();
  }

  // this is an inner class
  class Inner {
    void display() {
      System.out.println("display: outer_x = " + outer_x);
    }
  }
}

class InnerClassDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Outer outer = new Outer();
    outer.test();
  }
}
```

Output from this application is shown here:

```
display: outer_x = 100
```

In the program, an inner class named **Inner** is defined within the scope of class **Outer**. Therefore, any code in class **Inner** can directly access the variable **outer_x**. An instance method named **display( )** is defined inside **Inner**. This method displays **outer_x** on the standard output stream. The **main( )** method of **InnerClassDemo** creates an instance of class **Outer** and invokes its **test( )** method. That method creates an instance of class **Inner** and the **display( )** method is called.

It is important to realize that class **Inner** is known only within the scope of class **Outer**. The Java compiler generates an error message if any code outside of class **Outer** attempts to instantiate class **Inner**. Generalizing, a nested class is no different than any other program element: it is known only within its enclosing scope.

As explained, an inner class has access to all of the members of its enclosing class, but the reverse is not true. Members of the inner class are known only within the scope of the inner class and may not be used by the outer class. For example,

```
  void test() {
    for(int i=0; i<10; i++) {
      class Inner {
        void display() {
          System.out.println("display: outer_x = " + outer_x);
        }
      }
      Inner inner = new Inner();
      inner.display();
    }
  }
}

class InnerClassDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Outer outer = new Outer();
    outer.test();
  }
}
```

The output from this version of the program is shown here.

```
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
```

While nested classes are not used in most day-to-day programming, they are particularly helpful when handling events in an applet. We will return to the topic of nested classes in Chapter 20. There you will see how inner classes can be used to simplify the code needed to handle certain types of events. You will also learn about *anonymous inner classes*, which are inner classes that don't have a name.

One final point: Nested classes were not allowed by the original 1.0 specification for Java. They were added by Java 1.1.

```
// Demonstrating Strings.
class StringDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    String strOb1 = "First String";
    String strOb2 = "Second String";
    String strOb3 = strOb1 + " and " + strOb2;

    System.out.println(strOb1);
    System.out.println(strOb2);
    System.out.println(strOb3);
  }
}
```

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
First String
Second String
First String and Second String
```

The **String** class contains several methods that you can use. Here are a few. You can test two strings for equality by using **equals( )**. You can obtain the length of a string by calling the **length( )** method. You can obtain the character at a specified index within a string by calling **charAt( )**. The general forms of these three methods are shown here:

boolean equals(String *object*)
int length( )
char charAt(int *index*)

Here is a program that demonstrates these methods:

```
// Demonstrating some String methods.
class StringDemo2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    String strOb1 = "First String";
    String strOb2 = "Second String";
    String strOb3 = strOb1;

    System.out.println("Length of strOb1: " +
                       strOb1.length());

    System.out.println("Char at index 3 in strOb1: " +
                       strOb1.charAt(3));
```

Using Command-Line Arguments

Sometimes you will want to pass information into a program when you run it. This is accomplished by passing *command-line arguments* to **main( )**. A command-line argument is the information that directly follows the program's name on the command line when it is executed. To access the command-line arguments inside a Java program is quite easy—they are stored as strings in the **String** array passed to **main( )**. For example, the following program displays all of the command-line arguments that it is called with:

```
// Display all command-line arguments.
class CommandLine {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    for(int i=0; i<args.length; i++)
      System.out.println("args[" + i + "]: " +
                          args[i]);
  }
}
```

Try executing this program, as shown here:

```
java CommandLine this is a test 100 -1
```

When you do, you will see the following output:

```
args[0]: this
args[1]: is
args[2]: a
args[3]: test
args[4]: 100
args[5]: -1
```

Remember *All command-line arguments are passed as strings. You must convert numeric values to their internal forms manually, as explained in Chapter 14.*

Inheritance is one of the cornerstones of object-oriented programming because it allows the creation of hierarchical classifications. Using inheritance, you can create a general class that defines traits common to a set of related items. This class can then be inherited by other, more specific classes, each adding those things that are unique to it. In the terminology of Java, a class that is inherited is called a *superclass.* The class that does the inheriting is called a *subclass.* Therefore, a subclass is a specialized version of a superclass. It inherits all of the instance variables and methods defined by the superclass and adds its own, unique elements.

Inheritance Basics

To inherit a class, you simply incorporate the definition of one class into another by using the **extends** keyword. To see how, let's begin with a short example. The following program creates a superclass called **A** and a subclass called **B**. Notice how the keyword **extends** is used to create a subclass of **A**.

```
// A simple example of inheritance.

// Create a superclass.
class A {
  int i, j;

  void showij() {
    System.out.println("i and j: " + i + " " + j);
  }
}

// Create a subclass by extending class A.
class B extends A {
  int k;

  void showk() {
    System.out.println("k: " + k);
  }
  void sum() {
    System.out.println("i+j+k: " + (i+j+k));
  }
}

class SimpleInheritance {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    A superOb = new A();
```

Even though **A** is a superclass for **B**, it is also a completely independent, stand-alone class. Being a superclass for a subclass does not mean that the superclass cannot be used by itself. Further, a subclass can be a superclass for another subclass.

The general form of a **class** declaration that inherits a superclass is shown here:

class *subclass-name* extends *superclass-name* {
 // body of class
}

You can only specify one superclass for any subclass that you create. Java does not support the inheritance of multiple superclasses into a single subclass. (This differs from C++, in which you can inherit multiple base classes.) You can, as stated, create a hierarchy of inheritance in which a subclass becomes a superclass of another subclass. However, no class can be a superclass of itself.

Member Access and Inheritance

Although a subclass includes all of the members of its superclass, it cannot access those members of the superclass that have been declared as **private**. For example, consider the following simple class hierarchy:

```
/* In a class hierarchy, private members remain
   private to their class.

   This program contains an error and will not
   compile.
*/

// Create a superclass.
class A {
  int i; // public by default
  private int j; // private to A

  void setij(int x, int y) {
    i = x;
    j = y;
  }
}

// A's j is not accessible here.
class B extends A {
  int total;
```

```
    depth = ob.depth;
  }

  // constructor used when all dimensions specified
  Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }

  // constructor used when no dimensions specified
  Box() {
    width = -1;  // use -1 to indicate
    height = -1; // an uninitialized
    depth = -1;  // box
  }

  // constructor used when cube is created
  Box(double len) {
    width = height = depth = len;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}

// Here, Box is extended to include weight.
class BoxWeight extends Box {
  double weight; // weight of box

  // constructor for BoxWeight
  BoxWeight(double w, double h, double d, double m) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
    weight = m;
  }
}
```

```
    height = h;
    depth = d;
    color = c;
  }
}
```

Remember, once you have created a superclass that defines the general aspects of an object, that superclass can be inherited to form specialized classes. Each subclass simply adds its own, unique attributes. This is the essence of inheritance.

A Superclass Variable Can Reference a Subclass Object

A reference variable of a superclass can be assigned a reference to any subclass derived from that superclass. You will find this aspect of inheritance quite useful in a variety of situations. For example, consider the following:

```
class RefDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    BoxWeight weightbox = new BoxWeight(3, 5, 7, 8.37);
    Box plainbox = new Box();
    double vol;

    vol = weightbox.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of weightbox is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of weightbox is " +
                       weightbox.weight);
    System.out.println();

    // assign BoxWeight reference to Box reference
    plainbox = weightbox;

    vol = plainbox.volume(); // OK, volume() defined in Box
    System.out.println("Volume of plainbox is " + vol);

    /* The following statement is invalid because plainbox
       does not define a weight member. */
//  System.out.println("Weight of plainbox is " + plainbox.weight);
  }
}
```

To see how **super( )** is used, consider this improved version of the **BoxWeight( )** class:

```
// BoxWeight now uses super to initialize its Box attributes.
class BoxWeight extends Box {
  double weight; // weight of box

  // initialize width, height, and depth using super()
  BoxWeight(double w, double h, double d, double m) {
    super(w, h, d); // call superclass constructor
    weight = m;
  }
}
```

Here, **BoxWeight( )** calls **super( )** with the parameters **w**, **h**, and **d**. This causes the **Box( )** constructor to be called, which initializes **width**, **height**, and **depth** using these values. **BoxWeight** no longer initializes these values itself. It only needs to initialize the value unique to it: **weight**. This leaves **Box** free to make these values **private** if desired.

In the preceding example, **super( )** was called with three arguments. Since constructors can be overloaded, **super( )** can be called using any form defined by the superclass. The constructor executed will be the one that matches the arguments. For example, here is a complete implementation of **BoxWeight** that provides constructors for the various ways that a box can be constructed. In each case, **super( )** is called using the appropriate arguments. Notice that **width**, **height**, and **depth** have been made private within **Box**.

```
// A complete implementation of BoxWeight.
class Box {
  private double width;
  private double height;
  private double depth;

  // construct clone of an object
  Box(Box ob) { // pass object to constructor
    width = ob.width;
    height = ob.height;
    depth = ob.depth;
  }
  // default constructor
  BoxWeight() {
    super();
    weight = -1;
  }

  // constructor used when cube is created
  BoxWeight(double len, double m) {
    super(len);
    weight = m;
  }
}

class DemoSuper {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    BoxWeight mybox1 = new BoxWeight(10, 20, 15, 34.3);
    BoxWeight mybox2 = new BoxWeight(2, 3, 4, 0.076);
    BoxWeight mybox3 = new BoxWeight(); // default
    BoxWeight mycube = new BoxWeight(3, 2);
    BoxWeight myclone = new BoxWeight(mybox1);
    double vol;

    vol = mybox1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of mybox1 is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of mybox1 is " + mybox1.weight);
    System.out.println();

    vol = mybox2.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of mybox2 is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of mybox2 is " + mybox2.weight);
    System.out.println();

    vol = mybox3.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of mybox3 is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of mybox3 is " + mybox3.weight);
    System.out.println();

    vol = myclone.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of myclone is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of myclone is " + myclone.weight);
    System.out.println();
```

hierarchy. Also, **super( )** must always be the first statement executed inside a subclass constructor.

A Second Use for super

The second form of **super** acts somewhat like **this**, except that it always refers to the superclass of the subclass in which it is used. This usage has the following general form:

super.*member*

Here, *member* can be either a method or an instance variable.

This second form of **super** is most applicable to situations in which member names of a subclass hide members by the same name in the superclass. Consider this simple class hierarchy:

```
// Using super to overcome name hiding.
class A {
  int i;
}

// Create a subclass by extending class A.
class B extends A {
  int i; // this i hides the i in A

  B(int a, int b) {
    super.i = a; // i in A
    i = b; // i in B
  }

  void show() {
    System.out.println("i in superclass: " + super.i);
    System.out.println("i in subclass: " + i);
  }
}

class UseSuper {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    B subOb = new B(1, 2);

    subOb.show();
  }
}
```

```
    depth = d;
  }

  // constructor used when no dimensions specified
  Box() {
    width = -1;  // use -1 to indicate
    height = -1; // an uninitialized
    depth = -1;  // box
  }

  // constructor used when cube is created
  Box(double len) {
    width = height = depth = len;
  }

  // compute and return volume
  double volume() {
    return width * height * depth;
  }
}

// Add weight.
class BoxWeight extends Box {
  double weight; // weight of box

  // construct clone of an object
  BoxWeight(BoxWeight ob) { // pass object to constructor
    super(ob);
    weight = ob.weight;
  }
  // constructor when all parameters are specified
  BoxWeight(double w, double h, double d, double m) {
    super(w, h, d); // call superclass constructor
    weight = m;
  }

  // default constructor
  BoxWeight() {
    super();
    weight = -1;
  }
```

```
               new Shipment(10, 20, 15, 10, 3.41);
    Shipment shipment2 =
               new Shipment(2, 3, 4, 0.76, 1.28);

    double vol;

    vol = shipment1.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of shipment1 is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of shipment1 is "
                        + shipment1.weight);
    System.out.println("Shipping cost: $" + shipment1.cost);
    System.out.println();

    vol = shipment2.volume();
    System.out.println("Volume of shipment2 is " + vol);
    System.out.println("Weight of shipment2 is "
                        + shipment2.weight);
    System.out.println("Shipping cost: $" + shipment2.cost);
  }
}
```

The output of this program is shown here:

```
Volume of shipment1 is 3000.0
Weight of shipment1 is 10.0
Shipping cost: $3.41

Volume of shipment2 is 24.0
Weight of shipment2 is 0.76
Shipping cost: $1.28
```

Because of inheritance, **Shipment** can make use of the previously defined classes of **Box** and **BoxWeight**, adding only the extra information it needs for its own, specific application. This is part of the value of inheritance; it allows the reuse of code.

This example illustrates one other important point: **super( )** always refers to the constructor in the closest superclass. The **super( )** in **Shipment** calls the constructor in **BoxWeight**. The **super( )** in **BoxWeight** calls the constructor in **Box**. In a class hierarchy, if a superclass constructor requires parameters, then all subclasses must pass those parameters "up the line." This is true whether or not a subclass needs parameters of its own.

```
    C c = new C();
  }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
Inside A's constructor
Inside B's constructor
Inside C's constructor
```

As you can see, the constructors are called in order of derivation.

If you think about it, it makes sense that constructors are executed in order of derivation. Because a superclass has no knowledge of any subclass, any initialization it needs to perform is separate from and possibly prerequisite to any initialization performed by the subclass. Therefore, it must be executed first.

Method Overriding

In a class hierarchy, when a method in a subclass has the same name and type signature as a method in its superclass, then the method in the subclass is said to *override* the method in the superclass. When an overridden method is called from within a subclass, it will always refer to the version of that method defined by the subclass. The version of the method defined by the superclass will be hidden. Consider the following:

```
// Method overriding.
class A {
  int i, j;
  A(int a, int b) {
    i = a;
    j = b;
  }

  // display i and j
  void show() {
    System.out.println("i and j: " + i + " " + j);
  }
}

class B extends A {
  void show() {
    super.show(); // this calls A's show()
    System.out.println("k: " + k);
  }
}
```

If you substitute this version of **A** into the previous program, you will see the following output:

```
i and j: 1 2
k: 3
```

Here, **super.show( )** calls the superclass version of **show( )**.

