

Updated through Java 17



Core Java for the Impatient

Third Edition



Cay S. Horstmann



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Cay S. Horstmann

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To Chi—the most patient person in my life.

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Contents

Preface	xxiii
Acknowledgments	xxv
About the Author	xxvii

I FUNDAMENTAL PROGRAMMING STRUCTURES 1

1.1	Our First Program	2
1.1.1	Dissecting the “Hello, World” Program	2
1.1.2	Compiling and Running a Java Program	4
1.1.3	Method Calls	6
1.1.4	JShell	7
1.2	Primitive Types	11
1.2.1	Signed Integer Types	11
1.2.2	Floating-Point Types	13
1.2.3	The <code>char</code> Type	14
1.2.4	The <code>boolean</code> Type	14
1.3	Variables	14
1.3.1	Variable Declarations	15
1.3.2	Identifiers	15

- 1.3.3 Initialization 16
- 1.3.4 Constants 16
- 1.4 Arithmetic Operations 17
 - 1.4.1 Assignment 18
 - 1.4.2 Basic Arithmetic 19
 - 1.4.3 Mathematical Methods 20
 - 1.4.4 Number Type Conversions 21
 - 1.4.5 Relational and Logical Operators 22
 - 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 26
 - 1.5.4 Converting Between Numbers and Strings 28
 - 1.5.5 The String API 28
 - 1.5.6 Code Points and Code Units 31
 - 1.5.7 Text Blocks 33
- 1.6 Input and Output 35
 - 1.6.1 Reading Input 35
 - 1.6.2 Formatted Output 36
- 1.7 Control Flow 38
 - 1.7.1 Branches 38
 - 1.7.2 Switches 39
 - 1.7.3 Loops 41
 - 1.7.4 Breaking and Continuing 43
 - 1.7.5 Local Variable Scope 45
- 1.8 Arrays and Array Lists 46
 - 1.8.1 Working with Arrays 46
 - 1.8.2 Array Construction 47
 - 1.8.3 Array Lists 48
 - 1.8.4 Wrapper Classes for Primitive Types 49
 - 1.8.5 The Enhanced for Loop 50
 - 1.8.6 Copying Arrays and Array Lists 51
 - 1.8.7 Array Algorithms 52

1.8.8	Command-Line Arguments	52
1.8.9	Multidimensional Arrays	53
1.9	Functional Decomposition	56
1.9.1	Declaring and Calling Static Methods	56
1.9.2	Array Parameters and Return Values	56
1.9.3	Variable Arguments	57
Exercises		58
2	OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING	61
2.1	Working with Objects	62
2.1.1	Accessor and Mutator Methods	64
2.1.2	Object References	65
2.2	Implementing Classes	67
2.2.1	Instance Variables	67
2.2.2	Method Headers	67
2.2.3	Method Bodies	68
2.2.4	Instance Method Invocations	68
2.2.5	The <code>this</code> Reference	69
2.2.6	Call by Value	70
2.3	Object Construction	71
2.3.1	Implementing Constructors	71
2.3.2	Overloading	72
2.3.3	Calling One Constructor from Another	73
2.3.4	Default Initialization	73
2.3.5	Instance Variable Initialization	74
2.3.6	Final Instance Variables	75
2.3.7	The Constructor with No Arguments	75
2.4	Records	76
2.4.1	The Record Concept	77
2.4.2	Constructors: Canonical, Custom, and Compact	78
2.5	Static Variables and Methods	79
2.5.1	Static Variables	79
2.5.2	Static Constants	80
2.5.3	Static Initialization Blocks	81

	2.5.4	Static Methods	81
	2.5.5	Factory Methods	83
2.6		Packages	83
	2.6.1	Package Declarations	83
	2.6.2	The <code>jar</code> Command	85
	2.6.3	The Class Path	86
	2.6.4	Package Access	87
	2.6.5	Importing Classes	88
	2.6.6	Static Imports	89
2.7		Nested Classes	90
	2.7.1	Static Nested Classes	90
	2.7.2	Inner Classes	91
	2.7.3	Special Syntax Rules for Inner Classes	94
2.8		Documentation Comments	95
	2.8.1	Comment Insertion	95
	2.8.2	Class Comments	96
	2.8.3	Method Comments	97
	2.8.4	Variable Comments	97
	2.8.5	General Comments	97
	2.8.6	Links	98
	2.8.7	Package, Module, and Overview Comments	99
	2.8.8	Comment Extraction	99
		Exercises	100
3		INTERFACES AND LAMBDA EXPRESSIONS	105
	3.1	Interfaces	106
		3.1.1 Using Interfaces	106
		3.1.2 Declaring an Interface	107
		3.1.3 Implementing an Interface	108
		3.1.4 Converting to an Interface Type	110
		3.1.5 Casts and the <code>instanceof</code> Operator	110
		3.1.6 The “Pattern-Matching” Form of <code>instanceof</code>	111
		3.1.7 Extending Interfaces	112

3.1.8	Implementing Multiple Interfaces	113
3.1.9	Constants	113
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	117
3.3	Examples of Interfaces	117
3.3.1	The Comparable Interface	117
3.3.2	The Comparator Interface	119
3.3.3	The Runnable Interface	120
3.3.4	User Interface Callbacks	120
3.4	Lambda Expressions	121
3.4.1	The Syntax of Lambda Expressions	122
3.4.2	Functional Interfaces	123
3.5	Method and Constructor References	124
3.5.1	Method References	124
3.5.2	Constructor References	126
3.6	Processing Lambda Expressions	127
3.6.1	Implementing Deferred Execution	127
3.6.2	Choosing a Functional Interface	128
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	135
3.8.1	Methods that Return Functions	135
3.8.2	Methods That Modify Functions	135
3.8.3	Comparator Methods	136
3.9	Local and Anonymous Classes	137
3.9.1	Local Classes	137
3.9.2	Anonymous Classes	138
Exercises		139

4	INHERITANCE AND REFLECTION	143
4.1	Extending a Class	144
4.1.1	Super- and Subclasses	145
4.1.2	Defining and Inheriting Subclass Methods	145
4.1.3	Method Overriding	145
4.1.4	Subclass Construction	147
4.1.5	Superclass Assignments	147
4.1.6	Casts	148
4.1.7	Anonymous Subclasses	149
4.1.8	Method Expressions with <code>super</code>	150
4.2	Inheritance Hierarchies	150
4.2.1	Final Methods and Classes	150
4.2.2	Abstract Methods and Classes	151
4.2.3	Protected Access	152
4.2.4	Sealed Types	153
4.2.5	Inheritance and Default Methods	157
4.3	Object: The Cosmic Superclass	157
4.3.1	The <code>toString</code> Method	158
4.3.2	The <code>equals</code> Method	159
4.3.3	The <code>hashCode</code> Method	162
4.3.4	Cloning Objects	163
4.4	Enumerations	166
4.4.1	Methods of Enumerations	166
4.4.2	Constructors, Methods, and Fields	168
4.4.3	Bodies of Instances	168
4.4.4	Static Members	169
4.4.5	Switching on an Enumeration	170
4.5	Runtime Type Information and Resources	170
4.5.1	The Class <code>Class</code>	170
4.5.2	Loading Resources	174
4.5.3	Class Loaders	174
4.5.4	The Context Class Loader	176
4.5.5	Service Loaders	177

4.6	Reflection	179
4.6.1	Enumerating Class Members	179
4.6.2	Inspecting Objects	180
4.6.3	Invoking Methods	182
4.6.4	Constructing Objects	182
4.6.5	JavaBeans	183
4.6.6	Working with Arrays	185
4.6.7	Proxies	186
	Exercises	188
5	EXCEPTIONS, ASSERTIONS, AND LOGGING	191
5.1	Exception Handling	192
5.1.1	Throwing Exceptions	192
5.1.2	The Exception Hierarchy	193
5.1.3	Declaring Checked Exceptions	195
5.1.4	Catching Exceptions	196
5.1.5	The Try-with-Resources Statement	197
5.1.6	The <code>finally</code> Clause	199
5.1.7	Rethrowing and Chaining Exceptions	201
5.1.8	Uncaught Exceptions and the Stack Trace	202
5.1.9	API Methods for Throwing Exceptions	203
5.2	Assertions	204
5.2.1	Using Assertions	204
5.2.2	Enabling and Disabling Assertions	205
5.3	Logging	206
5.3.1	Should You Use the Java Logging Framework?	206
5.3.2	Logging 101	207
5.3.3	The Platform Logging API	208
5.3.4	Logging Configuration	209
5.3.5	Log Handlers	211
5.3.6	Filters and Formatters	213
	Exercises	214

6	GENERIC PROGRAMMING	219
6.1	Generic Classes	220
6.2	Generic Methods	221
6.3	Type Bounds	222
6.4	Type Variance and Wildcards	223
6.4.1	Subtype Wildcards	224
6.4.2	Supertype Wildcards	225
6.4.3	Wildcards with Type Variables	226
6.4.4	Unbounded Wildcards	227
6.4.5	Wildcard Capture	228
6.5	Generics in the Java Virtual Machine	228
6.5.1	Type Erasure	229
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 <code>Class<T></code> Class	239
6.7.2	Generic Type Information in the Virtual Machine	239
	Exercises	241
7	COLLECTIONS	247
7.1	An Overview of the Collections Framework	248
7.2	Iterators	252
7.3	Sets	254

7.4	Maps	255
7.5	Other Collections	259
7.5.1	Properties	259
7.5.2	Bit Sets	260
7.5.3	Enumeration Sets and Maps	262
7.5.4	Stacks, Queues, Deques, and Priority Queues	262
7.5.5	Weak Hash Maps	263
7.6	Views	264
7.6.1	Small Collections	264
7.6.2	Ranges	265
7.6.3	Unmodifiable Views	266
	Exercises	267
8	STREAMS	271
8.1	From Iterating to Stream Operations	272
8.2	Stream Creation	273
8.3	The <code>filter</code> , <code>map</code> , and <code>flatMap</code> 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	282
8.7.5	Creating Optional Values	284
8.7.6	Composing Optional Value Functions with <code>flatMap</code>	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	289
8.12	Reduction Operations	292
8.13	Primitive Type Streams	294

8.14	Parallel Streams	295
	Exercises	298
9	PROCESSING INPUT AND OUTPUT	301
9.1	Input/Output Streams, Readers, and Writers	302
9.1.1	Obtaining Streams	302
9.1.2	Reading Bytes	303
9.1.3	Writing Bytes	304
9.1.4	Character Encodings	305
9.1.5	Text Input	307
9.1.6	Text Output	308
9.1.7	Reading and Writing Binary Data	310
9.1.8	Random-Access Files	310
9.1.9	Memory-Mapped Files	311
9.1.10	File Locking	312
9.2	Paths, Files, and Directories	312
9.2.1	Paths	312
9.2.2	Creating Files and Directories	314
9.2.3	Copying, Moving, and Deleting Files	315
9.2.4	Visiting Directory Entries	316
9.2.5	ZIP File Systems	319
9.3	HTTP Connections	320
9.3.1	The <code>URLConnection</code> and <code>HttpURLConnection</code> Classes	320
9.3.2	The HTTP Client API	321
9.4	Regular Expressions	323
9.4.1	The Regular Expression Syntax	324
9.4.2	Testing a Match	329
9.4.3	Finding All Matches	329
9.4.4	Groups	330
9.4.5	Splitting along Delimiters	331
9.4.6	Replacing Matches	332
9.4.7	Flags	333
9.5	Serialization	333
9.5.1	The <code>Serializable</code> Interface	334

9.5.2	Transient Instance Variables	336
9.5.3	The <code>readObject</code> and <code>writeObject</code> Methods	336
9.5.4	The <code>readExternal</code> and <code>writeExternal</code> Methods	338
9.5.5	The <code>readResolve</code> and <code>writeReplace</code> Methods	339
9.5.6	Versioning	340
9.5.7	Deserialization and Security	342
Exercises		344

I0 CONCURRENT PROGRAMMING 347

10.1	Concurrent Tasks	348
10.1.1	Running Tasks	348
10.1.2	Futures	351
10.2	Asynchronous Computations	353
10.2.1	Completable Futures	353
10.2.2	Composing Completable Futures	355
10.2.3	Long-Running Tasks in User-Interface Callbacks	358
10.3	Thread Safety	360
10.3.1	Visibility	360
10.3.2	Race Conditions	362
10.3.3	Strategies for Safe Concurrency	364
10.3.4	Immutable Classes	365
10.4	Parallel Algorithms	366
10.4.1	Parallel Streams	366
10.4.2	Parallel Array Operations	367
10.5	Threadsafe Data Structures	368
10.5.1	Concurrent Hash Maps	369
10.5.2	Blocking Queues	370
10.5.3	Other Threadsafe Data Structures	372
10.6	Atomic Counters and Accumulators	373
10.7	Locks and Conditions	375
10.7.1	Locks	375
10.7.2	The <code>synchronized</code> Keyword	377
10.7.3	Waiting on Conditions	379
10.8	Threads	381

10.8.1	Starting a Thread	381
10.8.2	Thread Interruption	382
10.8.3	Thread-Local Variables	384
10.8.4	Miscellaneous Thread Properties	385
10.9	Processes	386
10.9.1	Building a Process	386
10.9.2	Running a Process	388
10.9.3	Process Handles	389
	Exercises	390

II ANNOTATIONS 397

11.1	Using Annotations	398
11.1.1	Annotation Elements	398
11.1.2	Multiple and Repeated Annotations	400
11.1.3	Annotating Declarations	400
11.1.4	Annotating Type Uses	401
11.1.5	Making Receivers Explicit	402
11.2	Defining Annotations	403
11.3	Standard Annotations	406
11.3.1	Annotations for Compilation	407
11.3.2	Meta-Annotations	408
11.4	Processing Annotations at Runtime	410
11.5	Source-Level Annotation Processing	413
11.5.1	Annotation Processors	413
11.5.2	The Language Model API	414
11.5.3	Using Annotations to Generate Source Code	415
	Exercises	417

I2 THE DATE AND TIME API 421

12.1	The Time Line	422
12.2	Local Dates	424
12.3	Date Adjusters	428
12.4	Local Time	429
12.5	Zoned Time	430

- 12.6 Formatting and Parsing 433
- 12.7 Interoperating with Legacy Code 436
- Exercises 437

I3 INTERNATIONALIZATION 441

- 13.1 Locales 442
 - 13.1.1 Specifying a Locale 443
 - 13.1.2 The Default Locale 445
 - 13.1.3 Display Names 446
- 13.2 Number Formats 447
- 13.3 Currencies 448
- 13.4 Date and Time Formatting 449
- 13.5 Collation and Normalization 451
- 13.6 Message Formatting 453
- 13.7 Resource Bundles 455
 - 13.7.1 Organizing Resource Bundles 455
 - 13.7.2 Bundle Classes 457
- 13.8 Character Encodings 458
- 13.9 Preferences 459
- Exercises 461

I4 COMPILING AND SCRIPTING 463

- 14.1 The Compiler API 463
 - 14.1.1 Invoking the Compiler 464
 - 14.1.2 Launching a Compilation Task 464
 - 14.1.3 Capturing Diagnostics 465
 - 14.1.4 Reading Source Files from Memory 465
 - 14.1.5 Writing Byte Codes to Memory 466
- 14.2 The Scripting API 467
 - 14.2.1 Getting a Scripting Engine 468
 - 14.2.2 Evaluating Scripts 468
 - 14.2.3 Bindings 469
 - 14.2.4 Redirecting Input and Output 469
 - 14.2.5 Calling Scripting Functions and Methods 470

	14.2.6 Compiling a Script	471
	Exercises	472
I5	THE JAVA PLATFORM MODULE SYSTEM	475
	15.1 The Module Concept	476
	15.2 Naming Modules	478
	15.3 The Modular “Hello, World!” Program	478
	15.4 Requiring Modules	480
	15.5 Exporting Packages	482
	15.6 Modules and Reflective Access	485
	15.7 Modular JARs	488
	15.8 Automatic Modules	489
	15.9 The Unnamed Module	491
	15.10 Command-Line Flags for Migration	491
	15.11 Transitive and Static Requirements	493
	15.12 Qualified Exporting and Opening	495
	15.13 Service Loading	496
	15.14 Tools for Working with Modules	497
	Exercises	499
	Index	501

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 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 sealed classes.

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. If you intend to use Java for server-side programming or Android programming, you will be able to use this book effectively without being distracted by desktop 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>, head for the errata page, and leave a comment. Be sure to visit that site to download the runnable code examples that complement this book.

Register your copy of *Core Java for the Impatient, Third Edition*, on the InformIT site for convenient access to updates and/or corrections as they become available. To start the registration process, go to informit.com/register and log in or create an account. Enter the product ISBN (9780138052102) and click Submit. Look on the Registered Products tab for an Access Bonus Content link next to this product, and follow that link to access any available bonus materials. If you would like to be notified of exclusive offers on new editions and updates, please check the box to receive email from us.

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. Dmitry Kirsanov and Alina Kirsanova once again turned an XHTML manuscript into an attractive book with amazing speed and attention to detail. My special gratitude goes to the excellent team of reviewers for all editions who spotted many errors and gave thoughtful suggestions for improvement. They are: Andres Almiray, Gail Anderson, Paul Anderson, Marcus Biel, Brian Goetz, Mark Lawrence, Doug Lea, Simon Ritter, Yoshiki Shibata, and Christian Ullenboom.

*Cay Horstmann
Berlin
August 2022*

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About the Author

Cay S. Horstmann is the author of *JavaScript for the Impatient* and *Scala for the Impatient* (both from Addison-Wesley), is principal author of *Core Java, Volumes I and II, Twelfth Edition* (Pearson, 2022), and has written a dozen other books for professional programmers and computer science students. He is professor emeritus of computer science at San Jose State University and is a Java Champion.

