

Updated through Java 21



Core Java for the Impatient

Fourth Edition

Cay S. Horstmann



FREE SAMPLE CHAPTER



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Core Java for the Impatient

Fourth Edition

Cay S. Horstmann

◆ Addison-Wesley

Hoboken, New Jersey

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To Chi—the most patient person in my life.

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Table of Contents

Preface.....	xvii
Acknowledgments.....	xix
1. Fundamental Programming Structures.....	1
1.1. Our First Program.....	1
1.1.1. Dissecting the “Hello, World” Program.....	1
1.1.2. Compiling and Running a Java Program	3
1.1.3. Object Instances and Method Calls.....	6
1.1.4. JShell	8
1.2. Primitive Types	12
1.2.1. Signed Integer Types	12
1.2.2. Floating-Point Types.....	13
1.2.3. The char Type	14
1.2.4. The boolean Type.....	15
1.3. Variables	15
1.3.1. Variable Declarations	15
1.3.2. Identifiers	16
1.3.3. Initialization	16
1.3.4. Constants	17
1.4. Arithmetic Operations.....	18
1.4.1. Assignment.....	19
1.4.2. Basic Arithmetic	19
1.4.3. Mathematical Methods.....	21
1.4.4. Number Type Conversions	21
1.4.5. Relational and Logical Operators.....	23
1.4.6. Big Numbers	24
1.5. Strings.....	25
1.5.1. Concatenation	25
1.5.2. Substrings	26
1.5.3. String Comparison	27
1.5.4. Converting Between Numbers and Strings.....	28
1.5.5. The String API.....	29
1.5.6. Code Points and Code Units.....	30
1.5.7. Text Blocks	33
1.6. Input and Output	35
1.6.1. Reading Input.....	35
1.6.2. Formatted Output.....	37
1.7. Control Flow	39
1.7.1. Branches	39
1.7.2. Switches	40
1.7.3. Loops	43
1.7.4. Breaking and Continuing	44
1.7.5. Local Variable Scope	46
1.8. Arrays and Array Lists	48

1.8.1. Working with Arrays.....	48
1.8.2. Array Construction.....	49
1.8.3. Array Lists	50
1.8.4. Wrapper Classes for Primitive Types	51
1.8.5. The Enhanced for Loop.....	52
1.8.6. Copying Arrays and Array Lists	52
1.8.7. Array Algorithms.....	53
1.8.8. Command-Line Arguments.....	54
1.8.9. Multidimensional Arrays	55
1.9. Functional Decomposition	58
1.9.1. Declaring and Calling Static Methods	58
1.9.2. Array Parameters and Return Values.....	58
1.9.3. Variable Arguments.....	59
1.10. Exercises.....	60
2. Object-Oriented Programming	63
2.1. Working with Objects.....	63
2.1.1. Accessor and Mutator Methods	66
2.1.2. Object References	66
2.2. Implementing Classes.....	68
2.2.1. Instance Variables	68
2.2.2. Method Headers.....	69
2.2.3. Method Bodies	69
2.2.4. Instance Method Invocations	70
2.2.5. The this Reference.....	71
2.2.6. Call by Value.....	71
2.3. Object Construction	73
2.3.1. Implementing Constructors	73
2.3.2. Overloading	74
2.3.3. Calling One Constructor from Another	75
2.3.4. Default Initialization.....	75
2.3.5. Instance Variable Initialization.....	76
2.3.6. Final Instance Variables	77
2.3.7. The Constructor with No Arguments	77
2.4. Records	78
2.4.1. The Record Concept.....	79
2.4.2. Constructors: Canonical, Custom, and Compact	81
2.5. Static Variables and Methods	82
2.5.1. Static Variables	82
2.5.2. Static Constants	83
2.5.3. Static Initialization Blocks	84
2.5.4. Static Methods	84
2.5.5. Factory Methods.....	85
2.6. Packages	86
2.6.1. Package Declarations	86
2.6.2. The jar Command.....	87
2.6.3. The Class Path.....	88
2.6.4. Package Access	90
2.6.5. Importing Classes.....	91

2.6.6. Static Imports.....	92
2.7. Nested Classes.....	92
2.7.1. Static Nested Classes.....	93
2.7.2. Inner Classes.....	94
2.7.3. Special Syntax Rules for Inner Classes.....	97
2.8. Documentation Comments.....	98
2.8.1. Comment Insertion.....	98
2.8.2. Class Comments.....	99
2.8.3. Method Comments.....	99
2.8.4. Variable Comments.....	100
2.8.5. General Comments.....	100
2.8.6. Links.....	101
2.8.7. Package, Module, and Overview Comments.....	102
2.8.8. Comment Extraction.....	102
2.9. Exercises.....	103
3. Interfaces and Lambda Expressions.....	105
3.1. Interfaces.....	106
3.1.1. Using Interfaces.....	106
3.1.2. Declaring an Interface.....	106
3.1.3. Implementing an Interface.....	107
3.1.4. Converting to an Interface Type.....	109
3.1.5. Casts and the instanceof Operator.....	109
3.1.6. The “Pattern-Matching” Form of instanceof.....	110
3.1.7. Extending Interfaces.....	112
3.1.8. Implementing Multiple Interfaces.....	112
3.1.9. Constants.....	112
3.2. Static, Default, and Private Methods.....	113
3.2.1. Static Methods.....	113
3.2.2. Default Methods.....	114
3.2.3. Resolving Default Method Conflicts.....	115
3.2.4. Private Methods.....	116
3.3. Examples of Interfaces.....	117
3.3.1. The Comparable Interface.....	117
3.3.2. The Comparator Interface.....	118
3.3.3. The Runnable Interface.....	119
3.3.4. User Interface Callbacks.....	120
3.4. Lambda Expressions.....	121
3.4.1. The Syntax of Lambda Expressions.....	121
3.4.2. Functional Interfaces.....	123
3.5. Method and Constructor References.....	124
3.5.1. Method References.....	124
3.5.2. Constructor References.....	125
3.6. Processing Lambda Expressions.....	126
3.6.1. Implementing Deferred Execution.....	126
3.6.2. Choosing a Functional Interface.....	127
3.6.3. Implementing Your Own Functional Interfaces.....	130
3.7. Lambda Expressions and Variable Scope.....	131
3.7.1. Scope of a Lambda Expression.....	131

3.7.2. Accessing Variables from the Enclosing Scope.....	132
3.8. Higher-Order Functions.....	134
3.8.1. Methods That Return Functions	134
3.8.2. Methods That Modify Functions	135
3.8.3. Comparator Methods.....	135
3.9. Local and Anonymous Classes	136
3.9.1. Local Classes.....	136
3.9.2. Anonymous Classes	137
3.10. Exercises.....	138
4. Inheritance and Reflection	141
4.1. Extending a Class	142
4.1.1. Super- and Subclasses	142
4.1.2. Defining and Inheriting Subclass Methods.....	142
4.1.3. Method Overriding.....	143
4.1.4. Subclass Construction.....	144
4.1.5. Superclass Assignments.....	145
4.1.6. Casts.....	146
4.1.7. Anonymous Subclasses	146
4.1.8. Method Expressions with super	147
4.2. Inheritance Hierarchies.....	147
4.2.1. Final Methods and Classes.....	148
4.2.2. Abstract Methods and Classes	148
4.2.3. Protected Access	149
4.2.4. Sealed Types	150
4.2.5. Inheritance and Default Methods	154
4.3. Object: The Cosmic Superclass	154
4.3.1. The toString Method.....	155
4.3.2. The equals Method.....	157
4.3.3. The hashCode Method.....	159
4.3.4. Cloning Objects	161
4.4. Enumerations.....	164
4.4.1. Methods of Enumerations	164
4.4.2. Constructors, Methods, and Fields	165
4.4.3. Bodies of Instances	166
4.4.4. Static Members	167
4.4.5. Switching on an Enumeration.....	167
4.5. Pattern Matching.....	168
4.5.1. Record Patterns.....	169
4.5.2. Guards.....	170
4.5.3. Null Handling	170
4.5.4. Exhaustiveness.....	171
4.5.5. Dominance.....	172
4.5.6. Patterns and Constants	173
4.6. Runtime Type Information and Resources	174
4.6.1. The Class Class	174
4.6.2. Loading Resources	178
4.6.3. Class Loaders	178
4.6.4. The Context Class Loader	180

4.6.5. Service Loaders.....	181
4.7. Reflection	183
4.7.1. Enumerating Class Members	183
4.7.2. Inspecting Objects.....	184
4.7.3. Invoking Methods.....	185
4.7.4. Constructing Objects.....	186
4.7.5. JavaBeans	187
4.7.6. Working with Arrays.....	188
4.7.7. Proxies.....	190
4.8. Exercises	191
5. Exceptions, Assertions, and Logging.....	193
5.1. Exception Handling.....	193
5.1.1. Throwing Exceptions.....	194
5.1.2. The Exception Hierarchy	194
5.1.3. Declaring Checked Exceptions.....	196
5.1.4. Catching Exceptions.....	197
5.1.5. The Try-with-Resources Statement.....	198
5.1.6. The finally Clause.....	200
5.1.7. Rethrowing and Chaining Exceptions	202
5.1.8. Uncaught Exceptions and the Stack Trace	203
5.1.9. API Methods for Throwing Exceptions.....	204
5.2. Assertions	205
5.2.1. Using Assertions	206
5.2.2. Enabling and Disabling Assertions	206
5.3. Logging	207
5.3.1. Should You Use the Java Logging Framework?	207
5.3.2. Logging 101	208
5.3.3. The Platform Logging API	209
5.3.4. Logging Configuration	211
5.3.5. Log Handlers.....	213
5.3.6. Filters and Formatters	215
5.4. Exercises	216
6. Generic Programming	219
6.1. Generic Classes.....	220
6.2. Generic Methods.....	220
6.3. Type Bounds	221
6.4. Type Variance and Wildcards.....	222
6.4.1. Subtype Wildcards	223
6.4.2. Supertype Wildcards	224
6.4.3. Wildcards with Type Variables	226
6.4.4. Unbounded Wildcards	227
6.4.5. Wildcard Capture	227
6.5. Generics in the Java Virtual Machine	228
6.5.1. Type Erasure	228
6.5.2. Cast Insertion	229
6.5.3. Bridge Methods.....	230
6.6. Restrictions on Generics.....	231
6.6.1. No Primitive Type Arguments.....	231

6.6.2. At Runtime, All Types Are Raw	232
6.6.3. You Cannot Instantiate Type Variables	233
6.6.4. You Cannot Construct Arrays of Parameterized Types	235
6.6.5. Class Type Variables Are Not Valid in Static Contexts.....	236
6.6.6. Methods May Not Clash after Erasure	236
6.6.7. Exceptions and Generics.....	237
6.7. Reflection and Generics	238
6.7.1. The Class<T> Class	238
6.7.2. Generic Type Information in the Virtual Machine	239
6.8. Exercises	241
7. Collections	245
7.1. An Overview of the Collections Framework	245
7.2. Iterators	251
7.3. Sets	252
7.4. Maps	254
7.4.1. Basic Map Operations	254
7.4.2. Entries and Traversal.....	258
7.5. Other Collections	260
7.5.1. Properties.....	260
7.5.2. Bit Sets	262
7.5.3. Small Collections.....	264
7.5.4. Enumeration Sets and Maps	265
7.5.5. Stacks, Queues, Deques, and Priority Queues	265
7.5.6. Weak Hash Maps.....	267
7.6. Views.....	267
7.6.1. Ranges.....	267
7.6.2. Unmodifiable Views.....	268
7.6.3. Reversed Views	269
7.7. Exercises	269
8. Streams.....	271
8.1. From Iterating to Stream Operations	271
8.2. Stream Creation.....	273
8.3. The filter, map, and flatMap Methods	276
8.4. Extracting Substreams and Combining Streams.....	278
8.5. Other Stream Transformations	279
8.6. Simple Reductions	280
8.7. The Optional Type.....	281
8.7.1. Producing an Alternative	281
8.7.2. Consuming the Value If Present	281
8.7.3. Pipelining Optional Values	282
8.7.4. How Not to Work with Optional Values.....	283
8.7.5. Creating Optional Values	284
8.7.6. Composing Optional Value Functions with flatMap	284
8.7.7. Turning an Optional into a Stream	285
8.8. Collecting Results	286
8.9. Collecting into Maps	287
8.10. Grouping and Partitioning	289
8.11. Downstream Collectors.....	290

8.12. Reduction Operations	292
8.13. Primitive Type Streams.....	294
8.14. Parallel Streams.....	295
8.15. Exercises	298
9. Processing Input and Output.....	301
9.1. Input/Output Streams, Readers, and Writers	301
9.1.1. Obtaining Streams	302
9.1.2. Reading Bytes	302
9.1.3. Writing Bytes.....	303
9.1.4. Character Encodings.....	304
9.1.5. Text Input	306
9.1.6. Text Output.....	307
9.1.7. Reading Character Input.....	309
9.1.8. Reading and Writing Binary Data	310
9.1.9. Random-Access Files.....	311
9.1.10. Memory-Mapped Files	311
9.1.11. File Locking.....	312
9.2. Paths, Files, and Directories	313
9.2.1. Paths.....	313
9.2.2. Creating Files and Directories	315
9.2.3. Copying, Moving, and Deleting Files	315
9.2.4. Visiting Directory Entries.....	317
9.2.5. ZIP File Systems.....	320
9.3. HTTP Connections	321
9.3.1. The URLConnection and HttpURLConnection Classes	321
9.3.2. The HTTP Client API	322
9.4. Regular Expressions	325
9.4.1. The Regular Expression Syntax	325
9.4.2. Testing a Match.....	330
9.4.3. Finding All Matches	331
9.4.4. Groups.....	332
9.4.5. Splitting along Delimiters	333
9.4.6. Replacing Matches.....	334
9.4.7. Flags.....	335
9.5. Serialization	336
9.5.1. The Serializable Interface.....	336
9.5.2. Transient Instance Variables.....	338
9.5.3. The readObject and writeObject Methods	338
9.5.4. The readExternal and writeExternal Methods	340
9.5.5. The readResolve and writeReplace Methods	341
9.5.6. Versioning.....	342
9.5.7. Deserialization and Security	344
9.6. Exercises	346
10. Concurrent Programming.....	349
10.1. Concurrent Tasks	350
10.1.1. Running Tasks	350
10.1.2. Futures	353
10.1.3. Thread Interruption	355

10.2. Thread Safety.....	357
10.2.1. Visibility.....	357
10.2.2. Race Conditions	359
10.2.3. Strategies for Safe Concurrency.....	361
10.2.4. Immutable Classes	362
10.3. Threadsafe Data Structures.....	363
10.3.1. Concurrent Hash Maps	363
10.3.2. Blocking Queues.....	365
10.3.3. Other Threadsafe Data Structures.....	367
10.4. Parallel Algorithms	368
10.4.1. Parallel Streams	368
10.4.2. Parallel Array Operations.....	368
10.5. Asynchronous Computations	369
10.5.1. Completable Futures.....	369
10.5.2. Composing Completable Futures.....	371
10.5.3. Long-Running Tasks in User Interface Callbacks	375
10.6. Atomic Counters and Accumulators	376
10.7. Locks and Conditions.....	379
10.7.1. Locks	379
10.7.2. The synchronized Keyword.....	380
10.7.3. Waiting on Conditions	382
10.8. Threads	384
10.8.1. Running a Thread.....	385
10.8.2. Thread-Local Variables.....	386
10.8.3. Miscellaneous Thread Properties.....	387
10.9. Processes	388
10.9.1. Building a Process.....	388
10.9.2. Running a Process.....	390
10.9.3. Process Handles	392
10.10. Exercises.....	393
11. Annotations.....	399
11.1. Using Annotations.....	400
11.1.1. Annotation Elements	400
11.1.2. Multiple and Repeated Annotations.....	401
11.1.3. Annotating Declarations.....	402
11.1.4. Annotating Type Uses	403
11.1.5. Making Receivers Explicit.....	404
11.2. Defining Annotations	405
11.3. Annotations in the Java API	408
11.3.1. Annotations for Compilation	409
11.3.2. Meta-Annotations	410
11.4. Processing Annotations at Runtime	412
11.5. Source-Level Annotation Processing	415
11.5.1. Annotation Processors.....	416
11.5.2. The Language Model API	416
11.5.3. Using Annotations to Generate Source Code.....	417
11.6. Exercises.....	420
12. The Java Platform Module System.....	423

12.1. The Module Concept	424
12.2. Naming Modules	425
12.3. The Modular “Hello, World!” Program	426
12.4. Requiring Modules	427
12.5. Exporting Packages	429
12.6. Modules and Reflective Access	433
12.7. Modular JARs	436
12.8. Automatic Modules	437
12.9. The Unnamed Module	438
12.10. Command-Line Flags for Migration	439
12.11. Transitive and Static Requirements	440
12.12. Qualified Exporting and Opening	442
12.13. Service Loading	443
12.14. Tools for Working with Modules	444
12.15. Exercises	446
Index	449

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Preface

Java has seen many changes since its initial release in 1996. The classic book, *Core Java*, covers, in meticulous detail, not just the language but all core libraries and a multitude of changes between versions, spanning two volumes and over 2,000 pages. However, if you just want to be productive with modern Java, there is a much faster, easier pathway for learning the language and core libraries. In this book, I don't retrace history and don't dwell on features of past versions. I show you the good parts of Java as it exists today, so you can put your knowledge to work quickly.

As with my previous "Impatient" books, I quickly cut to the chase, showing you what you need to know to solve a programming problem without lecturing about the superiority of one paradigm over another. I also present the information in small chunks, organized so that you can quickly retrieve it when needed.

Assuming you are proficient in some other programming language, such as Python, C++, JavaScript, Swift, PHP, or Ruby, with this book you will learn how to become a competent Java programmer. I cover all aspects of Java that a developer needs to know today, including the powerful concepts of lambda expressions and streams, as well as modern constructs such as records and pattern matching.

This book is fully updated to Java 21. It uses modern features and does not dwell on historical or obsolete constructs. Preview features that may make it to the language in the future are not covered either.

A key reason to use Java is to tackle concurrent programming. With parallel algorithms and threadsafe data structures readily available in the Java library, the way application programmers should handle concurrent programming has completely changed. I provide fresh coverage, showing you how to use the powerful library features instead of error-prone low-level constructs.

Traditionally, books on Java have focused on user interface programming, but nowadays, few developers produce user interfaces on desktop computers. You will be able to use this book effectively without being distracted by lengthy GUI code.

Finally, this book is written for application programmers, not for a college course and not for systems wizards. The book covers issues that application programmers need to wrestle with, such as logging and working with files, but you won't learn how to implement a linked list by hand or how to write a web server.

I hope you enjoy this rapid-fire introduction into modern Java, and I hope it will make your work with Java productive and enjoyable.

If you find errors or have suggestions for improvement, please visit <http://horstmann.com/javaimpatient/bugs.html> and leave a comment.



Tip: Download the runnable code examples that complement this book at <http://horstmann.com/javaimpatient/bugs.html>.

Acknowledgments

My thanks go, as always, to my editor Greg Doench, who enthusiastically supported the vision of a short book that gives a fresh introduction to Java. My special gratitude goes to the excellent team of reviewers for this and previous editions who spotted many errors and gave thoughtful suggestions for improvement. They are: Andres Almiray, Gail Anderson, Paul Anderson, Marcus Biel, Jean-Claude Brantschen, Brian Goetz, Mark Lawrence, Doug Lea, Ron Mak, Simon Ritter, Yoshiki Shibata, Clovis Tondo, and Christian Ullenboom.

I wrote the book using HTML and CSS, and Prince (<https://princexml.com>) turned it into PDF—a workflow that I highly recommend.

*Cay Horstmann
Düsseldorf, Germany
August 2024*

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Processing Input and Output

In this chapter, you will learn how to work with files, directories, and web pages, and how to read and write data in binary and text format. You will also find a discussion of regular expressions, which can be useful for processing input. (I couldn't think of a better place to handle that topic, and apparently neither could the Java developers—when the regular expression API specification was proposed, it was attached to the specification request for “new I/O” features.) Finally, this chapter shows you the object serialization mechanism that lets you store objects as easily as you can store text or numeric data.

The key points of this chapter are:

1. An `InputStream` is a source of bytes, and an `OutputStream` is a destination for bytes.
2. A `Reader` reads characters, and a `Writer` writes them. Be sure to specify a character encoding.
3. The `Files` class has convenience methods for reading all bytes or lines of a file.
4. The `DataInput` and `DataOutput` interfaces have methods for writing numbers in binary format.
5. Use a `RandomAccessFile` or a memory-mapped file for random access.
6. A `Path` is an absolute or relative sequence of path components in a file system. Paths can be combined (or “resolved”).
7. Use the methods of the `Files` class to copy, move, or delete files and to recursively walk through a directory tree.
8. To read or update a ZIP file, use a ZIP file system.
9. You can read the contents of a web page with the `URL` class. To read metadata or write data, use the `URLConnection` class.
10. With the `Pattern` and `Matcher` classes, you can find all matches of a regular expression in a string, as well as the captured groups for each match.
11. The serialization mechanism can save and restore any object implementing the `Serializable` interface, provided its instance variables are also serializable.

9.1. Input/Output Streams, Readers, and Writers

In the Java API, a source from which one can read bytes is called an *input stream*. The bytes can come from a file, a network connection, or an array in memory. (These streams are unrelated to the streams of [Chapter 8](#).) Similarly, a destination for bytes is an *output stream*. In contrast, *readers* and *writers* consume and produce sequences of *characters*. In the following sections, you will learn how to read and write bytes and characters.

9.1.1. Obtaining Streams

The easiest way to obtain a stream from a file is with the static methods

```
InputStream in = Files.newInputStream(path);
OutputStream out = Files.newOutputStream(path);
```

Here, `path` is an instance of the `Path` class that is covered in [Section 9.2.1](#). It describes a path in a file system.

If you have an `URL` object, you can read its contents from the input stream returned by the `openStream` method. (The `URL` constructors are deprecated, and you should create an `URL` instance as shown here.)

```
var url = URI.create("https://horstmann.com/index.html").toURL();
InputStream in = url.openStream();
```

[Section 9.3](#) shows how to send data to a web server.

The `ByteArrayInputStream` class lets you read from an array of bytes.

```
byte[] bytes = ...;
var in = new ByteArrayInputStream(bytes);
Read from in
```

Conversely, to send output to a byte array, use a `ByteArrayOutputStream`:

```
var out = new ByteArrayOutputStream();
Write to out
byte[] bytes = out.toByteArray();
```

9.1.2. Reading Bytes

The `InputStream` class has a method to read a single byte:

```
InputStream in = ...;
int b = in.read();
```

This method either returns the byte as an integer between 0 and 255, or returns -1 if the end of input has been reached.



Caution: The Java byte type has values between -128 and 127. You can cast the returned value into a byte *after* you have checked that it is not -1.

More commonly, you will want to read the bytes in bulk. The most convenient method is the `readAllBytes` method that simply reads all bytes from the stream into a byte array:


```
byte[] bytes = in.readAllBytes();
```



Tip: If you want to read all bytes from a file, call the convenience method

```
byte[] bytes = Files.readAllBytes(path);
```

If you want to read some, but not all bytes, provide a byte array and call the `readNBytes` method:

```
var bytes = new byte[len];  
int bytesRead = in.readNBytes(bytes, offset, n);
```

The method reads until either `n` bytes are read or no further input is available, and returns the actual number of bytes read. If no input was available at all, the methods return `-1`.



Note: There is also a `read(byte[], int, int)` method whose description seems exactly like `readNBytes`. The difference is that the `read` method only attempts to read the bytes and returns immediately with a lower count if it fails. The `readNBytes` method keeps calling `read` until all requested bytes have been obtained or `read` returns `-1`.

Finally, you can skip bytes:

```
long bytesToSkip = ...;  
in.skipNBytes(bytesToSkip);
```

9.1.3. Writing Bytes

The write methods of an `OutputStream` can write individual bytes and byte arrays.

```
OutputStream out = ...;  
int b = ...;  
out.write(b);  
byte[] bytes = ...;  
out.write(bytes);  
out.write(bytes, start, length);
```

When you are done writing a stream, you must *close* it in order to commit any buffered output. This is best done with a try-with-resources statement:

```
try (OutputStream out = ...) {  
    out.write(bytes);  
}
```

If you need to copy an input stream to an output stream, use the `InputStream.transferTo` method:

```
try (InputStream in = ...; OutputStream out = ...) {
    in.transferTo(out);
}
```

Both streams need to be closed after the call to `transferTo`. It is best to use a try-with-resources statement, as in the code example.

To write a file to an `OutputStream`, call

```
Files.copy(path, out);
```

Conversely, to save an `InputStream` to a file, call

```
Files.copy(in, path, StandardCopyOption.REPLACE_EXISTING);
```

9.1.4. Character Encodings

Input and output streams are for sequences of bytes, but in many cases you will work with text—that is, sequences of characters. It then matters how characters are encoded into bytes.

Java uses the Unicode standard for characters. Each character or “code point” has a 21-bit integer number. There are different *character encodings*—methods for packaging those 21-bit numbers into bytes.

The most common encoding is UTF-8, which encodes each Unicode code point into a sequence of one to four bytes (see [Table 9.1](#)). UTF-8 has the advantage that the characters of the traditional ASCII character set, which contains all characters used in English, only take up one byte each.