Method overriding occurs *only* when the names and the type signatures of the two methods are identical. If they are not, then the two methods are simply overloaded. For example, consider this modified version of the preceding example:

```
// Methods with differing type signatures are overloaded – not
// overridden.
class A {
  int i, j;

  A(int a, int b) {
    i = a;
    j = b;
  }

  // display i and j
  void show() {
    System.out.println("i and j: " + i + " " + j);
  }
}

// Create a subclass by extending class A.
class B extends A {
  int k;

  B(int a, int b, int c) {
    super(a, b);
    k = c;
```

type of the object being referred to at the time the call occurs. Thus, this determination is made at run time. When different types of objects are referred to, different versions of an overridden method will be called. In other words, *it is the type of the object being referred to* (not the type of the reference variable) that determines which version of an overridden method will be executed. Therefore, if a superclass contains a method that is overridden by a subclass, then when different types of objects are referred to through a superclass reference variable, different versions of the method are executed.

Here is an example that illustrates dynamic method dispatch:

```
// Dynamic Method Dispatch
class A {
   void callme() {
     System.out.println("Inside A's callme method");
  }
}

class B extends A {
  // override callme()
  void callme() {
    System.out.println("Inside B's callme method");
  }
}

class C extends A {
  // override callme()
  void callme() {
    System.out.println("Inside C's callme method");
  }
}

class Dispatch {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    A a = new A(); // object of type A
    B b = new B(); // object of type B
    C c = new C(); // object of type C
    A r; // obtain a reference of type A

    r = a; // r refers to an A object
    r.callme(); // calls A's version of callme

    r = b; // r refers to a B object
    r.callme(); // calls B's version of callme
```

Dynamic, run-time polymorphism is one of the most powerful mechanisms that object-oriented design brings to bear on code reuse and robustness. The ability of existing code libraries to call methods on instances of new classes without recompiling while maintaining a clean abstract interface is a profoundly powerful tool.

Applying Method Overriding

Let's look at a more practical example that uses method overriding. The following program creates a superclass called **Figure** that stores the dimensions of various two-dimensional objects. It also defines a method called **area( )** that computes the area of an object. The program derives two subclasses from **Figure**. The first is **Rectangle** and the second is **Triangle**. Each of these subclasses overrides **area( )** so that it returns the area of a rectangle and a triangle, respectively.

```
// Using run-time polymorphism.
class Figure {
  double dim1;
  double dim2;

  Figure(double a, double b) {
    dim1 = a;
    dim2 = b;
  }

  double area() {
    System.out.println("Area for Figure is undefined.");
    return 0;
  }
}

class Rectangle extends Figure {
  Rectangle(double a, double b) {
    super(a, b);
  }

  // override area for rectangle
  double area() {
    System.out.println("Inside Area for Rectangle.");
    return dim1 * dim2;
  }
}

class Triangle extends Figure {
```

types of objects. In this case, if an object is derived from **Figure**, then its area can be obtained by calling **area( )**. The interface to this operation is the same no matter what type of figure is being used.

Using Abstract Classes

There are situations in which you will want to define a superclass that declares the structure of a given abstraction without providing a complete implementation of every method. That is, sometimes you will want to create a superclass that only defines a generalized form that will be shared by all of its subclasses, leaving it to each subclass to fill in the details. Such a class determines the nature of the methods that the subclasses must implement. One way this situation can occur is when a superclass is unable to create a meaningful implementation for a method. This is the case with the class **Figure** used in the preceding example. The definition of **area( )** is simply a placeholder. It will not compute and display the area of any type of object.

As you will see as you create your own class libraries, it is not uncommon for a method to have no meaningful definition in the context of its superclass. You can handle this situation two ways. One way, as shown in the previous example, is to simply have it report a warning message. While this approach can be useful in certain situations—such as debugging—it is not usually appropriate. You may have methods which must be overridden by the subclass in order for the subclass to have any meaning. Consider the class **Triangle**. It has no meaning if **area( )** is not defined. In this case, you want some way to ensure that a subclass does, indeed, override all necessary methods. Java's solution to this problem is the *abstract method.*

You can require that certain methods be overridden by subclasses by specifying the **abstract** type modifier. These methods are sometimes referred to as *subclasser responsibility* because they have no implementation specified in the superclass. Thus, a subclass must override them—it cannot simply use the version defined in the superclass. To declare an abstract method, use this general form:

abstract *type name(parameter-list)*;

As you can see, no method body is present.

Any class that contains one or more abstract methods must also be declared abstract. To declare a class abstract, you simply use the **abstract** keyword in front of the **class** keyword at the beginning of the class declaration. There can be no objects of an abstract class. That is, an abstract class cannot be directly instantiated with the **new** operator. Such objects would be useless, because an abstract class is not fully defined. Also, you cannot declare abstract constructors, or abstract static methods. Any subclass of an abstract class must either implement all of the abstract methods in the superclass, or be itself declared **abstract**.

Here is a simple example of a class with an abstract method, followed by a class which implements that method:

```
  double dim1;
  double dim2;

  Figure(double a, double b) {
    dim1 = a;
    dim2 = b;
  }

  // area is now an abstract method
  abstract double area();
}

class Rectangle extends Figure {
  Rectangle(double a, double b) {
    super(a, b);
  }

  // override area for rectangle
  double area() {
    System.out.println("Inside Area for Rectangle.");
    return dim1 * dim2;
  }
}

class Triangle extends Figure {
  Triangle(double a, double b) {
    super(a, b);
  }

  // override area for right triangle
  double area() {
    System.out.println("Inside Area for Triangle.");
    return dim1 * dim2 / 2;
  }
}

class AbstractAreas {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
  // Figure f = new Figure(10, 10); // illegal now
    Rectangle r = new Rectangle(9, 5);
    Triangle t = new Triangle(10, 8);
```

```
      System.out.println("Illegal!");
    }
  }
```

Because **meth( )** is declared as **final**, it cannot be overridden in **B**. If you attempt to do so, a compile-time error will result.

Methods declared as **final** can sometimes provide a performance enhancement: The compiler is free to *inline* calls to them because it "knows" they will not be overridden by a subclass. When a small **final** method is called, often the Java compiler can copy the bytecode for the subroutine directly inline with the compiled code of the calling method, thus eliminating the costly overhead associated with a method call. Inlining is only an option with **final** methods. Normally, Java resolves calls to methods dynamically, at run time. This is called *late binding*. However, since **final** methods cannot be overridden, a call to one can be resolved at compile time. This is called *early binding.*

Using final to Prevent Inheritance

Sometimes you will want to prevent a class from being inherited. To do this, precede the class declaration with **final**. Declaring a class as **final** implicitly declares all of its methods as **final**, too. As you might expect, it is illegal to declare a class as both **abstract** and **final** since an abstract class is incomplete by itself and relies upon its subclasses to provide complete implementations.

Here is an example of a **final** class:

```
final class A {
  // ...
}

// The following class is illegal.
class B extends A { // ERROR! Can't subclass A
  // ...
}
```

As the comments imply, it is illegal for **B** to inherit **A** since **A** is declared as **final**.

The Object Class

There is one special class, **Object**, defined by Java. All other classes are subclasses of **Object**. That is, **Object** is a superclass of all other classes. This means that a reference

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This chapter examines two of Java's most innovative features: packages and interfaces. *Packages* are containers for classes that are used to keep the class name space compartmentalized. For example, a package allows you to create a class named **List**, which you can store in your own package without concern that it will collide with some other class named **List** stored elsewhere. Packages are stored in a hierarchical manner and are explicitly imported into new class definitions.

In previous chapters you have seen how methods define the interface to the data in a class. Through the use of the **interface** keyword, Java allows you to fully abstract the interface from its implementation. Using **interface**, you can specify a set of methods which can be implemented by one or more classes. The **interface**, itself, does not actually define any implementation. Although they are similar to abstract classes, **interface**s have an additional capability: A class can implement more than one interface. By contrast, a class can only inherit a single superclass (abstract or otherwise).

Packages and interfaces are two of the basic components of a Java program. In general, a Java source file can contain any (or all) of the following four internal parts:

- A single package statement (optional)
- Any number of import statements (optional)
- A single public class declaration (required)
- Any number of classes private to the package (optional)

Only one of these—the single public class declaration—has been used in the examples so far. This chapter will explore the remaining parts.

Packages

In the preceding chapters, the name of each example class was taken from the same name space. This means that a unique name had to be used for each class to avoid name collisions. After a while, without some way to manage the name space, you could run out of convenient, descriptive names for individual classes. You also need some way to be assured that the name you choose for a class will be reasonably unique and not collide with class names chosen by other programmers. (Imagine a small group of programmers fighting over who gets to use the name "Foobar" as a class name. Or, imagine the entire Internet community arguing over who first named a class "Espresso.") Thankfully, Java provides a mechanism for partitioning the class name space into more manageable chunks. This mechanism is the package. The package is both a naming and a visibility control mechanism. You can define classes inside a package that are not accessible by code outside that package. You can also define class members that are only exposed to other members of the same package. This allows your classes to have intimate knowledge of each other, but not expose that knowledge to the rest of the world.

Finding Packages and CLASSPATH

As just explained, packages are mirrored by directories. This raises an important question: How does the Java run-time system know where to look for packages that you create? The answer has two parts. First, by default, the Java run-time system uses the current working directory as its starting point. Thus, if your package is in the current directory, or a subdirectory of the current directory, it will be found. Second, you can specify a directory path or paths by setting the **CLASSPATH** environmental variable.

For example, consider the following package specification.

```
package MyPack;
```

In order for a program to find **MyPack**, one of two things must be true. Either the program is executed from a directory immediately above **MyPack**, or **CLASSPATH** must be set to include the path to **MyPack**. The first alternative is the easiest (and doesn't require a change to **CLASSPATH**), but the second alternative lets your program find **MyPack** no matter what directory the program is in. Ultimately, the choice is yours.

The easiest way to try the examples shown in this book is to simply create the package directories below your current development directory, put the **.class** files into the appropriate directories and then execute the programs from the development directory. This is the approach assumed by the examples.

A Short Package Example

Keeping the preceding discussion in mind, you can try this simple package:

```
// A simple package
package MyPack;

class Balance {
  String name;
  double bal;

  Balance(String n, double b) {
    name = n;
    bal = b;
  }

  void show() {
    if(bal<0)
      System.out.print("--> ");
```

other subordinate packages. Classes act as containers for data and code. The class is Java's smallest unit of abstraction. Because of the interplay between classes and packages, Java addresses four categories of visibility for class members:

- Subclasses in the same package
- Non-subclasses in the same package
- Subclasses in different packages
- Classes that are neither in the same package nor subclasses

The three access specifiers, **private**, **public**, and **protected**, provide a variety of ways to produce the many levels of access required by these categories. Table 9-1 sums up the interactions.

While Java's access control mechanism may seem complicated, we can simplify it as follows. Anything declared **public** can be accessed from anywhere. Anything declared **private** cannot be seen outside of its class. When a member does not have an explicit access specification, it is visible to subclasses as well as to other classes in the same package. This is the default access. If you want to allow an element to be seen outside your current package, but only to classes that subclass your class directly, then declare that element **protected**.

Table 9-1 applies only to members of classes. A class has only two possible access levels: default and public. When a class is declared as **public**, it is accessible by any other code. If a class has default access, then it can only be accessed by other code within its same package.

	Private	**No modifier**	**Protected**	**Public**
Same class	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package non-subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Different package subclass	No	No	Yes	Yes
Different package non-subclass	No	No	No	Yes

Table 9-1. *Class Member Access*

```
    System.out.println("derived constructor");
    System.out.println("n = " + n);

//  class only
//  System.out.println("n_pri = " + n_pri);

    System.out.println("n_pro = " + n_pro);
    System.out.println("n_pub = " + n_pub);
  }
}
```

This is file **SamePackage.java**:

```
package p1;

class SamePackage {
  SamePackage() {

    Protection p = new Protection();
    System.out.println("same package constructor");
    System.out.println("n = " + p.n);

//  class only
//  System.out.println("n_pri = " + p.n_pri);
    System.out.println("n_pro = " + p.n_pro);
    System.out.println("n_pub = " + p.n_pub);
  }
}
```

Following is the source code for the other package, **p2**. The two classes defined in **p2** cover the other two conditions which are affected by access control. The first class, **Protection2**, is a subclass of **p1.Protection**. This grants access to all of **p1.Protection**'s variables except for **n_pri** (because it is **private**) and **n**, the variable declared with the default protection. Remember, the default only allows access from within the class or the package, not extra-package subclasses. Finally, the class **OtherPackage** has access to only one variable, **n_pub**, which was declared **public**.

This is file **Protection2.java**:

```
package p2;

class Protection2 extends p1.Protection {
```

```
// Instantiate the various classes in p1.
public class Demo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Protection ob1 = new Protection();
    Derived ob2 = new Derived();
    SamePackage ob3 = new SamePackage();
  }
}
```

The test file for **p2** is shown next:

```
// Demo package p2.
package p2;

// Instantiate the various classes in p2.
public class Demo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Protection2 ob1 = new Protection2();
    OtherPackage ob2 = new OtherPackage();
  }
}
```

Importing Packages

Given that packages exist and are a good mechanism for compartmentalizing diverse classes from each other, it is easy to see why all of the built-in Java classes are stored in packages. There are no core Java classes in the unnamed default package; all of the standard classes are stored in some named package. Since classes within packages must be fully qualified with their package name or names, it could become tedious to type in the long dot-separated package path name for every class you want to use. For this reason, Java includes the **import** statement to bring certain classes, or entire packages, into visibility. Once imported, a class can be referred to directly, using only its name. The **import** statement is a convenience to the programmer and is not technically needed to write a complete Java program. If you are going to refer to a few dozen classes in your application, however, the **import** statement will save a lot of typing.