Fundamental Programming Structures

Topics in This Chapter

- 1.1 Our First Program — page 2
- 1.2 Primitive Types — page 11
- 1.3 Variables — page 14
- 1.4 Arithmetic Operations — page 17
- 1.5 Strings — page 25
- 1.6 Input and Output — page 35
- 1.7 Control Flow — page 38
- 1.8 Arrays and Array Lists — page 46
- 1.9 Functional Decomposition — page 56
- Exercises — page 58

Processing Input and Output

Topics in This Chapter

- 9.1 Input/Output Streams, Readers, and Writers — page 302
- 9.2 Paths, Files, and Directories — page 312
- 9.3 HTTP Connections — page 320
- 9.4 Regular Expressions — page 323
- 9.5 Serialization — page 333
- Exercises — page 344

Chapter

9

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, “Paths” (page 312). It describes a path in a file system.

If you have a URL, you can read its contents from the input stream returned by the `openStream` method of the `URL` class:

```
var url = new URL("https://horstmann.com/index.html");
InputStream in = url.openStream();
```

Section 9.3, “HTTP Connections” (page 320) 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	$0a_6a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$
80...7FF	$110a_{10}a_9a_8a_7a_6 \ 10a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$
800...FFFF	$1110a_{15}a_{14}a_{13}a_{12} \ 10a_{11}a_{10}a_9a_8a_7a_6 \ 10a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$
10000...10FFFF	$11110a_{20}a_{19}a_{18} \ 10a_{17}a_{16}a_{15}a_{14}a_{13}a_{12} \ 10a_{11}a_{10}a_9a_8a_7a_6 \ 10a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$

Another 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	$a_{15}a_{14}a_{13}a_{12}a_{11}a_{10}a_9a_8a_7a_6a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$
10000...10FFFF	$110110b_{19}b_{18}b_{17}b_{16}a_{15}a_{14}a_{13}a_{12}a_{11}a_{10} \ 110111a_9a_8a_7a_6a_5a_4a_3a_2a_1a_0$ where $b_{19}b_{18}b_{17}b_{16} = a_{20}a_{19}a_{18}a_{17}a_{16} - 1$



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.

There is no reliable way to automatically detect the character encoding from a stream of bytes. Some API methods let you use the “default charset”—the character encoding that is preferred by the operating system of the computer. Is that the same encoding that is used by your source of bytes? These bytes may well originate from a different part of the world. Therefore, you should always explicitly specify the encoding. For example, when reading a web page, check the `Content-Type` header.



NOTE: The platform 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.



CAUTION: The Oracle implementation has a system property `file.encoding` for overriding the platform default. This is not an officially supported property, and it is not consistently followed by all parts of Oracle's implementation of the Java library. You should not set it.

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");
```

Use the `Charset` object when reading or writing text. For example, you can turn an array of bytes into a string as

```
var contents = new String(bytes, StandardCharsets.UTF_8);
```



TIP: Some methods allow you to specify a character encoding with a `Charset` object or a string. Choose the `StandardCharsets` constants, so you don't have to worry about the correct spelling. For example, `new String(bytes, "UTF 8")` is not acceptable and will cause a runtime error.



CAUTION: Some methods (such as the `String(byte[])` constructor) use the default platform encoding if you don't specify any; others (such as `Files.readAllLines`) use UTF-8.

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, StandardCharsets.UTF_8);
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, “The Regular Expression Syntax” (page 324) 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(outputStream, 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(outputStream, 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.write(path, content.getBytes(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.write(path, content.getBytes(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 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));
```

9.1.8 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);
```

9.1.9 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);
```

9.1.10 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, “Creating Files and Directories” (page 314).

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`.
- Otherwise, the result is “`p` then `q`,” according to 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 “user directory”—that is, the directory from which the JVM was invoked. For example, if you launched

a program from `/home/cay/myapp`, then `Path.of("config").toAbsolutePath()` returns `/home/cay/myapp/config`.

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 a file (that is, copy and delete the original), 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.
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 <code>copy</code>, <code>move</code>	
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 <code>exists</code>, <code>isDirectory</code>, <code>isRegularFile</code>	
NOFOLLOW_LINKS	Do not follow symbolic links.
FileVisitOption; use with <code>find</code>, <code>walk</code>, <code>walkFileTree</code>	
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.relative(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;
    }
});
```

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 = new URI("jar", zipPath.toUri().toString(), null);
// 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(), StandardCharsets.UTF_8)) {
    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(new URI("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 or JSON objects, and provide appropriate publishers.

In the meantime, to send a form post, you need to URL-encode the request data, just like in the preceding section.

```
Map<String, String> postData = ...;
boolean first = true;
var body = new StringBuilder();
for (Map.Entry<String, String> entry : postData.entrySet()) {
    if (first) first = false;
    else body.append("&");
    body.append(URLEncoder.encode(entry.getKey(), "UTF-8"));
    body.append("=");
    body.append(URLEncoder.encode(entry.getValue(), "UTF-8"));
}
HttpRequest request = HttpRequest.newBuilder()
    .uri(httpUrlString)
    .header("Content-Type", "application/x-www-form-urlencoded")
    .POST(HttpRequest.BodyPublishers.ofString(body.toString()))
    .build();
```

Note that, unlike with the `URLConnection` class, you need to specify the content type for forms.

Similarly, for posting JSON data, you specify the content type and provide a JSON string.

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.



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, “Groups” (page 330).

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).

There are many *predefined character classes* such as `\d` (digits) or `\p{Sc}` (Unicode currency symbols). See Tables 9-4 and 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.

Alternatively, surround a string with `\Q` and `\E`. For example, `\Q($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 `Parse.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		
<i>c</i> , not one of . * + ? { () [\ ^ \$	The character <i>c</i> .]]
.	Any character except line terminators, or any character if the DOTALL flag is set.	
\x{ <i>p</i> }	The Unicode code point with hex code <i>p</i> .	\x{1D546}
\uhhhh, \xhhh, \00, \000, \0000	The UTF-16 code unit with the given hex or octal value.	\uFEFF
\a, \e, \f, \n, \r, \t	Alert (\x{7}), escape (\x{1B}), form feed (\x{B}), newline (\x{A}), carriage return (\x{D}), tab (\x{9}).	\n
\cc, where <i>c</i> is in [A-Z] or one of @ [\] ^ _ ?	The control character corresponding to the character <i>c</i> .	\cH is a backspace (\x{8}).
\c, where <i>c</i> is not in [A-Za-z0-9]	The character <i>c</i> .	\\
\Q ... \E	Everything between the start and the end of the quotation.	\Q(...) \E matches the string (...).
Character Classes		
[<i>C</i> ₁ <i>C</i> ₂ ...], where <i>C</i> _{<i>i</i>} are characters, ranges <i>c-d</i> , or character classes	Any of the characters represented by <i>C</i> ₁ , <i>C</i> ₂ , . . .	[0-9+-]
[^...]	Complement of a character class.	[^\d\s]
[...&&...]	Intersection of character classes.	[\p{L}&&[^A-Za-z]]

(Continues)

Table 9-4 Regular Expression Syntax (Continued)

Expression	Description	Example
<code>\p{...}, \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, \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, \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, \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*, \s*</code> is a comma surrounded by optional white space.
<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		
<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'.

(Continues)

Table 9-4 Regular Expression Syntax (*Continued*)

Expression	Description	Example
<code>(?<name>X)</code>	Captures the match of <i>X</i> with the given name.	'(<id>[A-Za-z0-9]+)' captures the match with name id.
<code>\k<name></code>	The group with the given name.	<code>\k<id></code> matches the group with name id.
<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)</code> , <code>(?f₁...-f_k...:X)</code> , with <i>f_i</i> in [dimSUx]	Matches, but does not capture, <i>X</i> with the given flags 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*</code> , <code>X+</code>	0 or more <i>X</i> , 1 or more <i>X</i> .	<code>[1-9][0-9]+</code> is an integer ≥ 10 .
<code>X{n}</code> , <code>X{n,}</code> , <code>X{m,n}</code>	<i>n</i> times <i>X</i> , at least <i>n</i> times <i>X</i> , between <i>m</i> and <i>n</i> times <i>X</i> .	<code>[0-7]{1,3}</code> are one to three octal digits.
<code>Q?</code> , where <i>Q</i> is a quantified expression	Reluctant quantifier, attempting the shortest match before trying longer matches.	<code>.*(<.+?>).*</code> captures the shortest sequence enclosed in angle brackets.
<code>Q+</code> , where <i>Q</i> is a quantified expression	Possessive quantifier, taking the longest match without backtracking.	' <code>[^']*+</code> ' matches strings enclosed in single quotes and fails quickly on strings without a closing quote.
Boundary Matches		
<code>^</code> <code>\$</code>	Beginning, end of input (or beginning, end of line in multiline mode).	<code>^Java\$</code> matches the input or line Java.

(Continues)

Table 9-4 Regular Expression Syntax (*Continued*)

Expression	Description	Example
\A \Z \z	Beginning of input, end of input, absolute end of input (unchanged in multiline mode).	
\b \B	Word boundary, nonword boundary.	\bJava\b matches the word Java.
\R	A Unicode line break.	
\G	The end of the previous match.	

Table 9-5 Predefined Character Classes \p{...}

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 UNICODE_CHARACTER_CLASS flag.
<i>IsScript</i> , <i>sc=Script</i> , <i>script=Script</i>	A script accepted by <code>Character.UnicodeScript.forName</code> .
<i>InBlock</i> , <i>blk=Block</i> , <i>block=Block</i>	A block accepted by <code>Character.UnicodeBlock.forName</code> .
<i>Category</i> , <i>InCategory</i> , <i>gc=Category</i> , <i>general_category=Category</i>	A one- or two-letter name for a Unicode general category.
<i>IsProperty</i>	<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.
<i>javaMethod</i>	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 conforms to the expression, or you want to find all matches of the expressions in a string.

In the first case, simply use the static `matches` method:

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

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, “Groups” (page 330).

If you want to test whether the input *contains* a match, use the `find` method instead:

```
if (matcher.find()) ...
```

You can turn the pattern into a predicate:

```
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 the other 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(Matcher::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, StandardCharsets.UTF_8);
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 use a noncapturing group:

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

Or, even better, capture by name:

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

Then, you can retrieve the items by name:

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

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

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



NOTE: Retrieving groups by name only works with a `Matcher`, not with a `MatchResult`.



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);
```

If you don't care about precompiling the pattern or lazy fetching, you can just use the `String.split` method:

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

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

```
var in = new Scanner(path, StandardCharsets.UTF_8);
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(Files.newInputStream(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 must implement the `Externalizable` interface. This, in turn, requires it to define 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.

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 don't serialize the object itself but some proxy that can locate or construct the object. 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 `defaultReadObject` 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.serializationFilter='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/17/core/serialization-filtering1.html> for details.