Table 9.1: UTF-8 Encoding

Character range	Encoding
0...7F	0a6a5a4a3a2a1a0
80...7FF	110a10a9a8a7a6 10a5a4a3a2a1a0
800...FFFF	1110a15a14a13a12 10a11a10a9a8a7a6 10a5a4a3a2a1a0
10000...10FFFF	11110a20a19a18 10a17a16a15a14a13a12 10a11a10a9a8a7a6 10a5a4a3a2a1a0

A less common encoding is UTF-16, which encodes each Unicode code point into one or two 16-bit values (see [Table 9.2](#)). This is the encoding used in Java strings. Actually, there are two forms of UTF-16, called “big-endian” and “little-endian.” Consider the 16-bit value 0x2122. In big-endian format, the more significant byte comes first: 0x21 followed by 0x22. In little-endian format, it is the other way around: 0x22 0x21. To indicate which of the two is used, a file can start with the “byte order mark,” the 16-bit quantity 0xFEFF. A reader can use this value to determine the byte order and discard it.

Table 9.2: UTF-16 Encoding

Character range	Encoding
0...FFFF	a15a14a13a12a11a10a9a8a7a6a5a4a3a2a1a0
10000...10FFFF	110110b19b18b17b16a15a14a13a12a11a10 110111a9a8a7a6a5a4a3a2a1a0 where b19b18b17b16 = a20a19a18a17a16 - 1



Caution: Some programs, including Microsoft Notepad, add a byte order mark at the beginning of UTF-8 encoded files. Clearly, this is unnecessary since there are no byte ordering issues in UTF-8. But the Unicode standard allows it, and even suggests that it’s a pretty good idea since it leaves little doubt about the encoding. It is supposed to be removed when reading a UTF-8 encoded file. Sadly, Java does not do that, and bug reports against this issue are closed as “will not fix.” Your best bet is to strip out any leading \uFEFF that you find in your input.

In addition to the UTF encodings, there are partial encodings that cover a character range suitable for a given user population. For example, ISO 8859-1 is a one-byte code that includes accented characters used in Western European languages. Shift_JIS is a variable-length code for Japanese characters. A large number of these encodings are still in widespread use.

Because UTF-8 is so common, it has become the default encoding since Java 18. Previously, the default encoding was the *native encoding*—the character encoding that is preferred by the operating system of the computer running your program. On Windows, that is generally not UTF-8. If you are using an older version of Java, or if you are working with text in an encoding other than UTF-8, you need to explicitly specify the encoding.



Note: The native encoding is returned by the static method `Charset.defaultCharset`. The static method `Charset.availableCharsets` returns all available `Charset` instances, as a map from canonical names to `Charset` objects.

The `StandardCharsets` class has static variables of type `Charset` for the character encodings that every Java virtual machine must support:

```
StandardCharsets.UTF_8  
StandardCharsets.UTF_16  
StandardCharsets.UTF_16BE  
StandardCharsets.UTF_16LE  
StandardCharsets.ISO_8859_1  
StandardCharsets.US_ASCII
```

To obtain the Charset for another encoding, use the static `forName` method:

```
Charset shiftJIS = Charset.forName("Shift_JIS");
```

You use the Charset object to specify a character encoding. For example, you can turn an array of bytes into a string as

```
var contents = new String(bytes, StandardCharsets.ISO_8859_1);
```

9.1.5. Text Input

To read text input, use a Reader. You can obtain a Reader from any input stream with the `InputStreamReader` adapter:

```
InputStream inStream = ...;  
var in = new InputStreamReader(inStream, charset);
```

If you want to process the input one UTF-16 code unit at a time, you can call the `read` method:

```
int ch = in.read();
```

The method returns a code unit between 0 and 65536, or -1 at the end of input.

That is not very convenient. Here are several alternatives.

With a short text file, you can read it into a string like this:

```
String content = Files.readString(path, charset);
```

But if you want the file as a sequence of lines, call

```
List<String> lines = Files.readAllLines(path, charset);
```

If the file is large, process them lazily as a `Stream<String>`:

```
try (Stream<String> lines = Files.lines(path, charset)) {  
    ...  
}
```



Note: If an `IOException` occurs as the stream fetches the lines, that exception is wrapped into an `UncheckedIOException` which is thrown out of the stream operation. This subterfuge is necessary because stream operations are not declared to throw any checked exceptions.

To read numbers or words from a file, use a `Scanner`, as you have seen in [Chapter 1](#). For example,

```
var in = new Scanner(path);
while (in.hasNextDouble()) {
    double value = in.nextDouble();
    ...
}
```



Tip: To read alphabetic words, set the scanner's delimiter to a regular expression that is the complement of what you want to accept as a token. For example, after calling

```
in.useDelimiter("\\PL+");
```

the scanner reads in letters since any sequence of nonletters is a delimiter. See [Section 9.4.1](#) for the regular expression syntax.

You can then obtain a stream of all words as

```
Stream<String> words = in.tokens();
```

If your input does not come from a file, wrap the `InputStream` into a `BufferedReader`:

```
try (var reader = new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(url.openStream()))) {
    Stream<String> lines = reader.lines();
    ...
}
```

A `BufferedReader` reads input in chunks for efficiency. (Oddly, this is not an option for basic readers.) It has methods `readLine` to read a single line and `lines` to yield a stream of lines.

If a method asks for a `Reader` and you want it to read from a file, call `Files.newBufferedReader(path, charset)`.

9.1.6. Text Output

To write text, use a `Writer`. With the `write` method, you can write strings. You can turn any output stream into a `Writer`:

```
OutputStream outputStream = ...;  
var out = new OutputStreamWriter(outStream, charset);  
out.write(str);
```

To get a writer for a file, use

```
Writer out = Files.newBufferedWriter(path, charset);
```

It is more convenient to use a `PrintWriter`, which has the `print`, `println`, and `printf` that you have always used with `System.out`. Using those methods, you can print numbers and use formatted output.

If you write to a file, construct a `PrintWriter` like this:

```
var out = new PrintWriter(Files.newBufferedWriter(path, charset));
```

If you write to another stream, use

```
var out = new PrintWriter(new OutputStreamWriter(outStream, charset));
```



Note: `System.out` is an instance of `PrintStream`, not `PrintWriter`. This is a relic from the earliest days of Java. However, the `print`, `println`, and `printf` methods work the same way for the `PrintStream` and `PrintWriter` classes, using a character encoding for turning characters into bytes.

If you already have the text to write in a string, call

```
String content = ...;  
Files.writeString(path, content, charset);
```

or

```
Files.write(path, lines, charset);
```

Here, `lines` can be a `Collection<String>`, or even more generally, an `Iterable<? extends CharSequence>`.

To append to a file, use

```
Files.writeString(path, charset, StandardOpenOption.APPEND);  
Files.write(path, lines, charset, StandardOpenOption.APPEND);
```



Caution: When writing text with a partial character set such as ISO 8859-1, any unmappable characters are silently changed to a “replacement”—in most cases, either the ? character or the Unicode replacement character U+FFFD.

Sometimes, a library method wants a `Writer` to write output. If you want to capture that output in a string, hand it a `StringWriter`. Or, if it wants a `PrintWriter`, wrap the `StringWriter` like this:

```
var writer = new StringWriter();
throwable.printStackTrace(new PrintWriter(writer));
String stackTrace = writer.toString();
```

9.1.7. Reading Character Input

If you read a file with a structured format such as JSON or XML, you will use a parser that someone wrote who understands the fiddly details of that format. Such a parser typically reads a character at a time.

In the uncommon case that you need to write such a parser, use a `BufferedReader` for efficiency. Keep calling its `read` method, which yields a `char` value or `-1` at the end of input. The reader converts the encoding of the input stream into UTF-16.

If you want to process Unicode code points, you need to handle the UTF-16 encoding. Here is how to read one code point:

```
int ch = reader.read();
if (ch != -1)
{
    int codePoint;
    if (Character.isHighSurrogate((char) ch))
    {
        int ch2 = reader.read();
        if (Character.isLowSurrogate((char) ch2))
            codePoint = Character.toCodePoint(ch, ch2);
        else
            throw new MalformedInputException();
    }
    else
        codePoint = ch;
}
```

The `Character` class contains methods to tell whether a particular code point has a given property. For example,

```
Character.isLetter(codePoint)
```

returns true if codePoint is a letter in some language. Here are some other classification methods:

```
isUpperCase  
isLowerCase  
isDigit  
isSpaceChar  
isEmoji
```

These methods use the rules of the Unicode standard. Others refer to the rules of the Java language:

```
isJavaIdentifierStart  
isJavaIdentifierPart  
isWhitespace
```

After analyzing the code points, you often need to store them in strings, converting them back to UTF-16. The appendCodePoint method of the StringBuilder class turns a code point into one or two char values which are appended to the builder.

9.1.8. Reading and Writing Binary Data

The DataInput interface declares the following methods for reading a number, a character, a boolean value, or a string in binary format:

```
byte readByte()  
int readUnsignedByte()  
char readChar()  
short readShort()  
int readUnsignedShort()  
int readInt()  
long readLong()  
float readFloat()  
double readDouble()  
void readFully(byte[] b)
```

The DataOutput interface declares corresponding write methods.



Note: These methods read and write numbers in big-endian format.



Caution: There are also readUTF/writeUTF methods that use a “modified UTF-8” format. These methods are *not* compatible with regular UTF-8, and are only useful for JVM internals.

The advantage of binary I/O is that it is fixed width and efficient. For example, `writeInt` always writes an integer as a big-endian 4-byte binary quantity regardless of the number of digits. The space needed is the same for each value of a given type, which speeds up random access. Also, reading binary data is faster than parsing text. The main drawback is that the resulting files cannot be easily inspected in a text editor.

You can use the `DataInputStream` and `DataOutputStream` adapters with any stream. For example,

```
DataInput in = new DataInputStream(Files.newInputStream(path));
DataOutput out = new DataOutputStream(Files.newOutputStream(path));
```

9.1.9. Random-Access Files

The `RandomAccessFile` class lets you read or write data anywhere in a file. You can open a random-access file either for reading only or for both reading and writing; specify the option by using the string `"r"` (for read access) or `"rw"` (for read/write access) as the second argument in the constructor. For example,

```
var file = new RandomAccessFile(path.toString(), "rw");
```

A random-access file has a *file pointer* that indicates the position of the next byte to be read or written. The `seek` method sets the file pointer to an arbitrary byte position within the file. The argument to `seek` is a long integer between zero and the length of the file (which you can obtain with the `length` method). The `getFilePointer` method returns the current position of the file pointer.

The `RandomAccessFile` class implements both the `DataInput` and `DataOutput` interfaces. To read and write numbers from a random-access file, use methods such as `readInt/writeInt` that you saw in the preceding section. For example,

```
int value = file.readInt();
file.seek(file.getFilePointer() - 4);
file.writeInt(value + 1);
```

9.1.10. Memory-Mapped Files

Memory-mapped files provide another, very efficient approach for random access that works well for very large files. However, the API for data access is completely different from that of input/output streams. First, get a *channel* to the file:

```
FileChannel channel = FileChannel.open(path,
    StandardOpenOption.READ, StandardOpenOption.WRITE)
```

Then, map an area of the file (or, if it is not too large, the entire file) into memory:

```
ByteBuffer buffer = channel.map(FileChannel.MapMode.READ_WRITE,  
    0, channel.size());
```

Use methods `get`, `getInt`, `getDouble`, and so on to read values, and the equivalent `put` methods to write values.

```
int offset = ...;  
int value = buffer.getInt(offset);  
buffer.put(offset, value + 1);
```

At some point, and certainly when the channel is closed, these changes are written back to the file.



Note: By default, the methods for reading and writing numbers use big-endian byte order. You can change the byte order with the command

```
buffer.order(ByteOrder.LITTLE_ENDIAN);
```

9.1.11. File Locking

When multiple simultaneously executing programs modify the same file, they need to communicate in some way, or the file can easily become damaged. File locks can solve this problem.

Suppose your application saves a configuration file with user preferences. If a user invokes two instances of the application, it could happen that both of them want to write the configuration file at the same time. In that situation, the first instance should lock the file. When the second instance finds the file locked, it can decide to wait until the file is unlocked or simply skip the writing process. To lock a file, call either the `lock` or `tryLock` methods of the `FileChannel` class.

```
FileChannel channel = FileChannel.open(path, StandardOpenOption.WRITE);  
FileLock lock = channel.lock();
```

or

```
FileLock lock = channel.tryLock();
```

The first call blocks until the lock becomes available. The second call returns immediately, either with the lock or with `null` if the lock is not available. The file remains locked until the lock or the channel is closed. It is best to use a `try-with-resources` statement:

```
try (FileLock lock = channel.lock()) {  
    ...  
}
```

9.2. Paths, Files, and Directories

You have already seen `Path` objects for specifying file paths. In the following sections, you will see how to manipulate these objects and how to work with files and directories.

9.2.1. Paths

A `Path` is a sequence of directory names, optionally followed by a file name. The first component of a path may be a root component, such as `/` or `C:\`. The permissible root components depend on the file system. A path that starts with a root component is *absolute*. Otherwise, it is *relative*. For example, here we construct an absolute and a relative path. For the absolute path, we assume we are running on a Unix-like file system.

```
Path absolute = Path.of("/", "home", "cay");  
Path relative = Path.of("myapp", "conf", "user.properties");
```

The static `Path.of` method receives one or more strings, which it joins with the path separator of the default file system (`/` for a Unix-like file system, `\` for Windows). It then parses the result, throwing an `InvalidPathException` if the result is not a valid path in the given file system. The result is a `Path` object.

You can also provide a string with separators to the `Path.of` method:

```
Path homeDirectory = Path.of("/home/cay");
```



Note: A `Path` object does not have to correspond to a file that actually exists. It is merely an abstract sequence of names. To create a file, first make a path, then call a method to create the corresponding file—see [Section 9.2.2](#).

It is very common to combine or “resolve” paths. The call `p.resolve(q)` returns a path according to these rules:

- If `q` is absolute, then the result is `q`.
- if `q` does not have a root, then the result is obtained by joining `p` and `q`.
- Otherwise, the result depends on the rules of the file system.

For example, suppose your application needs to find its configuration file relative to the home directory. Here is how you can combine the paths:

```
Path workPath = homeDirectory.resolve("myapp/work");  
// Same as homeDirectory.resolve(Path.of("myapp/work"));
```

There is a convenience method `resolveSibling` that resolves against a path’s parent, yielding a sibling path. For example, if `workPath` is `/home/cay/myapp/work`, the call

```
Path tempPath = workPath.resolveSibling("temp");
```

yields `/home/cay/myapp/temp`.

The opposite of `resolve` is `relativize`. The call `p.relativize(r)` yields the path `q` which, when resolved with `p`, yields `r`. For example,

```
Path.of("/home/cay").relativize(Path.of("/home/fred/myapp"))
```

yields `../fred/myapp`, assuming we have a file system that uses `..` to denote the parent directory.

The `normalize` method removes any redundant `.` and `..` components (or whatever the file system may deem redundant). For example, normalizing the path `/home/cay/../fred/./myapp` yields `/home/fred/myapp`.

The `toAbsolutePath` method yields the absolute path of a given path. If the path is not already absolute, it is resolved against the *working directory*—that is, the directory of the process in which the JVM was invoked. For example, if you launched a Java program from `/home/cay/myapp`, then `Path.of("config").toAbsolutePath()` returns `/home/cay/myapp/config`.



Note: You can obtain the working directory by a call to `System.getProperty("user.dir")`.

The `Path` interface has methods for taking paths apart and combining them with other paths. This code sample shows some of the most useful ones:

```
Path p = Path.of("/home", "cay", "myapp.properties");
Path parent = p.getParent(); // The path /home/cay
Path file = p.getFileName(); // The last element, myapp.properties
Path root = p.getRoot(); // The initial segment / (null for a relative path)
Path first = p.getName(0); // The first element
Path dir = p.subpath(1, p.getNameCount());
    // All but the first element, cay/myapp.properties
```

The `Path` interface extends the `Iterable<Path>` element, so you can iterate over the name components of a `Path` with an enhanced for loop:

```
for (Path component : path) {
    ...
}
```



Note: Occasionally, you may need to interoperate with legacy APIs that use the `File` class instead of the `Path` interface. The `Path` interface has a `toFile` method, and the `File` class has a `toPath` method.

9.2.2. Creating Files and Directories

To create a new directory, call

```
Files.createDirectory(path);
```

All but the last component in the path must already exist. To create intermediate directories as well, use

```
Files.createDirectories(path);
```

You can create an empty file with

```
Files.createFile(path);
```

The call throws an exception if the file already exists. The checks for existence and the creation are atomic. If the file doesn't exist, it is created before anyone else has a chance to do the same.

The call `Files.exists(path)` checks whether the given file or directory exists. To test whether it is a directory or a “regular” file (that is, with data in it, not something like a directory or symbolic link), call the static methods `isDirectory` and `isRegularFile` of the `Files` class.

There are convenience methods for creating a temporary file or directory in a given or system-specific location.

```
Path tempFile = Files.createTempFile(dir, prefix, suffix);
Path tempFile = Files.createTempFile(prefix, suffix);
Path tempDir = Files.createTempDirectory(dir, prefix);
Path tempDir = Files.createTempDirectory(prefix);
```

Here, `dir` is a `Path`, and `prefix/suffix` are strings which may be null. For example, the call `Files.createTempFile(null, ".txt")` might return a path such as `/tmp/1234405522364837194.txt`.

9.2.3. Copying, Moving, and Deleting Files

To copy a file from one location to another, simply call

```
Files.copy(fromPath, toPath);
```

To move the file instead, call

```
Files.move(fromPath, toPath);
```

You can also use this command to move an empty directory.

The copy or move will fail if the target exists. If you want to overwrite an existing target, use the `REPLACE_EXISTING` option. If you want to copy all file attributes, use the `COPY_ATTRIBUTES` option. You can supply both like this:

```
Files.copy(fromPath, toPath, StandardCopyOption.REPLACE_EXISTING,  
          StandardCopyOption.COPY_ATTRIBUTES);
```

You can specify that a move should be atomic. Then you are assured that either the move completed successfully, or the source continues to be present. Use the `ATOMIC_MOVE` option:

```
Files.move(fromPath, toPath, StandardCopyOption.ATOMIC_MOVE);
```

See [Table 9.3](#) for a summary of the options that are available for file operations.

Finally, to delete a file, simply call

```
Files.delete(path);
```

This method throws an exception if the file doesn't exist, so instead you may want to use

```
boolean deleted = Files.deleteIfExists(path);
```

The deletion methods can also be used to remove an empty directory.

Table 9.3: Standard Options for File Operations

Option	Description
StandardOpenOption; use with <code>newBufferedWriter</code>, <code>newInputStream</code>, <code>newOutputStream</code>, <code>write</code>	
READ	Open for reading.
WRITE	Open for writing.
APPEND	If opened for writing, append to the end of the file.
TRUNCATE_EXISTING	If opened for writing, remove existing contents.
CREATE_NEW	Create a new file and fail if it exists.
CREATE	Atomically create a new file if it doesn't exist.
DELETE_ON_CLOSE	Make a “best effort” to delete the file when it is closed.

Option	Description
SPARSE	A hint to the file system that this file will be sparse.
DSYNC SYNC	Requires that each update to the file data data and metadata be written synchronously to the storage device.
StandardCopyOption; use with copy, move	
ATOMIC_MOVE	Move the file atomically.
COPY_ATTRIBUTES	Copy the file attributes.
REPLACE_EXISTING	Replace the target if it exists.
LinkOption; use with all of the above methods and exists, isDirectory, isRegularFile	
NOFOLLOW_LINKS	Do not follow symbolic links.
FileVisitOption; use with find, walk, walkFileTree	
FOLLOW_LINKS	Follow symbolic links.

9.2.4. Visiting Directory Entries

The static `Files.list` method returns a `Stream<Path>` that reads the entries of a directory. The directory is read lazily, making it possible to efficiently process directories with huge numbers of entries.

Since reading a directory involves a system resource that needs to be closed, you should use a try-with-resources block:

```
try (Stream<Path> entries = Files.list(pathToDirectory)) {
    ...
}
```

The `list` method does not enter subdirectories. To process all descendants of a directory, use the `Files.walk` method instead.

```
try (Stream<Path> entries = Files.walk(pathToRoot)) {
    // Contains all descendants, visited in depth-first order
}
```

Here is a sample traversal of the unzipped `src.zip` tree:

```
java
java/nio
java/nio/DirectCharBufferU.java
java/nio/ByteBufferAsShortBufferRL.java
java/nio/MappedByteBuffer.java
...
java/nio/ByteBufferAsDoubleBufferB.java
java/nio/charset
java/nio/charset/CoderMalfunctionError.java
java/nio/charset/CharsetDecoder.java
java/nio/charset/UnsupportedCharsetException.java
java/nio/charset/spi
java/nio/charset/spi/CharsetProvider.java
java/nio/charset/StandardCharsets.java
java/nio/charset/Charset.java
...
java/nio/charset/CoderResult.java
java/nio/HeapFloatBufferR.java
...
```

As you can see, whenever the traversal yields a directory, it is entered before continuing with its siblings.

You can limit the depth of the tree that you want to visit by calling `Files.walk(pathToRoot, depth)`. Both walk methods have a varargs parameter of type `FileVisitOption...`, but there is only one option you can supply: `FOLLOW_LINKS` to follow symbolic links.



Note: If you filter the paths returned by `walk` and your filter criterion involves the file attributes stored with a directory, such as size, creation time, or type (file, directory, symbolic link), then use the `find` method instead of `walk`. Call that method with a predicate function that accepts a path and a `BasicFileAttributes` object. The only advantage is efficiency. Since the directory is being read anyway, the attributes are readily available.

This code fragment uses the `Files.walk` method to copy one directory to another:

```
Files.walk(source).forEach(p -> {
    try {
        Path q = target.resolve(source.relativize(p));
        if (Files.isDirectory(p))
            Files.createDirectory(q);
        else
            Files.copy(p, q);
    } catch (IOException ex) {
```



```
        throw new UncheckedIOException(ex);
    }
});
```

Unfortunately, you cannot easily use the `Files.walk` method to delete a tree of directories since you need to first visit the children before deleting the parent. In that case, use the `walkFileTree` method. It requires an instance of the `FileVisitor` interface. Here is when the file visitor gets notified:

1. Before a directory is processed:

```
FileVisitResult preVisitDirectory(T dir, IOException ex)
```

2. When a file is encountered:

```
FileVisitResult visitFile(T path, BasicFileAttributes attrs)
```

3. When an exception occurs in the `visitFile` method:

```
FileVisitResult visitFileFailed(T path, IOException ex)
```

4. After a directory is processed:

```
FileVisitResult postVisitDirectory(T dir, IOException ex)
```

In each case, the notification method returns one of the following results:

- Continue visiting the next file: `FileVisitResult.CONTINUE`
- Continue the walk, but without visiting the entries in this directory:
`FileVisitResult.SKIP_SUBTREE`
- Continue the walk, but without visiting the siblings of this file:
`FileVisitResult.SKIP_SIBLINGS`
- Terminate the walk: `FileVisitResult.TERMINATE`

If any of the methods throws an exception, the walk is also terminated, and that exception is thrown from the `walkFileTree` method.

The `SimpleFileVisitor` class implements this interface, continuing the iteration at each point and rethrowing any exceptions.

Here is how you can delete a directory tree:

```
Files.walkFileTree(root, new SimpleFileVisitor<Path>() {
    public FileVisitResult visitFile(Path file,
        BasicFileAttributes attrs) throws IOException {
        Files.delete(file);
        return FileVisitResult.CONTINUE;
    }
});
```

```
public FileVisitResult postVisitDirectory(Path dir,
    IOException ex) throws IOException {
    if (ex != null) throw ex;
    Files.delete(dir);
    return FileVisitResult.CONTINUE;
}
});
```



Caution: The `Files.walk` method throws an exception if any of the subdirectories are not readable. If you only want to visit readable directories, use the `walkFileTree` method.

9.2.5. ZIP File Systems

The `Paths` class looks up paths in the default file system—the files on the user’s local disk. You can have other file systems. One of the more useful ones is a ZIP file system. If `zipname` is the name of a ZIP file, then the call

```
FileSystem zipfs = FileSystems.newFileSystem(Path.of(zipname));
```

establishes a file system that contains all files in the ZIP archive. It’s an easy matter to copy a file out of that archive if you know its name:

```
Files.copy(zipfs.getPath(sourceName), targetPath);
```

Here, `zipfs.getPath` is the analog of `Path.of` for an arbitrary file system.

To list all files in a ZIP archive, walk the file tree:

```
Files.walk(zipfs.getPath("/")).forEach(p -> {
    Process p
});
```

You have to work a bit harder to create a new ZIP file. Here is the magic incantation:

```
Path zipPath = Path.of("myfile.zip");
var uri = URI.create("jar:" + zipPath.toUri());
// Constructs the URI jar:file://myfile.zip
try (FileSystem zipfs = FileSystems.newFileSystem(uri,
    Collections.singletonMap("create", "true"))) {
    // To add files, copy them into the ZIP file system
    Files.copy(sourcePath, zipfs.getPath("/").resolve(targetPath));
}
```



Note: There is an older API for working with ZIP archives, with classes `ZipInputStream` and `ZipOutputStream`, but it's not as easy to use as the one described in this section.

9.3. HTTP Connections

You can read from a URL by using the input stream returned from `URL.getInputStream` method. However, if you want additional information about a web resource, or if you want to write data, you need more control over the process than the `URL` class provides. The `URLConnection` class was designed before HTTP was the universal protocol of the Web. It provides support for a number of protocols, but its HTTP support is somewhat cumbersome. When the decision was made to support HTTP/2, it became clear that it would be best to provide a modern client interface instead of reworking the existing API. The `HttpClient` provides a more convenient API and HTTP/2 support.

In the following sections, I provide a cookbook for using the `HttpURLConnection` class, and then give an overview of the API.