In a Java source file, **import** statements occur immediately following the **package** statement (if it exists) and before any class definitions. This is the general form of the **import** statement:

import *pkg1*[.*pkg2*].(*classname* | *);

As shown in Table 9-1, when a package is imported, only those items within the package declared as **public** will be available to non-subclasses in the importing code. For example, if you want the **Balance** class of the package **MyPack** shown earlier to be available as a stand-alone class for general use outside of **MyPack**, then you will need to declare it as **public** and put it into its own file, as shown here:

```
package MyPack;

/* Now, the Balance class, its constructor, and its
   show() method are public.  This means that they can
   be used by non-subclass code outside their package.
*/
public class Balance {
  String name;
  double bal;

  public Balance(String n, double b) {
    name = n;
    bal = b;
  }

  public void show() {
    if(bal<0)
      System.out.print("--> ");
    System.out.println(name + ": $" + bal);
  }
}
```

As you can see, the **Balance** class is now **public**. Also, its constructor and its **show( )** method are **public**, too. This means that they can be accessed by any type of code outside the **MyPack** package. For example, here **TestBalance** imports **MyPack** and is then able to make use of the **Balance** class:

```
import MyPack.*;

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

    /* Because Balance is public, you may use Balance
       class and call its constructor. */
    Balance test = new Balance("J. J. Jaspers", 99.88);
   type final-varname2 = value;
   // ...
   return-type method-nameN(parameter-list);
   type final-varnameN = value;
}
```

Here, *access* is either **public** or not used. When no access specifier is included, then default access results, and the interface is only available to other members of the package in which it is declared. When it is declared as **public**, the interface can be used by any other code. *name* is the name of the interface, and can be any valid identifier. Notice that the methods which are declared have no bodies. They end with a semicolon after the parameter list. They are, essentially, abstract methods; there can be no default implementation of any method specified within an interface. Each class that includes an interface must implement all of the methods.

Variables can be declared inside of interface declarations. They are implicitly **final** and **static**, meaning they cannot be changed by the implementing class. They must also be initialized with a constant value. All methods and variables are implicitly **public** if the interface, itself, is declared as **public**.

Here is an example of an interface definition. It declares a simple interface which contains one method called **callback( )** that takes a single integer parameter.

```
interface Callback {
  void callback(int param);
}
```

Implementing Interfaces

Once an **interface** has been defined, one or more classes can implement that interface. To implement an interface, include the **implements** clause in a class definition, and then create the methods defined by the interface. The general form of a class that includes the **implements** clause looks like this:

```
access class classname [extends superclass]
                [implements interface [,interface...]] {
   // class-body
}
```

Here, *access* is either **public** or not used. If a class implements more than one interface, the interfaces are separated with a comma. If a class implements two interfaces that declare the same method, then the same method will be used by clients of either interface. The methods that implement an interface must be declared **public**. Also, the type signature of the implementing method must match exactly the type signature specified in the **interface** definition.

Caution *Because dynamic lookup of a method at run time incurs a significant overhead when compared with the normal method invocation in Java, you should be careful not to use interfaces casually in performance-critical code.*

The following example calls the **callback( )** method via an interface reference variable:

```
class TestIface {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Callback c = new Client();
    c.callback(42);
  }
}
```

The output of this program is shown here:

```
callback called with 42
```

Notice that variable **c** is declared to be of the interface type **Callback**, yet it was assigned an instance of **Client**. Although **c** can be used to access the **callback( )** method, it cannot access any other members of the **Client** class. An interface reference variable only has knowledge of the methods declared by its **interface** declaration. Thus, **c** could not be used to access **nonIfaceMeth( )** since it is defined by **Client** but not **Callback**.

While the preceding example shows, mechanically, how an interface reference variable can access an implementation object, it does not demonstrate the polymorphic power of such a reference. To sample this usage, first create the second implementation of **Callback**, shown here:

```
// Another implementation of Callback.
class AnotherClient implements Callback {
  // Implement Callback's interface
  public void callback(int p) {
    System.out.println("Another version of callback");
    System.out.println("p squared is " + (p*p));
  }
}
```

Now, try the following class:

```
class TestIface2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Callback c = new Client();
```

stack is separate from its implementation, it is easy to define a stack interface, leaving it to each implementation to define the specifics. Let's look at two examples.

First, here is the interface that defines an integer stack. Put this in a file called **IntStack.java**. This interface will be used by both stack implementations.

```
// Define an integer stack interface.
interface IntStack {
  void push(int item); // store an item
  int pop(); // retrieve an item
}
```

The following program creates a class called **FixedStack** that implements a fixed-length version of an integer stack:

```
// An implementation of IntStack that uses fixed storage.
class FixedStack implements IntStack {
  private int stck[];
  private int tos;

  // allocate and initialize stack
  FixedStack(int size) {
    stck = new int[size];
    tos = -1;
  }

  // Push an item onto the stack
  public void push(int item) {
    if(tos==stck.length-1) // use length member
      System.out.println("Stack is full.");
    else
      stck[++tos] = item;
  }

  // Pop an item from the stack
  public int pop() {
    if(tos < 0) {
      System.out.println("Stack underflow.");
      return 0;
    }
    else
      return stck[tos--];
  }
}
```

```
      stck = temp;
      stck[++tos] = item;
    }
    else
      stck[++tos] = item;
  }

  // Pop an item from the stack
  public int pop() {
    if(tos < 0) {
      System.out.println("Stack underflow.");
      return 0;
    }
    else
      return stck[tos--];
  }
}

class IFTest2 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    DynStack mystack1 = new DynStack(5);
    DynStack mystack2 = new DynStack(8);

    // these loops cause each stack to grow
    for(int i=0; i<12; i++) mystack1.push(i);
    for(int i=0; i<20; i++) mystack2.push(i);

    System.out.println("Stack in mystack1:");
    for(int i=0; i<12; i++)
       System.out.println(mystack1.pop());

    System.out.println("Stack in mystack2:");
    for(int i=0; i<20; i++)
       System.out.println(mystack2.pop());
  }
}
```

The following class uses both the **FixedStack** and **DynStack** implementations. It does so through an interface reference. This means that calls to **push( )** and **pop( )** are resolved at run time rather than at compile time.

constant variables into the class name space as **final** variables. The next example uses this technique to implement an automated "decision maker":

```
import java.util.Random;

interface SharedConstants {
  int NO = 0;
  int YES = 1;
  int MAYBE = 2;
  int LATER = 3;
  int SOON = 4;
  int NEVER = 5;
}

class Question implements SharedConstants {
  Random rand = new Random();
  int ask() {
    int prob = (int) (100 * rand.nextDouble());
    if (prob < 30)
      return NO;           // 30%
    else if (prob < 60)
      return YES;          // 30%
    else if (prob < 75)
      return LATER;        // 15%
    else if (prob < 98)
      return SOON;         // 13%

    else
      return NEVER;        // 2%
  }
}

class AskMe implements SharedConstants {
  static void answer(int result) {
    switch(result) {
      case NO:
        System.out.println("No");
        break;
      case YES:
        System.out.println("Yes");
```

Interfaces Can Be Extended

One interface can inherit another by use of the keyword **extends**. The syntax is the same as for inheriting classes. When a class implements an interface that inherits another interface, it must provide implementations for all methods defined within the interface inheritance chain. Following is an example:

```
// One interface can extend another.
interface A {
  void meth1();
  void meth2();
}

// B now includes meth1() and meth2() -- it adds meth3().
interface B extends A {
  void meth3();
}

// This class must implement all of A and B
class MyClass implements B {
  public void meth1() {
    System.out.println("Implement meth1().");
  }

  public void meth2() {
    System.out.println("Implement meth2().");
  }

  public void meth3() {
    System.out.println("Implement meth3().");
  }


}

class IFExtend {
  public static void main(String arg[]) {
    MyClass ob = new MyClass();
```

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This chapter examines Java's exception-handling mechanism. An *exception* is an abnormal condition that arises in a code sequence at run time. In other words, an exception is a run-time error. In computer languages that do not support exception handling, errors must be checked and handled manually—typically through the use of error codes, and so on. This approach is as cumbersome as it is troublesome. Java's exception handling avoids these problems and, in the process, brings run-time error management into the object-oriented world.

For the most part, exception handling has not changed since the original version of Java. However, Java 2, version 1.4 has added a new subsystem called the *chained exception facility*. This feature is described near the end of this chapter.

Exception-Handling Fundamentals

A Java exception is an object that describes an exceptional (that is, error) condition that has occurred in a piece of code. When an exceptional condition arises, an object representing that exception is created and *thrown* in the method that caused the error. That method may choose to handle the exception itself, or pass it on. Either way, at some point, the exception is *caught* and processed. Exceptions can be generated by the Java run-time system, or they can be manually generated by your code. Exceptions thrown by Java relate to fundamental errors that violate the rules of the Java language or the constraints of the Java execution environment. Manually generated exceptions are typically used to report some error condition to the caller of a method.

Java exception handling is managed via five keywords: **try**, **catch**, **throw**, **throws**, and **finally**. Briefly, here is how they work. Program statements that you want to monitor for exceptions are contained within a **try** block. If an exception occurs within the **try** block, it is thrown. Your code can catch this exception (using **catch**) and handle it in some rational manner. System-generated exceptions are automatically thrown by the Java run-time system. To manually throw an exception, use the keyword **throw**. Any exception that is thrown out of a method must be specified as such by a **throws** clause. Any code that absolutely must be executed before a method returns is put in a **finally** block.

This is the general form of an exception-handling block:

```
try {
  // block of code to monitor for errors
}

catch (ExceptionType1 exOb) {
   // exception handler for ExceptionType1
}
catch (ExceptionType2 exOb) {
   // exception handler for ExceptionType2
}
 // ...
```

Java run-time system. Any exception that is not caught by your program will ultimately be processed by the default handler. The default handler displays a string describing the exception, prints a stack trace from the point at which the exception occurred, and terminates the program.

Here is the output generated when this example is executed.

```
java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
        at Exc0.main(Exc0.java:4)
```

Notice how the class name, **Exc0**; the method name, **main**; the filename, **Exc0.java**; and the line number, **4**, are all included in the simple stack trace. Also, notice that the type of the exception thrown is a subclass of **Exception** called **ArithmeticException**, which more specifically describes what type of error happened. As discussed later in this chapter, Java supplies several built-in exception types that match the various sorts of run-time errors that can be generated.

The stack trace will always show the sequence of method invocations that led up to the error. For example, here is another version of the preceding program that introduces the same error but in a method separate from **main( )**:

```
class Exc1 {
  static void subroutine() {
    int d = 0;
    int a = 10 / d;
  }
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Exc1.subroutine();
  }
}
```

The resulting stack trace from the default exception handler shows how the entire call stack is displayed:

```
java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
     at Exc1.subroutine(Exc1.java:4)
     at Exc1.main(Exc1.java:7)
```

As you can see, the bottom of the stack is **main**'s line 7, which is the call to **subroutine( )**, which caused the exception at line 4. The call stack is quite useful for debugging, because it pinpoints the precise sequence of steps that led to the error.

A **try** and its **catch** statement form a unit. The scope of the **catch** clause is restricted to those statements specified by the immediately preceding **try** statement. A **catch** statement cannot catch an exception thrown by another **try** statement (except in the case of nested **try** statements, described shortly). The statements that are protected by **try** must be surrounded by curly braces. (That is, they must be within a block.) You cannot use **try** on a single statement.

The goal of most well-constructed **catch** clauses should be to resolve the exceptional condition and then continue on as if the error had never happened. For example, in the next program each iteration of the **for** loop obtains two random integers. Those two integers are divided by each other, and the result is used to divide the value 12345. The final result is put into **a**. If either division operation causes a divide-by-zero error, it is caught, the value of **a** is set to zero, and the program continues.

```
// Handle an exception and move on.
import java.util.Random;

class HandleError {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int a=0, b=0, c=0;
    Random r = new Random();

    for(int i=0; i<32000; i++) {
      try {
        b = r.nextInt();
        c = r.nextInt();
        a = 12345 / (b/c);
      } catch (ArithmeticException e) {
        System.out.println("Division by zero.");
        a = 0; // set a to zero and continue
      }
      System.out.println("a: " + a);
    }
  }
}
```

Displaying a Description of an Exception

Throwable overrides the **toString( )** method (defined by **Object**) so that it returns a string containing a description of the exception. You can display this description in a **println( )** statement by simply passing the exception as an argument. For example, the **catch** block in the preceding program can be rewritten like this:

This program will cause a division-by-zero exception if it is started with no command-line parameters, since **a** will equal zero. It will survive the division if you provide a command-line argument, setting **a** to something larger than zero. But it will cause an **ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException**, since the **int** array **c** has a length of 1, yet the program attempts to assign a value to **c[42]**.