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(StandardCharsets.UTF_8));
```

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?

Index

Symbols and Numbers

- (minus sign)
 - flag (for output), 38
 - in dates, 434
 - in regular expressions, 324
 - operator, 18–19
- - in command-line options, 85
 - operator, 18, 20
- = operator, 18–19
- >, in lambda expressions, 122, 125
- ∞, in string templates, 454
- _ (underscore)
 - in number literals, 12
 - in variable names, 15, 69
- , (comma)
 - flag (for output), 38
 - in numbers, 442, 448, 453
 - normalizing, 332
 - trailing, in arrays, 48
- ;(semicolon)
 - in Java vs. JavaScript, 470
 - path separator (Windows), 86, 260
- : (colon)
 - in assertions, 204–205
 - in dates, 434
 - in switch statement, 40
 - path separator (Unix), 86, 260
- :: operator, 125, 150
- ! (exclamation sign)
 - in property files, 259
 - operator, 18, 23
- != operator, 18, 22–23
 - for wrapper classes, 50
- ? (quotation mark)
 - in regular expressions, 324–325, 327
 - replacement character, 309, 458
 - wildcard, for types, 224–228, 239
- ? : operator, 18, 23
- / (slash)
 - file separator (Unix), 260, 313
 - in javac path segments, 5
 - operator, 18–19
 - root component, 312
- //, /*...*/ comments, 3
- /**...*/ comments, 95
- /= operator, 18
- . (period)
 - in method calls, 6
 - in numbers, 442, 448, 453

- in package names, 5, 83
 - in regular expressions, 324–325, 333
- operator, 18
- .., parent directory, 313
- ... (ellipsis), for varargs, 57
- ^ (caret)
 - for function parameters, 122
 - in regular expressions, 324–327, 333
- operator, 18, 23
- ^= operator, 18
- ~ (tilde), operator, 18, 23
- '...' (single quotes)
 - for character literals, 14
 - in JavaScript, 470
 - in string templates, 454
- "..." (double quotes)
 - for strings, 6
 - in javadoc hyperlinks, 98
 - in text blocks, 34
- "" (empty string), 27–28, 159
- """, for text boxes, 33–34
- ((left parenthesis), in formatted output, 38
- (...) (parentheses)
 - empty, for anonymous classes, 138
 - for casts, 22, 110
 - in regular expressions, 324–326, 330–331
- operator, 18
- [...] (square brackets)
 - for arrays, 46–47, 53
 - in regular expressions, 324–325
- operator, 18
- {...} (curly braces)
 - in annotation elements, 399
 - in lambda expressions, 122
 - in regular expressions, 324–327, 332
 - in string templates, 453
 - with arrays, 47
- {{...}}, double brace initialization, 149
- @ (at)
 - in java command, 492–493
 - in javadoc comments, 95
- \$ (dollar sign)
 - currency symbol, 453
 - flag (for output), 38
- in regular expressions, 324–325, 327, 332–333
- in variable names, 15
- € currency symbol, 448, 453
- * (asterisk)
 - for annotation processors, 413
 - in documentation comments, 96
 - in regular expressions, 324–327, 331
- operator, 18–19
- wildcard:
 - in class path, 86
 - in imported classes, 88–89
- *= operator, 18
- \ (backslash)
 - character literal, 14
 - file separator (Windows), 260, 313
 - in option files, 493
 - in regular expressions, 324–325, 332
 - in text blocks, 34
- & (ampersand), operator, 18, 23–24
- && (double ampersand)
 - in regular expressions, 325
- operator, 18, 23
- &= operator, 18
- # (number sign)
 - flag (for output), 38
 - in javadoc hyperlinks, 98
 - in option files, 493
 - in property files, 259
 - in string templates, 454
- % (percent sign)
 - conversion character, 37
- operator, 18–19
- % pattern variable, 213
- %= operator, 18
- + (plus sign)
 - flag (for output), 38
 - in regular expressions, 324–327
- operator, 18–19
 - for strings, 25, 28, 159
- ++ operator, 18, 20
- += operator, 18
- < (left angle bracket)
 - flag (for output), 38
 - in shell syntax, 36
 - in string templates, 454

- operator, 22
- << operator, 18, 23–24
- <<= operator, 18
- <= operator, 18, 22
- <%...%>, <%=...%> delimiters (JSP), 472
- ≤, in string templates, 454
- <> (diamond syntax)
 - for constructors of generic classes, 221
- <...> (angle brackets)
 - for element types, in array lists, 48
 - for type parameters, 117, 220
 - in javadoc hyperlinks, 98
 - in regular expressions, 327
- = operator, 18–19
- == operator, 18, 22–23, 161
 - for class objects, 172
 - for enumerations, 166
 - for strings, 26
 - for wrapper classes, 50
- > (right angle bracket)
 - in shell syntax, 36
 - operator, 22
- >=, >>, >>> operators, 18, 22–23
- >>=, >>>= operators, 18
- | (vertical bar)
 - in regular expressions, 324–326
 - in string templates, 454
 - operator, 18, 23–24
- |= operator, 18
- || operator, 18, 23
- 0 (zero)
 - as default value, 73, 76
 - flag (for output), 38
 - formatting symbol (date/time), 436
 - prefix (for octal literals), 12
- 0b prefix, 12
- 0x prefix, 12, 38
- 0xFF byte order mark, 305
- \0, in regular expressions, 325

A

- a formatting symbol (date/time), 436
- a, A conversion characters, 37
- \a, \A, in regular expressions, 325, 328
- abstract classes, 151–152
- abstract methods, 123

- abstract modifier, 109, 151–152
- AbstractCollection class, 114
- AbstractMethodError, 115
- AbstractProcessor class, 413
- accept methods (Consumer, XxxConsumer), 129–130, 277
- acceptEither method (CompletableFuture), 357–358
- AccessibleObject class
 - setAccessible method, 181, 183
 - trySetAccessible method, 181
- accessors, 64
- accumulate method (LongAccumulator), 374
- accumulateAndGet method (AtomicXxx), 373
- accumulator functions, 293
- ActionListener interface, 120
- add method
 - of ArrayDeque, 262
 - of ArrayList, 49, 64
 - of BlockingQueue, 371
 - of Collection, 249
 - of List, 250
 - of ListIterator, 253
 - of LongAdder, 374
- addAll method
 - of Collection, 226, 249
 - of Collections, 251
 - of List, 250
- addExact method (Math), 20
- addition, 19
 - identity for, 292
- addSuppressed method (IOException), 199
- aggregators, 494
- allMatch method (Stream), 280
- allOf method
 - of CompletableFuture, 357–358
 - of EnumSet, 262
- allProcesses method (ProcessHandle), 389
- and, andNot methods (BitSet), 261
- and, andThen methods (functional interfaces), 129
- Android, 121, 359
- AnnotatedConstruct interface, 414
- AnnotatedElement interface, 411–413
- annotation interfaces, 403–406
- annotation processors, 413

- annotations
 - accessing, 404, 494
 - applicability of, 406–407
 - container, 409, 412
 - declaration, 400–401
 - documented, 407–408
 - generating source code with, 415–417
 - inherited, 407–408, 411
 - key/value pairs in, 398–399, 405
 - meta, 404–410
 - modifiers and, 402
 - multiple, 400
 - processing:
 - at runtime, 410–413
 - source-level, 413–417
 - repeatable, 400, 407, 409–410, 412
 - standard, 406–410
 - type use, 401–402
- anonymous classes, 138
- anyMatch method (Stream), 280
- anyOf method (CompletableFuture), 357–358
- Apache Commons CSV, 490
- API documentation, 29–31
 - generating, 95
- Applet class, 174
- applications. *See* programs
- apply, applyAsXXX methods (functional interfaces), 129–130
- applyToEither method (CompletableFuture), 357–358
- arithmetic operations, 17–24
- Array class, 185–186
- array lists, 48–49
 - anonymous, 149
 - checking for nulls, 227
 - constructing, 49
 - converting between, 224
 - copying, 51
 - elements of, 49–50
 - filling, 52
 - instantiating with type variables, 234
 - size of, 49
 - sorting, 52
 - variables of, 49
- array variables
 - assigning values to, 48
 - copying, 51
 - declaring, 46–47
 - initializing, 46
- ArrayBlockingQueue class, 371
- ArrayDeque class, 262
- ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException, 47
- ArrayList class, 48–49, 248
 - add method, 49, 64
 - clone method, 165–166
 - forEach method, 125
 - get, remove methods, 49
 - removeIf method, 124
 - set, size methods, 49
- arrays, 46–48
 - accessing nonexistent elements in, 47
 - allocating, 234
 - annotating, 401
 - casting, 185
 - checking, 185
 - comparing, 161
 - computing values of, 367
 - constructing, 46–47
 - constructor references with, 126
 - converting:
 - to a reference of type Object, 157
 - to/from streams, 286, 296, 368
 - copying, 51
 - covariant, 223
 - filling, 47, 52
 - generating Class objects for, 171
 - growing, 185–186
 - hash codes of, 163
 - length of, 47–48, 134
 - multidimensional, 53–55, 159
 - of bytes, 302–303
 - of generic types, 126, 235
 - of objects, 47, 367
 - of primitive types, 367
 - of strings, 331
 - passing into methods, 56
 - printing, 52, 55, 159
 - serializable, 334
 - sorting, 52, 117–119, 367–368
 - superclass assignment in, 148
 - using class literals with, 171

Arrays class

- asList method, 265
- copyOf method, 51, 186
- deepToString method, 159
- equals method, 161
- fill method, 52
- hashCode method, 163
- parallelXxx methods, 52, 367
- setAll method, 127
- sort method, 52, 119, 123–124
- stream method, 274, 294
- toString method, 52, 159

ArrayStoreException, 148, 223, 235

ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange), 31–32, 305

- for property files, 457
- for source files, 458

ASM tool, 417

asMatchPredicate, asPredicate methods (Pattern), 329

assert statement, 204–205

AssertionError, 204

assertions, 204–206

- checking, 401
- enabling/disabling, 205–206

assignment operators, 18–19

associative operations, 292

asSubclass method (Class), 239

asynchronous computations, 353–359

AsyncTask class (Android), 359

atomic operations, 364, 369, 373–375, 379

- performance and, 374

AtomicXxx classes, 373

atZone method (LocalDateTime), 430

@author tag (javadoc), 96, 99

autoboxing, 50, 131

AutoCloseable interface, 197, 222

- close method, 198

automatic modules, 489–491

availableCharsets method (Charset), 306

availableProcessors method (Runtime), 349

average method (XxxStream), 295

B

b, B conversion characters, 37

\b (backspace), 14

\b, \B, in regular expressions, 328

BasicFileAttributes class, 317

BeanInfo class, 184

between method (Duration), 423

BiConsumer interface, 129

BiFunction interface, 129, 131

BigDecimal class, 14, 24, 337

big-endian format, 305, 310–311

BigInteger class, 12, 24

binary data, reading/writing, 310

binary numbers, 12, 14

binary trees, 254

BinaryOperator interface, 129

binarySearch method (Collections), 252

bindings, 469

Bindings interface, 469

BiPredicate interface, 129

BitSet class, 260–261

- collecting streams into, 293
- methods of, 261

bitwise operators, 23–24

block statement, labeled, 44

blocking queues, 370–372

BlockingQueue interface, 371

Boolean class, 49

boolean type, 14

- default value of, 73, 76
- formatting for output, 37
- reading/writing, 310
- streams of, 294

BooleanSupplier interface, 130

bootstrap class loader, 174

boxed method (XxxStream), 294

branches, 38–39

break statement, 40–41, 43–44

bridge methods, 230–231

- clashes of, 237

BufferedReader class, 308

build method (HttpClient), 321

bulk operations, 370

Byte class, 49

- MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants, 11
- toUnsignedInt method, 12

- byte codes, 4
 - writing to memory, 466–467
- byte order mark, 305
- byte type, 11–12, 303
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21
- ByteArrayClass class, 466
- ByteArrayClassLoader class, 467
- ByteArrayXXStream classes, 302–303
- ByteBuffer class, 311
- bytes
 - arrays of, 302–303
 - converting to strings, 307
 - reading, 303
 - skipping, writing, 304
- C**
- c, C conversion characters, 37
- C:\ root component, 312
- C/C++ programming languages
 - #include directive in, 89
 - allocating memory in, 364
 - integer types in, 12
 - pointers in, 65
- C# programming language, 227
- \c, in regular expressions, 325
- CachedRowSetImpl class, 492
- calculators, 168–169
- Calendar class, 421
 - getFirstDayOfWeek method, 451
 - weekends in, 427
- calendars, 62
- call by reference, 71
- call method (CompilationTask), 465
- Callable interface, 120
 - call method, 351
 - extending, 465
- callbacks, 120–121, 355
 - registering, 353
- camel case, 16
- cancel method
 - of CompletableFuture, 355
 - of Future, 351
- cancellation requests, 382
- CancellationException, 355
- cardinality method (BitSet), 261
- carriage return, 14
- case label, 39–41
- cast method (Class), 239
- cast operator, 22
- casts, 22, 110–111, 148
 - annotating, 402
 - generic types and, 232
 - inserting, 229–230
- catch statement, 196–197
 - annotating parameters of, 400
 - in try-with-resources, 199
 - no type variables in, 237
- ceiling method (NavigableSet), 255
- Channel interface, 112
- channels, 311
- char type, 14
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21
- Character class, 49
- character classes, 324
- character encodings, 305–307
 - detecting, 306
 - localizing, 458
 - partial, 306, 309
 - platform, 306, 458
- character literals, 14
- characters, 302
 - combined, 452
 - formatting for output, 37
 - normalized, 452–453
 - reading/writing, 310
- charAt method (String), 32
- CharSequence interface, 29, 275
 - chars, codePoints methods, 294
- Charset class
 - availableCharsets method, 306
 - defaultCharset method, 306, 458
 - displayName method, 458
 - forName method, 307
- checked exceptions, 194–196
 - combining in a superclass, 195
 - declaring, 195–196
 - documenting, 196
 - generic types and, 238
 - in lambda expressions, 196
 - no-argument constructors and, 182

- not allowed in a method, 202
 - rethrowing, 201
- checked views, 233, 266
- checkedXxx methods (Collections), 252, 266
- Checker Framework, 401
- checkIndex method (Objects), 204
- childrenNames method (Preferences), 460
- choice indicator, in string templates, 454
- Church, Alonzo, 122, 424
- Class class, 170–173, 240
 - asSubclass, cast methods, 239
 - comparing objects of, 172
 - forName method, 171–172, 175–176, 194, 203, 467
 - generic, 239
 - getCanonicalName method, 171–172
 - getClassLoader method, 173
 - getComponentType method, 172, 185
 - getConstructor(s) methods, 173, 179, 182, 239
 - getDeclaredConstructor(s) methods, 173, 179, 239
 - getDeclaredField(s) methods, 173
 - getDeclaredMethod(s) methods, 173, 182
 - getDeclaringClass method, 172
 - getEnclosingXxx methods, 172
 - getEnumConstants method, 239
 - getField(s) methods, 173, 179
 - getInterfaces method, 172
 - getMethod(s) methods, 173, 179, 182
 - getModifiers method, 172
 - getName method, 171–172
 - getPackage method, 172
 - getPackageName method, 173
 - getPermittedSubclasses method, 172
 - getRecordComponents method, 173
 - getResource method, 174, 455
 - getResourceAsStream method, 173–174
 - getSimpleName method, 172
 - getSuperclass method, 172, 239
 - getTypeName method, 172
 - getTypeParameters method, 240
 - isXxx methods, 172–173, 185
 - newInstance method, 182, 239
 - toGenericString method, 172
 - toString method, 172
- class declarations
 - annotations in, 400, 408
 - initialization blocks in, 74–75
- class files, 4, 174
 - paths of, 84
 - processing annotations in, 417
- class literals, 171
 - no annotations for, 402
 - no type variables in, 233
- class loaders, 174–176, 467
- class objects, 171
- class path, 85, 477
- .class suffix, 171–172
- ClassCastException, 110, 232
- classes, 2, 62
 - abstract, 109, 116, 151–152
 - accessing from a different module, 494
 - adding to packages, 88
 - anonymous, 138
 - companion, 114
 - compiling on the fly, 466
 - constructing objects of, 15
 - deprecated, 97, 406–407
 - deserialization of, 342–344
 - documentation comments for, 95–96
 - encapsulation of, 475–476
 - evolving, 340
 - extending, 144–150
 - fields of, 143
 - final, 150–151
 - generic, 48
 - immutable, 29, 365
 - implementing, 67–71, 164
 - importing, 88–89
 - inner, 91–93
 - instances of, 6, 67, 83
 - loading, 180
 - local, 137–138
 - members of, 143
 - enumerating, 169, 179–180
 - naming, 15–16, 83, 171
 - nested, 90–95, 402
 - not known at compile time, 171, 186
 - protected, 152–153
 - public, 88, 482
 - sealed, 154

- serializable, 336–337
- static initialization of, 175
- static methods of, 82
- system, 205
- testing, 88
- utility, 87, 176
- wrapper, 49–50
- classes win rule, 163
- classifier functions, 289
- ClassLoader class
 - defineClass method, 492
 - extending, 467
 - findClass, loadClass methods, 175
 - setXXXAssertionStatus methods, 206
- classloader inversion, 176
- ClassNotFoundException, 194
- CLASSPATH environment variable, 87
- clear method
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Collection, 249
 - of Map, 257
- clone method
 - of ArrayList, 165–166
 - of Enum, 167
 - of Message, 165–166
 - of Object, 153, 158, 163–166, 182
 - protected, 163
- Cloneable interface, 165
- CloneNotSupportedException, 165–167
- cloning, 163–166
- close method
 - of AutoCloseable, Closeable, 198
 - of PrintWriter, 197–198
 - throwing exceptions, 198
- Closeable interface, 112
 - close method, 198
- closures, 133
- COBOL, scripting engine for, 468
- code element (HTML), 96
- code generator tools, 408
- code points, 32, 276, 305
- code units, 14, 32, 294
 - in regular expressions, 325
- codePoints method
 - of CharSequence, 294
 - of String, 32–33, 276–278
- codePointXXX methods (String), 32
- Collator class, 28
 - methods of, 452
- collect method (Stream), 286–287, 293
- Collection interface, 114, 248
 - add method, 249
 - addAll method, 226, 249
 - clear, contains, containsAll methods, 249
 - isEmpty method, 249
 - iterator method, 249
 - parallelStream method, 249, 272–273, 295, 366
 - remove, removeXXX, retainAll methods, 249
 - size method, 249
 - splitter method, 249
 - stream method, 249, 272–273
 - toArray method, 249
- collections, 247–266
 - branching, 291
 - generic, 266
 - given elements of, 264
 - iterating over elements of, 272–273
 - mutable, 265
 - processing, 251
 - serializable, 334
 - threadsafe, 372
 - unmodifiable views of, 265–266
 - vs. streams, 273
- Collections class, 114, 251
 - addAll method, 251
 - binarySearch method, 252
 - copy method, 251
 - disjoint method, 251
 - fill method, 52, 251
 - frequency method, 251
 - indexOfSubList, lastIndexOfSubList methods, 251