9.3.1. The `URLConnection` and `HttpURLConnection` Classes

To use the `URLConnection` class, follow these steps:

1. Get an `URLConnection` object:

```
URLConnection connection = url.openConnection();
```

For an HTTP URL, the returned object is actually an instance of `HttpURLConnection`.

2. If desired, set request properties:

```
connection.setRequestProperty("Accept-Charset", "UTF-8, ISO-8859-1");
```

If a key has multiple values, separate them by commas.

3. To send data to the server, call

```
connection.setDoOutput(true);
try (OutputStream out = connection.getOutputStream()) {
    // Write to out
}
```

4. If you want to read the response headers and you haven't called `getOutputStream`, call

```
connection.connect();
```

Then query the header information:

```
Map<String, List<String>> headers = connection.getHeaderFields();
```

For each key, you get a list of values since there may be multiple header fields with the same key.

5. Read the response:

```
try (InputStream in = connection.getInputStream()) {
    // Read from in
}
```

A common use case is to post form data. The `URLConnection` class automatically sets the content type to `application/x-www-form-urlencoded` when writing data to a HTTP URL, but you need to encode the name/value pairs:

```
URL url = ...;
URLConnection connection = url.openConnection();
connection.setDoOutput(true);
try (var out = new OutputStreamWriter(
    connection.getOutputStream())) {
    Map<String, String> postData = ...;
    boolean first = true;
    for (Map.Entry<String, String> entry : postData.entrySet()) {
        if (first) first = false;
        else out.write("&");
        out.write(URLEncoder.encode(entry.getKey(), "UTF-8"));
        out.write("=");
        out.write(URLEncoder.encode(entry.getValue(), "UTF-8"));
    }
}
try (InputStream in = connection.getInputStream()) {
    ...
}
```

9.3.2. The HTTP Client API

The HTTP client API provides another mechanism for connecting to a web server which is simpler than the `URLConnection` class with its rather fussy set of stages. More importantly, the implementation supports HTTP/2.

An `HttpClient` can issue requests and receive responses. You get a client by calling

```
HttpClient client = HttpClient.newHttpClient();
```

Alternatively, if you need to configure the client, use a builder API like this:

```
HttpClient client = HttpClient.newBuilder()
    .followRedirects(HttpClient.Redirect.ALWAYS)
    .build();
```

That is, you get a builder, call methods to customize the item that is going to be built, and then call the build method to finalize the building process. This is a common pattern for constructing immutable objects.

Follow the same pattern for formulating requests. Here is a GET request:

```
HttpRequest request = HttpRequest.newBuilder()  
    .uri(URI.create("https://horstmann.com"))  
    .GET()  
    .build();
```

The URI is the “uniform resource identifier” which is, when using HTTP, the same as a URL. However, in Java, the URL class has methods for actually opening a connection to a URL, whereas the URI class is only concerned with the syntax (scheme, host, port, path, query, fragment, and so on).

When sending the request, you have to tell the client how to handle the response. If you just want the body as a string, send the request with a `HttpResponse.BodyHandlers.ofString()`, like this:

```
HttpResponse<String> response  
    = client.send(request, HttpResponse.BodyHandlers.ofString());
```

The `HttpResponse` class is a template whose type denotes the type of the body. You get the response body string simply as

```
String bodyString = response.body();
```

There are other response body handlers that get the response as a byte array or a file. One can hope that eventually the JDK will support JSON and provide a JSON handler.

With a POST request, you similarly need a “body publisher” that turns the request data into the data that is being posted. There are body publishers for strings, byte arrays, and files. Again, one can hope that the library designers will wake up to the reality that most POST requests involve form data, file uploads, or JSON objects, and provide appropriate publishers.

Nowadays, the most common POST request body contains JSON, which you need to convert to a string. Then you can form the following request:

```
HttpRequest request = HttpRequest.newBuilder()  
    .uri(URI.create(urlString))  
    .header("Content-Type", "application/json")  
    .POST(HttpRequest.BodyPublishers.ofString(jsonString))  
    .build();
```

The book’s companion code has examples for posting form data and file uploads.

The `HttpRequest.Builder` class also has build methods for the less common PUT, DELETE, and HEAD requests.

Java 16 adds a builder for filtering the headers of an existing `HttpRequest`. You provide the request and a function that receives the header names and values, returning true for those that should be retained. For example, here we modify the content type:

```
HttpRequest request2 = HttpRequest.newBuilder(request,
    (name, value) -> !name.equalsIgnoreCase("Content-Type")) // Remove old content type
    .header("Content-Type", "application/xml") // Add new content type
    .build();
```

The `HttpResponse` object also yields the status code and the response headers.

```
int status = response.statusCode();
HttpHeaders responseHeaders = response.headers();
```

You can turn the `HttpHeaders` object into a map:

```
Map<String, List<String>> headerMap = responseHeaders.map();
```

The map values are lists since in HTTP, each key can have multiple values.

If you just want the value of a particular key, and you know that there won't be multiple values, call the `firstValue` method:

```
Optional<String> lastModified = headerMap.firstValue("Last-Modified");
```

You get the response value or an empty optional if none was supplied.

The `HttpClient` is autocloseable, so you can declare it in a try-with-resources statement. Its close method waits for the completion of submitted requests and then closes its connection pool.



Tip: To enable logging for the `HttpClient`, add this line to `net.properties` in your JDK:

```
jdk.httpclient.HttpClient.log=all
```

Instead of `all`, you can specify a comma-separated list of headers, requests, content, errors, ssl, trace, and frames, optionally followed by `:control`, `:data`, `:window`, or `:all`. Don't use any spaces.

Then set the logging level for the logger named `jdk.httpclient.HttpClient` to `INFO`, for example by adding this line to the `logging.properties` file in your JDK:

```
jdk.httpclient.HttpClient.level=INFO
```

9.4. Regular Expressions

Regular expressions specify string patterns. Use them whenever you need to locate strings that match a particular pattern. For example, suppose you want to find hyperlinks in an HTML file. You need to look for strings of the pattern ``. But wait—there may be extra spaces, or the URL may be enclosed in single quotes. Regular expressions give you a precise syntax for specifying what sequences of characters are legal matches.

In the following sections, you will see the regular expression syntax used by the Java API, and how to put regular expressions to work.

9.4.1. The Regular Expression Syntax

In a regular expression, a character denotes itself unless it is one of the reserved characters

`. * + ? { | () [\ ^ $`

For example, the regular expression `Java` only matches the string `Java`.

The symbol `.` matches any single character. For example, `.a.a` matches `Java` and `data`.

The `*` symbol indicates that the preceding constructs may be repeated 0 or more times; for a `+`, it is 1 or more times. A suffix of `?` indicates that a construct is optional (0 or 1 times). For example, `be+s?` matches `be`, `bee`, and `bees`. You can specify other multiplicities with `{ }` (see [Table 9.4](#)).

`A |` denotes an alternative: `.(oo|ee)f` matches `beef` or `woof`. Note the parentheses—without them, `.oo|eef` would be the alternative between `.oo` and `eef`. Parentheses are also used for grouping—see [Section 9.4.4](#).

A *character class* is a set of character alternatives enclosed in brackets, such as `[Jj]`, `[0-9]`, `[A-Za-z]`, or `^[0-9]`. Inside a character class, the `-` denotes a range (all characters whose Unicode values fall between the two bounds). However, a `-` that is the first or last character in a character class denotes itself. A `^` as the first character in a character class denotes the complement (all characters except those specified).

[Table 9.4](#) contains a number of *predefined character classes* such as `\d` (digits). There are many more with the `\p` prefix, such as `\p{Sc}` (Unicode currency symbols)—see [Table 9.5](#).

The characters `^` and `$` match the beginning and end of input.

If you need to have a literal `. * + ? { | () [\ ^ $`, precede it by a backslash. Inside a character class, you only need to escape `[` and `\`, provided you are careful about the positions of `]` - `^`. For example, `[]^ -` is a class containing all three of them.



Caution: If the regular expression is in a string literal, each backslash needs to be escaped with another backslash. If you forget that second backslash, you usually get an error because sequences such as `\$` or `\.` are not valid in string literals. But if you want to match a word boundary and accidentally use `\b` instead of `\\b`, then you have a problem: `\b` is a valid escape sequence, indicating a backspace.

Instead of using backslashes, you can surround a string with `\Q` and `\E`. For example, `\($0.99\)` and `\Q($0.99)\E` both match the string `($0.99)`.



Tip: If you have a string that may contain some of the many special characters in the regular expression syntax, you can escape them all by calling `Pattern.quote(str)`. This simply surrounds the string with `\Q` and `\E`, but it takes care of the special case where `str` may contain `\E`.

Table 9.4: Regular Expression Syntax

Expression	Description	Example
Characters		
<code>c</code> , not one of <code>.</code> <code>*</code> <code>+</code> <code>?</code> <code>{</code> <code> </code> <code>(</code> <code>)</code> <code>[</code> <code>\</code> <code>^</code> <code>\$</code>	The character <i>c</i> .	<code>J</code>
<code>.</code>	Any character except line terminators, or any character if the <code>DOTALL</code> flag is set.	
<code>\X</code>	Any Unicode “extended grapheme cluster”, which is perceived as a character or symbol	
<code>\x{p}</code>	The Unicode code point with hex code <i>p</i> .	<code>\x{1D546}</code>
<code>\uhhhh</code> , <code>\xhh</code> , <code>\0o</code> , <code>\0oo</code> , <code>\0ooo</code>	The UTF-16 code unit with the given hex or octal value.	<code>\uFEFF</code>
<code>\a</code> , <code>\e</code> , <code>\f</code> , <code>\n</code> , <code>\r</code> , <code>\t</code>	Alert (<code>\x{7}</code>), escape (<code>\x{1B}</code>), form feed (<code>\x{B}</code>), newline (<code>\x{A}</code>), carriage return (<code>\x{D}</code>), tab (<code>\x{9}</code>).	<code>\n</code>

Expression	Description	Example
<code>\cc</code> , where <i>c</i> is in <code>[A-Z]</code> or one of <code>@ [\] ^ _ ?</code>	The control character corresponding to the character <i>c</i> .	<code>\cH</code> is a backspace (<code>\x{8}</code>).
<code>\c</code> , where <i>c</i> is not in <code>[A-Za-z0-9]</code>	The character <i>c</i> .	<code>\\</code>
<code>\Q ... \E</code>	Everything between the start and the end of the quotation.	<code>\Q(...)\E</code> matches the string (...).
Character Classes		
<code>[C₁C₂...]</code> , where <i>C_i</i> are characters, ranges <i>c-d</i> , or character classes	Any of the characters represented by <i>C₁</i> , <i>C₂</i> ,...	<code>[0-9+-]</code>
<code>[^...]</code>	Complement of a character class.	<code>[^\d\s]</code>
<code>[...&&...]</code>	Intersection of character classes.	<code>[\p{L}&[^A-Za-z]]</code>
<code>\p{...}</code> , <code>\P{...}</code>	A predefined character class (see Table 9.5); its complement.	<code>\p{L}</code> matches a Unicode letter, and so does <code>\pL</code> —you can omit braces around a single letter.
<code>\d</code> , <code>\D</code>	Digits (<code>[0-9]</code> , or <code>\p{Digit}</code> when the <code>UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS</code> flag is set); the complement.	<code>\d+</code> is a sequence of digits.
<code>\w</code> , <code>\W</code>	Word characters (<code>[a-zA-Z0-9_]</code> , or Unicode word characters when the <code>UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS</code> flag is set); the complement.	
<code>\s</code> , <code>\S</code>	Spaces (<code>[\n\r\t\f\x{B}]</code> , or <code>\p{IsWhite_Space}</code> when the <code>UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS</code> flag is set); the complement.	<code>\s*</code> , <code>\s*</code> is a comma surrounded by optional white space.

Expression	Description	Example
<code>\h, \v, \H, \V</code>	Horizontal whitespace, vertical whitespace, their complements.	
Sequences and Alternatives		
<code>XY</code>	Any string from <i>X</i> , followed by any string from <i>Y</i> .	<code>[1-9][0-9]*</code> is a positive number without leading zero.
<code>X Y</code>	Any string from <i>X</i> or <i>Y</i> .	<code>http ftp</code>
Grouping (see Section 9.4.4)		
<code>(X)</code>	Captures the match of <i>X</i> .	<code>'([^\']**)'</code> captures the quoted text.
<code>\n</code>	The <i>n</i> th group.	<code>(["])*.*\1</code> matches 'Fred' or "Fred" but not "Fred'.
<code>(?<name>X)</code>	Captures the match of <i>X</i> with the given name.	<code>'(?<id>[A-Za-z0-9]+)'</code> captures the match with name <i>id</i> .
<code>\k<name></code>	The group with the given name.	<code>\k<id></code> matches the group with name <i>id</i> .
<code>(?:X)</code>	Use parentheses without capturing <i>X</i> .	In <code>(?:http ftp):/(.*)</code> , the match after <code>://</code> is <code>\1</code> .
<code>(?f₁f₂...:X), (?f₁...-f_k...:X), with <i>f_i</i> in [dimsuUx]</code>	Matches, but does not capture, <i>X</i> with the given flags (see Section 9.4.7) on or off (after -).	<code>(?i:jpe?g)</code> is a case-insensitive match.
Other <code>(?...)</code>	See the Pattern API documentation.	
Quantifiers		
<code>X?</code>	Optional <i>X</i> .	<code>\+?</code> is an optional + sign.
<code>X*, X+</code>	0 or more <i>X</i> , 1 or more <i>X</i> .	<code>[1-9][0-9]+</code> is an integer ≥ 10 .

Expression	Description	Example
$X\{n\}$, $X\{n,\}$, $X\{m,n\}$	n times X , at least n times X , between m and n times X .	$[0-7]\{1,3\}$ are one to three octal digits.
$Q?$, where Q is a quantified expression	Reluctant quantifier, attempting the shortest match before trying longer matches.	$.*(<.+?>).*$ matches the shortest sequence enclosed in angle brackets.
$Q+$, where Q is a quantified expression	Possessive quantifier, taking the longest match without backtracking.	$'[^']*+$ matches strings enclosed in single quotes and fails quickly on strings without a closing quote.
Boundary Matches		
$^$ $\$$	Beginning, end of input (or beginning, end of line in multiline mode).	$^{\text{Java}}\$$ matches the input or line Java.
$\backslash A$ $\backslash Z$ $\backslash z$	Beginning of input, end of input, absolute end of input (unchanged in multiline mode).	
$\backslash b$ $\backslash B$	Word boundary, nonword boundary.	$\backslash b\text{Java}\backslash b$ matches the word Java.
$\backslash b\{g\}$	Grapheme cluster boundary	Useful with <code>split</code> to decompose a string into grapheme clusters
$\backslash R$	A Unicode line break.	
$\backslash G$	The end of the previous match.	

Table 9.5: Predefined Character Classes $\backslash p\{\dots\}$

Name	Description
<i>posixClass</i>	<i>posixClass</i> is one of Lower, Upper, Alpha, Digit, Alnum, Punct, Graph, Print, Cntrl, XDigit, Space, Blank, ASCII, interpreted as POSIX or Unicode class, depending on the <code>UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS</code> flag.
<i>IsScript</i> , <i>sc=Script</i> , <i>script=Script</i>	A script accepted by <code>Character.UnicodeScript.forName</code> .

Name	Description
<code>InBlock</code> , <code>blk=Block</code> , <code>block=Block</code>	A block accepted by <code>Character.UnicodeBlock.forName</code> .
<code>Category</code> , <code>InCategory</code> , <code>gc=Category</code> , <code>general_category=Category</code>	A one- or two-letter name for a Unicode general category.
<code>IsProperty</code>	<i>Property</i> is one of Alphabetic, Ideographic, Letter, Lowercase, Uppercase, Titlecase, Punctuation, Control, White_Space, Digit, Hex_Digit, Join_Control, Noncharacter_Code_Point, Assigned.
<code>javaMethod</code>	Invokes the method <code>Character.isMethod</code> (must not be deprecated).

9.4.2. Testing a Match

Generally, there are two ways to use a regular expression: Either you want to test whether a string matches the expression, or you want to find one or more matches of the expression in a string.

The static `matches` method tests whether an *entire string* matches a regular expression:

```
String regex = "[+-]?\\d+";
CharSequence input = ...;
if (Pattern.matches(regex, input)) {
    // input matches the regular expression
    ...
}
```

If you need to use the same regular expression many times, it is more efficient to compile it. Then, create a `Matcher` for each input:

```
Pattern pattern = Pattern.compile(regex);
Matcher matcher = pattern.matcher(input);
if (matcher.matches()) ...
```

If the match succeeds, you can retrieve the location of matched groups—see [Section 9.4.4](#).

To test whether a string *contains* a match, use the `find` method instead:

```
if (matcher.find()) {
    // A substring of input matches the regular expression
    ...
}
```

The `match` and `find` methods mutate the state of the `Matcher` object. If you just want to find out whether a given `Matcher` has found a match, call the `hasMatch` method instead.

You can turn the pattern into a predicate. This is particularly useful with the `filter` method of a stream:

```
Pattern digits = Pattern.compile("[0-9]+");
List<String> strings = List.of("December", "31st", "1999");
List<String> matchingStrings = strings.stream()
    .filter(digits.asMatchPredicate())
    .toList(); // ["1999"]
```

The result contains all strings that match the regular expression.

Use the `asPredicate` method to test whether a string *contains* a match:

```
List<String> stringsContainingMatch = strings.stream()
    .filter(digits.asPredicate())
    .toList(); // ["31st", "1999"]
```

9.4.3. Finding All Matches

In this section, we consider a common use case for regular expressions—finding all matches in an input. Use this loop:

```
String input = ...;
Matcher matcher = pattern.matcher(input);
while (matcher.find()) {
    String match = matcher.group();
    int matchStart = matcher.start();
    int matchEnd = matcher.end();
    ...
}
```

In this way, you can process each match in turn. As shown in the code fragment, you can get the matched string as well as its position in the input string.

More elegantly, you can call the `results` method to get a `Stream<MatchResult>`. The `MatchResult` interface has methods `group`, `start`, and `end`, just like `Matcher`. (In fact, the `Matcher` class implements this interface.) Here is how you get a list of all matches:

```
List<String> matches = pattern.matcher(input)
    .results()
    .map(MatchResult::group)
    .toList();
```

If you have the data in a file, then you can use the `Scanner.findAll` method to get a `Stream<MatchResult>`, without first having to read the contents into a string. You can pass a `Pattern` or a pattern string:

```
var in = new Scanner(path);
Stream<String> words = in.findAll("\\pL+")
    .map(MatchResult::group);
```

9.4.4. Groups

It is common to use groups for extracting components of a match. For example, suppose you have a line item in the invoice with item name, quantity, and unit price such as

Blackwell Toaster USD29.95

Here is a regular expression with groups for each component:

```
(\\p{Alnum}+(\\s+\\p{Alnum}+)*\\s+([A-Z]{3}) ([0-9.]*)
```

After matching, you can extract the *n*th group from the matcher as

```
String contents = matcher.group(n);
```

Groups are ordered by their opening parenthesis, starting at 1. (Group 0 is the entire input.) In this example, here is how to take the input apart:

```
Matcher matcher = pattern.matcher(input);
if (matcher.matches()) {
    item = matcher.group(1);
    currency = matcher.group(3);
    price = matcher.group(4);
}
```

We aren't interested in group 2; it only arose from the parentheses that were required for the repetition. For greater clarity, you can denote that group as “non-capturing”. Then it doesn't show up as a group in the matcher.

```
(\\p{Alnum}+(?:\\s+\\p{Alnum}+)*\\s+([A-Z]{3}) ([0-9.]*)
```

Or, even better, use named groups:

```
(?<item>\\p{Alnum}+(\\s+\\p{Alnum}+)*\\s+(?<currency>[A-Z]{3})(?<price>[0-9.]*)
```

Then, you can retrieve the groups by name:

```
item = matcher.group("item");
```

With the `start` and `end` methods of the `Matcher` and `MatchResult` classes, you can get the group positions in the input:

```
int itemStart = matcher.start("item");
int itemEnd = matcher.end("item");
```

The `namedGroups` method yields a `Map<String, Integer>` from group names to numbers.



Note: When you have a group inside a repetition, such as `(\s+\p{Alnum}+)*` in the example above, it is not possible to get all of its matches. The `group` method only yields the last match, which is rarely useful. You need to capture the entire expression with another group.

9.4.5. Splitting along Delimiters

Sometimes, you want to break an input along matched delimiters and keep everything else. The `Pattern.split` method automates this task. You obtain an array of strings, with the delimiters removed:

```
String input = ...;
Pattern commas = Pattern.compile("\\s*,\\s*");
String[] tokens = commas.split(input);
// "1, 2, 3" turns into ["1", "2", "3"]
```

If there are many tokens, you can fetch them lazily:

```
Stream<String> tokens = commas.splitAsStream(input);
```

To also collect the delimiters, use the `splitWithDelimiters` method:

```
tokens = commas.splitWithDelimiters(input, -1); // ["1", ", ", "2", ", ", "3", ", ", "4"]
```

If the second argument is a positive number n , the separator pattern is applied at most $n - 1$ times. and the last element is the remaining string. Otherwise, the pattern is applied as often as possible. With a limit of zero, trailing empty strings are discarded.

If you don't care about precompiling the pattern or lazy fetching, you can just use the `split` and `splitWithDelimiter` methods of the `String` class:

```
tokens = input.split("\\s*,\\s*");
```



Caution: It is easy to forget that the argument of `split` is a regular expression. For example,

```
"com.horstmann.corejava".split(".")
```

does not split along the dots. Instead, every character is a separator, and the result is an empty array!

You need to escape the dot with a backslash in the regular expression, and therefore with two backslashes in the string literal:

```
"com.horstmann.corejava".split("\\.")
```

Alternatively, use the `Pattern.quote` method:

```
"com.horstmann.corejava".split(Pattern.quote("."));
```

If the input is in a file, use a scanner:

```
var in = new Scanner(path);
in.useDelimiter("\\s*,\\s*");
Stream<String> tokens = in.tokens();
```

9.4.6. Replacing Matches

If you want to replace all matches of a regular expression with a string, call `replaceAll` on the matcher:

```
Matcher matcher = commas.matcher(input);
String result = matcher.replaceAll(",");
// Normalizes the commas
```

Or, if you don't care about precompiling, use the `replaceAll` method of the `String` class.

```
String result = input.replaceAll("\\s*,\\s*", ",");
```

The replacement string can contain group numbers `$n` or names `${name}`. They are replaced with the contents of the corresponding captured group.

```
String result = "3:45".replaceAll(
    "(\\d{1,2}):(?<minutes>\\d{2})",
    "$1 hours and ${minutes} minutes");
// Sets result to "3 hours and 45 minutes"
```

You can use `\` to escape `$` and `\` in the replacement string, or you can call the `Matcher.quoteReplacement` convenience method:

```
matcher.replaceAll(Matcher.quoteReplacement(str))
```


If you want to carry out a more complex operation than splicing in group matches, then you can provide a replacement function instead of a replacement string. The function accepts a `MatchResult` and yields a string. For example, here we replace all words with at least four letters with their uppercase version:

```
String result = Pattern.compile("\\pL{4,}")
    .matcher("Mary had a little lamb")
    .replaceAll(m -> m.group().toUpperCase());
// Yields "MARY had a LITTLE LAMB"
```

The `replaceFirst` method replaces only the first occurrence of the pattern.

9.4.7. Flags

Several *flags* change the behavior of regular expressions. You can specify them when you compile the pattern:

```
Pattern pattern = Pattern.compile(regex,
    Pattern.CASE_INSENSITIVE | Pattern.UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS);
```

Or you can specify them inside the pattern:

```
String regex = "(?iU:expression)";
```

Here are the flags:

- `Pattern.CASE_INSENSITIVE` or `i`: Match characters independently of the letter case. By default, this flag takes only US ASCII characters into account.
- `Pattern.UNICODE_CASE` or `u`: When used in combination with `CASE_INSENSITIVE`, use Unicode letter case for matching.
- `Pattern.UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS` or `U`: Select Unicode character classes instead of POSIX. Implies `UNICODE_CASE`.
- `Pattern.MULTILINE` or `m`: Make `^` and `$` match the beginning and end of a line, not the entire input.
- `Pattern.UNIX_LINES` or `d`: Only `'\n'` is a line terminator when matching `^` and `$` in multiline mode.
- `Pattern.DOTALL` or `s`: Make the `.` symbol match all characters, including line terminators.
- `Pattern.COMMENTS` or `x`: Whitespace and comments (from `#` to the end of a line) are ignored.
- `Pattern.LITERAL`: The pattern is taken literally and must be matched exactly, except possibly for letter case.
- `Pattern.CANON_EQ`: Take canonical equivalence of Unicode characters into account. For example, `u` followed by `¨` (diaeresis) matches `ü`.

The last two flags cannot be specified inside a regular expression.

9.5. Serialization

In the following sections, you will learn about object serialization—a mechanism for turning an object into a bunch of bytes that can be shipped somewhere else or stored on disk, and for reconstituting the object from those bytes.

Serialization is an essential tool for distributed processing, where objects are shipped from one virtual machine to another. It is also used for fail-over and load balancing, when serialized objects can be moved to another server. If you work with server-side software, you will often need to enable serialization for classes. The following sections tell you how to do that.

9.5.1. The Serializable Interface

In order for an object to be serialized—that is, turned into a bunch of bytes—it must be an instance of a class that implements the `Serializable` interface. This is a marker interface with no methods, similar to the `Cloneable` interface that you saw in [Chapter 4](#).