Here is the output generated by running it both ways:

```
C:\>java MultiCatch
a = 0
Divide by 0: java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero
After try/catch blocks.

C:\>java MultiCatch TestArg
a = 1
Array index oob: java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException
After try/catch blocks.
```

When you use multiple **catch** statements, it is important to remember that exception subclasses must come before any of their superclasses. This is because a **catch** statement that uses a superclass will catch exceptions of that type plus any of its subclasses. Thus, a subclass would never be reached if it came after its superclass. Further, in Java, unreachable code is an error. For example, consider the following program:

```
/* This program contains an error.

   A subclass must come before its superclass in
   a series of catch statements. If not,
   unreachable code will be created and a
   compile-time error will result.
*/
class SuperSubCatch {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    try {
      int a = 0;
      int b = 42 / a;
    } catch(Exception e) {
      System.out.println("Generic Exception catch.");
    }
    /* This catch is never reached because
       ArithmeticException is a subclass of Exception. */
    catch(ArithmeticException e) { // ERROR - unreachable
      System.out.println("This is never reached.");
```

```
        /* If two command-line args are used,
           then generate an out-of-bounds exception. */
        if(a==2) {
          int c[] = { 1 };
          c[42] = 99; // generate an out-of-bounds exception
        }
      } catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
        System.out.println("Array index out-of-bounds: " + e);
      }

    } catch(ArithmeticException e) {
      System.out.println("Divide by 0: " + e);
    }
  }
}
```

As you can see, this program nests one **try** block within another. The program works as follows. When you execute the program with no command-line arguments, a divide-by-zero exception is generated by the outer **try** block. Execution of the program by one command-line argument generates a divide-by-zero exception from within the nested **try** block. Since the inner block does not catch this exception, it is passed on to the outer **try** block, where it is handled. If you execute the program with two command-line arguments, an array boundary exception is generated from within the inner **try** block. Here are sample runs that illustrate each case:

```
C:\>java NestTry
Divide by 0: java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero

C:\>java NestTry One
a = 1
Divide by 0: java.lang.ArithmeticException: / by zero

C:\>java NestTry One Two
a = 2
Array index out-of-bounds:
  java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException
```

Nesting of **try** statements can occur in less obvious ways when method calls are involved. For example, you can enclose a call to a method within a **try** block. Inside that method is another **try** statement. In this case, the **try** within the method is still nested inside the outer **try** block, which calls the method. Here is the previous program recoded so that the nested **try** block is moved inside the method **nesttry( )**:

throw

So far, you have only been catching exceptions that are thrown by the Java run-time system. However, it is possible for your program to throw an exception explicitly, using the **throw** statement. The general form of **throw** is shown here:

throw *ThrowableInstance;*

Here, *ThrowableInstance* must be an object of type **Throwable** or a subclass of **Throwable**. Simple types, such as **int** or **char**, as well as non-**Throwable** classes, such as **String** and **Object**, cannot be used as exceptions. There are two ways you can obtain a **Throwable** object: using a parameter into a **catch** clause, or creating one with the **new** operator.

The flow of execution stops immediately after the **throw** statement; any subsequent statements are not executed. The nearest enclosing **try** block is inspected to see if it has a **catch** statement that matches the type of the exception. If it does find a match, control is transferred to that statement. If not, then the next enclosing **try** statement is inspected, and so on. If no matching **catch** is found, then the default exception handler halts the program and prints the stack trace.

Here is a sample program that creates and throws an exception. The handler that catches the exception rethrows it to the outer handler.

```
// Demonstrate throw.
class ThrowDemo {
  static void demoproc() {
    try {
      throw new NullPointerException("demo");
    } catch(NullPointerException e) {
      System.out.println("Caught inside demoproc.");
      throw e; // rethrow the exception
    }
  }

  public static void main(String args[]) {
    try {
      demoproc();
    } catch(NullPointerException e) {
      System.out.println("Recaught: " + e);
    }
  }
}
```

Following is an example of an incorrect program that tries to throw an exception that it does not catch. Because the program does not specify a **throws** clause to declare this fact, the program will not compile.

```
// This program contains an error and will not compile.
class ThrowsDemo {
  static void throwOne() {
    System.out.println("Inside throwOne.");
    throw new IllegalAccessException("demo");
  }
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    throwOne();
  }
}
```

To make this example compile, you need to make two changes. First, you need to declare that **throwOne( )** throws **IllegalAccessException**. Second, **main( )** must define a **try**/**catch** statement that catches this exception.

The corrected example is shown here:

```
// This is now correct.
class ThrowsDemo {
  static void throwOne() throws IllegalAccessException {
    System.out.println("Inside throwOne.");
    throw new IllegalAccessException("demo");
  }
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    try {
      throwOne();
    } catch (IllegalAccessException e) {
      System.out.println("Caught " + e);
    }
  }
}
```

Here is the output generated by running this example program:

```
inside throwOne
caught java.lang.IllegalAccessException: demo
```

```
      System.out.println("procB's finally");
    }
  }
 // Execute a try block normally.
  static void procC() {
    try {
      System.out.println("inside procC");
    } finally {
      System.out.println("procC's finally");
    }
  }

  public static void main(String args[]) {
    try {
      procA();
    } catch (Exception e) {
      System.out.println("Exception caught");
    }
    procB();
    procC();
  }
}
```

In this example, **procA( )** prematurely breaks out of the **try** by throwing an exception. The **finally** clause is executed on the way out. **procB( )**'s **try** statement is exited via a **return** statement. The **finally** clause is executed before **procB( )** returns. In **procC( )**, the **try** statement executes normally, without error. However, the **finally** block is still executed.

Remember *If a **finally** block is associated with a **try**, the **finally** block will be executed upon conclusion of the **try**.*

Here is the output generated by the preceding program:

```
inside procA
procA's finally
Exception caught
inside procB
procB's finally
inside procC
procC's finally
```

Exception	Meaning
NullPointerException	Invalid use of a null reference.
NumberFormatException	Invalid conversion of a string to a numeric format.
SecurityException	Attempt to violate security.
StringIndexOutOfBounds	Attempt to index outside the bounds of a string.
UnsupportedOperationException	An unsupported operation was encountered.

Table 10-1. *Java's Unchecked* RuntimeException *Subclasses* (continued)

Exception	Meaning
ClassNotFoundException	Class not found.
CloneNotSupportedException	Attempt to clone an object that does not implement the **Cloneable** interface.
IllegalAccessException	Access to a class is denied.
InstantiationException	Attempt to create an object of an abstract class or interface.
InterruptedException	One thread has been interrupted by another thread.
NoSuchFieldException	A requested field does not exist.
NoSuchMethodException	A requested method does not exist.

Table 10-2. *Java's Checked Exceptions Defined in* java.lang

Method	Description
void printStackTrace( )	Displays the stack trace.
void printStackTrace(PrintStream *stream*)	Sends the stack trace to the specified stream.
void printStackTrace(PrintWriter *stream*)	Sends the stack trace to the specified stream.
void setStackTrace(StackTraceElement *elements*[ ])	Sets the stack trace to the elements passed in *elements*. This method is for specialized applications, not normal use. Added by Java 2, version 1.4
String toString( )	Returns a **String** object containing a description of the exception. This method is called by **println( )** when outputting a **Throwable** object.

Table 10-3. *The Methods Defined by* Throwable *(continued)*

The following example declares a new subclass of **Exception** and then uses that subclass to signal an error condition in a method. It overrides the **toString( )** method, allowing the description of the exception to be displayed using **println( )**.

```
// This program creates a custom exception type.
class MyException extends Exception {
  private int detail;

  MyException(int a) {
    detail = a;
  }

  public String toString() {
    return "MyException[" + detail + "]";
  }
}

class ExceptionDemo {
  static void compute(int a) throws MyException {
    System.out.println("Called compute(" + a + ")");
```

In the first form, *causeExc* is the exception that causes the current exception. That is, *causeExc* is the underlying reason that an exception occurred. The second form allows you to specify a description at the same time that you specify a cause exception. These two constructors have also been added to the **Error**, **Exception**, and **RuntimeException** classes.

The chained exception methods added to **Throwable** are **getCause( )** and **initCause( )**. These methods are shown in Table 10-3, and are repeated here for the sake of discussion.

Throwable getCause( )
Throwable initCause(Throwable *causeExc*)

The **getCause( )** method returns the exception that underlies the current exception. If there is no underlying exception, **null** is returned. The **initCause( )** method associates *causeExc* with the invoking exception and returns a reference to the exception. Thus, you can associate a cause with an exception after the exception has been created. However, the cause exception can be set only once. Thus, you can call **initCause( )** only once for each exception object. Furthermore, if the cause exception was set by a constructor, then you can't set it again using **initCause( )**.

In general, **initCause( )** is used to set a cause for legacy exception classes which don't support the two additional constructors described earlier. At the time of this writing, most of Java's built-in exceptions, such as **ArithmeticException**, do not define the additional constructors. Thus, you will use **initCause( )** if you need to add an exception chain to these exceptions. When creating your own exception classes you will want to add the two chained-exception constructors if you will be using your exceptions in situations in which layered exceptions are possible.

Here is an example that illustrates the mechanics of handling chained exceptions.

```
// Demonstrate exception chaining.
class ChainExcDemo {
  static void demoproc() {
    // create an exception
    NullPointerException e =
      new NullPointerException("top layer");

    // add a cause
    e.initCause(new ArithmeticException("cause"));

    throw e;
  }

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

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Unlike most other computer languages, Java provides built-in support for *multithreaded programming.* A multithreaded program contains two or more parts that can run concurrently. Each part of such a program is called a *thread,* and each thread defines a separate path of execution. Thus, multithreading is a specialized form of multitasking.

You are almost certainly acquainted with multitasking, because it is supported by virtually all modern operating systems. However, there are two distinct types of multitasking: process-based and thread-based. It is important to understand the difference between the two. For most readers, process-based multitasking is the more familiar form. A *process* is, in essence, a program that is executing. Thus, *process-based* multitasking is the feature that allows your computer to run two or more programs concurrently. For example, process-based multitasking enables you to run the Java compiler at the same time that you are using a text editor. In process-based multitasking, a program is the smallest unit of code that can be dispatched by the scheduler.

In a *thread-based* multitasking environment, the thread is the smallest unit of dispatchable code. This means that a single program can perform two or more tasks simultaneously. For instance, a text editor can format text at the same time that it is printing, as long as these two actions are being performed by two separate threads. Thus, process-based multitasking deals with the "big picture," and thread-based multitasking handles the details.

Multitasking threads require less overhead than multitasking processes. Processes are heavyweight tasks that require their own separate address spaces. Interprocess communication is expensive and limited. Context switching from one process to another is also costly. Threads, on the other hand, are lightweight. They share the same address space and cooperatively share the same heavyweight process. Interthread communication is inexpensive, and context switching from one thread to the next is low cost. While Java programs make use of process-based multitasking environments, process-based multitasking is not under the control of Java. However, multithreaded multitasking is.

Multithreading enables you to write very efficient programs that make maximum use of the CPU, because idle time can be kept to a minimum. This is especially important for the interactive, networked environment in which Java operates, because idle time is common. For example, the transmission rate of data over a network is much slower than the rate at which the computer can process it. Even local file system resources are read and written at a much slower pace than they can be processed by the CPU. And, of course, user input is much slower than the computer. In a traditional, single-threaded environment, your program has to wait for each of these tasks to finish before it can proceed to the next one—even though the CPU is sitting idle most of the time. Multithreading lets you gain access to this idle time and put it to good use.

If you have programmed for operating systems such as Windows 98 or Windows 2000, then you are already familiar with multithreaded programming. However, the fact that Java manages threads makes multithreading especially convenient, because many of the details are handled for you.

- *A thread can be preempted by a higher-priority thread.* In this case, a lower-priority thread that does not yield the processor is simply preempted—no matter what it is doing—by a higher-priority thread. Basically, as soon as a higher-priority thread wants to run, it does. This is called *preemptive multitasking.*

In cases where two threads with the same priority are competing for CPU cycles, the situation is a bit complicated. For operating systems such as Windows 98, threads of equal priority are time-sliced automatically in round-robin fashion. For other types of operating systems, threads of equal priority must voluntarily yield control to their peers. If they don't, the other threads will not run.

Caution *Problems can arise from the differences in the way that operating systems context-switch threads of equal priority.*

Synchronization

Because multithreading introduces an asynchronous behavior to your programs, there must be a way for you to enforce synchronicity when you need it. For example, if you want two threads to communicate and share a complicated data structure, such as a linked list, you need some way to ensure that they don't conflict with each other. That is, you must prevent one thread from writing data while another thread is in the middle of reading it. For this purpose, Java implements an elegant twist on an age-old model of interprocess synchronization: the *monitor.* The monitor is a control mechanism first defined by C.A.R. Hoare. You can think of a monitor as a very small box that can hold only one thread. Once a thread enters a monitor, all other threads must wait until that thread exits the monitor. In this way, a monitor can be used to protect a shared asset from being manipulated by more than one thread at a time.

Most multithreaded systems expose monitors as objects that your program must explicitly acquire and manipulate. Java provides a cleaner solution. There is no class "Monitor"; instead, each object has its own implicit monitor that is automatically entered when one of the object's synchronized methods is called. Once a thread is inside a synchronized method, no other thread can call any other synchronized method on the same object. This enables you to write very clear and concise multithreaded code, because synchronization support is built in to the language.

Messaging

After you divide your program into separate threads, you need to define how they will communicate with each other. When programming with most other languages, you must depend on the operating system to establish communication between threads. This, of course, adds overhead. By contrast, Java provides a clean, low-cost way for two or more threads to talk to each other, via calls to predefined methods that all objects

Although the main thread is created automatically when your program is started, it can be controlled through a **Thread** object. To do so, you must obtain a reference to it by calling the method **currentThread( )**, which is a **public static** member of **Thread**. Its general form is shown here:

static Thread currentThread( )

This method returns a reference to the thread in which it is called. Once you have a reference to the main thread, you can control it just like any other thread.

Let's begin by reviewing the following example:

```
// Controlling the main Thread.
class CurrentThreadDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Thread t = Thread.currentThread();

    System.out.println("Current thread: " + t);