 - nCopies method, 249, 251
 - replaceAll method, 251
 - reverse method, 52, 252
 - rotate method, 252
 - shuffle method, 52, 252
 - sort method, 52, 226–227, 241, 252
 - swap method, 252
 - synchronizedXXX methods, 252
 - unmodifiableXXX methods, 252

- Collector interface, 286
- Collectors class, 90
 - counting method, 290
 - filtering method, 291
 - flatMap method, 291
 - groupBy method, 289–292
 - groupByConcurrent method, 289, 296
 - joining method, 286–287
 - mapping method, 290
 - maxBy, minBy methods, 290
 - partitioningBy method, 289, 292
 - reducing method, 291
 - summarizingXxx methods, 287, 291
 - summingXxx methods, 290
 - teeing method, 291
 - toCollection method, 286
 - toConcurrentMap method, 288
 - toMap method, 287–288
 - toSet method, 286, 290
- command-line arguments, 52–53
- comments, 3
 - documentation, 95–100
- commonPool method (ForkJoinPool), 297, 353
- companion classes, 114
- Comparable interface, 117–119, 167, 226, 254
 - compareTo method, 117
 - priority queues with, 263
 - streams of, 279
- Comparator interface, 90, 119–120, 135–137, 254
 - comparing, comparingXxx methods, 136–137
 - naturalOrder method, 136
 - nullsFirst, nullsLast methods, 136
 - priority queues with, 263
 - reversed method, 136
 - reverseOrder method, 137
 - streams of, 279
 - thenComparing method, 136–137
- compare method (Integer, Double), 118
- compareTo method
 - of Enum, 167
 - of Instant, 423
 - of String, 27–28, 117, 451
 - compareToIgnoreCase method (String), 124
 - compareUnsigned method (Integer, Long), 21
- compatibility, drawbacks of, 228
- Compilable interface, 471
- compilation, 4
- CompilationTask interface, 464
 - call method, 465
- compile method (Pattern), 329, 333
- compiler
 - instruction reordering in, 361
 - invoking, 464
- compile-time errors, 16, 112
- completable futures, 353–358
 - combining, 358
 - composing, 355–358
 - interrupting, 355
- CompletableFuture class, 353–358
 - acceptEither method, 357–358
 - allOf, anyOf methods, 357–358
 - applyToEither method, 357–358
 - cancel method, 355
 - complete, completeExceptionally methods, 354
 - completeOnTimeout method, 357
 - exceptionally method, 356–357
 - exceptionallyCompose method, 357
 - handle method, 357
 - isDone method, 354
 - orTimeout method, 357
 - runAfterXxx methods, 357–358
 - supplyAsync method, 353–355
 - thenAccept method, 353, 357
 - thenAcceptBoth method, 357–358
 - thenApply, thenApplyAsync methods, 355–357
 - thenCombine method, 357–358
 - thenCompose method, 356–357
 - thenRun method, 357
 - whenComplete method, 354, 356–357
- CompletionStage interface, 358
- compose method (functional interfaces), 129
- computations
 - asynchronous, 353–359
 - mutator, 64
 - precision of, 14

- compute method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap, 369–370
 - of Map, 256
- computeIfXXX methods
 - of ConcurrentHashMap, 369
 - of Map, 256–257
- concat method (Stream), 278
- concatenation, 25
 - objects with strings, 159
- concurrent programming, 347–389
 - access errors in, 134
 - for scripts, 469
 - strategies for, 364
- ConcurrentHashMap class, 369–370, 381
 - compute method, 369–370
 - computeIfXXX methods, 369
 - forEachXXX methods, 370
 - keySet method, 372
 - merge method, 369–370
 - newKeySet method, 372
 - no null values in, 258
 - putIfAbsent method, 369
 - reduceXXX methods, 370
 - searchXXX methods, 370
 - threadsafe, 377
- ConcurrentModificationException, 253, 368
- ConcurrentSkipListXXX classes, 372
- conditional operator, 23
- configuration files, 459–461
 - editing, 209–211
 - locating, 174
 - resolving paths for, 313
- confinement, 364
- connect method (URLConnection), 320
- Console class, 36
- console, displaying fonts on, 458
- ConsoleHandler class, 211, 213
- constants, 16–17, 113
 - naming, 16
 - static, 80–81
 - using in another class, 17
- Constructor class, 179–180
 - getModifiers method, 179
 - getName method, 179
 - newInstance method, 182–183
- constructor references, 126
 - annotating, 402
- constructors, 71–76
 - abstract classes and, 152
 - annotating, 236, 400–401
 - canonical, compact, custom, 78–79
 - documentation comments for, 95
 - executing, 72
 - for subclasses, 147
 - implementing, 71–72
 - invoking another constructor from, 73
 - no-argument, 75, 147, 182
 - overloading, 72–73
 - public, 72, 179
 - references in, 366
- Consumer interface, 129, 277
- contains method
 - of String, 29
 - of Collection, 249
- containsAll method (Collection), 249
- containsXXX methods (Map), 257
- Content-Type header, 306
- context class loaders, 176–177
- continue statement, 43–44
- control flow, 38–46
- conversion characters, 37
- cooperative cancellation, 382
- copy method
 - of Collections, 251
 - of Files, 304, 315–316, 319
- copyOf method (Arrays), 51, 186
- CopyOnWriteArrayXXX classes, 372
- CORBA (Common Object Request Broker Architecture), 476
- count method (Stream), 273, 280
- counters
 - atomic, 373–375
 - de/incrementing, 199
- counting method (Collectors), 290
- country codes, 289, 443–444
- covariance, 223
- createBindings method (ScriptEngine), 469
- createDirectory, createDirectories, createFile methods (Files), 314
- createInstance method (Util), 176–177
- createTempXXX methods (Files), 315

critical sections, 364, 375, 382

Crockford, Douglas, 471

currencies, 448–449

 formatting, 453

Currency class, 448

current method

 of `ProcessHandle`, 389

 of `ThreadLocalRandom`, 384

D

d

 conversion character, 37

 formatting symbol (date/time), 436

D suffix, 13

`\d`, `\D`, in regular expressions, 326

daemon threads, 385

databases, 397

 persisting objects in, 485

DataInput/Output interfaces, 310

 read/write*Xxx* methods, 310–311

Data*Xxx*Stream classes, 310

Date class, 421, 436–437

DateFormat class, 449

dates

 computing, 428–429

 formatting, 433–436, 442, 449–451, 453

 local, 424–427

 nonexistent, 427, 431, 450

 parsing, 435

datesUntil method (`LocalDate`), 426–427

DateTimeFormat class, 449–451

DateTimeFormatter class, 433–436

 format method, 433, 450

 legacy classes and, 437

 of `LocalizedXxx` methods, 433, 449

 of `Pattern` method, 435

 parse method, 435

 toFormat method, 435

 withLocale method, 434, 450

DateTimeParseException, 450

daylight savings time, 430–433

DayOfWeek enumeration, 63, 426–427, 432

 getDisplayname method, 435, 450

dayOfWeekInMonth method (`TemporalAdjusters`), 428

deadlocks, 364, 376, 380, 382

debugging

 messages for, 193

 overriding methods for, 151

 primary arrays for, 52

 streams, 279

 threads, 385

 with anonymous subclasses, 149–150

 with assertions, 204

DecimalFormat class, 83

 number format patterns of, 453

declaration-site variance, 227

decomposition

 of characters, 452

 of classes, 56–57

decrement operator, 20

decrementExact method (`Math`), 20

deep copies, 164

deepToString method (`Arrays`), 159

default label (in `switch`), 39–41

default methods, 114–116

 conflicts of, 115–116, 157

 in interfaces, 163

default modifier, 114, 405

defaultCharset method (`Charset`), 306, 458

defaultReadObject method

 (`ObjectInputStream`), 337, 341

defaultWriteObject method

 (`ObjectOutputStream`), 336–337

defensive programming, 204

deferred execution, 127–128

defineClass method (`ClassLoader`), 492

delete method (`Files`), 315

deleteIfExists method (`Files`), 315

delimiters, for scanners, 308

@Deprecated annotation, 97, 406–407

@deprecated tag (`javadoc`), 97, 407

Deque interface, 250, 262

destroy, destroyForcibly methods

 of `Process`, 389

 of `ProcessHandle`, 390

DiagnosticCollector class, 465

DiagnosticListener interface, 465

diamond syntax (`<>`)

 for array lists, 49

 for constructors of generic classes, 221

- directories, 312
 - checking for existence, 314, 316
 - creating, 314–316
 - deleting, 315, 318–319
 - moving, 315
 - temporary, 315
 - user, 314
 - visiting, 316–319
 - working, 386
 - directory method (ProcessBuilder), 386
 - disjoint method (Collections), 251
 - displayName method (Charset), 458
 - distinct method (Stream), 279, 296
 - dividedBy method (Duration), 424
 - divideUnsigned method (Integer, Long), 21
 - division, 19
 - do statement, 42
 - doc-files directory, 96
 - documentation comments, 95–100
 - @Documented annotation, 407–408
 - domain names
 - for modules, 478
 - for packages, 83
 - dot notation, 6, 17
 - double brace initialization, 149
 - Double class, 49
 - compare method, 118
 - equals method, 161
 - isFinite, isInfinite methods, 13
 - NaN, NEGATIVE_INFINITY, POSITIVE_INFINITY values, 13
 - parseDouble method, 28
 - toString method, 28
 - double type, 13–14
 - atomic operations on, 375
 - functional interfaces for, 130
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21–22
 - DoubleAccumulator, DoubleAdder classes, 375
 - DoubleConsumer, DoubleXxxOperator,
 - DoublePredicate, DoubleSupplier,
 - DoubleToXxxFunction interfaces, 130
 - DoubleFunction interface, 130, 232
 - doubles method (RandomGenerator), 294
 - DoubleStream class, 294–295
 - DoubleSummaryStatistics class, 287, 295
 - doubleValue method (Number), 448
 - downstream collectors, 289–292, 296
 - Driver.parentLogger method, 494
 - dropWhile method (Stream), 278
 - Duration class
 - between method, 423
 - dividedBy method, 424
 - immutability of, 365, 424
 - isNegative, isZero methods, 424
 - minus, minusXxx, multipliedBy, negated methods, 424
 - ofXxx methods, 423–424, 426, 431
 - plus, plusXxx methods, 424
 - toXxx methods, 423
 - dynamic method lookup, 148, 230–231
- ## E
- E constant (Math), 20
 - e, E
 - conversion characters, 37
 - formatting symbols (date/time), 436
 - \e, \E, in regular expressions, 324–325
 - Eclipse IDE, 5
 - effectively final variables, 133–134
 - efficiency, and final modifier, 151
 - Element interface, 414
 - element method (BlockingQueue), 371
 - elements (in annotations), 398–399, 405
 - else statement, 39
 - em element (HTML), 96
 - empty method
 - of Optional, 284
 - of Stream, 274
 - empty string, 27, 159
 - concatenating, 28
 - encapsulation, 62, 475–477, 485
 - encodings. *See* character encodings
 - end method (Matcher, MatchResult), 330–331
 - endsWith method (String), 29
 - engine scope, 469
 - enhanced for loop, 50, 55, 134
 - for collections, 253
 - for enumerations, 167
 - for iterators, 178
 - for paths, 314
 - Entry class, 229

- entrySet method (Map), 257–258
- Enum class, 166–167
- enum instances
 - adding methods to, 168–169
 - construction, 168
 - referred by name, 170
- enum keyword, 17, 166
- enumeration sets, 262
- enumerations, 166–170
 - annotating, 400
 - comparing, 166–167
 - constructing, 168
 - defining, 17
 - nested inside classes, 169
 - serialization of, 339
 - static members of, 169
 - traversing instances of, 167
 - using in switch, 170
- EnumMap, EnumSet classes, 262
- environment variables, 387
- epoch, 422
- equality, testing for, 22–23
- equals method
 - final, 162
 - null-safe, 161
 - of Arrays, 161
 - of Double, 161
 - of Instant, 423
 - of Object, 158–162
 - of Objects, 161
 - of records, 77
 - of String, 26–27
 - of subclasses vs. superclass, 161
 - of wrapper classes, 50
 - overriding, 160–162
 - symmetric, 161
 - values from different classes and, 161
- equalsIgnoreCase method (String), 27
- Error class, 193
- error messages, for generic methods, 222
- errorReader method (Process), 387
- errors
 - AbstractMethodError, 115
 - AssertionError, 204
- eval method (ScriptEngine), 468–471
- even numbers, 19
- Exception class, 194
- exceptionally method (CompletableFuture), 356–357
- exceptionallyCompose method (CompletableFuture), 357
- exceptions, 192–204
 - annotating, 402
 - ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException, 47
 - ArrayStoreException, 148, 223, 235
 - CancellationException, 355
 - catching, 196–200
 - chaining, 201–202
 - checked, 182, 194–196
 - ClassCastException, 110, 232
 - ClassNotFoundException, 194
 - CloneNotSupportedException, 165–167
 - combining in a superclass, 195
 - ConcurrentModificationException, 253, 368
 - creating, 194–195
 - DateTimeParseException, 450
 - documenting, 196
 - ExecutionException, 351
 - FileNotFoundException, 194
 - generic types and, 237–238
 - hierarchy of, 193–195
 - IllegalArgumentException, 204
 - IllegalStateException, 287, 371
 - InaccessibleObjectException, 181, 486
 - IndexOutOfBoundsException, 204
 - InterruptedException, 381, 383
 - InvalidClassException, 341
 - InvalidPathException, 313
 - IOException, 194, 199, 308
 - NoSuchElementException, 283, 371
 - NullPointerException, 27, 48, 66, 74, 194, 203, 256, 280
 - NumberFormatException, 194
 - ParseException, 448
 - ReflectiveOperationException, 171
 - rethrowing, 199–202
 - RuntimeException, 194
 - SecurityException, 181
 - ServletException, 201–202
 - suppressed, 199
 - throwing, 192–193
 - TimeoutException, 351

- uncaught, 202
 - unchecked, 194
 - UncheckedIOException, 308
 - exec method (Runtime), 386
 - Executable class
 - getModifiers method, 183
 - getName method, 183
 - getParameters method, 180, 183
 - ExecutableElement interface, 414
 - ExecutionException, 351
 - Executor interface, 356
 - executor services, 349, 353
 - ExecutorCompletionService class, 352
 - Executors class, 349
 - ExecutorService interface, 465
 - execute method, 349
 - invokeAll, invokeAny methods, 352
 - exists method (Files), 314, 316
 - exitValue method (Process), 389
 - exports keyword, 479, 482–485
 - qualified, 495
 - exportSubtree method (Preferences), 460
 - extends keyword, 112, 145, 222–226
 - Externalizable interface, read/writeExternal methods, 338–339
- F**
- f conversion character, 37
 - F suffix, 13
 - \f, in regular expressions, 325
 - factory methods, 72, 83
 - failures, logging, 201
 - false value (boolean), 14
 - as default value, 73, 76
 - Field class, 179–180
 - get method, 181, 183
 - getBoolean, getByte, getChar, getDouble, getFloat, getFloat, getInt, getLong methods, 181, 183
 - getModifiers, getName methods, 179, 183
 - getShort method, 181, 183
 - getType method, 179
 - set, setXxx methods, 183
 - fields (instance and static variables), 143
 - enumerating, 179–180
 - final, 362
 - provided, 153
 - public, 179
 - retrieving values of, 180–181
 - setting, 181
 - transient, 336
 - file attributes
 - copying, 315
 - filtering paths by, 317
 - File class, 314
 - file handlers, 211–212
 - file managers, 466
 - file pointers, 311
 - file.encoding system property, 306
 - file.separator system property, 260
 - FileChannel class
 - get, getXxx methods, 311
 - lock method, 312
 - open method, 311
 - put, putXxx methods, 311
 - tryLock method, 312
 - FileFilter class, 128
 - FileHandler class, 211–213
 - FileNotFoundException, 194
 - files
 - archiving, 319
 - channels to, 311
 - checking for existence, 194, 314–316
 - closing, 197
 - copying, 315–316
 - creating, 313–316
 - deleting, 315
 - empty, 314
 - encoding of, 305
 - locking, 312
 - memory-mapped, 297, 311
 - missing, 465
 - moving, 315–316
 - random-access, 310–311
 - reading from/writing to, 36, 194, 303
 - temporary, 315
 - Files class
 - copy method, 304, 315–316, 319
 - createTempXxx methods, 315
 - createXxx methods, 314
 - delete, deleteIfExists methods, 315
 - exists method, 314, 316

- find method, 316–317
- isDirectory, isRegularFile methods, 314, 316
- lines method, 275, 297, 307
- list method, 316–317
- move method, 315–316
- newBufferedReader method, 308, 468
- newBufferedWriter method, 308, 316
- newXxxStream methods, 302, 316, 334
- read method, 304
- readAllBytes method, 303, 307
- readAllLines method, 307
- readNBytes method, 303
- skipNBytes method, 304
- walk method, 316–319
- walkFileTree method, 316, 318
- write method, 309, 316
- FileSystem, FileSystems classes, 319
- FileTime class, 437
- FileVisitor interface, 318
- fill method
 - of Arrays, 52
 - of Collections, 52, 251
- Filter interface, 213
- filter method
 - of Optional, 282
 - of Stream, 273–276, 280
- filtering method (Collectors), 291
- final fields, 362
- final methods, 366
- final modifier, 16, 75, 150
- final variables, 361, 365
- finalize method (Object), 158
- finally statement, 199–200
 - for locks, 376
 - return statements in, 199
- financial calculations, 14
- find method (Files), 316–317
- findAll method (Scanner), 330
- findAny method (Stream), 280
- findClass method (ClassLoader), 175
- findFirst method (Stream), 179, 280
- first day of week, 451
- first method (SortedSet), 255
- firstDayOfXxx methods (TemporalAdjusters), 428
- flag bits, sequences of, 260
- flatMap method
 - of Optional, 284–285
 - of Stream, 277
- flatMapMapping method (Collectors), 291
- flip method (BitSet), 261
- Float class, 49
- float type, 13–14
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21–22
- floating-point types, 13–14
 - binary number system and, 14
 - comparing, 118
 - division of, 19
 - formatting for output, 37
 - in hexadecimal notation, 13
 - type conversions of, 21–22
- floor method (NavigableSet), 255
- floorMod method (Math), 20
- fonts, displaying, 458
- for statement, 42–43
 - declaring variables for, 45
 - enhanced, 50, 55, 134, 167, 253, 314
 - multiple variables in, 43
- forEach method
 - of ArrayList, 125
 - of Map, 257
 - of Stream, 286
- forEachOrdered method (Stream), 286
- forEachXxx methods (ConcurrentHashMap), 370
- ForkJoinPool class, 356
 - commonPool method, 297, 353
- forLanguageTag method (Locale), 446
- Format class, 437
- format method
 - of DateTimeFormatter, 433, 450
 - of MessageFormat, 453–454
 - of String, 447
- format specifiers, 37
- formatted method (String), 38
- formatted output, 36–38
- Formatter class, 213
- formatters, for date/time values, 434–435
- forms, posting data from, 321–323

- forName method
 - of Charset, 307
 - of Class, 171–172, 175–176, 194, 203, 467
 - frequency method (Collections), 251
 - from method (Instant, ZonedDateTime), 436
 - full indicator, in string templates, 453