For example, to make `Employee` objects serializable, the class needs to be declared as

```
public class Employee implements Serializable {  
    private String name;  
    private double salary;  
    ...  
}
```

It is appropriate for a class to implement the `Serializable` interface if all instance variables have primitive or enum type, or contain references to serializable objects. Many classes in the standard library are serializable. Arrays and the collection classes that you saw in [Chapter 7](#) are serializable provided their elements are.

In the case of the `Employee` class, and indeed with most classes, there is no problem. In the following sections, you will see what to do when a little extra help is needed.

To serialize objects, you need an `ObjectOutputStream`, which is constructed with another `OutputStream` that receives the actual bytes.

```
var out = new ObjectOutputStream(Files.newOutputStream(path));
```

Now call the `writeObject` method:

```
var peter = new Employee("Peter", 90000);  
var paul = new Manager("Paul", 180000);  
out.writeObject(peter);  
out.writeObject(paul);
```

To read the objects back in, construct an `ObjectInputStream`:

```
var in = new ObjectInputStream(new FileInputStream(path));
```

Retrieve the objects in the same order in which they were written, using the `readObject` method.

```
var e1 = (Employee) in.readObject();  
var e2 = (Employee) in.readObject();
```

When an object is written, the name of the class and the names and values of all instance variables are saved. If the value of an instance variable belongs to a primitive type, it is saved as binary data. If it is an object, it is again written with the `writeObject` method.

When an object is read in, the process is reversed. The class name and the names and values of the instance variables are read, and the object is reconstituted.

There is just one catch. Suppose there were two references to the same object. Let's say each employee has a reference to their boss:

```
var peter = new Employee("Peter", 90000);  
var paul = new Manager("Barney", 105000);  
var mary = new Manager("Mary", 180000);  
peter.setBoss(mary);  
paul.setBoss(mary);  
out.writeObject(peter);  
out.writeObject(paul);
```

When reading these two objects back in, both of them need to have the *same* boss, not two references to identical but distinct objects.

In order to achieve this, each object gets a *serial number* when it is saved. When you pass an object reference to `writeObject`, the `ObjectOutputStream` checks if the object reference was previously written. In that case, it just writes out the serial number and does not duplicate the contents of the object.

In the same way, an `ObjectInputStream` remembers all objects it has encountered. When reading in a reference to a repeated object, it simply yields a reference to the previously read object.



Note: If the superclass of a serializable class is not serializable, it must have an accessible no-argument constructor. Consider this example:

```
class Person // Not serializable  
class Employee extends Person implements Serializable
```

When an `Employee` object is deserialized, its instance variables are read from the object input stream, but the `Person` instance variables are set by the `Person` constructor.

9.5.2. Transient Instance Variables

Certain instance variables should not be serialized—for example, database connections that are meaningless when an object is reconstituted. Also, when an object keeps a cache of values, it might be better to drop the cache and recompute it instead of storing it.

To prevent an instance variable from being serialized, simply tag it with the `transient` modifier. Always mark instance variables as `transient` if they hold instances of nonserializable classes. Transient instance variables are skipped when objects are serialized.

9.5.3. The `readObject` and `writeObject` Methods

In rare cases, you need to tweak the serialization mechanism. A serializable class can add any desired action to the default read and write behavior, by defining methods with the signature

```
@Serial private void readObject(ObjectInputStream in)
    throws IOException, ClassNotFoundException
@Serial private void writeObject(ObjectOutputStream out)
    throws IOException
```

Then, the object headers continue to be written as usual, but the instance variables fields are no longer automatically serialized. Instead, these methods are called.

Note the `@Serial` annotation. The methods for tweaking serialization don't belong to interfaces. Therefore, you can't use the `@Override` annotation to have the compiler check the method declarations. The `@Serial` annotation is meant to enable the same checking for serialization methods. Up to Java 17, the `javac` compiler doesn't do that checking, but it might happen in the future. Some IDEs check the annotation.

A number of classes in the `java.awt.geom` package, such as `Point2D.Double`, are not serializable. Now, suppose you want to serialize a class `LabeledPoint` that stores a `String` and a `Point2D.Double`. First, you need to mark the `Point2D.Double` field as `transient` to avoid a `NotSerializableException`.

```
public class LabeledPoint implements Serializable {
    private String label;
    private transient Point2D.Double point;
    ...
}
```

In the `writeObject` method, first write the object descriptor and the `String` field, `label`, by calling the `defaultWriteObject` method. This is a special method of the `ObjectOutputStream` class that can only be called from within a `writeObject` method of a serializable class. Then we write the point coordinates, using the standard `DataOutput` calls.

```
@Serial before private void writeObject(ObjectOutputStream out) throws IOException {
    out.defaultWriteObject();
    out.writeDouble(point.getX());
    out.writeDouble(point.getY());
}
```

In the `readObject` method, we reverse the process:

```
@Serial before private void readObject(ObjectInputStream in)
    throws IOException, ClassNotFoundException {
    in.defaultReadObject();
    double x = in.readDouble();
    double y = in.readDouble();
    point = new Point2D.Double(x, y);
}
```

Another example is the `HashSet` class that supplies its own `readObject` and `writeObject` methods. Instead of saving the internal structure of the hash table, the `writeObject` method simply saves the capacity, load factor, size, and elements. The `readObject` method reads back the capacity and load factor, constructs a new table, and inserts the elements.

The `readObject` and `writeObject` methods only need to save and load their data. They do not concern themselves with superclass data or any other class information.

The `Date` class uses this approach. Its `writeObject` method saves the milliseconds since the “epoch” (January 1, 1970). The data structure that caches calendar data is not saved.



Caution: Just like a constructor, the `readObject` method operates on partially initialized objects. If you call a non-final method inside `readObject` that is overridden in a subclass, it may access uninitialized data.



Note: If a serializable class defines a field

```
@Serial private static final ObjectStreamField[] serialPersistentFields
```

then serialization uses those field descriptors instead of the non-transient non-static fields. There is also an API for setting the field values before serialization or reading them after deserialization. This is useful for preserving a legacy layout after a class

has evolved. For example, the `BigDecimal` class uses this mechanism to serialize its instances in a format that no longer reflects the instance fields.

9.5.4. The `readExternal` and `writeExternal` Methods

Instead of letting the serialization mechanism save and restore object data, a class can define its own mechanism. For example, you can encrypt the data or use a format that is more efficient than the serialization format.

To do this, a class implements the `Externalizable` interface instead of the `Serializable` interface. This, in turn, requires two methods:

```
public void readExternal(ObjectInputStream in)
    throws IOException
public void writeExternal(ObjectOutputStream out)
    throws IOException
```

Unlike the `readObject` and `writeObject` methods, these methods are fully responsible for saving and restoring the entire object, *including the superclass data*. When writing an object, the serialization mechanism merely records the class of the object in the output stream. When reading an externalizable object, the object input stream creates an object with the no-argument constructor and then calls the `readExternal` method.

In this example, the `LabeledPixel` class extends the serializable `Point` class, but it takes over the serialization of the class and superclass. The fields of the object are not stored in the standard serialization format. Instead, the data are placed in an opaque block.

```
public class LabeledPixel extends Point implements Externalizable {
    private String label;

    public LabeledPixel() {} // required for externalizable class

    @Override public void writeExternal(ObjectOutput out)
        throws IOException {
        out.writeInt((int) getX());
        out.writeInt((int) getY());
        out.writeUTF(label);
    }

    @Override public void readExternal(ObjectInput in)
        throws IOException, ClassNotFoundException {
        int x = in.readInt();
        int y = in.readInt();
        setLocation(x, y);
        label = in.readUTF();
    }
}
```

```

    }
    ...
}

```



Note: The `readExternal` and `writeExternal` methods should not be annotated with `@Serial`. Since they are defined in the `Externalizable` interface, you can simply annotate them with `@Override`.



Caution: Unlike the `readObject` and `writeObject` methods, which are private and can only be called by the serialization mechanism, the `readExternal` and `writeExternal` methods are public. In particular, `readExternal` potentially permits modification of the state of an existing object.



Note: You cannot customize the serialization of enumerations and records. If you define `readObject/writeObject` or `readExternal/writeExternal` methods, they are not used for serialization.

9.5.5. The `readResolve` and `writeReplace` Methods

We take it for granted that objects can only be constructed with the constructor. However, a deserialized object is *not constructed*. Its instance variables are simply restored from an object stream.

This is a problem if the constructor enforces some condition. For example, a singleton object may be implemented so that the constructor can only be called once. As another example, database entities can be constructed so that they always come from a pool of managed instances.

You shouldn't implement your own mechanism for singletons. If you need a singleton, make an enumerated type with one instance that is, by convention, called `INSTANCE`.

```

public enum PersonDatabase {
    INSTANCE;

    public Person findById(int id) { ... }
    ...
}

```

This works because `enum` are guaranteed to be deserialized properly.

Now let's suppose that you are in the rare situation where you want to control the identity of each deserialized instance. As an example, suppose a `Person` class wants to restore its instances from a database when deserializing. Then you should not serialize the object

itself. Instead request that a proxy instance is saved. When restored, that proxy locates and constructs the desired object. Your class needs to provide a `writeReplace` method that returns the proxy object:

```
public class Person implements Serializable {
    private int id;
    // Other instance variables
    ...
    @Serial private Object writeReplace() {
        return new PersonProxy(id);
    }
}
```

When a `Person` object is serialized, none of its instance variables are saved. Instead, the `writeReplace` method is called and *its return value* is serialized and written to the stream.

The proxy class needs to implement a `readResolve` method that yields a `Person` instance:

```
class PersonProxy implements Serializable {
    private int id;

    public PersonProxy(int id) {
        this.id = id;
    }

    @Serial private Object readResolve() {
        return PersonDatabase.INSTANCE.findById(id);
    }
}
```

When the `readObject` method finds a `PersonProxy` in an `ObjectInputStream`, it deserializes the proxy, calls its `readResolve` method, and returns the result.



Note: Unlike the `readObject` and `writeObject` methods, the `readResolve` and `writeReplace` methods need not be private.



Note: With enumerations and records, `readObject/writeObject` or `readExternal/writeExternal` methods are not used for serialization. With records, but not with enumerations, the `writeReplace` method will be used.

9.5.6. Versioning

Serialization was intended for sending objects from one virtual machine to another, or for short-term persistence of state. If you use serialization for long-term persistence, or in any

situation where classes can change between serialization and deserialization, you will need to consider what happens when your classes evolve. Can version 2 read the old data? Can the users who still use version 1 read the files produced by the new version?

The serialization mechanism supports a simple versioning scheme. When an object is serialized, both the name of the class and its `serialVersionUID` are written to the object stream. That unique identifier is assigned by the implementor, by defining an instance variable

```
@Serial private static final long serialVersionUID = 1L; // Version 1
```

When the class evolves in an incompatible way, the implementor should change the UID. Whenever a deserialized object has a nonmatching UID, the `readObject` method throws an `InvalidClassException`.

If the `serialVersionUID` matches, deserialization proceeds even if the implementation has changed. Each non-transient instance variable of the object to be read is set to the value in the serialized state, provided that the name and type match. All other instance variables are set to the default: null for object references, zero for numbers, and false for boolean values. Anything in the serialized state that doesn't exist in the object to be read is ignored.

Is that process safe? Only the implementor of the class can tell. If it is, then the implementor should give the new version of the class the same `serialVersionUID` as the old version.

If you don't assign a `serialVersionUID`, one is automatically generated by hashing a canonical description of the instance variables, methods, and supertypes. You can see the hash code with the `serialver` utility. The command

```
serialver ch09.sec05.Employee
```

displays

```
private static final long serialVersionUID = -4932578720821218323L;
```

When the class implementation changes, there is a very high probability that the hash code changes as well.

If you need to be able to read old version instances, and you are certain that is safe to do so, run `serialver` on the old version of your class and add the result to the new version.



Note: If you want to implement a more sophisticated versioning scheme, override the `readObject` method and call the `readFields` method instead of the default `readObject` method. You get a description of all fields found in the stream, and you can do with them what you want.



Note: Enumerations and records ignore the `serialVersionUID` field. An enumeration always has a `serialVersionUID` of 0L. You can declare the `serialVersionUID` of a record, but the IDs don't have to match for deserialization.



Note: In this section, you saw what happens when the reader's version of a class has instance variables that aren't present in the object stream. It is also possible during class evolution for a superclass to be added. Then a reader using the new version may read an object stream in which the instance variables of the superclass are not set. By default, those instance fields are set to their 0/false/null default. That may leave the superclass in an unsafe state. The superclass can defend against that problem by defining an initialization method

```
@Serial private void readObjectNoData() throws ObjectStreamException
```

The method should either set the same state as the no-argument constructor or throw an `InvalidObjectException`. It is only called in the unusual circumstance where an object stream is read that contains an instance of a subclass with missing superclass data.

9.5.7. Deserialization and Security

During deserialization of a serializable class, objects are created without invoking any constructor of the class. Even if the class has a no-argument constructor, it is not used. The field values are set directly from the values of the object input stream.



Note: For serializable *records*, deserialization calls the canonical constructor, passing it the values of the components from the object input stream. (As a consequence, cyclic references in records are not restored.)

Bypassing construction is a security risk. An attacker can craft bytes describing an invalid object that could have never been constructed. Suppose, for example, that the `Employee` constructor throws an exception when called with a negative salary. We would like to think that no `Employee` object can have a negative salary as a result. But it is not difficult to inspect the bytes for a serialized object and modify some of them. This way, one can craft bytes for an employee with a negative salary and then deserialize them.

A serializable class can optionally implement the `ObjectInputValidation` interface and define a `validateObject` method to check whether its objects are properly deserialized. For example, the `Employee` class can check that salaries are not negative:

```
public void validateObject() throws InvalidObjectException {
    System.out.println("validateObject");
    if (salary < 0)
        throw new InvalidObjectException("salary < 0");
}
```

Unfortunately, the method is not invoked automatically. To invoke it, you also must provide the following method:

```
@Serial private void readObject(ObjectInputStream in)
    throws IOException, ClassNotFoundException {
    in.registerValidation(this, 0);
    in.defaultReadObject();
}
```

The object is then scheduled for validation, and the `validateObject` method is called when this object and all dependent objects have been loaded. The second parameter lets you specify a priority. Validation requests with higher priorities are done first.

There are other security risks. Adversaries can create data structures that consume enough resources to crash a virtual machine. More insidiously, any class on the class path can be deserialized. Hackers have been devious about piecing together “gadget chains”—sequences of operations in various utility classes that use reflection and culminate in calling methods such as `Runtime.exec` with a string of their choice.

Any application that receives serialized data from untrusted sources over a network connection is vulnerable to such attacks. For example, some servers serialize session data and deserialize whatever data are returned in the HTTP session cookie.

You should avoid situations in which arbitrary data from untrusted sources are deserialized. In the example of session data, the server should sign the data, and only deserialize data with a valid signature.

A *serialization filter* mechanism can harden applications from such attacks. The filters see the names of deserialized classes and several metrics (stream size, array sizes, total number of references, longest chain of references). Based on those data, the deserialization can be aborted.

In its simplest form, you provide a pattern describing the valid and invalid classes. For example, if you start our sample serialization demo as

```
java -Djdk.serialFilter='serial.*;java.**;!*' serial.ObjectStreamTest
```

then the objects will be loaded. The filter allows all classes in the `serial` package and all classes whose package name starts with `java`, but no others. If you don’t allow `java.**`, or at least `java.util.Date`, deserialization fails.

You can place the filter pattern into a configuration file and specify multiple filters for different purposes. You can also implement your own filters. See <https://docs.oracle.com/en/java/javase/21/core/serialization-filtering1.html> for details.

9.6. Exercises

1. Write a utility method for copying all of an `InputStream` to an `OutputStream`, without using any temporary files. Provide another solution, without a loop, using operations from the `Files` class, using a temporary file.
2. Write a program that reads a text file and produces a file with the same name but extension `.toc`, containing an alphabetized list of all words in the input file together with a list of line numbers in which each word occurs. Assume that the file's encoding is UTF-8.
3. Write a program that reads a file containing text and, assuming that most words are English, guesses whether the encoding is ASCII, ISO 8859-1, UTF-8, or UTF-16, and if the latter, which byte ordering is used.
4. Using a `Scanner` is convenient, but it is a bit slower than using a `BufferedReader`. Read in a long file a line at a time, counting the number of input lines, with (a) a `Scanner` and `hasNextLine/nextLine`, (b) a `BufferedReader` and `readLine`, (c) a `BufferedReader` and `lines`. Which is the fastest? The most convenient?
5. When an encoder of a `Charset` with partial Unicode coverage can't encode a character, it replaces it with a default—usually, but not always, the encoding of "?". Find all replacements of all available character sets that support encoding. Use the `newEncoder` method to get an encoder, and call its `replacement` method to get the replacement. For each unique result, report the canonical names of the charsets that use it.
6. The BMP file format for uncompressed image files is well documented and simple. Using random access, write a program that reflects each row of pixels in place, without writing a new file.
7. Look up the API documentation for the `MessageDigest` class and write a program that computes the SHA-512 digest of a file. Feed blocks of bytes to the `MessageDigest` object with the `update` method, then display the result of calling `digest`. Verify that your program produces the same result as the `sha512sum` utility.
8. Write a utility method for producing a ZIP file containing all files from a directory and its descendants.
9. Using the `URLConnection` class, read data from a password-protected web page with "basic" authentication. Concatenate the user name, a colon, and the password, and compute the Base64 encoding:

```
String input = username + ":" + password;  
String encoding = Base64.getEncoder().encodeToString(input.getBytes());
```

Set the HTTP header `Authorization` to the value `"Basic " + encoding`. Then read and print the page contents.

10. Using a regular expression, extract all decimal integers (including negative ones) from a string into an `ArrayList<Integer>` (a) using `find`, and (b) using `split`. Note that a `+` or `-` that is not followed by a digit is a delimiter.

11. Using regular expressions, extract the directory path names (as an array of strings), the file name, and the file extension from an absolute or relative path such as `/home/cay/myfile.txt`.
12. Come up with a realistic use case for using group references in `Matcher.replaceAll` and implement it.
13. Implement a method that can produce a clone of any serializable object by serializing it into a byte array and deserializing it.
14. Implement a serializable class `Point` with instance variables for `x` and `y`. Write a program that serializes an array of `Point` objects to a file, and another that reads the file.
15. Continue the preceding exercise, but change the data representation of `Point` so that it stores the coordinates in an array. What happens when the new version tries to read a file generated by the old version? What happens when you fix up the `serialVersionUID`? Suppose your life depended upon making the new version compatible with the old. What could you do?
16. Which classes in the standard Java library implement `Externalizable`? Which of them use `writeReplace/readResolve`?
17. Unzip the API source and investigate how the `LocalDate` class is serialized. Why does the class define `writeExternal` and `readExternal` methods even though it doesn't implement `Externalizable`? (Hint: Look at the `Ser` class.) Why does the class define a `readObject` method? How could it be invoked?

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Index

Symbols

- ! operator
 - in property files [261](#)
 - operator [18, 23](#)
- != operator [18, 23](#)
 - for wrapper classes [51](#)
- "" [27, 28, 156](#)
- """ [33](#)
- "..." (single quotes, for strings)
 - for strings [7](#)
 - in javadoc hyperlinks [101](#)
 - in text blocks [34](#)
- # (number sign)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - in javadoc hyperlinks [101](#)
 - in option files [440](#)
 - in property files [261](#)
- \$ (dollar sign)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 326, 329, 334, 335](#)
 - in variable names [16](#)
- % (percent sign)
 - conversion character [37, 38](#)
 - operator [18, 20](#)
- %% [215](#)
- %= operator [18](#)
- %g [215](#)
- %h [215](#)
- %t [215](#)
- %u [215](#)
- & (ampersand) [18, 24](#)
- && operator
 - in regular expressions [327](#)
 - operator [18, 23](#)
- &= operator [18](#)
- > (right angle bracket)
 - in shell syntax [36](#)
 - operator [23](#)
- >>=, >>>= operators [18](#)
- >=, >, >>> operators [18, 23, 24](#)
- < (left angle bracket)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - in shell syntax [36](#)
 - operator [23](#)
- <>
 - for constructors of generic classes [220](#)
- << operator [18, 24](#)
- <<= operator [18](#)
- <...> (angle brackets)
 - for element types, in array lists [50](#)
 - for type parameters [117, 220](#)
 - in javadoc hyperlinks [101](#)
 - in regular expressions [328](#)
- <= operator [18, 23](#)
- '...' (for character literals)
 - for character literals [14](#)
- ((left parenthesis) [39](#)
- (...) (parentheses)
 - empty, for anonymous classes [138](#)
 - for casts [22, 109](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 328, 332](#)
 - operator [18](#)
- * (asterisk)
 - for annotation processors [416](#)
 - in documentation comments [99](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 328, 333](#)
 - operator [18, 19](#)
 - wildcard
 - in class path [89](#)
 - in imported classes [91](#)
- *= operator [18](#)
- + (plus sign)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 328](#)
 - operator [18, 19](#)
 - for strings [25, 28, 156](#)
- ++ operator [18, 20](#)
- += operator [18](#)
- , (comma)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - normalizing [334](#)
 - trailing, in arrays [49](#)
- (minus sign)
 - flag (for output) [39](#)
 - in regular expressions [325](#)
 - operator [18, 19](#)
- > operator [121, 124](#)
- operator
 - in command-line options [88](#)
 - operator [18, 20](#)
- = operator [18, 19](#)
- . (period) [314](#)
 - in method calls [6](#)
 - in package names [3, 86](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 326, 335](#)
 - operator [18](#)
- ... (ellipsis) [59](#)
- / (slash)
 - file separator (Unix) [262, 313](#)
 - in javac path segments [3](#)
 - operator [18, 19](#)
 - root component [313](#)
- /*...*/ [98](#)
- //, /*...*/ comments [2](#)
- /= operator [18](#)
- 0

- as default value [75, 77](#)
- flag (for output) [39](#)
- prefix (for octal literals) [13](#)
- 0b [13](#)
- 0x [13, 39](#)
- 0xFEFF [305](#)
- : (colon)
 - in assertions [206](#)
 - in switch statement [42](#)
 - path separator (Unix) [89, 262](#)
 - switch [41](#)
 - switch statement [42, 171](#)
- :: (C++ operator) [124, 147](#)
- ; (semicolon)
 - path separator (Windows) [89, 262](#)
- = operator [18, 19](#)
- == operator [18, 23, 158](#)
 - for class objects [175](#)
 - for enumerations [164](#)
 - for strings [27](#)
 - for wrapper classes [51](#)
- ? (question mark)
 - in regular expressions [325, 326, 328](#)
 - replacement character [309](#)
 - wildcard, for types [223, 228, 239](#)
- ? : [18, 23](#)
- @ (at sign)
 - in java command [440](#)
 - in javadoc comments [98](#)
- [...] (brackets)
 - for arrays [48, 55](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 327](#)
 - operator [18](#)
- [I [156, 175](#)
- [L [175](#)
- \ (backslash)
 - character literal [15](#)
 - file separator (Windows) [262, 313](#)
 - in option files [440](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 326, 334](#)
 - in text blocks [34](#)
- \0 [326](#)
- \a, \A, in regular expressions [326, 329](#)
- \b (backslash character literal) [15](#)
- \b, \B, in regular expressions [329](#)
- \c [327](#)
- \d, \D, in regular expressions [327](#)
- \e, \E, in regular expressions [326](#)
- \f (form feed character literal) [326](#)
- \G [329](#)
- \h, \H, in regular expressions [328](#)
- \k [328](#)
- \n (newline character literal)
 - for character literals [15](#)
 - in property files [261, 262](#)
 - in regular expressions [326, 328, 335](#)
- \p, \P, in regular expressions [327](#)
- \Q [326, 327](#)
- \r (carriage return character literal)
 - for character literals [15](#)

- in property files [262](#)
- \r, \R, in regular expressions [326, 329](#)
- \s, \S, in regular expressions [327](#)
- \t (tab character literal)
 - in regular expressions [326](#)
 - tab, for character literals [15](#)
- \u (Unicode character literal)
 - for character literals [14](#)
 - in regular expressions [326](#)
- \v, \V, in regular expressions [328](#)
- \w, \W, in regular expressions [327](#)
- \x [326](#)
- \z, \Z, in regular expressions [329](#)
- ^ (caret)
 - for function parameters [121](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 329, 335](#)
 - operator [18, 24](#)
- ^= operator [18](#)
- _ (underscore)
 - in number literals [13](#)
 - in variable names [16, 71](#)
- {...} (braces)
 - in annotation elements [401](#)
 - in lambda expressions [122](#)
 - in regular expressions [325, 329, 334](#)
 - with arrays [49](#)
- {...} [146](#)
- | operator
 - in regular expressions [325, 328](#)
 - operator [18, 24](#)
- |= operator [18](#)
- || operator [18, 23](#)
- ~ operator [18, 24](#)

A

- a, A conversion characters [38](#)
- abstract keyword [109, 148](#)
- abstract classes [148](#)
- abstract methods [123](#)
- AbstractCollection class [114](#)
- AbstractMethodError class [114](#)
- AbstractProcessor class [416](#)
- accept [128, 129](#)
- acceptEither method [374, 375](#)
- AccessibleObject class
 - setAccessible method [184, 185, 186](#)
 - trySetAccessible method [184](#)
- accessors [66](#)
- accumulate [378](#)
- accumulateAndGet method [377](#)
- accumulator functions [293](#)
- ActionListener interface [120](#)
- add method
 - of ArrayDeque [266](#)
 - of ArrayList [50, 66](#)
 - of BlockingQueue [365](#)
 - of Collection [245](#)
 - of List [247](#)