    // change the name of the thread
    t.setName("My Thread");
    System.out.println("After name change: " + t);

    try {
      for(int n = 5; n > 0; n--) {
        System.out.println(n);
        Thread.sleep(1000);
      }
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread interrupted");
    }
  }
}
```

In this program, a reference to the current thread (the main thread, in this case) is obtained by calling **currentThread( )**, and this reference is stored in the local variable **t**. Next, the program displays information about the thread. The program then calls **setName( )** to change the internal name of the thread. Information about the thread is then redisplayed. Next, a loop counts down from five, pausing one second between each line. The pause is accomplished by the **sleep( )** method. The argument to **sleep( )** specifies the delay period in milliseconds. Notice the **try**/**catch** block around this loop. The **sleep( )** method in **Thread** might throw an **InterruptedException**. This would happen if some other thread wanted to interrupt this sleeping one. This example just

Creating a Thread

In the most general sense, you create a thread by instantiating an object of type **Thread**. Java defines two ways in which this can be accomplished:

- You can implement the **Runnable** interface.
- You can extend the **Thread** class, itself.

The following two sections look at each method, in turn.

Implementing Runnable

The easiest way to create a thread is to create a class that implements the **Runnable** interface. **Runnable** abstracts a unit of executable code. You can construct a thread on any object that implements **Runnable**. To implement **Runnable**, a class need only implement a single method called **run( )**, which is declared like this:

```
public void run( )
```

Inside **run( )**, you will define the code that constitutes the new thread. It is important to understand that **run( )** can call other methods, use other classes, and declare variables, just like the main thread can. The only difference is that **run( )** establishes the entry point for another, concurrent thread of execution within your program. This thread will end when **run( )** returns.

After you create a class that implements **Runnable**, you will instantiate an object of type **Thread** from within that class. **Thread** defines several constructors. The one that we will use is shown here:

Thread(Runnable *threadOb*, String *threadName*)

In this constructor, *threadOb* is an instance of a class that implements the **Runnable** interface. This defines where execution of the thread will begin. The name of the new thread is specified by *threadName*.

After the new thread is created, it will not start running until you call its **start( )** method, which is declared within **Thread**. In essence, **start( )** executes a call to **run( )**. The **start( )** method is shown here:

```
void start( )
```

Here is an example that creates a new thread and starts it running:

Inside **NewThread**'s constructor, a new **Thread** object is created by the following statement:

```
t = new Thread(this, "Demo Thread");
```

Passing **this** as the first argument indicates that you want the new thread to call the **run( )** method on **this** object. Next, **start( )** is called, which starts the thread of execution beginning at the **run( )** method. This causes the child thread's **for** loop to begin. After calling **start( )**, **NewThread**'s constructor returns to **main( )**. When the main thread resumes, it enters its **for** loop. Both threads continue running, sharing the CPU, until their loops finish. The output produced by this program is as follows:

```
Child thread: Thread[Demo Thread,5,main]
Main Thread: 5
Child Thread: 5
Child Thread: 4
Main Thread: 4
Child Thread: 3
Child Thread: 2
Main Thread: 3
Child Thread: 1
Exiting child thread.
Main Thread: 2
Main Thread: 1
Main thread exiting.
```

As mentioned earlier, in a multithreaded program, often the main thread must be the last thread to finish running. In fact, for some older JVMs, if the main thread finishes before a child thread has completed, then the Java run-time system may "hang." The preceding program ensures that the main thread finishes last, because the main thread sleeps for 1,000 milliseconds between iterations, but the child thread sleeps for only 500 milliseconds. This causes the child thread to terminate earlier than the main thread. Shortly, you will see a better way to wait for a thread to finish.

Extending Thread

The second way to create a thread is to create a new class that extends **Thread**, and then to create an instance of that class. The extending class must override the **run( )** method, which is the entry point for the new thread. It must also call **start( )** to begin execution of the new thread. Here is the preceding program rewritten to extend **Thread**:

This program generates the same output as the preceding version. As you can see, the child thread is created by instantiating an object of **NewThread**, which is derived from **Thread**.

Notice the call to **super( )** inside **NewThread**. This invokes the following form of the **Thread** constructor:

public Thread(String *threadName*)

Here, *threadName* specifies the name of the thread.

Choosing an Approach

At this point, you might be wondering why Java has two ways to create child threads, and which approach is better. The answers to these questions turn on the same point. The **Thread** class defines several methods that can be overridden by a derived class. Of these methods, the only one that *must* be overridden is **run( )**. This is, of course, the same method required when you implement **Runnable**. Many Java programmers feel that classes should be extended only when they are being enhanced or modified in some way. So, if you will not be overriding any of **Thread**'s other methods, it is probably best simply to implement **Runnable**. This is up to you, of course. However, throughout the rest of this chapter, we will create threads by using classes that implement **Runnable**.

Creating Multiple Threads

So far, you have been using only two threads: the main thread and one child thread. However, your program can spawn as many threads as it needs. For example, the following program creates three child threads:

```
// Create multiple threads.
class NewThread implements Runnable {
  String name; // name of thread
  Thread t;

  NewThread(String threadname) {
    name = threadname;
    t = new Thread(this, name);
    System.out.println("New thread: " + t);
    t.start(); // Start the thread
  }

  // This is the entry point for thread.
  public void run() {
```

```
One: 2
Three: 2
Two: 2
One: 1
Three: 1
Two: 1
One exiting.
Two exiting.
Three exiting.
Main thread exiting.
```

As you can see, once started, all three child threads share the CPU. Notice the call to **sleep(10000)** in **main( )**. This causes the main thread to sleep for ten seconds and ensures that it will finish last.

Using isAlive( ) and join( )

As mentioned, often you will want the main thread to finish last. In the preceding examples, this is accomplished by calling **sleep( )** within **main( )**, with a long enough delay to ensure that all child threads terminate prior to the main thread. However, this is hardly a satisfactory solution, and it also raises a larger question: How can one thread know when another thread has ended? Fortunately, **Thread** provides a means by which you can answer this question.

Two ways exist to determine whether a thread has finished. First, you can call **isAlive( )** on the thread. This method is defined by **Thread**, and its general form is shown here:

    final boolean isAlive( )

The **isAlive( )** method returns **true** if the thread upon which it is called is still running. It returns **false** otherwise.

While **isAlive( )** is occasionally useful, the method that you will more commonly use to wait for a thread to finish is called **join( )**, shown here:

    final void join( ) throws InterruptedException

This method waits until the thread on which it is called terminates. Its name comes from the concept of the calling thread waiting until the specified thread *joins* it. Additional forms of **join( )** allow you to specify a maximum amount of time that you want to wait for the specified thread to terminate.

Here is an improved version of the preceding example that uses **join( )** to ensure that the main thread is the last to stop. It also demonstrates the **isAlive( )** method.

```
      ob2.t.join();
      ob3.t.join();
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread Interrupted");
    }

    System.out.println("Thread One is alive: "
                        + ob1.t.isAlive());
    System.out.println("Thread Two is alive: "
                        + ob2.t.isAlive());
    System.out.println("Thread Three is alive: "
                        + ob3.t.isAlive());

    System.out.println("Main thread exiting.");
  }
}
```

Sample output from this program is shown here:

```
New thread: Thread[One,5,main]
New thread: Thread[Two,5,main]
New thread: Thread[Three,5,main]
Thread One is alive: true
Thread Two is alive: true
Thread Three is alive: true
Waiting for threads to finish.
One: 5
Two: 5
Three: 5
One: 4
Two: 4
Three: 4
One: 3
Two: 3
Three: 3
One: 2
Two: 2
Three: 2
One: 1
Two: 1
Three: 1
```

You can obtain the current priority setting by calling the **getPriority( )** method of **Thread**, shown here:

final int getPriority( )

Implementations of Java may have radically different behavior when it comes to scheduling. The Windows XP/98/NT/2000 version works, more or less, as you would expect. However, other versions may work quite differently. Most of the inconsistencies arise when you have threads that are relying on preemptive behavior, instead of cooperatively giving up CPU time. The safest way to obtain predictable, cross-platform behavior with Java is to use threads that voluntarily give up control of the CPU.

The following example demonstrates two threads at different priorities, which do not run on a preemptive platform in the same way as they run on a nonpreemptive platform. One thread is set two levels above the normal priority, as defined by **Thread.NORM_PRIORITY**, and the other is set to two levels below it. The threads are started and allowed to run for ten seconds. Each thread executes a loop, counting the number of iterations. After ten seconds, the main thread stops both threads. The number of times that each thread made it through the loop is then displayed.

```
// Demonstrate thread priorities.
class clicker implements Runnable {
  int click = 0;
  Thread t;
  private volatile boolean running = true;

  public clicker(int p) {
    t = new Thread(this);
    t.setPriority(p);
  }

  public void run() {
    while (running) {
      click++;
    }
  }

  public void stop() {
    running = false;
  }

  public void start() {
    t.start();
  }
}
```

chapter, it is used here to ensure that the value of **running** is examined each time the following loop iterates:

```
while (running) {
  click++;
}
```

Without the use of **volatile**, Java is free to optimize the loop in such a way that a local copy of **running** is created. The use of **volatile** prevents this optimization, telling Java that **running** may change in ways not directly apparent in the immediate code.

Synchronization

When two or more threads need access to a shared resource, they need some way to ensure that the resource will be used by only one thread at a time. The process by which this is achieved is called *synchronization.* As you will see, Java provides unique, language-level support for it.

Key to synchronization is the concept of the monitor (also called a *semaphore*). A *monitor* is an object that is used as a mutually exclusive lock, or *mutex.* Only one thread can *own* a monitor at a given time. When a thread acquires a lock, it is said to have *entered* the monitor. All other threads attempting to enter the locked monitor will be suspended until the first thread *exits* the monitor. These other threads are said to be *waiting* for the monitor. A thread that owns a monitor can reenter the same monitor if it so desires.

If you have worked with synchronization when using other languages, such as C or C++, you know that it can be a bit tricky to use. This is because most languages do not, themselves, support synchronization. Instead, to synchronize threads, your programs need to utilize operating system primitives. Fortunately, because Java implements synchronization through language elements, most of the complexity associated with synchronization has been eliminated.

You can synchronize your code in either of two ways. Both involve the use of the **synchronized** keyword, and both are examined here.

Using Synchronized Methods

Synchronization is easy in Java, because all objects have their own implicit monitor associated with them. To enter an object's monitor, just call a method that has been modified with the **synchronized** keyword. While a thread is inside a synchronized method, all other threads that try to call it (or any other synchronized method) on the same instance have to wait. To exit the monitor and relinquish control of the object to the next waiting thread, the owner of the monitor simply returns from the synchronized method.

```
}

class Synch {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Callme target = new Callme();
    Caller ob1 = new Caller(target, "Hello");
    Caller ob2 = new Caller(target, "Synchronized");
   Caller ob3 = new Caller(target, "World");

    // wait for threads to end
    try {
      ob1.t.join();
      ob2.t.join();
      ob3.t.join();
    } catch(InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Interrupted");
    }
  }
}
```

Here is the output produced by this program:

```
Hello[Synchronized[World]
]
]
```

As you can see, by calling **sleep( )**, the **call( )** method allows execution to switch to another thread. This results in the mixed-up output of the three message strings. In this program, nothing exists to stop all three threads from calling the same method, on the same object, at the same time. This is known as a *race condition,* because the three threads are racing each other to complete the method. This example used **sleep( )** to make the effects repeatable and obvious. In most situations, a race condition is more subtle and less predictable, because you can't be sure when the context switch will occur. This can cause a program to run right one time and wrong the next.

To fix the preceding program, you must *serialize* access to **call( )**. That is, you must restrict its access to only one thread at a time. To do this, you simply need to precede **call( )**'s definition with the keyword **synchronized**, as shown here:

```
class Callme {
    synchronized void call(String msg) {
    ...
```

```
      Thread.sleep(1000);
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Interrupted");
    }
    System.out.println("]");
  }
}

class Caller implements Runnable {
  String msg;
  Callme target;
  Thread t;

  public Caller(Callme targ, String s) {
    target = targ;
    msg = s;
    t = new Thread(this);
    t.start();
  }

  // synchronize calls to call()
  public void run() {
    synchronized(target) { // synchronized block
      target.call(msg);
    }
  }
}

class Synch1 {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Callme target = new Callme();
    Caller ob1 = new Caller(target, "Hello");
    Caller ob2 = new Caller(target, "Synchronized");
    Caller ob3 = new Caller(target, "World");

    // wait for threads to end
    try {
      ob1.t.join();
      ob2.t.join();
      ob3.t.join();
    } catch(InterruptedException e) {
```

These methods are declared within **Object**, as shown here:

final void wait( ) throws InterruptedException
final void notify( )
final void notifyAll( )

Additional forms of **wait( )** exist that allow you to specify a period of time to wait.

The following sample program incorrectly implements a simple form of the producer/consumer problem. It consists of four classes: **Q**, the queue that you're trying to synchronize; **Producer**, the threaded object that is producing queue entries; **Consumer**, the threaded object that is consuming queue entries; and **PC**, the tiny class that creates the single **Q**, **Producer**, and **Consumer**.