 - Function interface, 129, 287
 - function types, 121, 128
 - functional interfaces, 123–124, 406, 408
 - as method parameters, 225–226
 - common, 129
 - contravariant in parameter types, 225
 - for primitive types, 130
 - implementing, 130–131
 - @FunctionalInterface annotation, 131, 406, 408
 - functions, 62
 - higher-order, 135–137
 - Future interface, 352
 - cancel, isCancelled, isDone methods, 351
 - get method, 351, 353
 - futures, 351–353
 - completable, 353–358
- G**
- g, G
 - conversion characters, 37
 - formatting symbols (date/time), 436
 - \G, in regular expressions, 328
 - %g pattern variable, 213
 - gadget chains, 343
 - garbage collector, 263
 - generate method (Stream), 274, 294
 - @Generated annotation, 406, 408
 - generators, converting to streams, 296
 - generic classes, 48, 220–221
 - constructing objects of, 221
 - information available at runtime, 239
 - instantiating, 221
 - generic collections, 266
 - generic constructors, 240
 - generic methods, 221–222
 - calling, 221
 - declaring, 221
 - information available at runtime, 239
 - generic type declarations, 240–241
 - generic types, 118
 - annotating, 401
 - arrays of, 126
 - casting, 232
 - exceptions and, 237–238
 - in JVM, 228–231
 - invariant, 223, 225
 - lambda expressions and, 225
 - reflection and, 238–241
 - restrictions on, 231–238
 - GenericArrayType interface, 240
 - get method
 - of Array, 186
 - of ArrayList, 49
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Field, 181, 183, 311
 - of Future, 351, 353
 - of List, 250
 - of LongAccumulator, 374
 - of Map, 255–256
 - of Optional, 283–285
 - of Path, 314
 - of Preferences, 460
 - of ServiceLoader.Provider, 178
 - of Supplier, 129
 - GET requests, 321
 - getAndXxx methods (AtomicXxx), 373
 - getAnnotation, getAnnotationsByType methods
 - of AnnotatedConstruct, 414
 - of AnnotatedElement, 411–413
 - getAsXxx methods
 - of OptionalXxx, 295
 - of XxxSupplier, 130
 - getAudioClip method (Applet), 174
 - getAvailableCurrencies method (Currency), 448
 - getAvailableIds method (ZoneId), 430
 - getAvailableLocales method (Locale), 445
 - getAverage method (XxxSummaryStatistics), 287
 - getBoolean method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460

- getBundle method (ResourceBundle), 456–458
- getBytes method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
- getBytesArray method (Preferences), 460
- getCanonicalName method (Class), 171–172
- getChar method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
- getClass method (Object), 151, 158, 160, 170, 233, 239
- getClassLoader method (Class), 173
- getComponentType method (Class), 172, 185
- getConstructor(s) methods (Class), 173, 179, 182, 239
- getContents method (ListResourceBundle), 457
- getContextClassLoader method (Thread), 176–177
- getCountry method (Locale), 289
- getCurrencyInstance method (NumberFormat), 83, 447
- getDayOfXxx methods
 - of LocalDate, 63, 425–427
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getDeclaredAnnotationXxx methods (AnnotatedElement), 411–413
- getDeclaredConstructor(s) methods (Class), 173, 179, 239
- getDeclaredField(s) methods (Class), 173
- getDeclaredMethod(s) methods (Class), 173, 182
- getDeclaringClass method
 - of Class, 172
 - of Enum, 167
- getDefault method (Locale), 445–446
- getDisplayDefault method (Locale), 456
- getDisplayName method
 - of Currency, 449
 - of DayOfWeek, 435, 450
 - of Locale, 446
 - of Month, 435, 450
- getDouble method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- getElementsAnnotatedWith method (RoundEnvironment), 414
- getEnclosedElements method (TypeElement), 414
- getEnclosingXxx methods (Class), 172
- getEngineXxx methods (ScriptEngineManager), 468
- getEnumConstants method (Class), 239
- getErrorStream method (Process), 386–387
- getFactory method (ScriptEngine), 469
- getField(s) methods (Class), 173, 179
- getFileName method (Path), 314
- getFilePointer method (RandomAccessFile), 311
- getFirstDayOfWeek method (Calendar), 451
- getFloat method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- getHead method (Formatter), 214
- getHeaderFields method (URLConnection), 320
- getInputStream method
 - of Process, 386
 - of URL, 320
 - of URLConnection, 321
- getInstance method
 - of Collator, 452
 - of Currency, 448
- getInstant method (LogRecord), 214
- getInt method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- getInterfaces method (Class), 172
- getISOXxx methods (Locale), 445
- getLength method (Array), 186
- getLevel method (LogRecord), 214
- getLogger method (System), 207–208
- getLoggerName method (LogRecord), 214

- getLong method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- getLongThreadID method (LogRecord), 214
- getMax method (XxxSummaryStatistics), 287
- getMessage method (LogRecord), 214
- getMethod(s) methods (Class), 173, 179, 182
- getMethodCallSyntax method (ScriptEngineFactory), 471
- getMinute method
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getModifiers method
 - of Class, 172
 - of Constructor, 179
 - of Executable, 183
 - of Field, 179, 183
 - of Method, 179
- getMonth method
 - of LocalDate, 426
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getMonthValue method
 - of LocalDate, 63, 426
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getName method
 - of Class, 171–172
 - of Constructor, 179
 - of Executable, 183
 - of Field, 179, 183
 - of Method, 179
 - of Parameter, 183
 - of Path, 314
 - of PropertyDescriptor, 184
 - of System.Logger, 209
- getNano method
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getNumberInstance method (NumberFormat), 447
- getObject method (ResourceBundle), 457
- getOffset method (ZonedDateTime), 433
- getOrDefault method (Map), 256
- getOutputStream method
 - of Process, 386
 - of URLConnection, 320
- getPackage method (Class), 172
- getPackageName method (Class), 173
- getParameters method
 - of Executable, 180, 183
 - of LogRecord, 214
- getParent method (Path), 314
- getPath method (FileSystem), 319
- getPercentInstance method (NumberFormat), 83, 447
- getPermittedSubclasses method (Class), 172
- getProperties method (System), 260
- getProperty method (System), 175, 204, 259
- getPropertyDescriptors method (BeanInfo), 184
- getPropertyType, getReadMethod methods (PropertyDescriptor), 184
- getQualifiedName method (TypeElement), 414
- getRecordComponents method (Class), 173
- getResource method (Class), 174, 455
- getResourceAsStream method
 - of Class, 173–174
 - of Module, 487
- getResourceBundle, getResourceBundleName methods (LogRecord), 214
- getRoot method (Path), 314
- getSecond method
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- getSequenceNumber method (LogRecord), 214
- getShort method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 181, 183
 - of FileChannel, 311
- getSimpleName method
 - of Class, 172
 - of Element, 414
- getSourceXxxName methods (LogRecord), 214
- getString method (ResourceBundle), 456
- getSuperclass method (Class), 172, 239
- getSuppressed method (IOException), 199
- getSymbol method (Currency), 449
- getSystemJavaCompiler method (ToolProvider), 464

getTail method (Formatter), 214
getTask method (JavaCompiler),
464–465
getThrown method (LogRecord), 214
getType method
of Field, 179
of Parameter, 183
getTypeName method (Class), 172
getTypeParameters method (Class), 240
getURLs method (URLClassLoader), 175
getValue method (LocalDate), 63
getWriteMethod method (PropertyDescriptor),
184
getYear method
of LocalDate, 426
of LocalTime, 429
of ZonedDateTime, 432
Goetz, Brian, 347
Gregorian calendar reform, 426
GregorianCalendar class, 436–437
toZonedDateTime method, 436–437
group method (Matcher, MatchResult),
330–331
grouping, 289
classifier functions of, 289
reducing to numbers, 290
groupingBy method (Collectors), 289–292
groupingByConcurrent method (Collectors),
289, 296
GUI (graphical user interface)
callbacks in, 120–121
long-running tasks in, 358–359
missing fonts in, 458

H

H formatting symbol (date/time),
436
h, H conversion characters, 37
\\h, \\H, in regular expressions, 326
%h pattern variable, 213
handle method (CompletableFuture), 357
Hansen, Per Brinch, 379
hash codes, 162–163
computing in String class, 162
formatting for output, 37
hash functions, 162–163, 254

hash maps
concurrent, 369–370
weak, 263
hash method (Object), 163
hash tables, 254
hashCode method
of Arrays, 163
of Enum, 167
of Object, 158, 160, 162–163
of records, 77
HashMap class, 255
null values in, 258
HashSet class, 254
readObject, writeObject methods, 337
Hashtable class, 378
hasNext method
declaring, 107
of Iterator, 252
of Scanner, 35, 308
hasNextXxx methods (Scanner), 35, 308
headMap method (SortedMap), 265
headSet method
of NavigableSet, 255
of SortedSet, 255, 265
heap pollution, 232–233, 266
Hello, World! program, 2
modular, 478–480
helper methods, 228
hexadecimal numbers, 12–13
formatting for output, 37
higher method (NavigableSet), 255
higher-order functions, 135–137
hn, hr elements (HTML), 96
Hoare, Tony, 379
HTML (HyperText Markup Language)
generating documentation in, 417
including code in, 34
HTTP connections, 320–323
HTTP/2 support, 320
HttpClient class, 320–323
enabling logging for, 323
newBuilder, newHttpClient methods, 321,
353
HttpHeaders class, 323
HttpResponse class, 322–323
URLConnection class, 320–321

- hyperlinks
 - in documentation comments, 98
 - regular expressions for, 323
- I**
- [I prefix, 159, 171
- IANA (Internet Assigned Numbers Authority), 430
- IDE (integrated development environment), 4–5
- identity method
 - of Function, 129, 287
 - of UnaryOperator, 129
- identity values, 292
- if statement, 38–39
- ifPresent, ifPresentOrElse methods (Optional), 281
- IllegalArgumentException, 204
- IllegalStateException, 287, 371
- ImageIcon class, 174
- images, locating, 174
- img element (HTML), 96
- immutability, 364
- immutable classes, 365
- implements keyword, 108
- import statement, 7, 88–89
 - no annotations for, 402
 - static, 89–90
- import static statement, 170
- importPreferences method (Preferences), 461
- InaccessibleObjectException, 181, 486
- increment method (LongAdder), 374
- increment operator, 20
- incrementAndGet method (AtomicXxx), 373
- incrementExact method (Math), 20
- indexOf method
 - of List, 250
 - of String, 29
- indexOfSubList method (Collections), 251
- IndexOutOfBoundsException, 204
- info method (ProcessHandle), 390
- inheritance, 144–166
 - classes win rule, 157, 163
 - default methods and, 157
- @Inherited annotation, 407–408
- initCause method (Throwable), 202
- initialization blocks, 74–75
 - static, 81
- inlining, 151
- inner classes, 91–93
 - anonymous, 138
 - capturing this references in, 126
 - invoking methods of outer classes, 93
 - local, 133, 137–138
 - syntax for, 94
- input
 - reading, 35–36, 307–308
 - redirecting, 469
 - setting locales for, 447
 - splitting along delimiters, 331
- input prompts, 36
- input streams, 302
 - copying, 304
 - obtaining, 302
 - reading from, 303
- inputReader method (Process), 387
- InputStream class, 303
 - transferTo method, 304
- InputStreamReader class, 307
- INSTANCE instance (enum types), 339
- instance methods, 6, 68–69
- instance variables, 67, 69
 - abstract classes and, 152
 - annotating, 400
 - comparing, 161
 - default values of, 73–74
 - final, 75
 - in records, 77–78
 - initializing, 74–75, 147
 - not accessible from static methods, 82
 - of deserialized objects, 339–341
 - protected, 152
 - setting, 72
 - transient, 336
 - vs. local, 74
- instanceof operator, 110, 149, 160–161
 - annotating, 402
 - with pattern matching, 111–112
- instances, 2, 6
- Instant class, 422
 - compareTo method, 423
 - equals method, 423

- from method, 436
- immutability of, 365, 424
- legacy classes and, 437
- minus, `minusXxx` methods, 424
- `now` method, 423
- plus, `plusXxx` methods, 424
- instruction reordering, 361
- `int` type, 11–12
 - functional interfaces for, 130
 - processing values of, 128
 - random number generator for, 7, 41
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21–22
 - using class literals with, 171
- `IntBinaryOperator` interface, 130
- `IntConsumer` interface, 128, 130
- `Integer` class, 49
 - `compare` method, 118
 - `MAX_VALUE`, `MIN_VALUE` constants, 11
 - `parseInt` method, 28, 194
 - `toString` method, 28
 - unsigned division in, 12
 - `xxxUnsigned` methods, 21
- integer indicator, in string templates, 453
- integer types, 11–12
 - comparing, 118
 - computing, 19–20
 - formatting for output, 37
 - in hexadecimal notation, 12
 - reading/writing, 310–311
 - type conversions of, 21–22
 - values of:
 - even/odd, 19
 - signed, 12
- `@interface` declaration, 404–405
- interface keyword, 107
 - sealed, 154
- interface methods, 114–116
- interfaces, 106–113
 - annotating, 400–401
 - compatibility of, 115
 - declarations of, 107–108
 - defining variables in, 113
 - documentation comments for, 95
 - evolution of, 114
 - extending, 112
 - functional, 123–124, 406, 408
 - implementing, 108–109
 - in scripting engines, 471
 - multiple, 113
 - methods of, 108–109
 - nested, enumerating, 179–180
 - no instance variables in, 113
 - no redefining methods of the `Object` class in, 163
 - views of, 264
- Internet Engineering Task Force, 444
- `interrupted` method (`Thread`), 382
- interrupted status, 382
- `InterruptedException`, 381, 383
- `intersects` method (`BitSet`), 261
- `IntFunction` interface, 130, 232
- `IntPredicate` interface, 130
- intrinsic locks, 377–379
- `ints` method (`RandomGenerator`), 294
- `IntSequence` interface, 109, 137
- `IntStream` class, 294–295
 - `mapToObj` method, 277
 - `parallel` method, 295
- `IntSummaryStatistics` class, 287, 295
- `IntSupplier`, `IntToXxxFunction`,
 - `IntUnaryOperator` interfaces, 130
- `InvalidClassException`, 341
- `InvalidPathException`, 313
- `Invocable` interface, 470
- `InvocationHandler` interface, 186
- `invoke` method (`Method`), 182–183
- `invokeAll`, `invokeAny` methods (`ExecutorService`), 352
- `IOException`, 194, 308
 - `addSuppressed`, `getSuppressed` methods, 199
- `isAbstract` method (`Modifier`), 173, 179
- `isAfter` method
 - of `LocalDate`, 426
 - of `LocalTime`, 429
 - of `ZonedDateTime`, 433
- `isAlive` method
 - of `Process`, 389
 - of `ProcessHandle`, 390
- `isAnnotation` method (`Class`), 172
- `isAnonymousClass` method (`Class`), 172
- `isArray` method (`Class`), 172, 185

- isAssignableFrom method (Class), 173
 - isBefore method
 - of LocalDate, 426
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 433
 - isCancelled method (Future), 351
 - isDirectory method (Files), 314, 316
 - isDone method
 - of CompletableFuture, 354
 - of Future, 351
 - isEmpty method
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Collection, 249
 - of Map, 257
 - isEnum method (Class), 172
 - isEqual method (Predicate), 129–130
 - isFinite, isInfinite methods (Double), 13
 - isInstance method (Class), 173
 - isInterface method (Modifier), 173, 179
 - isInterrupted method (Thread), 382
 - isLeapYear method (LocalDate), 426
 - isLocalClass method (Class), 172
 - isLoggable method
 - of Filter, 213
 - of System.Logger, 209
 - isMemberClass method (Class), 172
 - isNamePresent method (Parameter), 183
 - isNative method (Modifier), 173, 179
 - isNegative method (Duration), 424
 - isNull method (Objects), 125
 - ISO 8601 format, 408
 - ISO 8859-1 encoding, 306, 309
 - isPresent method (Optional), 283–285
 - isPrimitive method (Class), 172
 - isPrivate, isProtected, isPublic methods (Modifier), 173, 179
 - isRecord method (Class), 172
 - isRegularFile method (Files), 314, 316
 - isSealed method (Class), 172
 - isStatic, isStrict, isSynchronized methods (Modifier), 173, 179
 - isSynthetic method (Class), 172
 - isVolatile method (Modifier), 173, 179
 - isZero method (Duration), 424
 - Iterable interface, 252–253, 314
 - iterator method, 252
 - iterate method (Stream), 274, 279, 294, 367
 - Iterator interface
 - next, hasNext methods, 252
 - remove, removeIf methods, 253
 - iterator method
 - of Collection, 249
 - of ServiceLoader, 178
 - of Stream, 286
 - iterators, 252–253, 286
 - converting to streams, 275, 296
 - invalid, 253
 - traversing, 178
 - weakly consistent, 368
- ## J
- j.u.l. *See* java.util.logging package
 - JAR files, 85
 - dependencies in, 497
 - for split packages, 488
 - manifest for, 490
 - modular, 488–489
 - processing order of, 87
 - resources in, 174, 455
 - scanning for deprecated elements, 407
 - jar program, 85
 - C option, 488
 - d option, 488
 - module-version option, 488
 - Java EE platform, 353
 - Java Persistence Architecture, 397
 - Java Platform Module System, 475
 - layers in, 489
 - migration to, 489–491
 - no support for versioning in, 477, 480, 488
 - service loading in, 496–497
 - java program, 4
 - add-exports, --add-opens options, 492
 - add-module option, 489
 - cp (--class-path, -classpath) option, 86–87
 - da (-disableassertions) option, 205
 - ea (-enableassertions) option, 205
 - esa (-enablesystemassertions) option, 205
 - illegal-access option, 492

- m, -p (--module, --module-path) options, 479, 488
- option files for, 492–493
- option names in, 85
- specifying locales in, 446
- Java programming language
 - compatibility with older versions of, 156–157, 228
 - online API documentation on, 29–31
 - strongly typed, 15
 - Unicode support in, 31–33
 - uniformity of, 3, 116
- java.awt package, 88, 477
- java.awt.geom package, 336
- java.base module, 481
- java.class.path system property, 260
- java.desktop module, 480
- java.home system property, 260
- java.io.tmpdir system property, 260
- java.lang, java.lang.annotation packages, 406
- java.lang.reflect package, 179
- java.logging module, 494
- java.sql package, 437
- java.time package, 421–437
- java.util package, 7, 368
- java.util.concurrent package, 368, 371