- of `ListIterator` 252
 - of `LongAdder` 378
- `addAll` method
 - of `Collection` 226, 245
 - of `Collections` 249
 - of `List` 247
- `addExact` method 21
- addition 19
 - identity for 293
- `addSuppressed` method 200
- aggregators 441
- `allMatch` method 281
- `allOf` method
 - of `CompletableFuture` 374, 375
 - of `EnumSet` 265
- `allProcesses` method 392
- `and`, `andNot` methods (`BitSet`) 263
- `and`, `andThen` methods (functional interfaces) 128
- Android 120, 376
- `AnnotatedConstruct` interface 417
- `AnnotatedElement` interface 413, 415
- `Annotation` interface
 - extending 408
- annotation interfaces 405
- annotation processors 416
- annotations
 - accessing 407, 442
 - applicability of 409
 - container 412, 414
 - declaration 402
 - documented 409, 411
 - generating source code with 417
 - inherited 409, 412, 414
 - key/value pairs in 400, 407
 - meta 406, 412
 - modifiers and 404
 - multiple 401
 - processing
 - at runtime 412
 - source-level 415
 - repeatable 401, 409, 412, 414
 - standard 408
 - type use 403
- anonymous classes 137
- `anyMatch` method 281
- `anyOf` method 374, 375
- Apache Commons CSV 438
- API documentation 30, 32
 - generating 98
- Applet 178
- `apply`, `applyAsXxx` methods (functional interfaces) 128, 129
- `applyToEither` method 374, 375
- arithmetic operations 18
- `Array` class 188
- array lists 50
 - anonymous 146
 - checking for nulls 227
 - constructing 51
 - converting between 223
 - copying 53
 - elements of 50, 52
 - filling 53
 - instantiating with type variables 234
 - size of 51
 - sorting 54
 - variables of 50
- array variables
 - assigning values to 49
 - copying 52
 - declaring 48
 - initializing 48
- `ArrayBlockingQueue` class 366
- `ArrayDeque` class 265
- `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException` class 48
- `ArrayList` class 50, 248
 - `add` method 50, 66
 - `clone` method 163
 - `forEach` method 124
 - `get`, `remove` methods 51
 - `removeIf` method 123
 - `set`, `size` methods 51
- arrays 48, 50
 - accessing nonexistent elements in 48
 - allocating 234
 - annotating 403
 - `asList` method 265
 - casting 188
 - checking 188
 - comparing 158
 - computing values of 369
 - constructing 48, 49
 - constructor references with 126
 - converting
 - to a reference of type `Object` 155
 - to/from streams 286, 296, 369
 - copying 52
 - `copyOf` method 52, 189
 - covariant 223
 - `deepToString` method 156
 - `equals` method 158
 - `fill` method 53
 - filling 49, 53
 - generating `Class` objects for 175
 - growing 188, 189
 - hash codes of 160
 - `hashCode` method 160
 - length of 48, 50, 134
 - multidimensional 55, 156
 - of bytes 302
 - of generic types 126, 235
 - of objects 49, 369
 - of primitive types 369
 - of strings 333
 - `parallelXxx` methods 54, 369
 - passing into methods 58
 - printing 54, 57, 156
 - serializable 336
 - `setAll` method 127
 - `sort` method 54, 118, 119, 123, 124

- sorting [54](#), [117](#), [369](#)
- stream method [273](#), [294](#)
- superclass assignment in [145](#)
- toString method [54](#), [156](#)
- using class literals with [175](#)
- ArrayStoreException class [145](#), [223](#), [235](#)
- ASCII [30](#), [304](#)
- ASM tool [420](#)
- asMatchPredicate, asPredicate methods (Pattern) [331](#)
- assert keyword [206](#)
- AssertionError class [206](#)
- assertions [205](#)
 - checking [403](#)
 - enabling/disabling [206](#)
- assignment operators [19](#)
- associative operations [293](#)
- asSubclass method [239](#)
- asynchronous computations [369](#)
- AsyncTask [376](#)
- atomic operations [361](#), [364](#), [376](#), [382](#)
 - performance and [377](#)
- AtomicXxx classes [377](#)
- @author annotation [99](#), [102](#)
- autoboxing [51](#), [130](#)
- AutoCloseable interface [199](#), [221](#)
 - close method [199](#)
- automatic modules [437](#), [439](#)
- availableCharsets method [305](#)
- availableProcessors method [351](#)
- average method (XxxStream) [295](#)

B

- b, B conversion characters [38](#)
- Base classes. See Superclasses
- BasicFileAttributes interface [318](#)
- BeanInfo interface [188](#)
- BiConsumer interface [128](#)
- BiFunction interface [128](#), [130](#)
- big-endian format [305](#), [310](#), [312](#)
- BigDecimal class [14](#), [24](#), [339](#)
- BigInteger class [12](#), [24](#)
- binary data, reading/writing [310](#)
- binary numbers [13](#), [14](#)
- binary trees [252](#)
- BinaryOperator interface [129](#)
- binarySearch method [250](#)
- BiPredicate interface [129](#)
- BitSet class [262](#)
 - collecting streams into [294](#)
 - methods of [263](#)
- bitwise operators [24](#)
- block statement, labeled [46](#)
- blocking queues [365](#)
- BlockingQueue interface [365](#), [366](#)
- boolean type [15](#), [51](#)
 - default value of [75](#), [77](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
 - reading/writing [310](#)

- streams of [294](#)
- BooleanSupplier interface [129](#)
- bootstrap class loader [178](#)
- boxed [295](#)
- branches [39](#)
- break keyword [42](#), [43](#), [44](#)
- bridge methods [230](#)
 - clashes of [237](#)
- BufferedReader class [307](#)
- build [322](#)
- bulk operations [365](#)
- byte type [12](#), [51](#), [302](#)
 - MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants [12](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - toUnsignedInt method [13](#)
 - type conversions of [22](#)
- byte codes [3](#)
- byte order mark [305](#)
- ByteArrayXxxStream classes [302](#)
- ByteBuffer class [312](#)
- bytes
 - arrays of [302](#)
 - converting to strings [306](#)
 - reading [302](#)
 - skipping [303](#)
 - writing [303](#)

C

- C# programming language, type parameters in [227](#)
- c, C conversion characters [38](#)
- C/C++
 - #include directive in [92](#)
 - allocating memory in [361](#)
 - integer types in [12](#)
 - pointers in [66](#)
- C:\ [313](#)
- CachedRowSetImpl [440](#)
- calculators [166](#)
- calendars [64](#)
- call by reference [73](#)
- Callable interface
 - call method [353](#)
- callbacks [120](#), [371](#)
 - registering [369](#)
- camel case [16](#)
- cancel method
 - of CompletableFuture [371](#)
 - of Future [353](#)
- cancellation requests [356](#)
- CancellationException class [371](#)
- cardinality [263](#)
- carriage return [15](#)
- case keyword [40](#)
- cast [239](#)
- cast operator [22](#)
- casts [22](#), [109](#), [146](#)
 - annotating [404](#)
 - generic types and [232](#)

- inserting [229](#)
- catch keyword [197](#)
 - annotating parameters of [402](#)
 - in try-with-resources [200](#)
 - no type variables in [237](#)
- ceiling [254](#)
- Channel interface [112](#)
- channels [311](#)
- char type [14](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - type conversions of [22](#)
- Character class [51](#)
- character classes [325](#)
- character encodings [304](#)
 - native [305](#)
 - partial [305](#), [309](#)
- character literals [14](#)
- characters [301](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
 - reading/writing [310](#)
- charAt method [33](#)
- CharSequence interface [30](#), [274](#)
 - chars, codePoints methods [294](#)
- Charset class
 - availableCharsets method [305](#)
 - defaultCharset method [305](#)
 - forName method [306](#)
- checked exceptions [194](#), [197](#)
 - combining in a superclass [196](#)
 - declaring [196](#)
 - documenting [197](#)
 - generic types and [238](#)
 - in lambda expressions [197](#)
 - no-argument constructors and [186](#)
 - not allowed in a method [203](#)
 - rethrowing [202](#)
- checked views [232](#), [268](#)
- checkedXxx methods (Collections) [251](#), [269](#)
- Checker Framework [403](#)
- checkIndex method [205](#)
- Child classes. See Subclasses
- Church, Alonzo [121](#)
- Class class [174](#), [175](#), [240](#)
 - asSubclass, cast methods [239](#)
 - comparing objects of [175](#)
 - forName method [174](#), [175](#), [176](#), [179](#), [180](#), [195](#), [204](#)
 - generic [238](#)
 - getCanonicalName method [175](#), [176](#)
 - getClassLoader method [177](#)
 - getComponentType method [176](#), [188](#)
 - getConstructor(s) methods [177](#), [183](#), [186](#), [238](#), [239](#)
 - getDeclaredConstructor(s) methods [177](#), [183](#), [239](#)
 - getDeclaredField(s) methods [177](#)
 - getDeclaredMethod(s) methods [177](#), [185](#)
 - getDeclaringClass method [176](#)
 - getEnclosingXxx methods [176](#)
 - getEnumConstants method [239](#)
 - getField(s) methods [177](#), [183](#)
 - getInterfaces method [176](#)
 - getMethod(s) methods [177](#), [183](#), [185](#)
 - getModifiers method [176](#)
 - getName method [174](#), [176](#)
 - getPackage method [176](#)
 - getPackageName method [176](#)
 - getPermittedSubclasses method [176](#)
 - getRecordComponents method [177](#)
 - getResource method [178](#)
 - getResourceAsStream method [177](#), [178](#)
 - getSimpleName method [176](#)
 - getSuperclass method [176](#), [239](#)
 - getTypeName method [176](#)
 - getTypeParameters method [240](#)
 - isXxx methods [176](#), [188](#)
 - newInstance method [186](#), [238](#)
 - toGenericString, toString methods [176](#)
- class declarations
 - annotations in [402](#), [412](#)
 - initialization blocks in [76](#)
- class files [3](#), [178](#)
 - paths of [87](#)
 - processing annotations in [420](#)
- class literals [175](#)
 - no annotations for [404](#)
 - no type variables in [233](#)
- class loaders [178](#), [180](#)
- class objects [175](#)
- class path [88](#), [425](#)
- ClassCastException class [110](#), [232](#)
- classes [2](#), [64](#)
 - abstract [109](#), [116](#), [148](#)
 - accessing from a different module [442](#)
 - adding to packages [91](#)
 - anonymous [137](#)
 - companion [114](#)
 - constructing objects of [15](#)
 - deprecated [100](#), [408](#), [409](#)
 - deserialization of [344](#)
 - documentation comments for [98](#), [99](#)
 - encapsulation of [423](#), [424](#)
 - evolving [342](#)
 - extending [142](#)
 - fields of [141](#)
 - final [148](#)
 - generic [50](#)
 - immutable [30](#), [362](#)
 - implementing [68](#), [161](#)
 - importing [91](#)
 - inner [94](#)
 - instances of [6](#), [68](#), [85](#)
 - loading [184](#)
 - local [136](#)
 - members of [141](#)
 - enumerating [167](#), [183](#)
 - naming [16](#), [86](#), [174](#)
 - nested [92](#), [403](#)
 - not known at compile time [175](#), [190](#)
 - protected [149](#)
 - public [90](#), [429](#)
 - sealed [152](#)
 - serializable [338](#), [339](#)

- static initialization of [179](#)
- static methods of [85](#)
- system [207](#)
- testing [90](#)
- utility [90, 180](#)
- wrapper [51](#)
- classes win rule [160](#)
- classifier functions [289](#)
- ClassLoader class
 - defineClass method [440](#)
 - findClass, loadClass methods [179](#)
 - setXxxAssertionStatus methods [207](#)
- classloader inversion [180](#)
- ClassNotFoundException class [195](#)
- CLASSPATH [89](#)
- clear method
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Collection [246](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
- clone method
 - of ArrayList [163](#)
 - of Enum [165](#)
 - of Message [162, 163](#)
 - of Object [150, 155, 161, 185](#)
 - protected [161](#)
- Cloneable interface [162](#)
- CloneNotSupportedException class [162, 165](#)
- cloning [161](#)
- close method
 - of AutoCloseable, Closeable [199](#)
 - of PrintWriter [198, 199](#)
 - throwing exceptions [200](#)
- Closeable interface [112](#)
 - close method [199](#)
- closures [132](#)
- code [99](#)
- code generator tools [410](#)
- code points [30, 277, 304](#)
- code units [14, 32, 294](#)
 - in regular expressions [326](#)
- codePoints method
 - of CharSequence [294](#)
- Collator class [28](#)
- collect [286, 294](#)
- collectingAndThen method [291](#)
- Collection interface [114, 245](#)
 - add method [245](#)
 - addAll method [226, 245](#)
 - clear, contains, containsAll methods [246](#)
 - isEmpty method [246](#)
 - iterator method [247](#)
 - parallelStream method [247, 272, 295, 368](#)
 - remove, removeXxx, retainAll methods [246](#)
 - size method [246](#)
 - spliterator method [247](#)
 - stream method [247, 272](#)
 - toArray method [247](#)
- Collections class [114, 245, 249, 269](#)
 - addAll method [249](#)
 - binarySearch method [250](#)
 - branching [292](#)
 - copy method [249](#)
 - disjoint method [249](#)
 - fill method [53, 250](#)
 - frequency method [250](#)
 - generic [268](#)
 - given elements of [264](#)
 - indexOfSubList, lastIndexOfSubList methods [250](#)
 - iterating over elements of [271](#)
 - mutable [265](#)
 - nCopies method [248, 250](#)
 - processing [249](#)
 - replaceAll method [249](#)
 - reverse method [54, 250](#)
 - rotate method [250](#)
 - serializable [336](#)
 - shuffle method [54, 250](#)
 - sort method [54, 226, 227, 240, 250](#)
 - swap method [250](#)
 - synchronizedXxx methods [250](#)
 - threadsafe [367](#)
 - unmodifiable views of [265, 268](#)
 - unmodifiableXxx methods [250](#)
 - vs. streams [272](#)
- Collector interface [286](#)
- Collectors class [92](#)
 - counting method [290](#)
 - filtering method [292](#)
 - flatMap method [291](#)
 - groupingBy method [289, 292](#)
 - groupingByConcurrent method [290, 297](#)
 - joining method [287](#)
 - mapping method [291](#)
 - maxBy, minBy methods [291](#)
 - partitioningBy method [289, 292](#)
 - reducing method [292](#)
 - summarizingXxx methods [287, 291](#)
 - summingXxx methods [290](#)
 - teeing method [292](#)
 - toCollection method [287](#)
 - toConcurrentMap method [289](#)
 - toMap method [287](#)
 - toSet method [287, 290](#)
- Collectors class
 - collectingAndThen method [291](#)
 - mapping method [291](#)
- command-line arguments [54](#)
- comments [2](#)
 - documentation [98](#)
- commonPool method [298, 370](#)
- companion classes [114](#)
- Comparable interface [117, 165, 226, 253](#)
 - compareTo method [117](#)
 - priority queues with [266](#)
 - streams of [279](#)
- Comparator interface [92, 118, 134, 253](#)
 - comparing, comparingXxx methods [135](#)
 - naturalOrder method [136](#)
 - nullsFirst, nullsLast methods [136](#)
 - priority queues with [266](#)

- reversed method [135](#)
- reverseOrder method [136](#)
- streams of [279](#)
- thenComparing method [135](#)
- compare [118](#)
- compareTo method
 - of Enum [165](#)
 - of String [28](#), [117](#)
- compareToIgnoreCase method [124](#)
- compareUnsigned method [21](#)
- compatibility, drawbacks of [228](#)
- compilation [3](#)
- compile [330](#), [335](#)
- compile-time errors [16](#), [111](#)
- compiler
 - instruction reordering in [358](#)
- completable futures [369](#), [375](#)
 - combining [375](#)
 - composing [371](#)
 - interrupting [371](#)
- CompletableFuture class [369](#), [375](#)
 - acceptEither method [374](#), [375](#)
 - allOf, anyOf methods [374](#), [375](#)
 - applyToEither method [374](#), [375](#)
 - cancel method [371](#)
 - complete, completeExceptionally methods [370](#)
 - completeOnTimeout method [374](#)
 - exceptionally method [373](#), [374](#)
 - exceptionallyCompose method [374](#)
 - handle method [374](#)
 - isDone method [371](#)
 - orTimeout method [374](#)
 - runAfterXxx methods [374](#), [375](#)
 - supplyAsync method [370](#), [371](#)
 - thenAccept method [369](#), [373](#)
 - thenAcceptBoth method [374](#)
 - thenApply, thenApplyAsync methods [372](#), [373](#)
 - thenCombine method [374](#)
 - thenCompose method [373](#)
 - thenRun method [374](#)
 - whenComplete method [370](#), [373](#), [374](#)
- CompletionStage interface [375](#)
- compose [128](#)
- computations
 - asynchronous [369](#)
 - mutator [66](#)
 - precision of [14](#)
- compute method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap [364](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
- computeIfXxx methods
 - of ConcurrentHashMap [364](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
- concat [279](#)
- concatenation [25](#)
 - objects with strings [156](#)
- concurrent programming [349](#), [391](#)
 - access errors in [134](#)
 - strategies for [361](#)
- ConcurrentHashMap class [363](#), [384](#)
 - compute method [364](#)
 - computeIfXxx methods [364](#)
 - forEachXxx methods [365](#)
 - keySet method [367](#)
 - merge method [364](#)
 - newKeySet method [367](#)
 - no null values in [256](#)
 - putIfAbsent method [364](#)
 - reduceXxx, searchXxx methods [365](#)
 - threadsafe [380](#)
- ConcurrentModificationException class [252](#), [367](#)
- ConcurrentSkipListXxx classes [367](#)
- conditional operator [23](#)
- configuration files
 - editing [211](#)
 - locating [178](#)
 - resolving paths for [313](#)
- confinement [361](#)
- connect [321](#)
- Console class [36](#)
- ConsoleHandler class [213](#), [215](#)
- constants [17](#), [112](#)
 - naming [17](#)
 - static [83](#)
 - using in another class [17](#)
- Constructor class [183](#)
 - getModifiers, getName methods [183](#)
 - newInstance method [186](#), [187](#)
- constructor references [125](#)
 - annotating [404](#)
- constructors [73](#)
 - abstract classes and [149](#)
 - annotating [236](#), [402](#), [403](#)
 - canonical, compact, custom [81](#)
 - documentation comments for [98](#)
 - executing [74](#)
 - for subclasses [144](#)
 - implementing [73](#)
 - invoking another constructor from [75](#)
 - no-argument [77](#), [144](#), [186](#)
 - overloading [74](#)
 - public [73](#), [183](#)
 - references in [363](#)
- Consumer interface [128](#)
- contains method (String) [29](#)
- contains, containsAll methods (Collection) [246](#)
- containsXxx methods (Map) [257](#)
- context class loaders [180](#)
- continue keyword [45](#), [46](#)
- control flow [39](#)
- conversion characters [37](#)
- cooperative cancellation [355](#)
- Cooperative scheduling [351](#)
- copy method
 - of Collections [249](#)
 - of Files [304](#), [315](#), [320](#)
- copyOf method [52](#), [189](#)
- CopyOnWriteArrayXxx classes [367](#)
- CORBA [424](#)
- count [272](#), [280](#)

- counters
 - atomic [376](#)
 - de/incrementing [201](#)
- counting [290](#)
- country codes [289](#)
- covariance [222](#)
- createDirectory, createDirectories, createFile methods (Files) [315](#)
- createInstance method [180](#)
- createTempXxx methods (Files) [315](#)
- critical sections [361](#), [379](#), [385](#)
- current method
 - of ProcessHandle [392](#)
 - of ThreadLocalRandom [387](#)

D

- D [14](#)
- conversion character [37](#)
- daemon threads [388](#)
- Databases [399](#)
 - persisting objects in [433](#)
- DataInput/Output interfaces [310](#)
 - read/writeXxx methods [310](#), [311](#)
- DataXxxStream classes [311](#)
- date classes
 - immutability of [362](#)
- DayOfWeek enumeration [65](#)
- deadlocks [361](#), [380](#), [384](#), [385](#)
- debugging
 - messages for [194](#)
 - overriding methods for [148](#)
 - primary arrays for [54](#)
 - streams [279](#)
 - threads [387](#)
 - using anonymous subclasses for [146](#)
 - with assertions [206](#)
- DecimalFormat class [86](#)
- declaration-site variance [227](#)
- decomposition
 - of classes [58](#)
- decrement operator [20](#)
- decrementExact method [21](#)
- deep copies [161](#)
- deepToString method [156](#)
- default keyword [114](#), [407](#)
- default label (in switch) [40](#)
- default methods [114](#), [116](#)
 - conflicts of [115](#), [154](#)
 - in interfaces [160](#)
- defaultCharset method [305](#)
- defaultReadObject method [339](#), [343](#)
- defaultWriteObject method [339](#)
- defensive programming [205](#)
- deferred execution [126](#)
- defineClass method [440](#)
- delete, deleteIfExists methods (Files) [316](#)
- delimiters, for scanners [307](#)
- @deprecated annotation [100](#), [408](#), [409](#)
- Deque interface [249](#), [265](#)
- Derived classes. See Subclasses
- destroy, destroyForcibly methods
 - of Process [391](#)
 - of ProcessHandle [393](#)
- diamond syntax
 - for array lists [50](#)
 - for constructors of generic classes [220](#)
- directories [313](#)
 - checking for existence [315](#), [317](#)
 - creating [315](#), [317](#)
 - deleting [316](#), [319](#)
 - moving [315](#)
 - temporary [315](#)
 - user [314](#)
 - visiting [317](#)
 - working [388](#)
- directory [388](#)
- disjoint [249](#)
- distinct [279](#), [296](#)
- divideUnsigned method [21](#)
- division [19](#)
- do [43](#)
- doc-files [99](#)
- documentation comments [98](#)
- @Documented annotation [409](#), [411](#)
- domain names
 - for modules [425](#)
 - for packages [86](#)
- dot notation [6](#), [17](#)
- double type [13](#), [51](#)
 - atomic operations on [379](#)
 - compare method [118](#)
 - equals method [158](#)
 - functional interfaces for [129](#)
 - isFinite, isInfinite methods [14](#)
 - NaN, NEGATIVE_INFINITY, POSITIVE_INFINITY values [14](#)
 - parseDouble method [29](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - toString method [29](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
- double brace initialization [146](#)
- DoubleAccumulator, DoubleAdder classes [379](#)
- DoubleConsumer, DoubleXxxOperator, DoublePredicate, DoubleSupplier, DoubleToXxxFunction interfaces [129](#)
- DoubleFunction interface [129](#), [231](#)
- doubles [295](#)
- DoubleStream interface [294](#)
- DoubleSummaryStatistics class [287](#), [295](#)
- downstream collectors [290](#), [297](#)
- Driver.parentLogger method [441](#)
- dropWhile method [279](#)
- dynamic method lookup [145](#), [230](#), [231](#)

E

- E [21](#)
- e, E
 - conversion characters [38](#)

- Eclipse [5](#)
- effectively final variables [133](#)
- efficiency, and final modifier [148](#)
- element [366](#), [416](#), [417](#)
- Elements [400](#), [407](#)
- else keyword [40](#)
- em [99](#)
- empty method
 - of Optional [284](#)
 - of Stream [273](#)
- empty string [27](#), [156](#)
 - concatenating [28](#)
- encapsulation [64](#), [423](#), [424](#), [425](#), [433](#)
- Encodings. See Character encodings
- end [331](#), [333](#)
- End-of-line character. See Line feed
- endsWith method [29](#)
- enhanced for loop [52](#), [57](#), [133](#)
 - for collections [251](#)
 - for enumerations [164](#)
 - for iterators [182](#)
 - for paths [314](#)
- enhanced form [42](#), [171](#)
- Entry [228](#)
- entrySet method [258](#)
- enum keyword [18](#), [164](#), [165](#)
- enum instances
 - adding methods to [166](#)
 - construction [166](#)
 - referred by name [168](#)
- enumeration sets [265](#)
- enumerations [164](#)
 - annotating [402](#)
 - comparing [164](#), [165](#)
 - constructing [165](#)
 - customizing serialization of [341](#)
 - defining [18](#)
 - nested inside classes [167](#)
 - serialization of [341](#)
 - static members of [167](#)
 - traversing instances of [164](#)
 - using in switch [167](#)
- EnumMap, EnumSet classes [265](#)
- environment variables [390](#)
- equality, testing for [23](#)
- equals method
 - final [159](#)
 - null-safe [158](#)
 - of Arrays [158](#)
 - of Double [158](#)
 - of Object [155](#), [159](#)
 - of Objects [158](#)
 - of records [79](#)
 - of String [27](#)
 - of subclasses vs. superclass [158](#)
 - of wrapper classes [51](#)
 - overriding [157](#), [159](#)
 - symmetric [159](#)
 - values from different classes and [159](#)
- equalsIgnoreCase method [28](#)
- Error class [194](#)
- error messages, for generic methods [221](#)
- errorReader method [389](#)
- errors
 - AbstractMethodError [114](#)
 - AssertionError [206](#)
- even numbers [20](#)
- Exception class [194](#)
- exceptionally [373](#), [374](#)
- exceptionallyCompose method [374](#)
- exceptions [193](#)
 - annotating [404](#)
 - ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException [48](#)
 - ArrayStoreException [145](#), [223](#), [235](#)
 - CancellationException [371](#)
 - catching [197](#), [202](#)
 - chaining [202](#)
 - checked [186](#), [194](#), [197](#)
 - ClassCastException [110](#), [232](#)
 - ClassNotFoundException [195](#)
 - CloneNotSupportedException [162](#), [165](#)
 - combining in a superclass [196](#)
 - ConcurrentModificationException [252](#), [367](#)
 - creating [196](#)
 - documenting [197](#)
 - ExecutionException [353](#)
 - FileNotFoundException [195](#)
 - generic types and [237](#)
 - hierarchy of [194](#)
 - IllegalArgumentException [206](#)
 - IllegalStateException [287](#), [365](#)
 - InaccessibleObjectException [184](#), [434](#)
 - IndexOutOfBoundsException [205](#)
 - InterruptedException [355](#)
 - InvalidClassException [343](#)
 - InvalidPathException [313](#)
 - IOException [195](#), [200](#), [307](#)
 - NoSuchElementException [283](#), [366](#)
 - NullPointerException [27](#), [50](#), [68](#), [76](#), [195](#), [205](#), [255](#), [280](#)
 - NumberFormatException [195](#)
 - ReflectiveOperationException [175](#)
 - rethrowing [200](#), [203](#)
 - RuntimeException [194](#)
 - SecurityException [184](#)
 - ServletException [203](#)
 - suppressed [200](#)
 - throwing [194](#)
 - TimeoutException [353](#)
 - uncaught [204](#)
 - unchecked [194](#)
 - UncheckedIOException [307](#)
- exec [388](#)
- Executable class
 - getModifiers method [187](#)
 - getName method [187](#)
 - getParameters method [183](#), [187](#)
- ExecutableElement interface [416](#)
- ExecutionException class [353](#)
- Executor interface [372](#)