```
// An incorrect implementation of a producer and consumer.
class Q {
  int n;

  synchronized int get() {
    System.out.println("Got: " + n);
    return n;
  }

  synchronized void put(int n) {
    this.n = n;
    System.out.println("Put: " + n);
  }
}

class Producer implements Runnable {
  Q q;

  Producer(Q q) {
    this.q = q;
    new Thread(this, "Producer").start();
  }

  public void run() {
    int i = 0;

    while(true) {
      q.put(i++);
```

```
Put: 2
Put: 3
Put: 4
Put: 5
Put: 6
Put: 7
Got: 7
```

As you can see, after the producer put 1, the consumer started and got the same 1 five times in a row. Then, the producer resumed and produced 2 through 7 without letting the consumer have a chance to consume them.

The proper way to write this program in Java is to use **wait( )** and **notify( )** to signal in both directions, as shown here:

```
// A correct implementation of a producer and consumer.
class Q {
  int n;
  boolean valueSet = false;

  synchronized int get() {
    if(!valueSet)
      try {
        wait();

     } catch(InterruptedException e) {
        System.out.println("InterruptedException caught");
      }

      System.out.println("Got: " + n);
      valueSet = false;
      notify();
      return n;
  }

  synchronized void put(int n) {
    if(valueSet)
      try {
        wait();
      } catch(InterruptedException e) {
        System.out.println("InterruptedException caught");
      }

      this.n = n;
      System.out.println("Press Control-C to stop.");
   }
}
```

Inside **get( )**, **wait( )** is called. This causes its execution to suspend until the **Producer** notifies you that some data is ready. When this happens, execution inside **get( )** resumes. After the data has been obtained, **get( )** calls **notify( )**. This tells **Producer** that it is okay to put more data in the queue. Inside **put( )**, **wait( )** suspends execution until the **Consumer** has removed the item from the queue. When execution resumes, the next item of data is put in the queue, and **notify( )** is called. This tells the **Consumer** that it should now remove it.

Here is some output from this program, which shows the clean synchronous behavior:

```
Put: 1
Got: 1
Put: 2
Got: 2
Put: 3
Got: 3
Put: 4
Got: 4
Put: 5
Got: 5
```

Deadlock

A special type of error that you need to avoid that relates specifically to multitasking is *deadlock,* which occurs when two threads have a circular dependency on a pair of synchronized objects. For example, suppose one thread enters the monitor on object X and another thread enters the monitor on object Y. If the thread in X tries to call any synchronized method on Y, it will block as expected. However, if the thread in Y, in turn, tries to call any synchronized method on X, the thread waits forever, because to access X, it would have to release its own lock on Y so that the first thread could complete. Deadlock is a difficult error to debug for two reasons:

- In general, it occurs only rarely, when the two threads time-slice in just the right way.
- It may involve more than two threads and two synchronized objects. (That is, deadlock can occur through a more convoluted sequence of events than just described.)

```
  }

  synchronized void last() {
    System.out.println("Inside A.last");
  }
}

class Deadlock implements Runnable {
  A a = new A();
  B b = new B();

  Deadlock() {
    Thread.currentThread().setName("MainThread");
    Thread t = new Thread(this, "RacingThread");
    t.start();

    a.foo(b); // get lock on a in this thread.
    System.out.println("Back in main thread");
  }

  public void run() {
    b.bar(a); // get lock on b in other thread.
    System.out.println("Back in other thread");
  }

  public static void main(String args[]) {
    new Deadlock();
  }
}
```

When you run this program, you will see the output shown here:

```
MainThread entered A.foo
RacingThread entered B.bar
MainThread trying to call B.last()
RacingThread trying to call A.last()
```

Because the program has deadlocked, you need to press CTRL-C to end the program. You can see a full thread and monitor cache dump by pressing CTRL-BREAK on a PC . You will see that **RacingThread** owns the monitor on **b**, while it is waiting for the monitor on **a**. At the same time, **MainThread** owns **a** and is waiting to get **b**. This program will never complete. As this example illustrates, if your multithreaded program locks up occasionally, deadlock is one of the first conditions that you should check for.

```
      }
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println(name + " interrupted.");
    }
    System.out.println(name + " exiting.");
  }
}

class SuspendResume {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    NewThread ob1 = new NewThread("One");
    NewThread ob2 = new NewThread("Two");

    try {
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob1.t.suspend();
      System.out.println("Suspending thread One");
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob1.t.resume();
      System.out.println("Resuming thread One");
      ob2.t.suspend();
      System.out.println("Suspending thread Two");
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob2.t.resume();
      System.out.println("Resuming thread Two");
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread Interrupted");
    }

    // wait for threads to finish
    try {
      System.out.println("Waiting for threads to finish.");
      ob1.t.join();
      ob2.t.join();
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread Interrupted");
    }
    System.out.println("Main thread exiting.");
  }
}
```

The **Thread** class also defines a method called **stop( )** that stops a thread. Its signature is shown here:

final void stop( )

Once a thread has been stopped, it cannot be restarted using **resume( )**.

Suspending, Resuming, and Stopping Threads Using Java 2

While the **suspend( )**, **resume( )**, and **stop( )** methods defined by **Thread** seem to be a perfectly reasonable and convenient approach to managing the execution of threads, they must not be used for new Java programs. Here's why. The **suspend( )** method of the **Thread** class is deprecated in Java 2. This was done because **suspend( )** can sometimes cause serious system failures. Assume that a thread has obtained locks on critical data structures. If that thread is suspended at that point, those locks are not relinquished. Other threads that may be waiting for those resources can be deadlocked.

The **resume( )** method is also deprecated. It does not cause problems, but cannot be used without the **suspend( )** method as its counterpart.

The **stop( )** method of the **Thread** class, too, is deprecated in Java 2. This was done because this method can sometimes cause serious system failures. Assume that a thread is writing to a critically important data structure and has completed only part of its changes. If that thread is stopped at that point, that data structure might be left in a corrupted state.

Because you can't use the **suspend( )**, **resume( )**, or **stop( )** methods in Java 2 to control a thread, you might be thinking that no way exists to pause, restart, or terminate a thread. But, fortunately, this is not true. Instead, a thread must be designed so that the **run( )** method periodically checks to determine whether that thread should suspend, resume, or stop its own execution. Typically, this is accomplished by establishing a flag variable that indicates the execution state of the thread. As long as this flag is set to "running," the **run( )** method must continue to let the thread execute. If this variable is set to "suspend," the thread must pause. If it is set to "stop," the thread must terminate. Of course, a variety of ways exist in which to write such code, but the central theme will be the same for all programs.

The following example illustrates how the **wait( )** and **notify( )** methods that are inherited from **Object** can be used to control the execution of a thread. This example is similar to the program in the previous section. However, the deprecated method calls have been removed. Let us consider the operation of this program.

The **NewThread** class contains a **boolean** instance variable named **suspendFlag**, which is used to control the execution of the thread. It is initialized to **false** by the constructor. The **run( )** method contains a **synchronized** statement block that checks **suspendFlag**. If that variable is **true**, the **wait( )** method is invoked to suspend the execution of the thread. The **mysuspend( )** method sets **suspendFlag** to **true**. The

```
    notify();
  }
}

class SuspendResume {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    NewThread ob1 = new NewThread("One");
    NewThread ob2 = new NewThread("Two");

    try {
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob1.mysuspend();
      System.out.println("Suspending thread One");
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob1.myresume();
      System.out.println("Resuming thread One");
      ob2.mysuspend();
      System.out.println("Suspending thread Two");
      Thread.sleep(1000);
      ob2.myresume();
      System.out.println("Resuming thread Two");
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread Interrupted");
    }

    // wait for threads to finish
    try {
      System.out.println("Waiting for threads to finish.");
      ob1.t.join();
      ob2.t.join();
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
      System.out.println("Main thread Interrupted");
    }

    System.out.println("Main thread exiting.");
  }
}
```

The output from this program is identical to that shown in the previous section. Later in this book, you will see more examples that use the Java 2 mechanism of thread control. Although this mechanism isn't as "clean" as the old way, nevertheless, it is the way required to ensure that run-time errors don't occur. It is the approach that *must* be used for all new code.

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This chapter introduces two of Java's most important packages: **io** and **applet**. The **io** package supports Java's basic I/O (input/output) system, including file I/O. The **applet** package supports applets. Support for both I/O and applets comes from Java's core API libraries, not from language keywords. For this reason, an in-depth discussion of these topics is found in Part II of this book, which examines Java's API classes. This chapter discusses the foundation of these two subsystems, so that you can see how they are integrated into the Java language and how they fit into the larger context of the Java programming and execution environment. This chapter also examines the last of Java's keywords: **transient**, **volatile**, **instanceof**, **native**, **strictfp**, and **assert**.

I/O Basics

As you may have noticed while reading the preceding 11 chapters, not much use has been made of I/O in the example programs. In fact, aside from **print( )** and **println( )**, none of the I/O methods have been used significantly. The reason is simple: most real applications of Java are not text-based, console programs. Rather, they are graphically oriented applets that rely upon Java's Abstract Window Toolkit (AWT) for interaction with the user. Although text-based programs are excellent as teaching examples, they do not constitute an important use for Java in the real world. Also, Java's support for console I/O is limited and somewhat awkward to use—even in simple example programs. Text-based console I/O is just not very important to Java programming.

The preceding paragraph notwithstanding, Java does provide strong, flexible support for I/O as it relates to files and networks. Java's I/O system is cohesive and consistent. In fact, once you understand its fundamentals, the rest of the I/O system is easy to master.

Streams

Java programs perform I/O through streams. A *stream* is an abstraction that either produces or consumes information. A stream is linked to a physical device by the Java I/O system. All streams behave in the same manner, even if the actual physical devices to which they are linked differ. Thus, the same I/O classes and methods can be applied to any type of device. This means that an input stream can abstract many different kinds of input: from a disk file, a keyboard, or a network socket. Likewise, an output stream may refer to the console, a disk file, or a network connection. Streams are a clean way to deal with input/output without having every part of your code understand the difference between a keyboard and a network, for example. Java implements streams within class hierarchies defined in the **java.io** package.

Note *If you are familiar with C/C++/C#, then you are already familiar with the concept of the stream. Java's approach to streams is loosely the same.*

Stream Class	**Meaning**
BufferedInputStream	Buffered input stream
BufferedOutputStream	Buffered output stream
ByteArrayInputStream	Input stream that reads from a byte array
ByteArrayOutputStream	Output stream that writes to a byte array
DataInputStream	An input stream that contains methods for reading the Java standard data types
DataOutputStream	An output stream that contains methods for writing the Java standard data types
FileInputStream	Input stream that reads from a file
FileOutputStream	Output stream that writes to a file
FilterInputStream	Implements **InputStream**
FilterOutputStream	Implements **OutputStream**
InputStream	Abstract class that describes stream input
OutputStream	Abstract class that describes stream output
PipedInputStream	Input pipe
PipedOutputStream	Output pipe
PrintStream	Output stream that contains **print( )** and **println( )**
PushbackInputStream	Input stream that supports one-byte "unget," which returns a byte to the input stream
RandomAccessFile	Supports random access file I/O
SequenceInputStream	Input stream that is a combination of two or more input streams that will be read sequentially, one after the other

Table 12-1. *The Byte Stream Classes*

The Predefined Streams

As you know, all Java programs automatically import the **java.lang** package. This package defines a class called **System**, which encapsulates several aspects of the run-time environment. For example, using some of its methods, you can obtain the current time and the settings of various properties associated with the system. **System** also contains three predefined stream variables, **in**, **out**, and **err**. These fields are declared as **public** and **static** within **System**. This means that they can be used by any other part of your program and without reference to a specific **System** object.

System.out refers to the standard output stream. By default, this is the console. **System.in** refers to standard input, which is the keyboard by default. **System.err** refers to the standard error stream, which also is the console by default. However, these streams may be redirected to any compatible I/O device.

System.in is an object of type **InputStream**; **System.out** and **System.err** are objects of type **PrintStream**. These are byte streams, even though they typically are used to read and write characters from and to the console. As you will see, you can wrap these within character-based streams, if desired.

The preceding chapters have been using **System.out** in their examples. You can use **System.err** in much the same way. As explained in the next section, use of **System.in** is a little more complicated.

Reading Console Input

In Java 1.0, the only way to perform console input was to use a byte stream, and older code that uses this approach persists. Today, using a byte stream to read console input is still technically possible, but doing so may require the use of a deprecated method, and this approach is not recommended. The preferred method of reading console input for Java 2 is to use a character-oriented stream, which makes your program easier to internationalize and maintain.

Note *Java does not have a generalized console input method that parallels the standard C function **scanf( )** or C++ input operators.*

In Java, console input is accomplished by reading from **System.in**. To obtain a character-based stream that is attached to the console, you wrap **System.in** in a **BufferedReader** object, to create a character stream. **BuffereredReader** supports a buffered input stream. Its most commonly used constructor is shown here:

BufferedReader(Reader *inputReader*)

```
    // read characters
    do {
      c = (char) br.read();
      System.out.println(c);
    } while(c != 'q');
  }
}
```

Here is a sample run:

```
Enter characters, 'q' to quit.
123abcq
1
2
3
a
b
c
q
```

This output may look a little different from what you expected, because **System.in** is line buffered, by default. This means that no input is actually passed to the program until you press ENTER. As you can guess, this does not make **read( )** particularly valuable for interactive, console input.

Reading Strings

To read a string from the keyboard, use the version of **readLine( )** that is a member of the **BufferedReader** class. Its general form is shown here:

String readLine( ) throws IOException

As you can see, it returns a **String** object.

The following program demonstrates **BufferedReader** and the **readLine( )** method; the program reads and displays lines of text until you enter the word “stop”:

```
// Read a string from console using a BufferedReader.
import java.io.*;

class BRReadLines {
    // display the lines
    for(int i=0; i<100; i++) {
      if(str[i].equals("stop")) break;
      System.out.println(str[i]);
    }
  }
}
```

Here is a sample run:

```
Enter lines of text.
Enter 'stop' to quit.
This is line one.
This is line two.
Java makes working with strings easy.
Just create String objects.
stop
Here is your file:
This is line one.
This is line two.
Java makes working with strings easy.
Just create String objects.
```

Writing Console Output

Console output is most easily accomplished with **print( )** and **println( )**, described earlier, which are used in most of the examples in this book. These methods are defined by the class **PrintStream** (which is the type of the object referenced by **System.out**). Even though **System.out** is a byte stream, using it for simple program output is still acceptable. However, a character-based alternative is described in the next section.

Because **PrintStream** is an output stream derived from **OutputStream**, it also implements the low-level method **write( )**. Thus, **write( )** can be used to write to the console. The simplest form of **write( )** defined by **PrintStream** is shown here:

void write(int *byteval*)

This method writes to the stream the byte specified by *byteval*. Although *byteval* is declared as an integer, only the low-order eight bits are written. Here is a short example that uses **write( )** to output the character "A" followed by a newline to the screen:

The following application illustrates using a **PrintWriter** to handle console output:

```
// Demonstrate PrintWriter
import java.io.*;

public class PrintWriterDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    PrintWriter pw = new PrintWriter(System.out, true);
    pw.println("This is a string");
    int i = -7;
    pw.println(i);
    double d = 4.5e-7;
    pw.println(d);
  }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
This is a string
-7
4.5E-7
```

Remember, there is nothing wrong with using **System.out** to write simple text output to the console when you are learning Java or debugging your programs. However, using a **PrintWriter** will make your real-world applications easier to internationalize. Because no advantage is gained by using a **PrintWriter** in the sample programs shown in this book, we will continue to use **System.out** to write to the console.

Reading and Writing Files

Java provides a number of classes and methods that allow you to read and write files. In Java, all files are byte-oriented, and Java provides methods to read and write bytes from and to a file. However, Java allows you to wrap a byte-oriented file stream within a character-based object. This technique is described in Part II. This chapter examines the basics of file I/O.

Two of the most often-used stream classes are **FileInputStream** and **FileOutputStream**, which create byte streams linked to files. To open a file, you simply create an object of one of these classes, specifying the name of the file as an argument to the constructor. While both classes support additional, overridden constructors, the following are the forms that we will be using:

```
class ShowFile {
  public static void main(String args[])
    throws IOException
  {
    int i;
    FileInputStream fin;

    try {
      fin = new FileInputStream(args[0]);
    } catch(FileNotFoundException e) {
      System.out.println("File Not Found");
      return;
    } catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {
      System.out.println("Usage: ShowFile File");
      return;
    }

    // read characters until EOF is encountered
    do {
      i = fin.read();
      if(i != -1) System.out.print((char) i);
    } while(i != -1);

    fin.close();
  }
}
```

To write to a file, you will use the **write( )** method defined by **FileOutputStream**. Its simplest form is shown here:

void write(int *byteval*) throws IOException

This method writes the byte specified by *byteval* to the file. Although *byteval* is declared as an integer, only the low-order eight bits are written to the file. If an error occurs during writing, an **IOException** is thrown. The next example uses **write( )** to copy a text file:

```
/* Copy a text file.