- java.util.concurrent.atomic package, 373
- java.util.logging package, 206–211
- java.util.random package, 106
- java.version system property, 260
- JavaBeans, 183–184
- javac program, 4
 - author option, 99
 - cp (--class-path, -classpath) option, 86
 - d option, 85, 99
 - encoding option, 458
 - link, -linksource options, 99
 - parameters option, 180
 - processor option, 413
 - version option, 99
 - XprintRounds option, 417
- JavaCompiler.getTask method, 464–465
- javadoc program, 95–100
 - including annotations in, 408
- JavaFileObject interface, 464

- JavaFX platform, 121, 359
- java.n.log files, 211
- JavaScript programming language
 - accessing classes of, from Java, 471
 - delimiters in, 470
 - semicolons in, 470
- JavaServer Faces framework, 258
- javax.annotation package, 406
- javax.swing package, 480
- JAXB (Java Architecture for XML Binding), 485
- jconsole program, 211
- jdepscan program, 407
- jdeps program, 497
- JDK (Java Development Kit), 4
 - obsolete features in, 476
- JEP 246 (platform logging API), 206
- jlink program, 498
- jmod program, 499
- job scheduling, 263
- join method
 - of String, 25
 - of Thread, 381
- joining method (Collectors), 286–287
- JPA (Java Persistence API), 485
- JShell (Java Shell tool), 7–11
 - imported packages in, 10–11
 - loading modules into, 489
- JSON (JavaScript Object Notation), 153–156
- JSP (JavaServer Pages), 472
- JSR 223 support, 468
- JUnit framework, 397–398

K

- ⌘ formatting symbol (date/time), 436
- \k, in regular expressions, 327
- key/value pairs
 - adding new keys to, 255
 - in annotations, 398–399, 405
 - removed by garbage collector, 263
 - values of, 255
- keys method (Preferences), 460
- keySet method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap, 372
 - of Map, 257, 264

- keywords, 15
 - contextual, 156
- L**
- l suffix, 12
- [L prefix, 171
- L64X128MixRandom algorithm, 106
- lambda expressions, 121–124
 - annotating targets for, 408
 - capturing variables in, 132–134
 - executing, 127
 - for loggers, 208
 - generic types and, 225
 - parameters of, 122
 - processing, 127–131
 - return type of, 123
 - scope of, 131–132
 - this reference in, 132
 - throwing exceptions in, 196
 - using with streams, 276, 366
- language codes, 289, 443–444
- language model API, 414–415
- last method (SortedSet), 255
- lastDayOfXxx methods (TemporalAdjusters), 428
- lastIndexOf method
 - of List, 250
 - of String, 29
- lastIndexOfSubList method (Collections), 251
- lastInMonth method (TemporalAdjusters), 428
- lazy operations, 273, 276, 279, 332
- leap seconds, 422
- leap years, 426
- legacy code, 436–437
- length method
 - of arrays, 47
 - of RandomAccessFile, 311
 - of String, 6, 32
- .level suffix, 210
- lib/modules file, 499
- limit method (Stream), 278, 296
- line feed, 34
 - character literal for, 14
 - formatting for output, 37
 - in regular expressions, 328
 - line.separator system property, 260
- lines method
 - of BufferedReader, 308
 - of Files, 275, 297, 307
- @link tag (javadoc), 98
- linked lists, 248, 253
- LinkedBlockingQueue class, 371, 381
- LinkedHashMap class, 258
- LinkedList class, 248
- List interface, 226, 248–249
 - add, addAll, get, indexOf, lastIndexOf, listIterator methods, 250
 - of method, 49, 51, 250, 264
 - remove, replaceAll, set, sort methods, 250
 - subList method, 250, 265
- list method (Files), 316–317
- ListIterator interface, 253
- ListResourceBundle class, 457
- lists
 - converting to streams, 296
 - mutable, 265
 - printing elements of, 125
 - removing null values from, 125
 - sublists of, 265
 - unmodifiable views of, 266
- literals
 - character, 14
 - floating-point, 13
 - integer, 12
 - string, 26–27, 33
- little-endian format, 305
- load balancing, 334
- load method (ServiceLoader), 178, 497
- loadClass method (ClassLoader), 175
- local classes, 137–138
- local date/time, 424–430
- local variables, 45–46
 - annotating, 400–401
 - vs. instance, 74
- LocalDate class, 63
 - datesUntil method, 426–427
 - getXxx methods, 63, 425–427
 - isXxx methods, 426
 - legacy classes and, 437
 - minus, minusXxx methods, 425, 427
 - now method, 72, 82, 425

- of method, 63, 72, 425–426
 - ofInstant method, 425
 - parse method, 450
 - plus, plusXxx methods, 63–64, 66, 425, 427
 - toEpochSecond method, 426
 - until method, 426–427
 - withXxx methods, 425
- LocalDateTime class, 430
- atZone method, 430
 - legacy classes and, 437
 - parse method, 450
- Locale class, 288
- forLanguageTag method, 446
 - getAvailableLocales method, 445
 - getCountry method, 289
 - getDefault method, 445–446
 - getDisplayDefault method, 456
 - getDisplayName method, 446
 - getISOXxx methods, 445
 - predefined fields, 445
 - setDefault method, 445–446
- locales, 287–291, 442–447
- date/time formatting for, 449–451
 - default, 434, 445–446, 449–450, 456
 - displaying names of, 446
 - first day of week in, 451
 - for template strings, 453–454
 - formatting styles for, 435, 450
 - sorting words for, 451–452
 - specifying, 443–445
 - weekdays and months in, 435
- LocalTime class, 429–430
- final, 151
 - getXxx, isXxx methods, 429
 - legacy classes and, 437
 - minus, minusXxx, now, of, ofInstant methods, 429
 - parse method, 450
 - plus, plusXxx, toXxx, withXxx methods, 429
- lock method
- of FileChannel, 312
 - of ReentrantLock, 376
- locks, 364
- error-prone, 365
 - intrinsic, 377–379
 - reentrant, 375–377
 - releasing, 199, 362
- log handlers, 211–213
- default, 211
 - filtering/formatting, 213
 - levels of, 211
- Log4j framework, 206
- Logback framework, 206
- Logger class (java.util.logging), 494
- Logger interface (System), 207–209
- getName method, 209
 - isLoggable method, 209
 - log method, 207–209
- loggers
- filtering/formatting, 213
 - hierarchy of, 210
 - naming, 207
- logging, 206–214
- configuring, 209–211
 - failures, 201
 - levels of, 208–211
 - overriding methods for, 151
- LogRecord class, methods of, 214
- Long class, 49
- MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants, 11
 - unsigned division in, 12
 - xxxUnsigned methods, 21
- long indicator, in string templates, 453
- long type, 11–12
- atomic operations on, 374–375
 - functional interfaces for, 130
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21–22
- LongAccumulator class, 374
- accumulate, get methods, 374
- LongAdder class, 374–375
- add, increment, sum methods, 374
 - threadsafe, 377
- LongConsumer, LongXxxOperator, LongPredicate, LongSupplier, LongToXxxFunction interfaces, 130
- LongFunction interface, 130, 232
- longs method (RandomGenerator), 294
- LongStream class, 294–295
- LongSummaryStatistics class, 287, 295
- long-term persistence, 340

- Lookup class, 487
- lookup method (MethodHandles), 487
- loops, 41–43
 - exiting, 43–44
 - infinite, 43
- lower method (NavigableSet), 255
- M**
- m, M formatting symbols (date/time), 436
- main method, 2, 6
 - decomposing, 56–57
 - string array parameter of, 52
- ManagedExecutorService class, 353
- Map interface, 250
 - clear method, 257
 - compute method, 256
 - computeIfXxx methods, 256–257
 - containsXxx methods, 257
 - entrySet method, 257–258
 - forEach method, 257
 - get, getOrDefault methods, 255–256
 - isEmpty method, 257
 - keySet method, 257, 264
 - merge method, 256
 - of method, 257, 264
 - ofEntries method, 264
 - put method, 255–256
 - putAll method, 257
 - putIfAbsent method, 256
 - remove method, 257
 - replace, replaceAll methods, 257
 - size method, 257
 - values method, 257, 264
- map method
 - of Optional, 282
 - of Stream, 276
- mapMulti method (Stream), 278
- mapping method (Collectors), 290
- maps, 255–258
 - concurrent, 257, 288
 - empty, 257
 - iterating over, 258
 - of stream elements, 287–288, 296
 - order of elements in, 258
 - views of, 257
 - unmodifiable, 266
- mapToInt method (Stream), 293
- mapToObj method (IntStream), 277
- mapToXxx methods (XxxStream), 294
- marker interfaces, 165
- Matcher class, 329–331
 - methods of, 332
- matcher, matches methods (Pattern), 329
- MatchResult interface, 330–332
- Math class
 - E constant, 20
 - floorMod method, 20
 - max, min methods, 20
 - PI constant, 20, 80, 89
 - pow method, 20, 81, 89
 - round method, 22
 - sqrt method, 20
 - xxxExact methods, 20, 22
- max method
 - of Stream, 280
 - of XxxStream, 295
- MAX_VALUE constant (integer classes), 11
- maxBy method
 - of BinaryOperator, 129
 - of Collectors, 290
- medium indicator, in string templates, 453
- memory
 - allocating, 364
 - caching, 361
 - concurrent access to, 361
- memory-mapped files, 311
- merge method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap, 369–370
 - of Map, 256
- Message class, 165–166
- MessageFormat class, 453–454
- meta-annotations, 404–410
- META-INF/MANIFEST.MF file, 490
- META-INF/services directory, 496
- method calls, 6
 - receiver of, 69
- Method class, 179–180
 - getModifiers, getName methods, 179
 - invoke method, 182–183
- method expressions, 124, 150
- method references, 124–126, 233
 - annotating, 402

- MethodHandles.lookup method, 487
- methods, 2
 - abstract, 123, 151–152
 - accessor, 64, 77
 - annotating, 236, 400
 - atomic, 369
 - body of, 68
 - chaining calls of, 64
 - clashes of, 236–237
 - compatible, 162
 - declarations of, 67
 - default, 114–116
 - deprecated, 97, 406–407
 - documentation comments for, 95, 97
 - enumerating, 179–180
 - factory, 72, 83
 - final, 150, 366
 - for throwing exceptions, 203–204
 - header of, 67
 - inlining, 151
 - instance, 68–69
 - invoking, 182
 - modifying functions, 135
 - mutator, 64, 266, 366
 - naming, 15–16, 77
 - native, 81
 - overloading, 73, 125
 - overriding, 114, 145–147, 151, 195–196, 406–407
 - parameters of, 180
 - null checks for, 203
 - passing arrays into, 56
 - private, 117
 - proxied, 187
 - public, 108–109, 179
 - restricted to subclasses, 152–153
 - return value of, 2, 68
 - returning functions, 135
 - static, 56, 81–83, 90, 113–114
 - storing in variables, 7
 - symmetric, 161
 - synchronized, 377–380
 - used for serialization, 406–407
 - utility, 87
 - variable number of arguments of, 57
- Microsoft Notepad, 306
- Microsoft Windows
 - line ending in, 34
 - path separator in, 86, 260
 - registry in, 459
- min method
 - of Math, 20
 - of Stream, 280
 - of XxxStream, 295
- MIN_VALUE constant (integer classes), 11
- minBy method
 - of BinaryOperator, 129
 - of Collectors, 290
- minus, minusXxx methods
 - of Duration, 424
 - of Instant, 424
 - of LocalDate, 425, 427
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- Modifier interface
 - isXxx methods, 173, 179
 - toString method, 173
- modifiers, checking, 179
- module keyword, 479
- module path, 479, 488, 490–491
- Module.getResourceAsStream method, 487
- module-info.class file, 479, 488
- module-info.java file, 479
- modules, 475
 - aggregator, 494
 - annotating, 480
 - automatic, 489–491
 - bundling up the minimal set of, 498
 - declaration of, 478–479
 - documentation comments for, 95, 99
 - explicit, 491
 - illegal access to, 492
 - inspecting files in, 499
 - loading into JShell, 489
 - naming, 478, 490
 - open, 486
 - reflective access for, 180–181
 - required, 480–482, 493–495
 - tools for, 497–499
 - transitive, 493–495
 - unnamed, 491
 - versioning and, 477, 480, 488

- monitors (classes), 379
- Month enumeration, 425–426, 432
 - getDisplayName method, 435, 450
- MonthDay class, 427
- move method (Files), 315–316
- multiplication, 19
- multipliedBy method (Duration), 424
- mutators, 64
 - unmodifiable views and, 266
- N**
- n
 - conversion character, 37
 - formatting symbol (date/time), 436
 - \n (line feed)
 - for character literals, 14
 - in property files, 259–260
 - in regular expressions, 325–326, 333
 - name method (Enum), 167
 - NaN (not a number), 13
 - native methods, 81
 - naturalOrder method (Comparator), 136
 - navigable maps/sets, 266
 - NavigableMap interface, 372
 - NavigableSet interface, 249, 254, 265
 - methods of, 255
 - nCopies method (Collections), 249, 251
 - negate method (Predicate, BiPredicate), 129
 - negated method (Duration), 424
 - negateExact method (Math), 20
 - NEGATIVE_INFINITY value (Double), 13
 - negative values, 11
 - nested classes, 90–95
 - annotating, 402
 - enumerating, 179–180
 - inner, 91–93
 - public, 91
 - static, 90–91
 - new operator, 7, 15, 18, 72
 - as constructor reference, 126
 - for anonymous classes, 138
 - for arrays, 46–47, 54
 - newBufferedReader method (Files), 308, 468
 - newBufferedWriter method (Files), 308, 316
 - newBuilder method (HttpClient), 321, 353
 - newCachedThreadPool method (Executors), 349
 - newFileSystem method (FileSystems), 319
 - newHttpClient method (HttpClient), 321, 353
 - newInputStream method (Files), 302, 316, 334
 - newInstance method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Class, 182, 239
 - of Constructor, 182–183
 - newKeySet method (ConcurrentHashMap), 372
 - newline. *See* line feed
 - newOutputStream method (Files), 302, 316, 334
 - newProxyInstance method (Proxy), 187
 - next method
 - declaring, 107
 - of Iterator, 252
 - of Scanner, 35
 - of TemporalAdjusters, 428
 - nextClearBit method (BitSet), 261
 - nextDouble method
 - common for all generators, 106
 - of Scanner, 35, 308
 - nextInt method
 - common for all generators, 106
 - of Random, 7, 41
 - of Scanner, 35
 - nextLine method (Scanner), 35
 - nextOrSame method (TemporalAdjusters), 428
 - nextSetBit method (BitSet), 261
 - nominal typing, 128
 - noneMatch method (Stream), 280
 - noneOf method (EnumSet), 262
 - noninterference, of stream operations, 275
 - @NonNull annotation, 401
 - non-sealed modifier, 156
 - normalize method (Path), 313
 - Normalizer class, 453
 - NoSuchElementException, 283, 371
 - notify, notifyAll methods (Object), 380–381
 - now method
 - of Instant, 423
 - of LocalDate, 72, 82, 425
 - of LocalDateTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432

- null value, 27, 66
 - as default value, 73, 76
 - checking parameters for, 203
 - comparing against, 160
 - converting to strings, 159
- NullPointerException, 27, 48, 66, 74, 194, 203, 256
 - vs. Optional, 280
- nullsFirst, nullsLast methods (Comparator), 136
- Number class, 448
- number indicator, in string templates, 453
- NumberFormat class
 - getXXXInstance methods, 83, 447
 - parse method, 448
 - setCurrency method, 448
- NumberFormatException, 194
- numbers
 - average of, 108–109
 - big, 24
 - comparing, 118
 - converting to strings, 28
 - default value of, 73, 76
 - even or odd, 19
 - formatting, 37, 442, 447, 453
 - from grouped elements, 290
 - in regular expressions, 326
 - non-negative, 205, 260
 - printing, 36
 - random, 7, 41, 106, 274, 278, 294, 384
 - reading/writing, 308, 310–311
 - rounding, 14, 22
 - type conversions of, 21–22
 - unsigned, 12, 21
 - with fractional parts, 13–14
- O**
- o conversion character, 37
- Object class, 157–166
 - clone method, 153, 158, 163–166, 182
 - equals method, 158–162
 - finalize method, 158
 - getClass method, 151, 158, 160, 170, 233, 239
 - hashCode method, 158, 160, 162–163
 - notify, notifyAll methods, 380–381
 - toString method, 158–159
 - wait method, 379–381
- object references, 65–66
 - attempting to change, 71
 - comparing, 159
 - default value of, 73, 76
 - null, 66
 - passed by value, 71
 - serialization and, 335
- ObjectInputStream class, 334–335
 - defaultReadObject method, 337, 341
 - readDouble method, 337
 - readFields method, 341
 - readObject method, 335–343
- ObjectInputValidation interface, 342–343
- object-oriented programming, 61–102
 - encapsulation in, 475–476
- ObjectOutputStream class, 334
 - defaultWriteObject method, 336–337
 - writeDouble method, 337
 - writeObject method, 334–337
- object-relational mappers, 485
- objects, 2, 62–66
 - calling methods on, 7
 - casting, 110–111
 - cloning, 163–166
 - comparing, 50, 159–162
 - constructing, 7, 71–76, 182–183
 - converting:
 - to JSON, 486
 - to strings, 158–159
 - deep/shallow copies of, 164–165
 - deserialized, 339–341
 - immutable, 64
 - initializing variables with, 15
 - inspecting, 180–181
 - invoking static methods on, 82
 - mutable, 75
 - serializable, 334–335
 - sorting, 117–119
 - state of, 62
- Objects class
 - checkIndex method, 204
 - converting to streams, 274
 - equals method, 161
 - hash method, 163

- isNull method, 125
 - requireNonNull, requireNonNullXxx methods, 203–204
- ObjXxxConsumer interfaces, 130
- octal numbers, 12
 - formatting for output, 37
- octonions, 32
- odd numbers, 19
- of method
 - of EnumSet, 262
 - of IntStream, 294
 - of List, 49, 51, 250, 264
 - of LocalDate, 63, 72, 425–426
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of Map, 257, 264
 - of Optional, 284
 - of Path, 312, 314, 319
 - of ProcessHandle, 389
 - of Set, 264
 - of Stream, 273–274
 - of ZonedDateTime, 430–432
- ofDateAdjuster method (TemporalAdjusters), 428
- ofDays method
 - of Duration, 423–424, 426, 431
 - of Period, 431
- ofEntries method (Map), 264
- offer method (BlockingQueue), 371
- offsetByCodePoints method (String), 33
- OffsetDateTime class, 433
- ofHours method (Duration), 423–424
- ofInstant method
 - of LocalDate, 425
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- ofLocalizedXxx methods (DateTimeFormatter), 433, 449
- ofMillis, ofMinutes, ofNanos methods (Duration), 423–424
- ofNullable method
 - of Optional, 284
 - of Stream, 274, 286
- ofPattern method (DateTimeFormatter), 435
- ofSeconds method (Duration), 423–424
- ofString method (HttpResponse), 322
- ofYears method (Period), 426
- onExit method
 - of Process, 389
 - of ProcessHandle, 390
- open keyword, 487
- open method (FileChannel), 311
- openConnection method (URL), 320
- opens keyword, 486
 - qualified, 495
- openStream method (URL), 302
- Operation interface, 169
- operations
 - associative, 292
 - atomic, 364, 369, 373–375, 379
 - bulk, 370
 - lazy, 273, 276, 279, 332
 - parallel, 366–368
 - performed optimistically, 374