- executor services [351, 370](#)
 - ExecutorCompletionService class [354](#)
 - Executors class
 - newFixedThreadPool method [351](#)
 - newVirtualThreadPerTaskExecutor method [351](#)
 - ExecutorService interface
 - execute method [351](#)
 - invokeAll, invokeAny methods [354](#)
 - exhaustiveness [41](#)
 - exists [315, 317](#)
 - exitValue method [391](#)
 - exports keyword [426, 429, 432](#)
 - qualified [442](#)
 - extends keyword [112, 142, 221, 226](#)
 - Externalizable interface, read/writeExternal
 - methods [340](#)
- ## F
- F [14, 38](#)
 - factory methods [73, 85](#)
 - failures, logging [202](#)
 - false literal [15](#)
 - as default value [75, 77](#)
 - Field class [183](#)
 - get method [184, 186](#)
 - getBoolean, getByte, getChar, getDouble, getFloat, getInt, getLong methods [184, 186](#)
 - getModifiers, getName methods [183, 186](#)
 - getShort method [184, 186](#)
 - getType method [183](#)
 - set, setXxx methods [186](#)
 - fields [141](#)
 - enumerating [183](#)
 - final [359](#)
 - provided [150](#)
 - public [183](#)
 - retrieving values of [184](#)
 - setting [185](#)
 - transient [338](#)
 - File class [315](#)
 - file attributes
 - copying [316](#)
 - filtering paths by [318](#)
 - file handlers [214](#)
 - file pointers [311](#)
 - file.separator package [261](#)
 - FileChannel class
 - get, getXxx methods [312](#)
 - lock method [312](#)
 - open method [311](#)
 - put, putXxx methods [312](#)
 - tryLock method [312](#)
 - FileFilter interface [129](#)
 - FileHandler class [213, 215](#)
 - FileNotFoundException class [195](#)
 - files
 - archiving [320](#)
 - channels to [311](#)
 - checking for existence [195, 315, 317](#)
 - closing [198](#)
 - copy method [304, 315, 320](#)
 - copying [315](#)
 - createTempXxx methods [315](#)
 - createXxx methods [315](#)
 - creating [313, 317](#)
 - delete, deleteIfExists methods [316](#)
 - deleting [316](#)
 - empty [315](#)
 - encoding of [304, 305](#)
 - exists method [315, 317](#)
 - find method [317, 318](#)
 - isDirectory, isRegularFile methods [315, 317](#)
 - lines method [274, 297, 306](#)
 - list method [317](#)
 - locking [312](#)
 - memory-mapped [297, 311](#)
 - move method [315](#)
 - moving [315](#)
 - newBufferedReader method [307](#)
 - newBufferedWriter method [307, 316](#)
 - newXxxStream methods [302, 316, 336](#)
 - random-access [311](#)
 - read method [303](#)
 - readAllBytes method [303](#)
 - readAllLines method [306](#)
 - reading from/writing to [36, 195, 303](#)
 - readNBytes method [303](#)
 - skipNBytes method [303](#)
 - temporary [315](#)
 - walk method [317, 320](#)
 - walkFileTree method [317, 319](#)
 - write method [308, 316](#)
 - FileSystem, FileSystems classes [320](#)
 - FileVisitor interface [319](#)
 - fill method
 - of Arrays [53](#)
 - of Collections [53, 250](#)
 - Filter class [215](#)
 - of Optional [282](#)
 - of Stream [272, 276, 280](#)
 - filtering [292](#)
 - final keyword [17, 77, 148](#)
 - final fields [359](#)
 - final methods [363](#)
 - final variables [359, 362](#)
 - finalize [155](#)
 - finally keyword [200](#)
 - for locks [380](#)
 - return statements in [201](#)
 - financial calculations [14](#)
 - find [317, 318](#)
 - findAll method [332](#)
 - findAny method [280](#)
 - findClass method [179](#)
 - findFirst method [182, 280](#)
 - first [254](#)
 - flag bits, sequences of [262](#)
 - flatMap method

- of Optional [284, 285](#)
 - of Stream [277](#)
- flatMap method [291](#)
- flip [263](#)
- float type [13, 51](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
- floating-point types [13](#)
 - binary number system and [14](#)
 - comparing [118](#)
 - division of [20](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
 - in hexadecimal notation [14](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
- floor [254](#)
- floorMod method [20](#)
- for keyword [43, 44](#)
 - declaring variables for [47](#)
 - enhanced [52, 57, 133, 164, 251, 314](#)
 - multiple variables in [44](#)
- forEach method
 - of ArrayList [124](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
 - of Stream [286](#)
- forEachOrdered method [286](#)
- forEachXxx methods (ConcurrentHashMap) [365](#)
- ForkJoinPool class [372](#)
 - commonPool method [298, 370](#)
- format specifiers [37](#)
- formatted [39](#)
- formatted output [37](#)
- Formatter class [215](#)
- forms, posting data from [322, 324](#)
- forName method
 - of Charset [306](#)
 - of Class [174, 175, 176, 179, 180, 195, 204](#)
- frequency [250](#)
- Function interface [128, 287](#)
- function types [121, 127](#)
- functional interfaces [123, 409, 410](#)
 - as method parameters [224](#)
 - common [128](#)
 - contravariant in parameter types [225](#)
 - for primitive types [129](#)
 - implementing [130](#)
- @FunctionalInterface annotation [130, 409, 410, 411](#)
- functions [63](#)
 - higher-order [134](#)
- Functions. See Methods
- Future interface [354](#)
 - cancel, isCancelled, isDone methods [353](#)
 - get method [353, 369](#)
- futures [353](#)
 - completable [369, 375](#)

G

- g, G
 - conversion characters [38](#)
- gadget chains [345](#)
- garbage collector [267](#)
- generate [273, 294](#)
- @Generated annotation [409, 410](#)
- generators, converting to streams [296](#)
- generic classes [50, 220](#)
 - constructing objects of [220](#)
 - information available at runtime [239](#)
 - instantiating [220](#)
- generic collections [268](#)
- generic constructors [240](#)
- generic methods [220](#)
 - calling [221](#)
 - declaring [221](#)
 - information available at runtime [239](#)
- generic type declarations [240, 241](#)
- generic types [117](#)
 - annotating [403](#)
 - arrays of [126](#)
 - casting [232](#)
 - exceptions and [237](#)
 - in JVM [228](#)
 - invariant [223, 225](#)
 - lambda expressions and [225](#)
 - reflection and [238](#)
 - restrictions on [231](#)
- GenericType interface [240](#)
- get method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of ArrayList [51](#)
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Field [184, 186, 312](#)
 - of Future [353, 369](#)
 - of List [248](#)
 - of LongAccumulator [378](#)
 - of Map [255, 256](#)
 - of Optional [283, 285](#)
 - of Path [314](#)
 - of ServiceLoader.Provider [182](#)
 - of Supplier [128](#)
- GET requests [323](#)
- getAndXxx methods (AtomicXxx) [377](#)
- getAnnotation, getAnnotationsByType methods
 - of AnnotatedConstruct [417](#)
 - of AnnotatedElement [413, 415](#)
- getAsXxx methods
 - of OptionalXxx [295](#)
 - of XxxSupplier [129](#)
- getAudioClip method [178](#)
- getAverage method [287](#)
- getBoolean method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getBytes method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getCanonicalName method [175, 176](#)
- getChar method

- of Array [189](#)
- of Field [184, 186](#)
- of FileChannel [312](#)
- getClass method [148, 155, 158, 174, 233, 238](#)
- getClassLoader method [177](#)
- getComponentType method [176, 188](#)
- getConstructor(s) methods (Class) [177, 183, 186, 238, 239](#)
- getContextClassLoader method [180](#)
- getCountry method [289](#)
- getCurrencyInstance method [85](#)
- getDayOfXxx methods
 - of LocalDate [65](#)
- getDeclaredAnnotationXxx methods (AnnotatedElement) [413, 415](#)
- getDeclaredConstructor(s) methods (Class) [177, 183, 239](#)
- getDeclaredField(s) methods (Class) [177](#)
- getDeclaredMethod(s) methods (Class) [177, 185](#)
- getDeclaringClass method
 - of Class [176](#)
 - of Enum [165](#)
- getDefault method
 - of RandomGenerator [7](#)
- getDouble method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getElementsAnnotatedWith method [417](#)
- getEnclosedElements method [417](#)
- getEnclosingXxx methods (Class) [176](#)
- getEnumConstants method [239](#)
- getErrorMessage method [389, 390](#)
- getField(s) methods (Class) [177, 183](#)
- getFileName method [314](#)
- getFilePointer method [311](#)
- getFloat method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getHead method [215](#)
- getHeaderFields method [321](#)
- getInputStream method
 - of Process [389](#)
 - of URL [321](#)
 - of URLConnection [322](#)
- getInstant method [216](#)
- getInt method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getInterfaces method [176](#)
- getLength method [189](#)
- getLevel method [216](#)
- getLogger method [208, 210](#)
- getLoggerName method [216](#)
- getLong method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getLongThreadID method [216](#)
- getMax method [287](#)
- getMessage method [216](#)
- getMethod(s) methods (Class) [177, 183, 185](#)
- getModifiers method
 - of Class [176](#)
 - of Constructor [183](#)
 - of Executable [187](#)
 - of Field [183, 186](#)
 - of Method [183](#)
- getMonthValue method
 - of LocalDate [65](#)
- getName method
 - of Class [174, 176](#)
 - of Constructor [183](#)
 - of Executable [187](#)
 - of Field [183, 186](#)
 - of Method [183](#)
 - of Parameter [187](#)
 - of Path [314](#)
 - of PropertyDescriptor [188](#)
 - of System.Logger [210](#)
- getOrDefault method [255, 256](#)
- getOutputStream method
 - of Process [389](#)
 - of URLConnection [321](#)
- getPackage method [176](#)
- getPackageName method [176](#)
- getParameters method
 - of Executable [183, 187](#)
 - of LogRecord [216](#)
- getParent method [314](#)
- getPath method [320](#)
- getPercentInstance method [85](#)
- getPermittedSubclasses method [176](#)
- getProperties method [261](#)
- getProperty method [179, 205, 261](#)
- getPropertyDescriptors method [188](#)
- getPropertyType, getReadMethod methods (PropertyDescriptor) [188](#)
- getQualifiedName method [417](#)
- getRecordComponents method [177](#)
- getResource method [178](#)
- getResourceAsStream method
 - of Class [177, 178](#)
 - of Module [435](#)
- getResourceBundle, getResourceBundleName methods (LogRecord) [216](#)
- getRoot method [314](#)
- getSequenceNumber method [216](#)
- getShort method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [184, 186](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
- getSimpleName method
 - of Class [176](#)
 - of Element [417](#)
- getSourceXxxName methods (LogRecord) [216](#)
- getSuperclass method [176, 239](#)
- getSuppressed method [200](#)

- getTail method [215](#)
- Getter/setter pairs. *See* Properties
- getThrown method [216](#)
- getType method
 - of Field [183](#)
 - of Parameter [187](#)
- getTypeName method [176](#)
- getTypeParameters method [240](#)
- getURLs method [179](#)
- getValue method [65](#)
- getWriteMethod method [188](#)
- Goetz, Brian [349](#)
- graphemeClusters method
 - of String [279](#)
- group [331](#), [333](#)
- grouping [289](#)
 - classifier functions of [289](#)
 - reducing to numbers [290](#)
- groupingBy method [289](#), [292](#)
- groupingByConcurrent method [290](#), [297](#)
- GUI
 - callbacks in [120](#)
 - long-running tasks in [375](#)

H

- h, H conversion characters [38](#)
- handle [374](#)
- Hansen, Per Brinch [382](#)
- hash [160](#)
- hash codes [159](#)
 - computing in String class [160](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
- hash functions [159](#), [253](#)
- hash maps
 - concurrent [363](#)
 - weak [267](#)
- hash tables [252](#)
- hashCode method
 - of Arrays [160](#)
 - of Enum [165](#)
 - of Object [155](#), [157](#), [159](#)
 - of records [79](#)
- HashMap class [255](#)
 - null values in [256](#)
- HashSet class [252](#)
 - readObject, writeObject methods [339](#)
- Hashtable class [382](#)
- hasNext method
 - declaring [107](#)
 - of Iterator [251](#)
 - of Scanner [36](#), [307](#)
- hasNextXxx methods (Scanner) [36](#), [307](#)
- headMap method [268](#)
- headSet method
 - of NavigableSet [254](#)
 - of SortedSet [254](#), [268](#)
- heap pollution [232](#), [268](#)
- Hello, World! program [1](#)
 - modular [426](#)
- helper methods [228](#)
- hexadecimal numbers [13](#), [14](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
- higher [254](#)
- higher-order functions [134](#)
- hn, hr elements (HTML) [99](#)
- Hoare, Tony [382](#)
- HTML
 - generating documentation in [419](#)
 - including code in [34](#)
- HTTP connections [321](#)
- HTTP/2 support [321](#)
- HttpClient class [321](#), [324](#)
 - enabling logging for [324](#)
 - newBuilder, newHttpClient methods [322](#), [370](#)
- HttpHeaders class [324](#)
- HttpResponse interface [323](#), [324](#)
- URLConnection class [321](#)
- hyperlinks
 - in documentation comments [101](#)
 - regular expressions for [325](#)

I

- IDE [3](#), [5](#)
- identity method
 - of Function [128](#), [287](#)
 - of UnaryOperator [128](#)
- identity values [293](#)
- if keyword [39](#), [40](#)
- ifPresent, ifPresentOrElse methods (Optional) [281](#)
- IllegalArgumentException class [206](#)
- IllegalStateException class [287](#), [365](#)
- ImageIcon class [178](#)
- images, locating [178](#)
- img [99](#)
- immutability [362](#)
- immutable classes [362](#)
- implements keyword [107](#), [108](#)
- import keyword [8](#), [91](#)
 - no annotations for [404](#)
 - static [92](#)
- import static [168](#)
- InaccessibleObjectException class [184](#), [434](#)
- increment [378](#)
- increment operator [20](#)
- incrementAndGet method [377](#)
- incrementExact method [21](#)
- indexOf method
 - of List [248](#)
 - of String [29](#)
- indexOfSubList method [250](#)
- IndexOutOfBoundsException class [205](#)
- info [392](#)
- Information hiding. *See* Encapsulation
- inheritance [142](#), [163](#)
 - classes win rule [154](#), [160](#)
 - default methods and [154](#)

- @Inherited annotation [409, 412](#)
- initCause method [203](#)
- initialization blocks [76](#)
 - static [84](#)
- inlining [148](#)
- inner classes [94](#)
 - anonymous [137](#)
 - invoking methods of outer classes [96](#)
 - local [133, 136](#)
 - syntax for [97](#)
- input
 - reading [35, 306](#)
 - splitting along delimiters [333](#)
- input prompts [37](#)
- input streams [301](#)
 - copying [304](#)
 - obtaining [302](#)
 - reading from [302](#)
- InputStream method [389](#)
- InputStream class [302](#)
 - transferTo method [304](#)
- InputStreamReader class [306](#)
- INSTANCE [341](#)
- instance methods [6, 70](#)
- instance variables [68, 71](#)
 - abstract classes and [149](#)
 - annotating [402](#)
 - comparing [158](#)
 - default values of [75](#)
 - final [77](#)
 - in records [79, 81](#)
 - initializing [76, 144](#)
 - not accessible from static methods [85](#)
 - of deserialized objects [341, 343](#)
 - protected [149](#)
 - setting [74](#)
 - transient [338](#)
 - vs. local [75](#)
- instanceof keyword [110, 146, 158, 159](#)
 - annotating [404](#)
 - with pattern matching [110](#)
- instances [2, 6](#)
- instruction reordering [358](#)
- int type [12](#)
 - functional interfaces for [129](#)
 - processing values of [127](#)
 - random number generator for [7](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
 - using class literals with [175](#)
- IntBinaryOperator interface [129](#)
- IntConsumer interface [127, 129](#)
- Integer class [51](#)
 - compare method [118](#)
 - MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants [12](#)
 - parseInt method [29, 195](#)
 - toString method [28](#)
 - unsigned division in [13](#)
 - xxxUnsigned methods [21](#)
- integer types [12](#)
 - comparing [118](#)
 - computing [20, 21](#)
 - formatting for output [37](#)
 - in hexadecimal notation [13](#)
 - reading/writing [310, 311](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
 - values of
 - even/odd [20](#)
 - signed [13](#)
- interface keyword [107, 405, 406, 407](#)
 - sealed [152](#)
- interface methods [114, 116](#)
- interfaces [106](#)
 - annotating [402, 403](#)
 - compatibility of [114](#)
 - declarations of [106](#)
 - defining variables in [112](#)
 - documentation comments for [98](#)
 - evolution of [114](#)
 - extending [112](#)
 - functional [123, 409, 410](#)
 - implementing [107](#)
 - multiple [112](#)
 - methods of [107, 108](#)
 - nested, enumerating [183](#)
 - no instance variables in [113](#)
 - no redefining methods of the Object class in [160](#)
 - views of [267](#)
- interrupted [356](#)
- interrupted status [356](#)
- InterruptedException class [355](#)
- intersects [264](#)
- IntFunction interface [129, 231](#)
- IntPredicate interface [129](#)
- intrinsic locks [380](#)
- ints [295](#)
- IntSequence [108, 137](#)
- IntStream interface [294](#)
 - parallel method [295](#)
- IntSummaryStatistics class [287, 295](#)
- IntSupplier, IntToXxxFunction, IntUnaryOperator interfaces [129](#)
- InvalidClassException class [343](#)
- InvalidPathException class [313](#)
- InvocationHandler interface [190](#)
- invoke [185, 187](#)
- invokeAll, invokeAny methods (ExecutorService) [354](#)
- IOException class [195, 307](#)
 - addSuppressed, getSuppressed methods [200](#)
- isAbstract method [177, 183](#)
- isAlive method
 - of Process [391](#)
 - of ProcessHandle [393](#)
 - of Thread [385](#)
- isAnnotation method [176](#)
- isAnonymousClass method [176](#)
- isArray method [176, 188](#)
- isAssignableFrom method [176](#)
- isCancelled method [353](#)
- isDirectory method [315, 317](#)

- isDone method
 - of CompletableFuture [371](#)
 - of Future [353](#)
 - isEmpty method
 - of BitSet [264](#)
 - of Collection [246](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
 - isEnum method [176](#)
 - isEqual method [129](#)
 - isFinite, isInfinite methods (Double) [14](#)
 - isInstance method [176](#)
 - isInterface method [177, 183](#)
 - isInterrupted method [356](#)
 - isLocalClass method [176](#)
 - isLoggable method
 - of Filter [215](#)
 - of System.Logger [210](#)
 - isMemberClass method [176](#)
 - isNamePresent method [187](#)
 - isNative method [177, 183](#)
 - isNull method [124](#)
 - ISO 8601 format [410](#)
 - ISO 8859-1 encoding [305, 309](#)
 - isPresent method [283, 285](#)
 - isPrimitive method [176](#)
 - isPrivate, isProtected, isPublic methods (Modifier) [177, 183](#)
 - isRecord method [176](#)
 - isRegularFile method [315, 317](#)
 - isSealed method [176](#)
 - isStatic, isStrict, isSynchronized methods (Modifier) [177, 183](#)
 - isSynthetic method [176](#)
 - isVolatile method [177, 183](#)
 - Iterable interface [251, 314](#)
 - iterator method [251](#)
 - iterate [274, 279, 294, 368](#)
 - iterator method
 - next, hasNext methods [251](#)
 - of Collection [247](#)
 - of ServiceLoader [182](#)
 - of Stream [286](#)
 - remove, removeIf methods [251](#)
 - iterators [251, 286](#)
 - converting to streams [275, 296](#)
 - invalid [252](#)
 - traversing [182](#)
 - weakly consistent [367](#)
- J**
- jar [87](#)
 - module-version option [436](#)
 - C option [436](#)
 - d option [436](#)
 - JAR files [87](#)
 - dependencies in [444](#)
 - for split packages [436](#)
 - manifest for [438](#)
 - modular [436](#)
 - processing order of [89](#)
 - resources in [178](#)
 - scanning for deprecated elements [409](#)
 - Java [3](#)
 - add-exports, --add-opens options [440](#)
 - add-module option [437](#)
 - illegal-access option [439](#)
 - cp (--class-path, -classpath) option [89](#)
 - da (-disableassertions) option [207](#)
 - ea (-enableassertions) option [206](#)
 - esa (-enablesystemassertions) option [207](#)
 - m, -p (--module, --module-path) options [426, 436](#)
 - compatibility with older versions of [153, 154, 228](#)
 - online API documentation on [30, 32](#)
 - option files for [440](#)
 - option names in [88](#)
 - strongly typed [15](#)
 - Unicode support in [30](#)
 - uniformity of [2, 116](#)
 - Java Persistence Architecture [399](#)
 - Java Platform Module System [423](#)
 - layers in [437](#)
 - migration to [437, 439](#)
 - no support for versioning in [425, 427, 436](#)
 - service loading in [443](#)
 - java.awt package [90, 424](#)
 - java.awt.geom package [338](#)
 - java.base package [428](#)
 - java.class.path package [261](#)
 - java.desktop package [428](#)
 - java.home package [261](#)
 - java.io.tmpdir package [261](#)
 - java.lang, java.lang.annotation packages [408](#)
 - java.lang.reflect package [183](#)
 - java.logging package [441](#)
 - java.time package
 - immutability of classes [362](#)
 - java.util package [8, 367](#)
 - java.util.concurrent package [363, 366](#)
 - java.util.concurrent.atomic package [376](#)
 - java.util.logging package [207, 211](#)
 - java.util.random package [106](#)
 - java.version package [261](#)
 - JavaBeans [187](#)
 - javac [3](#)
 - author option [102](#)
 - cp (--class-path, -classpath) option [89](#)
 - d option [87, 102](#)
 - link, -linksource options [102](#)
 - parameters option [183](#)
 - processor option [416](#)
 - version option [102](#)
 - XprintRounds option [419](#)
 - javadoc [98](#)
 - including annotations in [411](#)
 - JavaFX [120, 376](#)
 - java.n.log files [213](#)
 - JavaServer Faces framework [259](#)
 - javax.annotation package [408](#)

[javax.swing package](#) [428](#)
[JAXB](#) [433](#)
[JCommander](#) [399](#)
[jconsole](#) [213](#)
[jdeprscan](#) [409](#)
[jdeps](#) [444](#)
[JDK](#) [3](#)
 obsolete features in [424](#)
[JEP 246 \(platform logging API\)](#) [207](#)
[jlink](#) [445](#)
[jmod](#) [446](#)
[job scheduling](#) [266](#)
[join method](#)
 of [String](#) [26](#)
 of [Thread](#) [385](#)
[joining](#) [287](#)
[JPA](#) [433](#)
[JShell](#) [8](#)
 imported packages in [11](#)
 loading modules into [437](#)
[JSON](#) [150](#)
[JUnit](#) [399](#), [400](#)

K

[key/value pairs](#)
 in annotations [400](#), [407](#)
 in maps [254](#)
 removed by garbage collector [267](#)
[Key/value pairs](#). See [Properties](#)
[keySet method](#)
 of [ConcurrentHashMap](#) [367](#)
 of [Map](#) [258](#), [267](#)
[keywords](#) [16](#)
 contextual [153](#)