   To use this program, specify the name
   of the source file and the destination file.
```

```
        if(i != -1) fout.write(i);
      } while(i != -1);
    } catch(IOException e) {
      System.out.println("File Error");
    }

    fin.close();
    fout.close();
  }
}
```

Notice the way that potential I/O errors are handled in this program and in the preceding **ShowFile** program. Unlike some other computer languages, including C and C++, which use error codes to report file errors, Java uses its exception handling mechanism. Not only does this make file handling cleaner, but it also enables Java to easily differentiate the end-of-file condition from file errors when input is being performed. In C/C++, many input functions return the same value when an error occurs and when the end of the file is reached. (That is, in C/C++, an EOF condition often is mapped to the same value as an input error.) This usually means that the programmer must include extra program statements to determine which event actually occurred. In Java, errors are passed to your program via exceptions, not by values returned by **read( )**. Thus, when **read( )** returns –1, it means only one thing: the end of the file has been encountered.

Applet Fundamentals

All of the preceding examples in this book have been Java applications. However, applications constitute only one class of Java programs. Another type of program is the applet. As mentioned in Chapter 1, *applets* are small applications that are accessed on an Internet server, transported over the Internet, automatically installed, and run as part of a Web document. After an applet arrives on the client, it has limited access to resources, so that it can produce an arbitrary multimedia user interface and run complex computations without introducing the risk of viruses or breaching data integrity.

Many of the issues connected with the creation and use of applets are found in Part II, when the **applet** package is examined. However, the fundamentals connected to the creation of an applet are presented here, because applets are not structured in the same way as the programs that have been used thus far. As you will see, applets differ from applications in several key areas.

Let’s begin with the simple applet shown here:

After you enter the source code for **SimpleApplet**, compile in the same way that you have been compiling programs. However, running **SimpleApplet** involves a different process. In fact, there are two ways in which you can run an applet:

- Executing the applet within a Java-compatible Web browser.
- Using an applet viewer, such as the standard SDK tool, **appletviewer**. An applet viewer executes your applet in a window. This is generally the fastest and easiest way to test your applet.

Each of these methods is described next.

To execute an applet in a Web browser, you need to write a short HTML text file that contains the appropriate APPLET tag. Here is the HTML file that executes **SimpleApplet**:

```
<applet code="SimpleApplet" width=200 height=60>
</applet>
```

The **width** and **height** statements specify the dimensions of the display area used by the applet. (The APPLET tag contains several other options that are examined more closely in Part II.) After you create this file, you can execute your browser and then load this file, which causes **SimpleApplet** to be executed.

To execute **SimpleApplet** with an applet viewer, you may also execute the HTML file shown earlier. For example, if the preceding HTML file is called **RunApp.html**, then the following command line will run **SimpleApplet**:

```
C:\>appletviewer RunApp.html
```

However, a more convenient method exists that you can use to speed up testing. Simply include a comment at the head of your Java source code file that contains the APPLET tag. By doing so, your code is documented with a prototype of the necessary HTML statements, and you can test your compiled applet merely by starting the applet viewer with your Java source code file. If you use this method, the **SimpleApplet** source file looks like this:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
/*
<applet code="SimpleApplet" width=200 height=60>
</applet>
*/

public class SimpleApplet extends Applet {
  public void paint(Graphics g) {
```

```
  int b; // will persist
}
```

Here, if an object of type **T** is written to a persistent storage area, the contents of **a** would not be saved, but the contents of **b** would.

The **volatile** modifier tells the compiler that the variable modified by **volatile** can be changed unexpectedly by other parts of your program. One of these situations involves multithreaded programs. (You saw an example of this in Chapter 11.) In a multithreaded program, sometimes, two or more threads share the same instance variable. For efficiency considerations, each thread can keep its own, private copy of such a shared variable. The real (or *master*) copy of the variable is updated at various times, such as when a **synchronized** method is entered. While this approach works fine, it may be inefficient at times. In some cases, all that really matters is that the master copy of a variable always reflects its current state. To ensure this, simply specify the variable as **volatile**, which tells the compiler that it must always use the master copy of a **volatile** variable (or, at least, always keep any private copies up to date with the master copy, and vice versa). Also, accesses to the master variable must be executed in the precise order in which they are executed on any private copy.

Note ***volatile*** *in Java has, more or less, the same meaning that it has in C/C++/C#.*

Using instanceof

Sometimes, knowing the type of an object during run time is useful. For example, you might have one thread of execution that generates various types of objects, and another thread that processes these objects. In this situation, it might be useful for the processing thread to know the type of each object when it receives it. Another situation in which knowledge of an object's type at run time is important involves casting. In Java, an invalid cast causes a run-time error. Many invalid casts can be caught at compile time. However, casts involving class hierarchies can produce invalid casts that can be detected only at run time. For example, a superclass called A can produce two subclasses, called B and C. Thus, casting a B object into type A or casting a C object into type A is legal, but casting a B object into type C (or vice versa) isn't legal. Because an object of type A can refer to objects of either B or C, how can you know, at run time, what type of object is actually being referred to before attempting the cast to type C? It could be an object of type A, B, or C. If it is an object of type B, a run-time exception will be thrown. Java provides the run-time operator **instanceof** to answer this question.

The **instanceof** operator has this general form:

object instanceof *type*

```
    System.out.println();

    // compare types of derived types
    A ob;

    ob = d; // A reference to d
    System.out.println("ob now refers to d");
    if(ob instanceof D)
      System.out.println("ob is instance of D");

    System.out.println();

    ob = c; // A reference to c
    System.out.println("ob now refers to c");

    if(ob instanceof D)
      System.out.println("ob can be cast to D");
    else
      System.out.println("ob cannot be cast to D");

    if(ob instanceof A)
      System.out.println("ob can be cast to A");

    System.out.println();

    // all objects can be cast to Object
    if(a instanceof Object)
      System.out.println("a may be cast to Object");
    if(b instanceof Object)
      System.out.println("b may be cast to Object");
    if(c instanceof Object)
      System.out.println("c may be cast to Object");
    if(d instanceof Object)
      System.out.println("d may be cast to Object");
  }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
a is instance of A
b is instance of B
c is instance of C
c can be cast to A
```

However, because Java programs are compiled to bytecode, which is then interpreted (or compiled on-the-fly) by the Java run-time system, it would seem impossible to call a native code subroutine from within your Java program. Fortunately, this conclusion is false. Java provides the **native** keyword, which is used to declare native code methods. Once declared, these methods can be called from inside your Java program just as you call any other Java method.

To declare a native method, precede the method with the **native** modifier, but do not define any body for the method. For example:

```
public native int meth() ;
```

After you declare a native method, you must write the native method and follow a rather complex series of steps to link it with your Java code.

Most native methods are written in C. The mechanism used to integrate C code with a Java program is called the *Java Native Interface* (*JNI*). This methodology was created by Java 1.1 and then expanded and enhanced by Java 2. (Java 1.0 used a different approach, which is now completely outdated.) A detailed description of the JNI is beyond the scope of this book, but the following description provides sufficient information for most applications.

Note *The precise steps that you need to follow will vary between different Java environments and versions. This also depends on the language that you are using to implement the native method. The following discussion assumes a Windows 95/98/XP/NT/2000 environment. The language used to implement the native method is C.*

The easiest way to understand the process is to work through an example. To begin, enter the following short program, which uses a **native** method called **test( )**:

```
// A simple example that uses a native method.
public class NativeDemo {
  int i;
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    NativeDemo ob = new NativeDemo();

    ob.i = 10;
    System.out.println("This is ob.i before the native method:" +
                       ob.i);
    ob.test(); // call a native method
    System.out.println("This is ob.i after the native method:" +
                       ob.i);
  }
```

```
 * Class:     NativeDemo
 * Method:    test
 * Signature: ()V
 */
JNIEXPORT void JNICALL Java_NativeDemo_test
  (JNIEnv *, jobject);

#ifdef _ _cplusplus
}
#endif
#endif
```

Pay special attention to the following line, which defines the prototype for the **test( )** function that you will create:

```
JNIEXPORT void JNICALL Java_NativeDemo_test(JNIEnv *, jobject);
```

Notice that the name of the function is **Java_NativeDemo_test( )**. You must use this as the name of the native function that you implement. That is, instead of creating a C function called **test( )**, you will create one called **Java_NativeDemo_test( )**. The **NativeDemo** component of the prefix is added because it identifies the **test( )** method as being part of the **NativeDemo** class. Remember, another class may define its own native **test( )** method that is completely different from the one declared by **NativeDemo**. Including the class name in the prefix provides a way to differentiate between differing versions. As a general rule, native functions will be given a name whose prefix includes the name of the class in which they are declared.

After producing the necessary header file, you can write your implementation of **test( )** and store it in a file named **NativeDemo.c**:

```
/* This file contains the C version of the
   test() method.
*/

#include <jni.h>
#include "NativeDemo.h"
#include <stdio.h>

JNIEXPORT void JNICALL Java_NativeDemo_test(JNIEnv *env, jobject obj)
{
  jclass cls;
  jfieldID fid;
  jint i;
```

Problems with Native Methods

Native methods seem to offer great promise, because they enable you to gain access to your existing base of library routines, and they offer the possibility of faster run-time execution. But native methods also introduce two significant problems:

- **Potential security risk** Because a native method executes actual machine code, it can gain access to any part of the host system. That is, native code is not confined to the Java execution environment. This could allow a virus infection, for example. For this reason, applets cannot use native methods. Also, the loading of DLLs can be restricted, and their loading is subject to the approval of the security manager.
- **Loss of portability** Because the native code is contained in a DLL, it must be present on the machine that is executing the Java program. Further, because each native method is CPU- and operating-system-dependent, each DLL is inherently nonportable. Thus, a Java application that uses native methods will be able to run only on a machine for which a compatible DLL has been installed.

The use of native methods should be restricted, because they render your Java programs nonportable and pose significant security risks.

Using assert

Java 2, version 1.4 added a new keyword to Java: **assert**. It is used during program development to create an *assertion*, which is a condition that should be true during the execution of the program. For example, you might have a method that should always return a positive integer value. You might test this by asserting that the return value is greater than zero using an **assert** statement. At run time, if the condition actually is true, no other action takes place. However, if the condition is false, then an **AssertionError** is thrown. Assertions are often used during testing to verify that some expected condition is actually met. They are not usually used for released code.

The **assert** keyword has two forms. The first is shown here.

assert *condition*;

Here, *condition* is an expression that must evaluate to a Boolean result. If the result is true, then the assertion is true and no other action takes place. If the condition is false, then the assertion fails and a default **AssertionError** object is thrown.

The second form of **assert** is shown here.

assert *condition* : *expr*;

In this version, *expr* is a value that is passed to the **AssertionError** constructor. This value is converted to its string format and displayed if an assertion fails. Typically, you will specify a string for *expr*, but any non-**void** expression is allowed as long as it defines a reasonable string conversion.

```
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.AssertionError
        at AssertDemo.main(AssertDemo.java:17)
```

In **main( )**, repeated calls are made to the method **getnum( )**, which returns an integer value. The return value of **getnum( )** is assigned to **n** and then tested using this **assert** statement.

```
assert n > 0; // will fail when n is 0
```

This statement will fail when **n** equals 0, which it will after the fourth call. When this happens, an exception is thrown.

As explained, you can specify the message displayed when an assertion fails. For example, if you substitute

```
assert n > 0 : "n is negative!";
```

for the assertion in the preceding program, then the following ouptut will be generated.

```
n is 3
n is 2
n is 1
Exception in thread "main" java.lang.AssertionError: n is negative!
        at AssertDemo.main(AssertDemo.java:17)
```

One important point to understand about assertions is that you must not rely on them to perform any action actually required by the program. The reason is that normally, released code will be run with assertions disabled. For example, consider this variation of the preceding program.

```
// A poor way to use assert!!!
class AssertDemo {
  // get a random number generator
  static int val = 3;

  // Return an integer.
  static int getnum() {
    return val--;
  }

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

To enable or disable all subpackages of a package, follow the package name with three dots. For example,

```
-ea:MyPack...
```

You can also specify a class with the **-ea** or **-da** option. For example, this enables **AssertDemo** individually.