 - stateless, 295
 - threadsafe, 368–372
- operators, 17–24
 - cast, 22
 - precedence of, 18
- option files, 492–493
- Optional class, 280–285
 - creating values of, 284
 - empty method, 284
 - filter method, 282
 - flatMap method, 284–285
 - for empty streams, 292
 - for processes, 390
 - get method, 283–285
 - ifPresent method, 281
 - ifPresentOrElse method, 281
 - 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, 285–286
- OptionalXxx classes, 295
- or method
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Predicate, BiPredicate, 129
- Oracle JDK, 468

- order method (ByteBuffer), 311
 - ordinal method (Enum), 167
 - orElseThrow method (Optional), 281, 283
 - org.omg.corba package, 476
 - orTimeout method (CompletableFuture), 357
 - os.arch, os.name, os.version system
 - properties, 260
 - OSGi (Open Service Gateway Initiative), 477
 - output
 - formatted, 36–38
 - redirecting, 469
 - setting locales for, 447
 - writing, 308–310
 - output streams, 302
 - closing, 304
 - obtaining, 302
 - writing to, 304
 - OutputStream class, 334
 - write method, 304
 - OutputStreamWriter class, 308
 - outputWriter method (Process), 387
 - @Override annotation, 146, 336, 339, 406–407
 - overriding, 145–147
 - for logging/debugging, 151
 - overview.html file, 99
- P**
- \p, \P, in regular expressions, 326
 - package declarations, 83–85
 - package statement, 84
 - package-info.java file, 99, 400
 - packages, 3, 83–90
 - accessing, 87–88, 153, 476, 483–484, 486, 490
 - adding classes to, 88
 - annotating, 400–401
 - default, 84
 - documentation comments for, 95, 99
 - exporting, 482–485, 487
 - naming, 83
 - not nesting, 84
 - split, 488
 - parallel method (XxxStream), 295
 - parallel streams, 366–367
 - parallelStream method (Collection), 249, 272–273, 295, 366
 - parallelXxx methods (Arrays), 52, 367
 - @param tag (javadoc), 97
 - Parameter class, 183
 - parameter variables, 70
 - annotating, 400
 - scope of, 45
 - ParameterizedType interface, 240
 - parentLogger method (Driver), 494
 - parse method
 - of DateTimeFormatter, 435
 - of LocalXxx, ZonedDateTime, 450
 - of NumberFormat, 448
 - Parse.quote method, 324
 - parseDouble method (Double), 28
 - ParseException, 448
 - parseInt method (Integer), 28, 194
 - partitioning, 365
 - partitioningBy method (Collectors), 289, 292
 - Pascal triangle, 54
 - passwords, 36
 - Path interface, 114, 312–314
 - get method, 314
 - getXxx methods, 314
 - normalize method, 313
 - of method, 312, 314, 319
 - relativize method, 313
 - resolve, resolveSibling methods, 313
 - subpath method, 314
 - toAbsolutePath method, 314
 - toFile method, 314
 - path separators, 313
 - path.separator system property, 260
 - paths, 312
 - absolute vs. relative, 312–314
 - combining, 314
 - filtering, 317
 - resolving, 313
 - taking apart, 314
 - Paths class, 114
 - Pattern class
 - asMatchPredicate, asPredicate methods, 329
 - compile method, 329, 333

- flags, 333
 - matcher, matches methods, 329
 - split method, 331
 - splitAsStream method, 275, 332
- pattern variables, 213
- PECS (producer extends, consumer super), 226
- peek method
 - of BlockingQueue, 371
 - of Stream, 279
- percent indicator, in string templates, 453
- performance
 - atomic operations and, 374
 - big numbers and, 24
 - combined operators and, 20
 - memory caching and, 361
- Period class
 - ofDays method, 431
 - ofYears method, 426
 - plusYears method, 426
- permits keyword, 155–156
- @Persistent annotation, 409
- PHP, scripting engine for, 468
- PI constant (Math), 20, 80, 89
- placeholders, 453–454
- platform class loader, 174
- platform encoding, 306, 458
- platform logging API, 206–210
- plugins, loading, 175
- plus, plusXxx methods
 - of Duration, 424
 - of Instant, 424
 - of LocalDate, 63–64, 66, 425, 427
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 431–432
- plusYears method (Period), 426
- Point class, 158–159
- poll method (BlockingQueue), 371
- pollXxx methods (NavigableSet), 255
- pools, for parallel streams, 297
- pop method (ArrayDeque), 262
- POSITIVE_INFINITY value (Double), 13
- POST requests, 322
- postVisitDirectory method (FileVisitor), 318
- pow method (Math), 20, 81, 89
- predefined character classes, 324, 326, 328
- predicate functions, 289
- Predicate interface, 124, 129
 - and method, 129
 - isEqual method, 129–130
 - or, negate methods, 129
 - test method, 129, 225
- Preferences class, 459–461
 - childrenNames method, 460
 - exportSubtree method, 460
 - get, getXxx methods, 460
 - importPreferences method, 461
 - keys method, 460
 - put, putXxx methods, 460
 - remove, removeNode methods, 460
 - systemXxx methods, 459–460
 - userXxx methods, 459–460
- previous method
 - of ListIterator, 253
 - of TemporalAdjusters, 428
- previousClearBit method (BitSet), 261
- previousOrSame method (TemporalAdjusters), 428
- previousSetBit method (BitSet), 261
- preVisitDirectory method (FileVisitor), 318
- primitive types, 11–14
 - comparing, 161
 - converting to strings, 159
 - functions interfaces for, 130
 - passed by value, 71
 - streams of, 293–294
 - type parameters and, 231
 - variables of, no updating for, 70
 - wrapper classes for, 49–50
- printStackTrace method (Throwable), 203
- PrintStream class, 6, 159, 309
 - print method, 6, 36, 206, 309
 - printf method, 36–37, 57, 309
 - println method, 6, 35–36, 52, 125, 309
- PrintWriter class, 309
 - close method, 197–198
 - print method, 309
 - printf method, 309, 447
 - println method, 309
- priority queues, 263

- private modifier, 3, 87
 - for enum constructors, 168
- Process class, 386–390
 - destroy, destroyForcibly methods, 389
 - errorReader method, 387
 - exitValue method, 389
 - getErrorStream method, 386–387
 - getInputStream, getOutputStream methods, 386
 - inputReader method, 387
 - isAlive method, 389
 - onExit method, 389
 - outputWriter method, 387
 - supportsNormalTermination method, 389
 - toHandle method, 389
 - waitFor method, 388–389
- ProcessBuilder class, 386–390
 - directory method, 386
 - redirectXxx methods, 387
 - start, startPipeline methods, 388
- processes, 386–390
 - building, 386–388
 - getting info about, 389–390
 - killing, 389
 - running, 388–389
- ProcessHandle interface, 389–390
 - allProcesses method, 389
 - current method, 389
 - destroy, destroyForcibly methods, 390
 - info method, 390
 - isAlive method, 390
 - of method, 389
 - onExit method, 390
 - supportsNormalTermination method, 390
- processing pipeline, 355, 388
- Processor interface, 413
- Programmer's Day, 426
- programming languages
 - functional, 105
 - object-oriented, 2
 - scripting, 467
- programs
 - compiling, 4
 - configuration options for, 259
 - localizing, 441–461
 - packaging, 499
 - responsive, 358
 - running, 4
 - testing, 204
- promises (in concurrent libraries), 354
- properties, 183–184
 - loading from file, 259
 - naming, 184
 - read-only/write-only, 184
 - testing for, 225
- Properties class, 259–260
- .properties extension, 455
- property files
 - encoding, 259, 457
 - generating, 417
 - localizing, 455–457
- protected modifier, 152–153
- Provider.get, Provider.type methods, 178
- provides keyword, 496
- Proxy class, 186–188
 - newProxyInstance method, 187
- public modifier, 3, 87
 - for interface methods, 108–109
 - method overriding and, 147
- push method (ArrayDeque), 262
- put method
 - of BlockingQueue, 371
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Map, 255–256
 - of Preferences, 460
- putAll method (Map), 257
- putBoolean method
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- putByte method (FileChannel), 311
- putByteArray method (Preferences), 460
- putChar method (FileChannel), 311
- putDouble, putFloat methods
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- putIfAbsent method
 - of ConcurrentHashMap, 369
 - of Map, 256
- putInt, putLong methods
 - of FileChannel, 311
 - of Preferences, 460
- putShort method (FileChannel), 311

Q

- \Q, in regular expressions, 324–325
- qualified exports, 495
- Queue interface, 250, 262
 - synchronizing methods in, 379
 - using ArrayDeque with, 262
- quote method (Parse), 324
- quoteReplacement method (Matcher), 332

R

- R language, scripting engine for, 468
- \r (carriage return)
 - for character literals, 14
 - in property files, 16
- \r, \R, in regular expressions, 325, 328
- race conditions, 295, 362–364
- Random class, 7, 106
 - nextInt method, 7, 41
 - threadsafe, 384
- random numbers, 7, 41, 106
 - in multiple threads, 384
 - streams of, 274, 278, 294
- RandomAccess interface, 249
- RandomAccessFile class, 310–311
 - getFilePointer method, 311
 - length method, 311
 - seek method, 310–311
- RandomGenerator interface, 107
 - methods of, 294
- RandomNumbers class, 82
- range method
 - of EnumSet, 262
 - of XxxStream, 294
- rangeClosed method (XxxStream), 294
- ranges, 265
 - converting to streams, 296
- raw types, 229, 232–233
- read method
 - of Files, 304
 - of InputStream, 303
 - of InputStreamReader, 307
- readAllXxx methods (Files), 303, 307
- readByte, readChar methods (DataInput), 310
- readDouble method
 - of DataInput, 310
 - of ObjectInputStream, 337

- Reader class, 307
- readers, 302
- readExternal method (Externalizable), 338–339
- readFields method (ObjectInputStream), 341
- readFloat, readFully methods (DataInput), 310
- readInt method (DataInput), 310–311
- readLine method
 - of BufferedReader, 308
 - of Console, 36
- readLong method (DataInput), 310
- readNBytes method (Files), 303
- readObject method
 - of HashSet, 337
 - of ObjectInputStream, 335–343
- readPassword method (Console), 36
- readResolve method (Serializable), 339–340
- readShort method (DataInput), 310
- readUnsignedXxx, readUTF methods (DataOutput), 310
- receiver parameters, 69, 403
- records, 76–79
 - serializable, 342
- redirection syntax, 36
- redirectXxx methods (ProcessBuilder), 387
- reduce method (Stream), 292–293
- reduceXxx methods (ConcurrentHashMap), 370
- reducing method (Collectors), 291
- reductions, 280, 292–293
- ReentrantLock class, 375–377
 - lock, unlock methods, 376
- reflection, 179–188
 - generic types and, 234, 238–241
 - module system and, 180–181, 485, 492
 - processing annotations with, 410–413
 - security and, 343
- ReflectiveOperationException, 171
- regular expressions, 323–333
 - flags for, 333
 - groups in, 330–331
 - replacing matches with, 332
 - splitting input with, 331
 - testing matches of, 329–330
 - turning into predicates, 329

- relational operators, 22–23
 - relativize method (Path), 313
 - remainderUnsigned method (Integer, Long), 21
 - remove method
 - of ArrayDeque, 262
 - of ArrayList, 49
 - of BlockingQueue, 371
 - of Collection, 249
 - of Iterator, 253
 - of List, 250
 - of Map, 257
 - of Preferences, 460
 - removeAll method (Collection), 249
 - removeIf method
 - of ArrayList, 124
 - of Collection, 249
 - of Iterator, 253
 - removeNode method (Preferences), 460
 - @Repeatable annotation, 407, 409–410
 - replace method
 - of Map, 257
 - of String, 29
 - replaceAll method
 - of Collections, 251
 - of List, 250
 - of Map, 257
 - of Matcher, 332
 - of String, 332
 - replaceFirst method (Matcher), 332
 - requireNonNull, requireNonNullXxx methods (Objects), 203–204
 - requires keyword, 479, 482–485, 490, 493–495
 - resolve, resolveSibling methods (Path), 313
 - resource bundles, 455–458
 - ResourceBundle class
 - extending, 457
 - getBundle method, 456–458
 - getObject method, 457
 - getString method, 456
 - resources, 170–179
 - loading, 174, 487
 - managing, 197
 - resume method (Thread, deprecated), 382
 - retainAll method (Collection), 249
 - @Retention annotation, 404, 407
 - return statement, 56, 68
 - in finally blocks, 199
 - in lambda expressions, 122
 - @return tag (javadoc), 97
 - return types, covariant, 147, 231
 - return values
 - as arrays, 56
 - missing, 280
 - providing type of, 56
 - reverse domain name convention, 83, 478
 - reverse method (Collections), 52, 252
 - reversed method (Comparator), 136
 - reverseOrder method (Comparator), 137
 - RFC 822, RFC 1123 formats, 434
 - Rhino JavaScript engine, 468, 470
 - rotate method (Collections), 252
 - round method (Math), 22
 - RoundEnvironment interface, 414
 - roundoff errors, 14
 - RowSetProvider class, 492
 - rt.jar file, 499
 - Ruby, scripting engine for, 468
 - runAfterXxx methods (CompletableFuture), 357–358
 - Runnable interface, 120, 129, 349, 351
 - executing on the UI thread, 359
 - run method, 129, 348, 381, 383
 - using class literals with, 171
 - runtime
 - raw types at, 232–233
 - safety checks at, 229
 - Runtime class
 - availableProcessors method, 349
 - exec method, 386
 - runtime image file, 499
 - RuntimeException, 194
- ## S
- s formatting symbol (date/time), 436
 - s, S conversion characters, 37
 - \s, \S, in regular expressions, 326
 - safety checks, as runtime, 229
 - @SafeVarargs annotation, 236, 406, 408
 - sample code, 5

- Scala programming language, 227
- Scanner class, 35
 - findAll method, 330
 - hasNext, hasNextXXX methods, 35, 308
 - next, nextXXX methods, 35, 308
 - tokens method, 275, 308
 - useLocale method, 447
- scheduling applications
 - computing dates for, 428–429
 - time zones and, 425, 430
- Scheme, scripting engine for, 468
- ScriptContext interface, 469
- ScriptEngine interface
 - createBindings method, 469
 - eval method, 468–471
 - getFactory method, 469
- ScriptEngineFactory interface, 471
- ScriptEngineManager class
 - getEngineXXX methods, 468
 - visibility of bindings in, 469
- scripting engines, 468
 - compiling code in, 471
 - implementing Java interfaces in, 471
- scripting languages, 467
 - invoking functions in, 470
- scripts
 - compiling, 471
 - evaluating, 468
- sealed modifier, 154–156
- sealed types, 153–156
- searchXXX methods (ConcurrentHashMap), 370
- security, 88, 342–344
- SecurityException, 181
 - @see tag (javadoc), 98
- seek method (RandomAccessFile), 311
- sequences, producing, 274
- @Serial annotation, 336, 339, 406–407
- serial numbers, 335
- Serializable interface, 334–335
 - readResolve, writeReplace methods, 339–340
- serialization, 333–344
 - filters for, 343
- serialVersionUID instance variable, 341
- server-side software, 334
- ServiceLoader class, 177–179, 496
 - iterator method, 178
 - load method, 178, 497
- ServiceLoader.Provider interface, 178
- services
 - configurable, 177
 - loading, 177–179, 496–497
- ServletException, 201–202
- Set interface, 249, 372
 - of method, 264
 - working with EnumSet, 262
- set method
 - of Array, 186
 - of ArrayList, 49
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Field, 183
 - of List, 250
 - of ListIterator, 253
- setAccessible method (AccessibleObject), 181, 183
- setAll method (Arrays), 127
- setBoolean, setByte, setChar methods
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 183
- setClassAssertionStatus method (ClassLoader), 206
- setContextClassLoader method (Thread), 176–177
- setCurrency method (NumberFormat), 448
- setDaemon method (Thread), 385
- setDecomposition method (Collator), 452
- setDefault method (Locale), 445–446
- setDefaultAssertionStatus method (ClassLoader), 206
- setDefaultUncaughtExceptionHandler method (Thread), 202
- setDoOutput method (URLConnection), 320
- setDouble, setFloat, setInt, setLong methods
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 183
- setOut method (System), 81
- setPackageAssertionStatus method (ClassLoader), 206
- setProperty method (System), 210
- setReader method (ScriptContext), 469

- setRequestProperty method (URLConnection), 320
- sets, 254–255
 - immutable, 365
 - threadsafe, 372
 - unmodifiable views of, 266
- setShort method
 - of Array, 186
 - of Field, 183
- setStrength method (Collator), 452
- setUncaughtExceptionHandler method (Thread), 381
- setWriter method (ScriptContext), 469
- shallow copies, 164–165
- shared variables, 362–365
 - atomic mutations of, 373–375
 - locking, 375–377
- shell
 - redirection syntax of, 36
 - scripts for, generating, 417
- shift operators, 23–24
- Shift_JIS encoding, 306
- short circuit evaluation, 23
- Short class, 49
 - MAX_VALUE, MIN_VALUE constants, 11
- short indicator, in string templates, 453
- short type, 11–12
 - streams of, 294
 - type conversions of, 21
- short-term persistence, 340
- shuffle method (Collections), 52, 252
- SimpleDateFormat class, 384–385
- SimpleFileVisitor class, 318
- SimpleJavaFileObject class, 466
- @since tag (javadoc), 97
- singletons, 339
- size method
 - of ArrayList, 49
 - of Collection, 249
 - of Map, 257
- skip method (Stream), 278
- skipNBytes method (Files), 304
- sleep method (Thread), 381, 383
- SLF4J (Simple Logging Fasade for Java), 206, 478
- SOAP protocol, 477
- SocketHandler class, 211
- sort method
 - of Arrays, 52, 119, 123–124
 - of Collections, 52, 226–227, 241, 252
 - of List, 250
- sorted maps, 265–266
- sorted method (Stream), 279
- sorted sets, 249, 265
 - traversing, 254
 - unmodifiable views of, 266
- sorted streams, 296
- SortedMap interface, 265
- SortedSet interface, 249, 254
 - first method, 255
 - headSet method, 255, 265
 - last method, 255
 - subSet, tailSet methods, 255, 265
- sorting
 - array lists, 52
 - arrays, 52, 117–119
 - chaining comparators for, 136
 - changing order of, 135
 - streams, 279
 - strings, 27–28, 124, 451–452
- source code, generating, 406, 408, 415–417
- source files
 - documentation comments for, 99
 - encoding of, 458
 - placing, in a file system, 84
 - reading from memory, 465
- space flag (for output), 38
- spaces
 - in regular expressions, 326
 - removing, 29
- split method
 - of Pattern, 331
 - of String, 26, 332
- splitAsStream method (Pattern), 275, 332
- spliterator method (Collection), 249
- Spliterators.spliteratorUnknownSize method, 275
- SQL (Structured Query Language), 34
- sqrt method (Math), 20
- square root, computing, 284
- Stack class, 262

- stack trace, 202–203
- StackWalker class, 203