L

[L](#) [13](#)
[L64X128MixRandom](#) [106](#)
[labeled statements](#) [45](#), [46](#)
[lambda expressions](#) [121](#)
 annotating targets for [410](#)
 capturing variables in [132](#)
 executing [127](#)
 for loggers [209](#)
 generic types and [225](#)
 parameters of [122](#)
 processing [126](#)
 return type of [122](#)
 scope of [131](#)
 this reference in [131](#)
 throwing exceptions in [197](#)
 using with streams [276](#), [368](#)
[language codes](#) [289](#)
[language model API](#) [416](#)
[last](#) [254](#)
[lastIndexOf method](#)
 of [List](#) [248](#)

 of [String](#) [29](#)
[lastIndexOfSubList method](#) [250](#)
[lazy operations](#) [272](#), [276](#), [279](#), [333](#)
[length method](#)
 of arrays [48](#)
 of [RandomAccessFile](#) [311](#)
 of [String](#) [7](#), [33](#)
[.level](#) [212](#)
[lib/modules](#) [446](#)
[limit](#) [278](#), [297](#)
[line feed](#) [34](#)
 character literal for [15](#)
 formatting for output [38](#)
 in regular expressions [329](#)
[line.separator package](#) [262](#)
[lines method](#)
 of [BufferedReader](#) [307](#)
 of [Files](#) [274](#), [297](#), [306](#)
[@link annotation](#) [101](#)
[linked lists](#) [248](#), [252](#)
[LinkedBlockingQueue class](#) [366](#), [384](#)
[LinkedHashMap class](#) [259](#)
[LinkedList class](#) [248](#)
[List class](#) [226](#), [247](#), [248](#), [317](#)
 add, addAll, get, indexOf, lastIndexOf, listIterator
 methods [247](#)
 of method [51](#), [53](#), [248](#), [264](#)
 remove, removeAll, set, sort methods [248](#)
 subList method [248](#), [267](#)
[ListIterator interface](#) [252](#)
[lists](#)
 converting to streams [296](#)
 mutable [265](#)
 printing elements of [124](#)
 removing null values from [124](#)
 sublists of [267](#)
 unmodifiable views of [268](#)
[literals](#)
 character [14](#)
 floating-point [14](#)
 integer [13](#)
 string [27](#), [33](#)
[little-endian format](#) [305](#)
[load](#) [182](#), [444](#)
[load balancing](#) [336](#)
[loadClass method](#) [179](#)
[local classes](#) [136](#)
[local variables](#) [46](#)
 annotating [402](#), [403](#)
 vs. instance [75](#)
[LocalDate class](#) [64](#)
 getXxx methods [65](#)
 now method [73](#), [85](#)
 of method [64](#), [73](#)
 plus, plusXxx methods [65](#), [66](#), [68](#)
[Locale class](#) [288](#)
 getCountry method [289](#)
[locales](#) [288](#), [291](#)
[LocalTime class](#)
 final [148](#)

- lock method
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
 - of ReentrantLock [380](#)
- locks [361](#)
 - error-prone [362](#)
 - intrinsic [380](#)
 - reentrant [379](#)
 - releasing [201](#), [359](#)
- log handlers [213](#)
 - filtering/formatting [215](#)
- Log4j [207](#)
- Logback [207](#)
- Logger class (java.util.logging) [441](#)
- Logger interface (System) [208](#), [211](#)
 - getName method [210](#)
 - isLoggable method [210](#)
 - log method [208](#), [210](#)
- loggers
 - filtering/formatting [215](#)
 - hierarchy of [212](#)
 - naming [208](#)
- logging [207](#)
 - configuring [211](#), [213](#)
 - failures [202](#)
 - levels of [209](#), [213](#)
 - overriding methods for [148](#)
- LogRecord class, methods of [216](#)
- long type [12](#), [51](#)
 - atomic operations on [377](#), [379](#)
 - functional interfaces for [129](#)
 - MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants [12](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
 - unsigned division in [13](#)
 - xxxUnsigned methods [21](#)
- long-term persistence [342](#)
- LongAccumulator class [377](#)
 - accumulate, get methods [378](#)
- LongAdder class [377](#), [379](#)
 - add, increment, sum methods [378](#)
 - threadsafe [380](#)
- LongConsumer, LongXxxOperator, LongPredicate, LongSupplier, LongToXxxFunction interfaces [129](#)
- LongFunction interface [129](#), [231](#)
- longs [295](#)
- LongStream interface [294](#)
- LongSummaryStatistics class [287](#), [295](#)
- Lookup [435](#)
- lookup method (MethodHandles) [435](#)
- loops [43](#)
 - exiting [44](#)
 - infinite [44](#)
- lower [254](#)

M

- main [2](#), [6](#)
 - decomposing [58](#)
 - string array parameter of [54](#)

- Map interface [249](#)
 - clear method [257](#)
 - compute method [257](#)
 - computeIfXxx methods [257](#)
 - containsXxx methods [257](#)
 - entrySet method [258](#)
 - forEach method [257](#)
 - get, getOrDefault methods [255](#), [256](#)
 - isEmpty method [257](#)
 - keySet method [258](#), [267](#)
 - merge method [255](#), [256](#)
 - of method [258](#), [264](#)
 - of Optional [282](#)
 - of Stream [276](#)
 - ofEntries method [264](#)
 - put method [254](#), [256](#)
 - putAll method [257](#)
 - putIfAbsent method [256](#)
 - remove method [257](#)
 - replace, replaceAll methods [257](#)
 - size method [257](#)
 - values method [258](#), [267](#)
- mapping method [291](#)
 - of Collectors [291](#)
- maps [254](#)
 - concurrent [257](#), [289](#)
 - empty [257](#)
 - iterating over [258](#)
 - of stream elements [287](#), [297](#)
 - order of elements in [259](#)
 - views of [258](#)
 - unmodifiable [268](#)
- mapToInt method [293](#)
- mapToXxx methods (XxxStream) [295](#)
- marker interfaces [162](#)
- Matcher class [330](#), [333](#)
 - methods of [334](#)
- matcher, matches methods (Pattern) [330](#)
- MatchResult interface [331](#), [335](#)
- Math class
 - E constant [21](#)
 - floorMod method [20](#)
 - max, min methods [21](#)
 - PI constant [21](#), [83](#), [92](#)
 - pow method [21](#), [84](#), [92](#)
 - round method [22](#)
 - sqrt method [21](#)
 - TAU constant [21](#)
 - xxxExact methods [21](#), [23](#)
- max method
 - of Stream [280](#)
 - of XxxStream [295](#)
- MAX_VALUE [12](#)
- maxBy method
 - of BinaryOperator [129](#)
 - of Collectors [291](#)
- memory
 - allocating [361](#)
 - caching [358](#)
 - concurrent access to [359](#)

- memory-mapped files [311](#)
 - merge method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap [364](#)
 - of Map [255, 256](#)
 - Message [162, 163](#)
 - meta-annotations [406, 412](#)
 - META-INF/MANIFEST.MF [438](#)
 - META-INF/services [443](#)
 - Method class [183](#)
 - getModifiers, getName methods [183](#)
 - invoke method [185, 187](#)
 - method calls [6](#)
 - receiver of [70](#)
 - method expressions [124, 147](#)
 - method references [124, 233](#)
 - annotating [404](#)
 - MethodHandles.lookup method [435](#)
 - methods [2](#)
 - abstract [123, 148](#)
 - accessor [66, 79](#)
 - annotating [236, 402](#)
 - atomic [364](#)
 - body of [69](#)
 - chaining calls of [65](#)
 - clashes of [236](#)
 - compatible [160](#)
 - declarations of [69](#)
 - default [114, 116](#)
 - deprecated [100, 408, 409](#)
 - documentation comments for [98, 99](#)
 - enumerating [183](#)
 - factory [73, 85](#)
 - final [148, 363](#)
 - for throwing exceptions [204](#)
 - header of [69](#)
 - inlining [148](#)
 - instance [70](#)
 - invoking [185](#)
 - modifying functions [135](#)
 - mutator [66, 268, 363](#)
 - naming [16, 79](#)
 - native [84](#)
 - overloading [74, 125](#)
 - overriding [114, 143, 148, 197, 408, 409](#)
 - parameters of [183](#)
 - null checks for [204](#)
 - passing arrays into [58](#)
 - private [116](#)
 - proxied [191](#)
 - public [107, 108, 183](#)
 - restricted to subclasses [149](#)
 - return value of [2, 69](#)
 - returning functions [134](#)
 - static [58, 84, 85, 92, 113](#)
 - storing in variables [7](#)
 - symmetric [159](#)
 - synchronized [381, 384](#)
 - used for serialization [408, 410](#)
 - utility [90](#)
 - variable number of arguments of [59](#)
 - Microsoft Notepad [305](#)
 - Microsoft Windows
 - line ending in [34](#)
 - path separator in [89, 262](#)
 - min method
 - of Math [21](#)
 - of Stream [280](#)
 - of XxxStream [295](#)
 - MIN_VALUE [12](#)
 - minBy method
 - of BinaryOperator [129](#)
 - of Collectors [291](#)
 - Modifier class
 - isXxx methods [177, 183](#)
 - toString method [177](#)
 - modifiers, checking [183](#)
 - module keyword [426](#)
 - module path [426, 436, 438](#)
 - module-info.class [426, 436](#)
 - module-info.java [426](#)
 - Module.getResourceAsStream method [435](#)
 - modules [423](#)
 - aggregator [441](#)
 - annotating [427](#)
 - automatic [437, 439](#)
 - bundling up the minimal set of [445](#)
 - declaration of [425, 426](#)
 - documentation comments for [98, 102](#)
 - explicit [439](#)
 - illegal access to [439](#)
 - inspecting files in [446](#)
 - loading into JShell [437](#)
 - naming [425, 438](#)
 - open [434](#)
 - reflective access for [184, 185](#)
 - required [427, 440](#)
 - tools for [444](#)
 - transitive [440](#)
 - unnamed [438](#)
 - versioning and [425, 427, 436](#)
 - monitors (classes) [382](#)
 - move [315](#)
 - multiplication [19](#)
 - mutators [66](#)
 - unmodifiable views and [268](#)
- ## N
- n
 - conversion character [38](#)
 - name [165](#)
 - NaN [14](#)
 - native encoding [305](#)
 - native methods [84](#)
 - naturalOrder method [136](#)
 - navigable maps/sets [268](#)
 - NavigableMap interface [367](#)
 - NavigableSet interface [249, 253, 268](#)
 - methods of [254](#)

- nCopies method [248, 250](#)
- negate [129](#)
- negateExact method [21](#)
- negative values [12](#)
- NEGATIVE_INFINITY [14](#)
- nested classes [92](#)
 - annotating [403](#)
 - enumerating [183](#)
 - inner [94](#)
 - public [93](#)
 - static [93](#)
- new keyword [7, 15, 18, 74](#)
 - as constructor reference [125](#)
 - for anonymous classes [138](#)
 - for arrays [48, 49, 56](#)
- newBufferedReader method [307](#)
- newBufferedWriter method [307, 316](#)
- newBuilder method [322, 370](#)
- newFileSystem method [320](#)
- newFixedThreadPool method
 - of Executors [351](#)
- newHttpClient method [322, 370](#)
- newInputStream method [302, 316, 336](#)
- newInstance method
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Class [186, 238](#)
 - of Constructor [186, 187](#)
- newKeySet method [367](#)
- newOutputStream method [302, 316, 336](#)
- newProxyInstance method [190](#)
- newVirtualThreadPerTaskExecutor method
 - of Executors [351](#)
- next method
 - declaring [107](#)
 - of Iterator [251](#)
 - of Scanner [35](#)
- nextClearBit method [263](#)
- nextDouble method
 - common for all generators [106](#)
 - of Scanner [35, 307](#)
- nextInt method
 - common for all generators [106](#)
 - of Random [7](#)
 - of Scanner [35](#)
- nextLine method [35](#)
- nextSetBit method [263](#)
- nominal typing [127](#)
- non-sealed keyword [152](#)
- noneMatch method [281](#)
- noneOf method [265](#)
- noninterference, of stream operations [276](#)
- @NonNull annotation [403](#)
- normalize [314](#)
- NoSuchElementException class [283, 366](#)
- notify, notifyAll methods (Object) [384](#)
- now method
 - of LocalDate [73, 85](#)
- null literal [27, 67](#)
 - as default value [75, 77](#)
 - checking parameters for [204](#)

- comparing against [158](#)
 - converting to strings [156](#)
- NullPointerException class [27, 50, 68, 76, 195, 205, 255](#)
 - vs. Optional [280](#)
- nullsFirst, nullsLast methods (Comparator) [136](#)
- NumberFormat class
 - getXxxInstance methods [85](#)
- NumberFormatException class [195](#)
- numbers
 - average of [107, 108](#)
 - big [24](#)
 - comparing [118](#)
 - converting to strings [28](#)
 - default value of [75, 77](#)
 - even or odd [20](#)
 - formatting [37](#)
 - from grouped elements [290](#)
 - in regular expressions [327](#)
 - non-negative [206, 262](#)
 - printing [37](#)
 - random [7, 106, 273, 278, 295](#)
 - reading/writing [307, 310, 311](#)
 - rounding [14, 22](#)
 - type conversions of [21](#)
 - unsigned [13, 21](#)
 - with fractional parts [13](#)

O

- o [38](#)
- Object class [154](#)
 - clone method [150, 155, 161, 185](#)
 - equals method [155, 159](#)
 - finalize method [155](#)
 - getClass method [148, 155, 158, 174, 233, 238](#)
 - hashCode method [155, 157, 159](#)
 - notify, notifyAll methods [384](#)
 - toString method [155, 157](#)
 - wait method [383, 384](#)
- object references [66](#)
 - attempting to change [72](#)
 - comparing [157](#)
 - default value of [75, 77](#)
 - null [67](#)
 - passed by value [73](#)
 - serialization and [337](#)
- object-oriented programming [63](#)
 - encapsulation in [423, 424](#)
- object-relational mappers [433](#)
- ObjectInputStream class [336, 337](#)
 - defaultReadObject method [339, 343](#)
 - readDouble method [339](#)
 - readFields method [343](#)
 - readObject method [337, 345](#)
- ObjectInputValidation interface [344, 345](#)
- ObjectOutputStream class [336](#)
 - defaultWriteObject method [339](#)
 - writeDouble method [339](#)

- writeObject method [336, 339](#)
 - objects [2, 63](#)
 - calling methods on [7](#)
 - casting [109](#)
 - checkIndex method [205](#)
 - cloning [161](#)
 - comparing [51, 157](#)
 - constructing [7, 73, 186](#)
 - converting
 - to JSON [433](#)
 - to strings [155](#)
 - converting to streams [274](#)
 - deep/shallow copies of [161, 163](#)
 - deserialized [341, 343](#)
 - equals method [158](#)
 - hash method [160](#)
 - immutable [66](#)
 - initializing variables with [15](#)
 - inspecting [184](#)
 - invoking static methods on [85](#)
 - isNull method [124](#)
 - mutable [77](#)
 - requireNonNull, requireNonNullXxx methods [204](#)
 - serializable [336](#)
 - sorting [117](#)
 - state of [63](#)
 - ObjXxxConsumer interfaces [129](#)
 - octal numbers [13](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
 - octonions [30](#)
 - odd numbers [20](#)
 - of method
 - of EnumSet [265](#)
 - of IntStream [294](#)
 - of List [51, 53, 248, 264](#)
 - of LocalDate [64, 73](#)
 - of Map [258, 264](#)
 - of Optional [284](#)
 - of Path [313, 314, 320](#)
 - of ProcessHandle [392](#)
 - of Set [264](#)
 - of Stream [273](#)
 - ofEntries method [264](#)
 - offer [366](#)
 - ofNullable method
 - of Optional [284](#)
 - of Stream [274, 286](#)
 - ofString method [323](#)
 - onExit method
 - of Process [391](#)
 - of ProcessHandle [393](#)
 - open keyword [311](#)
 - open keyword [435](#)
 - openConnection method [321](#)
 - opens keyword [434](#)
 - qualified [442](#)
 - openStream method [302](#)
 - Operation [166](#)
 - operations
 - associative [293](#)
 - atomic [361, 364, 376, 382](#)
 - bulk [365](#)
 - lazy [272, 276, 279, 333](#)
 - parallel [368](#)
 - performed optimistically [377](#)
 - stateless [296](#)
 - threadsafe [363](#)
 - operators [18](#)
 - cast [22](#)
 - precedence of [19](#)
 - option files [440](#)
 - Optional class [280, 285](#)
 - creating values of [284](#)
 - empty method [284](#)
 - filter method [282](#)
 - flatMap method [284, 285](#)
 - for empty streams [292, 293](#)
 - for processes [392](#)
 - get method [283, 285](#)
 - ifPresent method [281](#)
 - ifPresentOrElse method [282](#)
 - isPresent method [283, 285](#)
 - map method [282](#)
 - of, ofNullable methods [284](#)
 - or method [282](#)
 - orElse method [280](#)
 - orElseThrow method [281, 283](#)
 - proper usage of [283](#)
 - stream method [285](#)
 - OptionalXxx classes [295](#)
 - or method
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Predicate, BiPredicate [129](#)
 - order [312](#)
 - ordinal [165](#)
 - orElseThrow method [281, 283](#)
 - org.omg.corba package [424](#)
 - orTimeout method [374](#)
 - os.arch, os.name, os.version system properties [261](#)
 - OSGi [424](#)
 - output
 - formatted [37](#)
 - writing [307](#)
 - output streams [301](#)
 - closing [303](#)
 - obtaining [302](#)
 - writing to [303](#)
 - OutputStream class [336](#)
 - write method [303](#)
 - OutputStreamWriter class [307](#)
 - outputWriter method [389](#)
 - @Override annotation [144, 338, 341, 408, 409](#)
 - overriding [143](#)
 - for logging/debugging [148](#)
 - overview.html package [102](#)
- ## P
- package keyword [87](#)

- package declarations [86](#)
- package-info.java [102](#), [402](#)
- packages [2](#), [86](#)
 - accessing [90](#), [150](#), [424](#), [430](#), [431](#), [434](#), [437](#)
 - adding classes to [91](#)
 - annotating [402](#), [403](#)
 - default [87](#)
 - documentation comments for [98](#), [102](#)
 - exporting [429](#), [435](#)
 - naming [86](#)
 - not nesting [86](#)
 - split [436](#)
- parallel [295](#)
- parallel streams [368](#)
- parallelStream method [247](#), [272](#), [295](#), [368](#)
- parallelXxx methods (Arrays) [54](#), [369](#)
- @param annotation [99](#)
- Parameter class [187](#)
- parameter variables [72](#)
 - annotating [402](#)
 - scope of [47](#)
- Parameterized types. See [Type parameters](#)
- ParameterizedType interface [240](#)
- Parent classes. See [Superclasses](#)
- parentLogger method (Driver) [441](#)
- parseDouble method [29](#)
- parseInt method [29](#), [195](#)
- partitioning [362](#)
- partitioningBy method [289](#), [292](#)
- Pascal triangle [56](#)
- passwords [36](#)
- Path interface [114](#), [313](#)
 - get method [314](#)
 - getXxx methods [314](#)
 - normalize method [314](#)
 - of method [313](#), [314](#), [320](#)
 - relativize method [314](#)
 - resolve, resolveSibling methods [313](#)
 - subpath method [314](#)
 - toAbsolutePath, toFile methods [314](#)
- path separators [313](#)
- path.separator package [262](#)
- Paths class [114](#), [313](#)
 - absolute vs. relative [313](#), [314](#)
 - combining [314](#)
 - filtering [318](#)
 - resolving [313](#)
 - taking apart [314](#)
- Pattern class
 - asMatchPredicate, asPredicate methods [331](#)
 - compile method [330](#), [335](#)
 - flags [335](#)
 - matcher, matches methods [330](#)
 - split method [333](#)
 - splitAsStream method [274](#), [333](#)
 - splitWithDelimiters method [333](#)
- pattern variables [215](#)
- Pattern.quote method [326](#)
- PECS (producer extends, consumer super) [225](#)
- peek method
 - of BlockingQueue [366](#)
 - of Stream [279](#)
- performance
 - atomic operations and [377](#)
 - big numbers and [24](#)
 - combined operators and [20](#)
 - memory caching and [358](#)
- permits keyword [152](#)
- @Persistent annotation [412](#)
- PI [21](#), [83](#), [92](#)
- Picocli [399](#)
- platform class loader [178](#)
- platform logging API [207](#), [212](#)
- Platform threads [350](#)
- plugins, loading [179](#)
- plus, plusXxx methods
 - of LocalDate [65](#), [66](#), [68](#)
- Point class [155](#)
- poll [366](#)
- pollXxx methods (NavigableSet) [254](#)
- pools, for parallel streams [298](#)
- pop [266](#)
- POSITIVE_INFINITY [14](#)
- POST requests [323](#)
- postVisitDirectory method [319](#)
- pow [21](#), [84](#), [92](#)
- predefined character classes [325](#), [327](#), [329](#)
- Predicate interface [123](#), [129](#)
 - and method [129](#)
 - isEqual method [129](#)
 - or, negate methods [129](#)
 - test method [129](#), [224](#)
- predicate functions [289](#)
- previous method
 - of ListIterator [252](#)
- previousClearBit method [263](#)
- previousSetBit method [263](#)
- preVisitDirectory method [319](#)
- primitive types [12](#)
 - comparing [158](#)
 - converting to strings [156](#)
 - functions interfaces for [129](#)
 - passed by value [73](#)
 - streams of [293](#), [295](#)
 - type parameters and [231](#)
 - variables of, no updating for [72](#)
 - wrapper classes for [51](#)
- printStackTrace method [204](#)
- PrintStream class [6](#), [156](#), [308](#)
 - print method [6](#), [37](#), [207](#), [308](#)
 - printf method [37](#), [38](#), [59](#), [308](#)
 - println method [6](#), [7](#), [35](#), [37](#), [54](#), [124](#), [308](#)
- PrintWriter class [308](#)
 - close method [198](#), [199](#)
 - print method [308](#)
 - printf method [308](#)
 - println method [308](#)
- priority queues [266](#)
- private keyword [2](#), [90](#)
 - for enum constructors [166](#)

- Process class [388](#)
 - destroy, destroyForcibly methods [391](#)
 - errorReader method [389](#)
 - exitValue method [391](#)
 - getErrorStream method [389, 390](#)
 - getInputStream, getOutputStream methods [389](#)
 - inputReader method [389](#)
 - isAlive method [391](#)
 - onExit method [391](#)
 - outputWriter method [389](#)
 - supportsNormalTermination method [391](#)
 - toHandle method [392](#)
 - waitFor method [391](#)
 - ProcessBuilder class [388](#)
 - directory method [388](#)
 - redirectXxx methods [389, 390](#)
 - start, startPipeline methods [390](#)
 - processes [388](#)
 - building [388](#)
 - getting info about [392](#)
 - killing [391](#)
 - running [390](#)
 - ProcessHandle interface [392](#)
 - allProcesses method [392](#)
 - current method [392](#)
 - destroy, destroyForcibly methods [393](#)
 - info method [392](#)
 - isAlive method [393](#)
 - of method [392](#)
 - onExit method [393](#)
 - supportsNormalTermination method [393](#)
 - processing pipeline [371, 390](#)
 - Processor interface [416](#)
 - programming languages
 - functional [105](#)
 - object-oriented [2](#)
 - programs
 - compiling [3](#)
 - configuration options for [260](#)
 - packaging [446](#)
 - responsive [375](#)
 - running [3](#)
 - testing [206](#)
 - promises (in concurrent libraries) [370](#)
 - properties [187, 260](#)
 - loading from file [261](#)
 - naming [188](#)
 - read-only/write-only [187](#)
 - testing for [224](#)
 - property files
 - encoding [261](#)
 - generating [419](#)
 - protected keyword [149](#)
 - Provider.get, Provider.type methods [182](#)
 - provides keyword [444](#)
 - Proxy class [190](#)
 - newProxyInstance method [190](#)
 - public keyword [2, 90](#)
 - for interface methods [107, 108](#)
 - method overriding and [144](#)
 - push [266](#)
 - put method
 - of BlockingQueue [365](#)
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
 - of Map [254, 256](#)
 - putAll method [257](#)
 - putBoolean method
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
 - putByte method [312](#)
 - putChar method [312](#)
 - putDouble, putFloat methods
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
 - putIfAbsent method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap [364](#)
 - of Map [256](#)
 - putInt, putLong methods
 - of FileChannel [312](#)
 - putShort method [312](#)
- ## Q
- qualified exports [442](#)
 - Queue class [249, 265](#)
 - synchronizing methods in [382](#)
 - using ArrayDeque with [266](#)
 - quote method (Pattern) [326](#)
 - quoteReplacement method [334](#)
- ## R
- race conditions [296, 359](#)
 - Random class [7, 106](#)
 - nextInt method [7](#)
 - random numbers [7, 106](#)
 - streams of [273, 278, 295](#)
 - RandomAccess interface [248](#)
 - RandomAccessFile class [311](#)
 - getFilePointer method [311](#)
 - length method [311](#)
 - seek method [311](#)
 - RandomGenerator interface [106](#)
 - getDefault method [7](#)
 - methods of [295](#)
 - RandomNumbers [85](#)
 - range [265](#)
 - range, rangeClosed methods (XxxStream) [294](#)
 - ranges [267](#)
 - converting to streams [296](#)
 - raw types [228, 232](#)
 - read method
 - of Files [303](#)
 - of InputStream [302](#)
 - of InputStreamReader [306](#)
 - readAllXxx methods (Files) [303, 306](#)
 - readByte, readChar methods (DataInput) [310](#)
 - readDouble method
 - of DataInput [310](#)
 - of ObjectInputStream [339](#)
 - Reader class [306](#)