```
-ea:AssertDemo
```

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A brief overview of Java's string handling was presented in Chapter 7. In this chapter, it is described in detail. As is the case in most other programming languages, in Java a *string* is a sequence of characters. But, unlike many other languages that implement strings as character arrays, Java implements strings as objects of type **String**.

Implementing strings as built-in objects allows Java to provide a full complement of features that make string handling convenient. For example, Java has methods to compare two strings, search for a substring, concatenate two strings, and change the case of letters within a string. Also, **String** objects can be constructed a number of ways, making it easy to obtain a string when needed.

Somewhat unexpectedly, when you create a **String** object, you are creating a string that cannot be changed. That is, once a **String** object has been created, you cannot change the characters that comprise that string. At first, this may seem to be a serious restriction. However, such is not the case. You can still perform all types of string operations. The difference is that each time you need an altered version of an existing string, a new **String** object is created that contains the modifications. The original string is left unchanged. This approach is used because fixed, immutable strings can be implemented more efficiently than changeable ones. For those cases in which a modifiable string is desired, there is a companion class to **String** called **StringBuffer**, whose objects contain strings that can be modified after they are created.

Both the **String** and **StringBuffer** classes are defined in **java.lang**. Thus, they are available to all programs automatically. Both are declared **final**, which means that neither of these classes may be subclassed. This allows certain optimizations that increase performance to take place on common string operations. Beginning with Java 2, version 1.4, both **String** and **StringBuffer** implement the **CharSequence** interface.

One last point: To say that the strings within objects of type **String** are unchangeable means that the contents of the **String** instance cannot be changed after it has been created. However, a variable declared as a **String** reference can be changed to point at some other **String** object at any time.

The String Constructors

The **String** class supports several constructors. To create an empty **String**, you call the default constructor. For example,

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

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

Frequently, you will want to create strings that have initial values. The **String** class provides a variety of constructors to handle this. To create a **String** initialized by an array of characters, use the constructor shown here:

String(char *chars*[ ])

Even though Java's **char** type uses 16 bits to represent the Unicode character set, the typical format for strings on the Internet uses arrays of 8-bit bytes constructed from the ASCII character set. Because 8-bit ASCII strings are common, the **String** class provides constructors that initialize a string when given a **byte** array. Their forms are shown here:

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

Here, *asciiChars* specifies the array of bytes. The second form allows you to specify a subrange. In each of these constructors, the byte-to-character conversion is done by using the default character encoding of the platform. The following program illustrates these constructors:

```
// Construct string from subset of char array.
class SubStringCons {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    byte ascii[] = {65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70 };

    String s1 = new String(ascii);
    System.out.println(s1);

    String s2 = new String(ascii, 2, 3);
    System.out.println(s2);
  }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
ABCDEF
CDE
```

Extended versions of the byte-to-string constructors are also defined in which you can specify the character encoding that determines how bytes are converted to characters. However, most of the time, you will want to use the default encoding provided by the platform.

Note *The contents of the array are copied whenever you create a **String** object from an array. If you modify the contents of the array after you have created the string, the **String** will be unchanged.*

String Concatenation

In general, Java does not allow operators to be applied to **String** objects. The one exception to this rule is the **+** operator, which concatenates two strings, producing a **String** object as the result. This allows you to chain together a series of **+** operations. For example, the following fragment concatenates three strings:

```
String age = "9";
String s = "He is " + age + " years old.";
System.out.println(s);
```

This displays the string "He is 9 years old."

One practical use of string concatenation is found when you are creating very long strings. Instead of letting long strings wrap around within your source code, you can break them into smaller pieces, using the **+** to concatenate them. Here is an example:

```
// Using concatenation to prevent long lines.
class ConCat {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    String longStr = "This could have been " +
      "a very long line that would have " +
      "wrapped around.  But string concatenation " +
      "prevents this.";

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

String Concatenation with Other Data Types

You can concatenate strings with other types of data. For example, consider this slightly different version of the earlier example:

```
int age = 9;
String s = "He is " + age + " years old.";
System.out.println(s);
```

In this case, **age** is an **int** rather than another **String**, but the output produced is the same as before. This is because the **int** value in **age** is automatically converted into its string representation within a **String** object. This string is then concatenated as before. The compiler will convert an operand to its string equivalent whenever the other operand of the **+** is an instance of **String**.

By overriding **toString( )** for classes that you create, you allow them to be fully integrated into Java's programming environment. For example, they can be used in **print( )** and **println( )** statements and in concatenation expressions. The following program demonstrates this by overriding **toString( )** for the **Box** class:

```
// Override toString() for Box class.
class Box {
  double width;
  double height;
  double depth;

  Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    width = w;
    height = h;
    depth = d;
  }

  public String toString() {
    return "Dimensions are " + width + " by " +
            depth + " by " + height + ".";
  }
}

class toStringDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    Box b = new Box(10, 12, 14);
    String s = "Box b: " + b; // concatenate Box object

    System.out.println(b); // convert Box to string
    System.out.println(s);
  }
}
```

The output of this program is shown here:

```
Dimensions are 10.0 by 14.0 by 12.0
Box b: Dimensions are 10.0 by 14.0 by 12.0
```

As you can see, **Box**'s **toString( )** method is automatically invoked when a **Box** object is used in a concatenation expression or in a call to **println( )**.

```
    String s = "This is a demo of the getChars method.";
    int start = 10;
    int end = 14;
    char buf[] = new char[end - start];

    s.getChars(start, end, buf, 0);
    System.out.println(buf);
  }
}
```

Here is the output of this program:

```
demo
```

getBytes( )

There is an alternative to **getChars( )** that stores the characters in an array of bytes. This method is called **getBytes( )**, and it uses the default character-to-byte conversions provided by the platform. Here is its simplest form:

byte[ ] getBytes( )

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

toCharArray( )

If you want to convert all the characters in a **String** object into a character array, the easiest way is to call **toCharArray( )**. It returns an array of characters for the entire string. It has this general form:

char[ ] toCharArray( )

This function is provided as a convenience, since it is possible to use **getChars( )** to achieve the same result.

String Comparison

The **String** class includes several methods that compare strings or substrings within strings. Each is examined here.

regionMatches( )

The **regionMatches( )** method compares a specific region inside a string with another specific region in another string. There is an overloaded form that allows you to ignore case in such comparisons. Here are the general forms for these two methods:

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

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

For both versions, *startIndex* specifies the index at which the region begins within the invoking **String** object. The **String** being compared is specified by *str2*. The index at which the comparison will start within *str2* is specified by *str2StartIndex*. The length of the substring being compared is passed in *numChars*. In the second version, if *ignoreCase* is **true**, the case of the characters is ignored. Otherwise, case is significant.

startsWith( ) and endsWith( )

String defines two routines that are, more or less, specialized forms of **regionMatches( )**. The **startsWith( )** method determines whether a given **String** begins with a specified string. Conversely, **endsWith( )** determines whether the **String** in question ends with a specified string. They have the following general forms:

boolean startsWith(String *str*)
boolean endsWith(String *str*)

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

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

and

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

are both **true**.

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

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

Here, *startIndex* specifies the index into the invoking string at which point the search will begin. For example, Here, *str* is the **String** being compared with the invoking **String**. The result of the comparison is returned and is interpreted as shown here:

Value	Meaning
Less than zero	The invoking string is less than *str.*
Greater than zero	The invoking string is greater than *str.*
Zero	The two strings are equal.

Here is a sample program that sorts an array of strings. The program uses **compareTo( )** to determine sort ordering for a bubble sort:

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

The output of this program is the list of words:

```
Now
aid
all
come
country
for
good
is
men
```

You can specify a starting point for the search using these forms:

int indexOf(int *ch*, int *startIndex*)
int lastIndexOf(int *ch*, int *startIndex*)

int indexOf(String *str*, int *startIndex*)
int lastIndexOf(String *str*, int *startIndex*)

Here, *startIndex* specifies the index at which point the search begins. For **indexOf( )**, the search runs from *startIndex* to the end of the string. For **lastIndexOf( )**, the search runs from *startIndex* to zero.

The following example shows how to use the various index methods to search inside of **String**s:

```
// Demonstrate indexOf() and lastIndexOf().
class indexOfDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    String s = "Now is the time for all good men " +
               "to come to the aid of their country.";

    System.out.println(s);
    System.out.println("indexOf(t) = " +
                       s.indexOf('t'));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(t) = " +
                       s.lastIndexOf('t'));
    System.out.println("indexOf(the) = " +
                       s.indexOf("the"));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(the) = " +
                       s.lastIndexOf("the"));
    System.out.println("indexOf(t, 10) = " +
                       s.indexOf('t', 10));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(t, 60) = " +
                       s.lastIndexOf('t', 60));
    System.out.println("indexOf(the, 10) = " +
                       s.indexOf("the", 10));
    System.out.println("lastIndexOf(the, 60) = " +
                       s.lastIndexOf("the", 60));
  }
}
```

Here is the output of this program:

```
Now is the time for all good men to come to the aid of their country.
indexOf(t) = 7
```

```
        i = org.indexOf(search);
        if(i != -1) {
          result = org.substring(0, i);
          result = result + sub;
          result = result + org.substring(i + search.length());
          org = result;
        }
      } while(i != -1);

    }
  }
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
This is a test. This is, too.
Thwas is a test. This is, too.
Thwas was a test. This is, too.
Thwas was a test. Thwas is, too.
Thwas was a test. Thwas was, too.
```

concat( )

You can concatenate two strings using **concat( )**, shown here:

String concat(String *str*)

This method creates a new object that contains the invoking string with the contents of *str* appended to the end. **concat( )** performs the same function as **+**. For example,

```
String s1 = "one";
String s2 = s1.concat("two");
```

puts the string "onetwo" into **s2**. It generates the same result as the following sequence:

```
String s1 = "one";
String s2 = s1 + "two";
```

replace( )

The **replace( )** method replaces all occurrences of one character in the invoking string with another character. It has the following general form:

```
        str = br.readLine();
        str = str.trim(); // remove whitespace

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

Data Conversion Using valueOf( )

The **valueOf( )** method converts data from its internal format into a human-readable form. It is a static method that is overloaded within **String** for all of Java's built-in types, so that each type can be converted properly into a string. **valueOf( )** is also overloaded for type **Object**, so an object of any class type you create can also be used as an argument. (Recall that **Object** is a superclass for all classes.) Here are a few of its forms:

static String valueOf(double *num*)
static String valueOf(long *num*)
static String valueOf(Object *ob*)
static String valueOf(char *chars*[ ])

As we discussed earlier, **valueOf( )** is called when a string representation of some other type of data is needed—for example, during concatenation operations. You can call this method directly with any data type and get a reasonable **String** representation. All of the simple types are converted to their common **String** representation. Any object that you pass to **valueOf( )** will return the result of a call to the object's **toString( )** method. In fact, you could just call **toString( )** directly and get the same result.

For most arrays, **valueOf( )** returns a rather cryptic string, which indicates that it is an array of some type. For arrays of **char**, however, a **String** object is created that contains the characters in the **char** array. There is a special version of **valueOf( )** that allows you to specify a subset of a **char** array. It has this general form:

static String valueOf(char *chars*[ ], int *startIndex*, int *numChars*)

String Methods Added by Java 2, Version 1.4

Java 2, version 1.4 adds several methods to the **String** class. These are summarized in the following table.

Method	Description
boolean contentEquals(StringBuffer *str*)	Returns **true** if the invoking string contains the same string as *str*. Otherwise, returns **false**.
CharSequence subSequence(int *startIndex*, int *stopIndex*)	Returns a substring of the invoking string, beginning at *startIndex* and stopping at *stopIndex*. This method is required by the **CharSequence** interface, which is now implemented by **String**.
boolean matches(string *regExp*)	Returns **true** if the invoking string matches the regular expression passed in *regExp*. Otherwise, returns **false**.
String replaceFirst(String *regExp*, String *newStr*)	Returns a string in which the first substring that matches the regular expression specified by *regExp* is replaced by *newStr*.
String replaceAll(String *regExp*, String *newStr*)	Returns a string in which all substrings that match the regular expression specified by *regExp* are replaced by *newStr*.
String[ ] split(String *regExp*)	Decomposes the invoking string into parts and returns an array that contains the result. Each part is delimited by the regular expression passed in *regExp*.
String[ ] split(String *regExp*, int *max*)	Decomposes the invoking string into parts and returns an array that contains the result. Each part is delimited by the regular expression passed in *regExp*. The number of pieces is specified by *max*. If *max* is negative, then the invoking string is fully decomposed. Otherwise, if *max* contains a non-zero value, the last entry in the returned array contains the remainder of the invoking string. If *max* is zero, the invoking string is fully decomposed.

Here is an example:

```
// StringBuffer length vs. capacity.
class StringBufferDemo {
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer("Hello");

    System.out.println("buffer = " + sb);
    System.out.println("length = " + sb.length());
    System.out.println("capacity = " + sb.capacity());
  }
}
```

Here is the output of this program, which shows how **StringBuffer** reserves extra space for additional manipulations:

```
buffer = Hello
length = 5
capacity = 21
```

Since **sb** is initialized with the string "Hello" when it is created, its length is 5. Its capacity is 21 because room for 16 additional characters is automatically added.

ensureCapacity( )

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

void ensureCapacity(int *capacity*)

Here, *capacity* specifies the size of the buffer.

setLength( )

To set the length of the buffer within a **StringBuffer** object, use **setLength( )**. Its general form is shown here:

void setLength(int *len*)

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

When you increase the size of the buffer, null characters are added to the end of the existing buffer. If you call **setLength( )** with a value less than the current value returned by **length( )**, then the characters stored beyond the new length will be lost.