- standard output, 3
- StandardCharsets class, 306
- StandardJavaFileManager interface, 464–466
- start method
 - of Matcher, MatchResult, 330–331
 - of ProcessBuilder, 388
 - of Thread, 381
- startPipeline method (ProcessBuilder), 388
- startsWith method (String), 29
- stateless operations, 295
- statements, combining, 46
- static constants, 80–81
- static imports, 89–90
- static initialization, 175
- static methods, 56, 81–83
 - accessing static variables from, 82
 - importing, 90
 - in interfaces, 113–114
- static modifier, 2, 16, 56, 79–83, 169
 - for modules, 494
- static nested classes, 90–91
- static variables, 79–80
 - accessing from static methods, 82
 - importing, 90
 - visibility of, 361
- stop method (Thread, deprecated), 382
- Stream interface
 - anyMatch method, 280
 - collect method, 286–287, 293
 - concat method, 278
 - count method, 273, 280
 - distinct method, 279, 296
 - dropWhile method, 278
 - empty method, 274
 - filter method, 273–276, 280
 - findAny method, 280
 - findFirst method, 179, 280
 - flatMap method, 277
 - forEach, forEachOrdered methods, 286
 - generate method, 274, 294
 - iterate method, 274, 279, 294, 367
 - iterator method, 286
 - limit method, 278, 296
 - map method, 276
 - mapMulti method, 278
 - mapToInt method, 293
 - max, min methods, 280
 - noneMatch method, 280
 - of method, 273–274
 - ofNullable method, 274, 286
 - peek method, 279
 - reduce method, 292–293
 - skip method, 278
 - sorted method, 279
 - takeWhile method, 278
 - toArray method, 126, 286
 - toList method, 275
 - unordered method, 296
- stream method
 - of Arrays, 274, 294
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Collection, 249, 272–273
 - of Optional, 285–286
 - of StreamSupport, 275
- streams, 271–275
 - collecting elements of, 286–288
 - combining, 278
 - computing values from, 292–293
 - converting to/from arrays, 274, 286, 296, 368
 - creating, 273–276
 - debugging, 279
 - empty, 274, 280, 292
 - filtering, 285
 - finite, 274
 - flattening, 277, 285
 - infinite, 273–274, 278–279
 - intermediate operations for, 273
 - locating services with, 178
 - noninterference of, 275
 - of primitive type values, 293–294
 - of random numbers, 294
 - ordered, 296
 - parallel, 272, 280, 286, 288–289, 292, 295–297, 366–367
 - processed lazily, 273, 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, 276–278, 294
 - vs. collections, 273
- StreamSupport.stream method, 275
- String class, 6, 28
- charAt method, 32
 - codePoints method, 32–33, 276–278
 - codePointXxx methods, 32
 - compareTo method, 27–28, 117, 451
 - compareToIgnoreCase method, 124
 - contains method, 29
 - endsWith method, 29
 - equals method, 26–27
 - equalsIgnoreCase method, 27
 - final, 151
 - format method, 447
 - formatted method, 38
 - hash codes, 162
 - immutability of, 29, 365
 - indexOf, lastIndexOf methods, 29
 - join method, 25
 - length method, 6, 32
 - offsetByCodePoints method, 33
 - replace method, 29
 - replaceAll method, 332
 - split method, 26, 332
 - startsWith method, 29
 - strip method, 448
 - substring method, 26
 - toLowerCase method, 29, 276, 447
 - toUpperCase method, 29, 447
- StringBuilder class, 25
- strings, 6, 25–34
- comparing, 26–28
 - concatenating, 25, 159
 - converting:
 - from byte arrays, 307
 - from objects, 158–159
 - to code points, 276
 - to numbers, 28
 - empty, 27–28, 159
 - formatting for output, 37
 - internal representation of, 33
 - normalized, 452
 - sorting, 27–28, 124, 451–452
 - splitting, 26, 275
 - templates for, 453–454
 - transforming to lower/uppercase, 276, 447
- StringSource class, 465
- StringWriter class, 309
- strip method (String), 29, 448
- strong element (HTML), 96
- subclasses, 145
- anonymous, 149–150, 169
 - calling toString method in, 158
 - constructors for, 147
 - inheriting annotations, 407
 - initializing instance variables in, 147
 - methods in, 145
 - preventing, 151
 - public, 147
 - superclass assignments in, 147
- subList method (List), 250, 265
- subMap method (SortedMap), 265
- subpath method (Path), 314
- subSet method
- of NavigableSet, 255
 - of SortedSet, 255, 265
- substring method (String), 26
- subtractExact method (Math), 20
- subtraction, 19
- accurate, 24
 - not associative, 292
- subtypes, 110
- wildcards for, 224
- sum method
- of LongAdder, 374
 - of XxxStream, 295
- summarizingXxx methods (Collectors), 287, 291
- summaryStatistics method (XxxStream), 295
- summingXxx methods (Collectors), 290
- super keyword, 116, 146–147, 150, 225–227
- superclasses, 145
- annotating, 401
 - calling equals method on, 161
 - default methods of, 157

- methods of, 145–147
 - public, 147
 - serializability of, 335
- supertypes, 110, 113
 - wildcards for, 225–226
- Supplier interface, 129, 354
- supplyAsync method (CompletableFuture), 353–355
- supportsNormalTermination method
 - of Process, 389
 - of ProcessHandle, 390
- @SuppressWarnings annotation, 232, 406–408, 480
- suspend method (Thread, deprecated), 382
- swap method (Collections), 252
- Swing GUI toolkit, 120–121, 359
- SwingConstants interface, 113
- SwingWorker class (Swing), 359
- switch statement, 39–41
 - fall-through variant of, 40
 - using enumerations in, 170
 - with pattern matching, 154
- symbolic links, 316–317
- synchronized keyword, 376–380
- synchronized views, 266
- synchronizedXxx methods (Collections), 252
- System class
 - getLogger method, 207–208
 - getProperties method, 260
 - getProperty method, 175, 204, 259
 - setOut method, 81
 - setProperty method, 210
- system class loader, 174, 176
- system classes, enabling/disabling
 - assertions for, 205
- system properties, 260
- System.err constant, 202, 211, 385, 464
- System.in constant, 35
- System.Logger interface, 207–209
 - getName method, 209
 - isLoggable method, 209
 - log method, 207–209
- System.Logger.Level enumeration, 208
- System.out constant, 6, 17, 35–38, 52, 57, 81, 125, 206, 309, 464
- systemXxx methods (Preferences), 459–460

T

- T, in dates, 434
- t, T conversion characters, 37
- \t
 - in regular expressions, 325
 - tab, for character literals, 14
- %t pattern variable, 213
- tab completion, 9–10
- tagging interfaces, 165
- tailMap method (SortedMap), 265
- tailSet method
 - of NavigableSet, 255
 - of SortedSet, 255, 265
- take method (BlockingQueue), 371
- takeWhile method (Stream), 278
- tar program, 85
- @Target annotation, 404–406
- tasks, 348–353
 - canceling, 351–352
 - combining results from, 351–353
 - computationally intensive, 349
 - coordinating work between, 370–372
 - defining, 120
 - executing, 120, 349
 - groups of, 385
 - long-running, 358–359
 - running, 348–350
 - short-lived, 349
 - submitting, 351
 - vs. threads, 349
 - working simultaneously, 354
- teeing method (Collectors), 291
- Temporal interface, 428
- TemporalAdjuster.ofDateAdjuster
 - method, 428
- TemporalAdjusters class, 428
- terminal window, 4
- test method
 - of BiPredicate, 129
 - of Predicate, 129, 225
 - of XxxPredicate, 130
- @Test annotation, 398–399, 404
- text blocks, 33–34
- TextStyle enumeration, 451
- thenAccept method (CompletableFuture), 353, 357

- `thenAcceptBoth` method (`CompletableFuture`), 357–358
- `thenApply`, `thenApplyAsync` methods (`CompletableFuture`), 355–357
- `thenCombine` method (`CompletableFuture`), 357–358
- `thenComparing` method (`Comparator`), 136–137
- `thenCompose` method (`CompletableFuture`), 356–357
- `thenRun` method (`CompletableFuture`), 357
- third-party libraries, 489–490
- `this` reference, 69–70
 - annotating, 403
 - capturing, 125
 - in constructors, 73, 366
 - in lambda expressions, 132
- `Thread` class
 - `getContextClassLoader` method, 176–177
 - `interrupted`, `isInterrupted` methods, 382
 - `join` method, 381
 - properties, 385
 - `resume` method (deprecated), 382
 - `setContextClassLoader` method, 176–177
 - `setDaemon` method, 385
 - `setDefaultUncaughtExceptionHandler` method, 202
 - `setUncaughtExceptionHandler` method, 381
 - `sleep` method, 381, 383
 - `start` method, 381
 - `stop`, `suspend` methods (deprecated), 382
- `ThreadLocal` class, 384–385
- `ThreadLocalRandom.current` method, 384
- threads, 349, 381–385
 - atomic mutations in, 373–375
 - creating, 120
 - daemon, 385
 - groups of, 385
 - interrupting, 351, 382–383
 - local variables in, 384–385
 - locking, 375–377
 - names of, 385
 - priorities of, 385
 - race conditions in, 295, 362–364
 - running tasks in, 120
 - starting, 381–382
 - states of, 385
 - temporarily inactive, 383
 - terminating, 349–350
 - uncaught exception handlers of, 385
 - visibility and, 360–362, 378
 - vs. tasks, 349
 - waiting on conditions, 379
 - worker, 358–359
- `throw` statement, 193
- `Throwable` class, 193
 - in assertions, 205
 - `initCause` method, 202
 - no generic subtypes for, 237
 - `printStackTrace` method, 203
- `throws` keyword, 195
 - type variables in, 237–238
- `@throws` tag (javadoc), 97, 196
- time
 - current, 422
 - formatting, 433–436, 449–451
 - measuring, 423
 - parsing, 435
- `Time` class, 436–437
- time indicator, in string templates, 453
- time zones, 430–433
- `TimeoutException`, 351
- `Timestamp` class, 162, 436–437
- timestamps, 423, 433
- `TimeZone` class, 437
- ™ (trademark symbol), 452–453
- `toAbsolutePath` method (`Path`), 314
- `toArray` method
 - of `Collection`, 249
 - of `Stream`, 126, 286
 - of `XXStream`, 295
- `toArray` method
 - of `ByteArrayOutputStream`, 302–303
- `toCollection` method (`Collectors`), 286
- `toConcurrentMap` method (`Collectors`), 288
- `toDays` method (`Duration`), 423
- `ToDoubleFunction` interface, 130, 232
- `toEpochSecond` method
 - of `LocalDate`, 426
 - of `LocalTime`, 429
- `toFile` method (`Path`), 314
- `toFormat` method (`DateTimeFormatter`), 435

- toGenericString method (Class), 172
 - toHandle method (Process), 389
 - toHours method (Duration), 423
 - toInstant method
 - of Date, 436
 - of ZonedDateTime, 431, 433
 - toIntExact method (Math), 22
 - ToIntFunction interface, 130, 232
 - tokens method (Scanner), 275, 308
 - toList method (Stream), 275
 - toLocalXxx methods (ZonedDateTime), 433
 - toLongArray method (BitSet), 261
 - ToLongFunction interface, 130, 232
 - toLowerCase method (String), 29, 276, 447
 - toMap method (Collectors), 287–288
 - toMillis, toMinutes (Duration), 423
 - toNanoOfDay method (LocalTime), 429
 - toNanos method (Duration), 423
 - ToolProvider.getSystemJavaCompiler method, 464
 - toPath method (File), 314
 - toSecondOfDay method (LocalTime), 429
 - toSeconds method (Duration), 423
 - toSet method (Collectors), 286, 290
 - toString method
 - calling from subclasses, 158
 - of Arrays, 52, 159
 - of BitSet, 261
 - of Class, 172
 - of Double, 28
 - of Enum, 167
 - of Integer, 28
 - of Modifier, 173
 - of Object, 158–159
 - of Point, 158–159
 - of records, 77
 - toUnsignedInt method (Byte), 12
 - toUpperCase method (String), 29, 447
 - toZonedDateTime method (GregorianCalendar), 436–437
 - transferTo method (InputStream), 304
 - transient modifier, 336
 - transitive keyword, 493–495
 - TreeMap class, 255, 288
 - TreeSet class, 254
 - true value (boolean), 14
 - try statement, 196–200
 - for visiting directories, 316
 - tryLock method (FileChannel), 312
 - trySetAccessible method (AccessibleObject), 181
 - try-with-resources statement, 197–199
 - closing output streams with, 304
 - for file locking, 312
 - type bounds, 222–223, 241
 - annotating, 402
 - type erasure, 228–231, 236
 - clashes after, 236–237
 - Type interface, 240
 - type method (ServiceLoader.Provider), 178
 - type parameters, 117, 220–221
 - annotating, 400
 - primitive types and, 221, 231
 - type variables
 - exceptions and, 237–238
 - in static context, 236
 - no instantiating of, 233–235
 - wildcards with, 226–227
 - TypeElement interface, 414
 - TypeVariable interface, 240
- ## U
- U+, for code points, 32
 - \u
 - for character literals, 14, 457–458
 - in regular expressions, 325
 - %u pattern variable, 213
 - UnaryOperator interface, 129
 - uncaught exception handlers, 381, 385
 - unchecked exceptions, 194
 - documenting, 196
 - generic types and, 238
 - UncheckedIOException, 308
 - Unicode, 31–33, 294, 305
 - normalization forms in, 452
 - replacement character in, 309
 - unit tests, 397
 - Unix operating system
 - executable files in, 5
 - path separator in, 86, 260
 - specifying locales in, 446
 - wildcard in classpath in, 86

unlock method (ReentrantLock), 376
unmodifiableXxx methods (Collections), 252
unordered method (Stream), 296
until method (LocalDate), 426–427
updateAndGet method (AtomicXxx), 373
URI class, 322
URL class, 322
 final, 151
 getInputStream method, 320
 openConnection method, 320
 openStream method, 302
URLClassLoader class, 175
URLConnection class, 320–321
 connect method, 320
 getHeaderFields method, 320
 getInputStream method, 321
 getOutputStream method, 320
 setDoOutput method, 320
 setRequestProperty method, 320
URLs, reading from, 302, 320
useLocale method (Scanner), 447
user directory, 314
user interface. *See* GUI
user preferences, 459–461
user.dir, user.home, user.name system
 properties, 260
userXxx methods (Preferences), 459–460
uses keyword, 497
UTC (coordinated universal time), 431
UTF-8 encoding, 305
 for source files, 458
 modified, 310
UTF-16 encoding, 14, 32, 294, 305
 in regular expressions, 325
Util.createInstance method, 176–177
utility classes, 87, 176

V

V formatting symbol (date/time), 436
\\v, \\V, in regular expressions, 326
validateObject method
 (ObjectInputValidation), 342–343
valueOf method
 of BitSet, 261
 of Enum, 166–167

values method
 of Enum, 167
 of Map, 257, 264
var keyword, 15–16
varargs parameters
 declaring, 57
 safety of, 406, 408
VarHandle class, 487
variable handles, 487
VariableElement interface, 414
variables, 7, 14–17
 atomic mutations of, 373–375
 capturing, in lambda expressions,
 132–134
 declaring, 15–16
 defined in interfaces, 113
 deprecated, 97, 406–407
 documentation comments for, 95, 97
 effectively final, 133–134
 final, 361, 365
 holding object references, 65–66
 initializing, 15–17
 instance, 67, 69, 72–75, 77–78, 82,
 147, 152, 161, 336, 339–341
 local, 45–46
 naming, 15–16
 parameter, 70
 private, 67, 88
 public static final, 113
 redefining, 46
 scope of, 45, 88
 shared, 362–365, 375–377
 static final. *See* constants
 static, 79–80, 82, 90, 361
 thread-local, 384–385
 using an abstract class as type of,
 152
 visibility of, 360–362, 378
 volatile, 361–362
@version tag (javadoc), 96, 99
versioning, 340–342
views, 264–266
virtual machine, 4
 instruction reordering in, 361
visibility, 360–362
 guaranteed with locks, 378

- visitFile, visitFileFailed methods (FileVisitor), 318
- void keyword, 2, 56
 - using class literals with, 171
- volatile modifier, 362
- W**
- \w, \W, in regular expressions, 326
- wait method (Object), 379–381
- waitFor method (Process), 388–389
- waiting on a condition, 380
- walk method (Files), 316–319
- walkFileTree method (Files), 316, 318
- warning method (Logger), 406
- warnings, suppressing, 232, 236, 407
- weak references, 263
- weaker access privilege, 147
- WeakHashMap class, 263
- weakly consistent iterators, 368
- WeakReference class, 264
- web pages
 - extracting links from, 355
 - reading, 356, 358
- whenComplete method (CompletableFuture), 354, 356–357
- while statement, 41–43
 - breaking/continuing, 43–44
 - declaring variables for, 45
- white space
 - in regular expressions, 326
 - in text blocks, 34
 - removing, 29
- wildcards
 - annotating, 402
 - capturing, 228
 - for annotation processors, 413
 - for types, 224–226
 - in class path, 86
 - unbounded, 227
 - with imported classes, 88–89
 - with type variables, 226–227
- WildcardType interface, 240
- Window class, 88
- WindowAdapter class, 114
- WindowListener interface, 114
- with method (Temporal), 428
- withDayOfXxx methods
 - of LocalDate, 425
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- withHour method
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- withLocale method (DateTimeFormatter), 434, 450
- withMinute, withNano, withSecond methods
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- withMonth method
 - of LocalDate, 425
 - of LocalTime, 429
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- withYear method
 - of LocalDate, 425
 - of ZonedDateTime, 432
- withZoneSameXxx methods (ZonedDateTime), 432
- words
 - in regular expressions, 326
 - reading from a file, 308
 - sorting alphabetically, 451–452
- working directory, 386
- wrapper classes, 49–50
- write method
 - of Files, 309, 316
 - of OutputStream, 304
 - of Writer, 308
- writeByte, writeChar methods (DataOutput), 310
- writeDouble method
 - of DataOutput, 310
 - of ObjectOutputStream, 337
- writeExternal method (Externalizable), 338–339
- writeFloat, writeFully methods (DataOutput), 310
- writeInt method (DataOutput), 310–311
- writeLong method (DataOutput), 310
- writeObject method
 - of HashSet, 337
 - of ObjectOutputStream, 334–337
- Writer class, 308–309
 - write method, 308

writeReplace method (Serializable),
339–340
writers, 302
writeShort, writeUnsignedXxx, writeUTF
methods (DataOutput), 310

X

x, X
conversion characters, 37
formatting symbols (date/time), 436
\x, in regular expressions, 325
XML descriptors, generating, 417
xor method (BitSet), 261
Xoroshiro128PlusPlus algorithm, 106

Y

y formatting symbol (date/time), 436
Year, YearMonth classes, 427
yield statement, 40–41

Z

z, Z formatting symbols (date/time), 434,
436
\z, \Z, in regular expressions, 328
ZIP file systems, 319
ZipInputStream, ZipOutputStream classes, 319
zoned time, 424–427, 430–433
ZonedDateTime class, 430–433
getXxx, isXxx methods, 432–433
legacy classes and, 437
minus, minusXxx, now methods, 432
of method, 430–432
ofInstant method, 432
parse method, 450
plus, plusXxx methods, 431–432
toInstant method, 431, 433
toLocalXxx methods, 433
withXxx methods, 432
ZoneId class, 430