- readers [301](#)
 - readExternal method [340](#)
 - readFields method [343](#)
 - readFloat, readFully methods (DataInput) [310](#)
 - readInt method [310](#), [311](#)
 - readLine method
 - of BufferedReader [307](#)
 - of Console [36](#)
 - readLong method [310](#)
 - readNBytes method [303](#)
 - readObject method
 - of HashSet [339](#)
 - of ObjectInputStream [337](#), [345](#)
 - readPassword method [36](#)
 - readResolve method [341](#)
 - readShort method [310](#)
 - readUnsignedXxx, readUTF methods (DataOutput) [310](#)
 - receiver parameters [70](#), [405](#)
 - records [78](#)
 - customizing serialization of [341](#)
 - serializable [344](#)
 - redirection syntax [36](#)
 - redirectXxx methods (ProcessBuilder) [389](#), [390](#)
 - reduce [292](#)
 - reduceXxx methods (ConcurrentHashMap) [365](#)
 - reducing [292](#)
 - reductions [280](#), [292](#)
 - ReentrantLock class [379](#)
 - lock, unlock methods [380](#)
 - reflection [183](#)
 - generic types and [233](#), [238](#)
 - module system and [184](#), [185](#), [433](#), [440](#)
 - processing annotations with [413](#)
 - security and [345](#)
 - ReflectiveOperationException class [175](#)
 - regular expressions [325](#)
 - flags for [335](#)
 - groups in [332](#)
 - replacing matches with [334](#)
 - splitting input with [333](#)
 - testing matches of [330](#), [332](#)
 - turning into predicates [331](#)
 - relational operators [23](#)
 - relativize [314](#)
 - remainderUnsigned method [21](#)
 - remove method
 - of ArrayDeque [266](#)
 - of ArrayList [51](#)
 - of BlockingQueue [365](#)
 - of Collection [246](#)
 - of Iterator [251](#)
 - of List [248](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
 - removeAll method [246](#)
 - removeIf method
 - of ArrayList [123](#)
 - of Collection [246](#)
 - of Iterator [251](#)
 - @Repeatable annotation [409](#), [412](#)
 - @RepeatedTest annotation [401](#)
 - replace method
 - of Map [257](#)
 - of String [29](#)
 - replaceAll method
 - of Collections [249](#)
 - of List [248](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
 - of Matcher [334](#), [335](#)
 - of String [334](#)
 - replaceFirst method [335](#)
 - requireNonNull, requireNonNullXxx methods (Objects) [204](#)
 - requires keyword [426](#), [429](#), [432](#), [437](#), [440](#)
 - Reserved words. See Keywords
 - resolve, resolveSibling methods (Path) [313](#)
 - resources [174](#)
 - loading [178](#), [435](#)
 - managing [198](#)
 - resume [385](#)
 - retainAll method [246](#)
 - @Retention annotation [406](#), [409](#)
 - return keyword [58](#), [69](#), [99](#)
 - in finally blocks [201](#)
 - in lambda expressions [122](#)
 - return types, covariant [144](#), [231](#)
 - return values
 - as arrays [59](#)
 - missing [280](#)
 - providing type of [58](#)
 - reverse [54](#), [250](#)
 - reverse domain name convention [86](#), [425](#)
 - reversed [135](#)
 - reverseOrder method [136](#)
 - rotate [250](#)
 - round [22](#)
 - RoundEnvironment interface [417](#)
 - roundoff errors [14](#)
 - RowSetProvider class [440](#)
 - runAfterXxx methods (CompletableFuture) [374](#), [375](#)
 - Runnable interface [119](#), [128](#), [352](#), [353](#)
 - executing on the UI thread [376](#)
 - run method [128](#), [350](#), [355](#), [385](#)
 - using class literals with [175](#)
 - runtime
 - availableProcessors method [351](#)
 - exec method [388](#)
 - raw types at [232](#)
 - safety checks at [229](#)
 - runtime image file [446](#)
 - RuntimeException class [194](#)
- ## S
- s, S conversion characters [38](#)
 - safety checks, as runtime [229](#)
 - @SafeVarargs annotation [235](#), [409](#), [410](#)
 - sample code [6](#)
 - Scala [227](#)
 - Scanner class [35](#)
 - findAll method [332](#)

- hasNext, hasNextXxx methods [35](#), [307](#)
- next, nextXxx methods [35](#), [307](#)
- tokens method [274](#), [307](#)
- sealed keyword [152](#)
- sealed types [150](#)
- searchXxx methods (ConcurrentHashMap) [365](#)
- security [91](#), [344](#)
- SecurityException class [184](#)
- @see annotation [101](#)
- seek [311](#)
- sequences, producing [274](#)
- @Serial annotation [338](#), [341](#), [408](#), [410](#)
- serial numbers [337](#)
- Serializable interface [336](#)
 - readResolve, writeReplace methods [341](#)
- serialization [336](#)
 - filters for [345](#)
- serialVersionUID method [343](#)
- server-side software [336](#)
- ServiceLoader class [181](#), [443](#)
 - iterator method [182](#)
 - load method [182](#), [444](#)
- ServiceLoader.Provider interface [182](#)
- services
 - configurable [181](#)
 - loading [181](#), [443](#)
- ServletException [203](#)
- set method [249](#), [367](#)
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of ArrayList [51](#)
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Field [186](#)
 - of List [248](#)
 - of ListIterator [252](#)
 - of method [264](#)
 - working with EnumSet [265](#)
- setAccessible method [184](#), [185](#), [186](#)
- setAll method [127](#)
- setBoolean, setByte, setChar methods
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [186](#)
- setClassAssertionStatus method [207](#)
- setContextClassLoader method [180](#)
- setDaemon method [388](#)
- setDefaultAssertionStatus method [207](#)
- setDefaultUncaughtExceptionHandler method [204](#)
- setDoOutput method [321](#)
- setDouble, setFloat, setInt, setLong methods
 - of Array [189](#)
 - of Field [186](#)
- setOut method [84](#)
- setPackageAssertionStatus method [207](#)
- setProperty method [211](#)
- setRequestProperty method [321](#)
- sets [252](#)
 - immutable [362](#)
 - threadsafe [367](#)
 - unmodifiable views of [268](#)
- setShort method
 - of Array [189](#)
- of Field [186](#)
- setUncaughtExceptionHandler method [385](#)
- shallow copies [161](#), [163](#)
- shared variables [359](#), [362](#)
 - atomic mutations of [376](#)
 - locking [379](#)
- shell
 - redirection syntax of [36](#)
 - scripts for, generating [419](#)
- shift operators [24](#)
- Shift_JIS encoding [305](#)
- short type [12](#), [51](#)
 - MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants [12](#)
 - streams of [294](#)
 - type conversions of [22](#)
- short circuit evaluation [23](#)
- short-term persistence [342](#)
- shuffle [54](#), [250](#)
- SimpleFileVisitor class [319](#)
- @since annotation [100](#)
- singletons [341](#)
- size method
 - of ArrayList [51](#)
 - of Collection [246](#)
 - of Map [257](#)
- skip [278](#)
- skipNBytes method [303](#)
- sleep [355](#)
- SLF4J [207](#), [425](#)
- SOAP protocol [424](#)
- SocketHandler class [213](#)
- sort method
 - of Arrays [54](#), [118](#), [119](#), [123](#), [124](#)
 - of Collections [54](#), [226](#), [227](#), [240](#), [250](#)
 - of List [248](#)
- sorted [279](#)
- sorted maps [267](#), [268](#)
- sorted sets [249](#), [267](#)
 - traversing [253](#)
 - unmodifiable views of [268](#)
- sorted streams [296](#)
- SortedMap interface [268](#)
- SortedSet interface [249](#), [253](#)
 - first method [254](#)
 - headSet method [254](#), [268](#)
 - last method [254](#)
 - subSet, tailSet methods [254](#), [268](#)
- sorting
 - array lists [54](#)
 - arrays [54](#), [117](#)
 - chaining comparators for [135](#)
 - changing order of [134](#)
 - streams [279](#)
 - strings [28](#), [124](#)
- source code, generating [409](#), [410](#), [417](#)
- source files
 - documentation comments for [102](#)
 - placing, in a file system [87](#)
- space flag (for output) [39](#)
- spaces

- in regular expressions [327](#)
- removing [29](#)
- split method
 - of Pattern [333](#)
 - of String [26, 333](#)
- splitAsStream method [274, 333](#)
- splititerator [247](#)
- Spliterators class
 - splititeratorUnknownSize method [275](#)
- splitWithDelimiters method [333](#)
- SQL [34](#)
- sqrt [21](#)
- square root, computing [284](#)
- Stack class [265](#)
- stack trace [203, 205](#)
- StackWalker class [204](#)
- standard output [2](#)
- StandardCharsets class [305](#)
- start method
 - of Matcher, MatchResult [331, 333](#)
 - of ProcessBuilder [390](#)
 - of Thread [385](#)
- startPipeline method [390](#)
- startsWith method [29](#)
- stateless operations [296](#)
- statements, combining [48](#)
- static keyword [2, 17, 58, 82, 167](#)
 - for modules [442](#)
- static constants [83](#)
- static imports [92](#)
- static initialization [179](#)
- static methods [58, 84, 85](#)
 - accessing static variables from [85](#)
 - importing [92](#)
 - in interfaces [113, 114](#)
- static nested classes [93](#)
- static variables [82](#)
 - accessing from static methods [85](#)
 - importing [92](#)
 - visibility of [359](#)
- stop [385](#)
- Stream interface
 - anyMatch method [281](#)
 - collect method [286, 294](#)
 - concat method [279](#)
 - count method [272, 280](#)
 - distinct method [279, 296](#)
 - dropWhile method [278](#)
 - empty method [273](#)
 - filter method [272, 276, 280](#)
 - findAny method [280](#)
 - findFirst method [182, 280](#)
 - flatMap method [277](#)
 - forEach, forEachOrdered methods [286](#)
 - generate method [273, 294](#)
 - iterate method [274, 279, 294, 368](#)
 - iterator method [286](#)
 - limit method [278, 297](#)
 - map method [276](#)
 - mapToInt method [293](#)
 - max, min methods [280](#)
 - noneMatch method [281](#)
 - of Arrays [273, 294](#)
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Collection [247, 272](#)
 - of method [273](#)
 - of Optional [285](#)
 - of StreamSupport [275](#)
 - of Nullable method [274, 286](#)
 - peek method [279](#)
 - reduce method [292](#)
 - skip method [278](#)
 - sorted method [279](#)
 - takeWhile method [278](#)
 - toArray method [126, 286](#)
 - toList method [275](#)
 - unordered method [296](#)
- streams [271, 276](#)
 - collecting elements of [286, 289](#)
 - combining [278](#)
 - computing values from [292](#)
 - converting to/from arrays [273, 286, 296, 369](#)
 - creating [273](#)
 - debugging [279](#)
 - empty [273, 280, 292, 293](#)
 - filtering [285](#)
 - finite [274](#)
 - flattening [277, 285](#)
 - infinite [272, 273, 278, 279](#)
 - intermediate operations for [273](#)
 - locating services with [182](#)
 - noninterference of [276](#)
 - of primitive type values [293, 295](#)
 - of random numbers [295](#)
 - ordered [296](#)
 - parallel [272, 280, 286, 289, 290, 293, 295, 368](#)
 - processed lazily [272, 276, 279](#)
 - reductions of [280](#)
 - removing duplicates from [279](#)
 - returned by Files.lines [297](#)
 - sorting [279](#)
 - splitting [278](#)
 - summarizing [287, 295](#)
 - terminal operation for [273, 280](#)
 - transformations of [276, 295](#)
 - vs. collections [272](#)
- StreamSupport class
 - stream method [275](#)
- String class [7, 29](#)
 - charAt method [33](#)
 - compareTo method [28, 117](#)
 - compareToIgnoreCase method [124](#)
 - contains method [29](#)
 - endsWith method [29](#)
 - equals method [27](#)
 - equalsIgnoreCase method [28](#)
 - final [148](#)
 - formatted method [39](#)
 - graphemeClusters method [279](#)
 - hash codes [160](#)

- immutability of [30, 362](#)
 - indexOf, lastIndexOf methods [29](#)
 - join method [26](#)
 - length method [7, 33](#)
 - replace method [29](#)
 - replaceAll method [334](#)
 - split method [26, 333](#)
 - startsWith method [29](#)
 - substring method [26](#)
 - toLowerCase method [29, 276](#)
 - toUpperCase method [29](#)
 - StringBuilder class [26](#)
 - strings [7, 25](#)
 - comparing [27](#)
 - concatenating [25, 156](#)
 - converting
 - from byte arrays [306](#)
 - from objects [155](#)
 - to numbers [28](#)
 - converting to code points [277](#)
 - empty [27, 28, 156](#)
 - formatting for output [38](#)
 - internal representation of [33](#)
 - sorting [28, 124](#)
 - splitting [26, 274](#)
 - transforming to lower/uppercase [276](#)
 - StringWriter class [309](#)
 - strip [29](#)
 - strong [99](#)
 - subclasses [142](#)
 - anonymous [146, 166](#)
 - calling toString method in [156](#)
 - constructors for [144](#)
 - inheriting annotations [409](#)
 - initializing instance variables in [144](#)
 - methods in [142](#)
 - preventing [148](#)
 - public [144](#)
 - superclass assignments in [145](#)
 - subList method [248, 267](#)
 - subMap method [268](#)
 - subpath [314](#)
 - subSet method
 - of NavigableSet [254](#)
 - of SortedSet [254, 268](#)
 - substring [26](#)
 - subtractExact method [21](#)
 - subtraction [19](#)
 - accurate [25](#)
 - not associative [293](#)
 - subtypes [109](#)
 - wildcards for [223](#)
 - sum method
 - of LongAdder [378](#)
 - of XxxStream [295](#)
 - summarizingXxx methods (Collectors) [287, 291](#)
 - summaryStatistics method [295](#)
 - summingXxx methods (Collectors) [290](#)
 - super keyword [115, 143, 144, 147, 224, 227](#)
 - superclasses [142](#)
 - annotating [403](#)
 - calling equals method on [158](#)
 - default methods of [154](#)
 - methods of [143](#)
 - public [144](#)
 - serializability of [337](#)
 - supertypes [109, 110, 112](#)
 - wildcards for [224](#)
 - Supplier interface [128, 370](#)
 - supplyAsync method [370, 371](#)
 - supportsNormalTermination method
 - of Process [391](#)
 - of ProcessHandle [393](#)
 - @SuppressWarnings annotation [232, 409, 410, 411, 427](#)
 - suspend [385](#)
 - swap [250](#)
 - Swing GUI toolkit [120, 376](#)
 - SwingConstants interface [112](#)
 - SwingWorker class [376](#)
 - switch keyword [40](#)
 - enhanced [42, 171](#)
 - exhaustive [41](#)
 - fall-through variant of [42](#)
 - using enumerations in [167](#)
 - with pattern matching [151](#)
 - symbolic links [317, 318](#)
 - synchronized keyword [379, 384](#)
 - synchronized views [269](#)
 - synchronizedXxx methods (Collections) [250](#)
 - System class
 - getLogger method [208, 210](#)
 - getProperties method [261](#)
 - getProperty method [179, 205, 261](#)
 - setOut method [84](#)
 - setProperty method [211](#)
 - system class loader [178, 180](#)
 - system classes, enabling/disabling assertions for [207](#)
 - system properties [261, 262](#)
 - System.err [203, 213, 388](#)
 - System.in [35](#)
 - System.Logger interface [208, 211](#)
 - getName method [210](#)
 - isLoggable method [210](#)
 - log method [208, 210](#)
 - System.Logger.Level enumeration [209](#)
 - System.out [6, 7, 17, 35, 38, 54, 59, 83, 124, 207, 308](#)
- ## T
- t, T conversion characters [38](#)
 - tab completion [10](#)
 - tagging interfaces [162](#)
 - tailMap method [268](#)
 - tailSet method
 - of NavigableSet [254](#)
 - of SortedSet [254, 268](#)
 - take [365](#)
 - takeWhile method [278](#)
 - tar [87, 88](#)

- @Target annotation [406, 409](#)
- tasks [350](#)
 - canceling [354](#)
 - combining results from [353](#)
 - computationally intensive [351](#)
 - coordinating work between [365](#)
 - defining [119](#)
 - executing [351](#)
 - executing in a thread [120](#)
 - groups of [387](#)
 - long-running [375](#)
 - running [350](#)
 - submitting [353](#)
 - vs. threads [351](#)
 - working simultaneously [370](#)
- TAU [21](#)
- teeing [292](#)
- terminal window [3, 4](#)
- test method [400, 405, 406](#)
 - of BiPredicate [129](#)
 - of Predicate [129, 224](#)
 - of XxxPredicate [129](#)
- text blocks [33](#)
- thenAccept method [369, 373](#)
- thenAcceptBoth method [374](#)
- thenApply, thenApplyAsync methods (CompletableFuture) [372, 373](#)
- thenCombine method [374](#)
- thenComparing method [135](#)
- thenCompose method [373](#)
- thenRun method [374](#)
- third-party libraries [437, 438](#)
- this keyword [71](#)
 - annotating [405](#)
 - in constructors [75, 363](#)
 - in lambda expressions [131](#)
 - in method references [125](#)
- Thread class
 - getContextClassLoader method [180](#)
 - interrupted, isInterrupted methods [356](#)
 - isAlive method [385](#)
 - join method [385](#)
 - properties [387](#)
 - resume method (deprecated) [385](#)
 - setContextClassLoader method [180](#)
 - setDaemon method [388](#)
 - setDefaultUncaughtExceptionHandler method [204](#)
 - setUncaughtExceptionHandler method [385](#)
 - sleep method [355](#)
 - start method [351, 385](#)
 - stop, suspend methods (deprecated) [385](#)
- ThreadLocal class [386](#)
- ThreadLocalRandom.current method [387](#)
- threads [350, 384](#)
 - atomic mutations in [376](#)
 - daemon [388](#)
 - groups of [387](#)
 - interrupting [354, 355](#)
 - locking [379](#)
 - names of [387](#)
 - platform [350](#)
 - priorities of [387](#)
 - race conditions in [296, 359](#)
 - running tasks in [119](#)
 - starting [385](#)
 - states of [387](#)
 - terminating [353](#)
 - uncaught exception handlers of [388](#)
 - virtual [350](#)
 - visibility and [357, 381](#)
 - vs. tasks [351](#)
 - waiting on conditions [382](#)
 - worker [375](#)
- throw keyword [194](#)
- Throwable class [194](#)
 - in assertions [206](#)
 - initCause method [203](#)
 - no generic subtypes for [237](#)
 - printStackTrace method [204](#)
- @throws annotation [99, 196, 197](#)
 - type variables in [237](#)
- TimeoutException class [353](#)
- Timestamp class [159](#)
- toAbsolutePath method [314](#)
- toArray method
 - of Collection [247](#)
 - of Stream [126, 286](#)
 - of XxxStream [295](#)
- toByteArray method
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of ByteArrayOutputStream [302](#)
- toCollection method [287](#)
- toConcurrentMap method [289](#)
- ToDoubleFunction interface [129, 231](#)
- toFile method [315](#)
- toGenericString method [176](#)
- toHandle method [392](#)
- toIntExact method [23](#)
- ToIntFunction interface [129, 231](#)
- tokens [274, 307](#)
- toList method [275](#)
- toLongArray method [263](#)
- ToLongFunction interface [129, 231](#)
- toLowerCase method [29, 276](#)
- toMap method [287](#)
- toPath method [315](#)
- toSet method [287, 290](#)
- toString method
 - calling from subclasses [156](#)
 - of Arrays [54, 156](#)
 - of BitSet [263](#)
 - of Class [176](#)
 - of Double [28](#)
 - of Enum [165](#)
 - of Integer [28](#)
 - of Modifier [177](#)
 - of Object [155, 157](#)
 - of Point [155](#)
 - of records [79](#)
- toUnsignedInt method [13](#)

[toUpperCase method](#) [29](#)
[transferTo method](#) [304](#)
[transient keyword](#) [338](#)
[transitive keyword](#) [441](#)
[TreeMap class](#) [255](#), [288](#)
[TreeSet class](#) [252](#)
[Troubleshooting](#). See [Debugging](#)
[true literal](#) [15](#)
[try keyword](#) [197](#), [202](#)
 for visiting directories [317](#)
[try-with-resources](#) [198](#)
 closing output streams with [303](#)
 for file locking [312](#)
[tryLock method](#) [312](#)
[trySetAccessible method](#) [184](#)
[Type interface](#) [240](#)
[type bounds](#) [221](#), [240](#)
 annotating [404](#)
[type erasure](#) [228](#), [236](#)
 clashes after [236](#)
[type method \(ServiceLoader.Provider\)](#) [182](#)
[type parameters](#) [117](#), [220](#)
 annotating [402](#)
 primitive types and [220](#), [231](#)
[type variables](#)
 exceptions and [237](#)
 in static context [236](#)
 no instantiating of [233](#)
 wildcards with [226](#)
[TypeElement interface](#) [417](#)
[TypeVariable interface](#) [240](#)

U

[U+](#) [30](#)
[UnaryOperator interface](#) [128](#)
[uncaught exception handlers](#) [385](#), [388](#)
[unchecked exceptions](#) [194](#)
 documenting [197](#)
 generic types and [238](#)
[UncheckedIOException class](#) [307](#)
[Unicode](#) [30](#), [294](#), [304](#)
 replacement character in [309](#)
[Unit tests](#) [399](#)
[Unix](#)
 executable files in [4](#)
 path separator in [89](#), [262](#)
 wildcard in classpath in [89](#)
[unlock](#) [380](#)
[unmodifiableXxx methods \(Collections\)](#) [250](#)
[unordered](#) [296](#)
[updateAndGet method](#) [377](#)
[URI class](#) [323](#)
[URL class](#) [323](#)
 final [148](#)
 getInputStream method [321](#)
 openConnection method [321](#)
 openStream method [302](#)
[URLClassLoader class](#) [179](#)

[URLConnection class](#) [321](#)
 connect method [321](#)
 getHeaderFields method [321](#)
 getInputStream method [322](#)
 getOutputStream method [321](#)
 setDoOutput method [321](#)
 setRequestProperty method [321](#)
[URLs, reading from](#) [302](#), [321](#)
[user.dir, user.home, user.name system properties](#) [261](#)
[uses keyword](#) [444](#)
[UTF-16](#) [14](#), [30](#), [294](#), [305](#)
 in regular expressions [326](#)
[UTF-8](#) [304](#)
 modified [310](#)
[Util.createInstance](#) [180](#)
[utility classes](#) [90](#), [180](#)

V

[validateObject method](#) [344](#), [345](#)
[valueOf method](#)
 of BitSet [264](#)
 of Enum [164](#), [165](#)
[values method](#)
 of Enum [164](#)
 of Map [258](#), [267](#)
[var keyword](#) [15](#), [16](#)
[varargs parameters](#)
 declaring [59](#)
 safety of [409](#), [410](#)
[VarHandle class](#) [435](#)
[variable handles](#) [435](#)
[VariableElement interface](#) [416](#)
[variables](#) [7](#), [15](#)
 atomic mutations of [376](#)
 capturing, in lambda expressions [132](#)
 declaring [15](#), [17](#)
 defined in interfaces [112](#)
 deprecated [100](#), [408](#), [409](#)
 documentation comments for [98](#), [100](#)
 effectively final [133](#)
 final [359](#), [362](#)
 holding object references [66](#)
 initializing [15](#), [17](#)
 instance [68](#), [71](#), [74](#), [77](#), [79](#), [81](#), [85](#), [144](#), [149](#), [158](#), [338](#), [341](#), [343](#)
 local [46](#)
 naming [16](#)
 parameter [72](#)
 private [68](#), [90](#)
 public static final [112](#)
 redefining [47](#)
 scope of [46](#), [90](#)
 shared [359](#), [362](#), [379](#)
 static [82](#), [85](#), [92](#), [359](#)
 thread-local [386](#)
 using an abstract class as type of [149](#)
 visibility of [357](#), [381](#)
 volatile [359](#)

- @version annotation [99, 102](#)
- versioning [342](#)
- views [267](#)
- virtual machine [3](#)
 - instruction reordering in [358](#)
- Virtual threads [350](#)
- visibility [357](#)
 - guaranteed with locks [381](#)
- visitFile, visitFileFailed methods (FileVisitor) [319](#)
- void keyword [2, 58](#)
 - using class literals with [175](#)
- volatile keyword [359](#)

W

- wait [383, 384](#)
- waitFor method [391](#)
- waiting on a condition [383](#)
- walk [317, 320](#)
- walkFileTree method [317, 319](#)
- warning [409](#)
- warnings, suppressing [232, 235, 410](#)
- weak references [267](#)
- weaker access privilege [144](#)
- WeakHashMap class [267](#)
- weakly consistent iterators [367](#)
- WeakReference class [267](#)
- web pages
 - extracting links from [371](#)
 - reading [373, 375](#)
- whenComplete method [370, 373, 374](#)
- while keyword [43](#)
 - breaking/continuing [45, 46](#)
 - declaring variables for [47](#)
- white space
 - in regular expressions [327](#)
 - in text blocks [34](#)
 - removing [29](#)
- wildcards
 - annotating [404](#)
 - capturing [227](#)
 - for annotation processors [416](#)
 - for types [223, 225](#)
 - in class path [89](#)
 - unbounded [227](#)
 - with imported classes [91](#)
 - with type variables [226](#)
- WildcardType interface [240](#)
- Window class [90](#)

- WindowAdapter class [114](#)
- WindowListener interface [114](#)
- words
 - in regular expressions [327](#)
 - reading from a file [307](#)
- working directory [314, 388](#)
- wrapper classes [51](#)
- write method
 - of Files [308, 316](#)
 - of OutputStream [303](#)
 - of Writer [307](#)
- writeByte, writeChar methods (DataOutput) [310](#)
- writeDouble method
 - of DataOutput [310](#)
 - of ObjectOutputStream [339](#)
- writeExternal method [340](#)
- writeFloat, writeFully methods (DataOutput) [310](#)
- writeInt method [310, 311](#)
- writeLong method [310](#)
- writeObject method
 - of HashSet [339](#)
 - of ObjectOutputStream [336, 339](#)
- Writer class [307, 309](#)
 - write method [307](#)
- writeReplace method [341](#)
- writers [301](#)
- writeShort, writeUnsignedXxx, writeUTF methods (DataOutput) [310](#)

X

- x, X
 - conversion characters [38](#)
- XML descriptors, generating [419](#)
- xor [263](#)
- Xoroshiro128PlusPlus [106](#)

Y

- yield keyword [42, 43](#)
- yield method (Thread) [351](#)

Z

- ZIP file systems [320](#)
- ZipInputStream, ZipOutputStream classes [321](#)