

THE COMPLETE GUIDE TO ANDROID 17 DEVELOPMENT

From Fundamentals to Production:
Kotlin, Compose, Architecture,
and Beyond



Modern Kotlin
Development



Jetpack Compose
UI Toolkit



Architecture
& Best Practices



Privacy, Security
& Performance



Testing, Publishing
& Play Store



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The Complete Guide to Android 17 Development

From Fundamentals to Production: Kotlin, Compose, Architecture, and Beyond

Steve T. Publications

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From Fundamentals to Production: Kotlin, Compose, Architecture, and Beyond

About this book: Android 17 “Cinnamon Bun” (API level 37) represents the latest evolution of Google’s mobile platform, bringing significant changes to app architecture, privacy, performance, and developer tooling. This comprehensive guide walks you through everything from setting up your development environment to publishing production-quality apps on the Play Store. Whether you are a beginner learning Android for the first time or an experienced developer adapting to the latest APIs and behavior changes, this book provides the knowledge, code examples, and best practices you need to build modern, high-quality Android applications. Every chapter includes practical code samples, architectural patterns, troubleshooting guidance, and exercises designed to solidify your understanding.

Introduction: Why Android 17 Matters

In June 2026, Google released Android 17, codenamed “Cinnamon Bun,” marking the seventeenth major release of the world’s most widely deployed mobile operating system. For developers, this is not merely an incremental update. It is a platform that enforces stricter privacy boundaries, introduces new windowing capabilities, hardens security by default, and pushes the entire ecosystem toward more adaptive, performant, and intelligent applications.

If you have built Android apps before, you know the rhythm of the platform. Each year brings new SDK versions, deprecations, and behavioral shifts that require adaptation. Android 17 continues this tradition with particular emphasis on three themes: user privacy through permission refinement, developer productivity through improved tooling and APIs, and cross-device continuity through features like the Handoff API and mandatory large-screen adaptivity.

Who This Book Is For

This book is written for three audiences. First, if you are new to Android development, the early chapters will guide you from installing Android Studio to building your first Compose-based application. Second, if you are an intermediate developer comfortable with Kotlin and basic Android components, the middle chapters will deepen your understanding of architecture, testing, performance optimization, and modern patterns. Third, if you are a senior developer preparing your existing codebase for Android 17, the later chapters provide detailed migration strategies, behavior change analysis, and new API adoption guidance.

What You Will Learn

By the end of this book, you will be able to:

- Set up a complete Android 17 development environment with Android Studio Quail, the latest SDK, and testing infrastructure

- Write idiomatic Kotlin code using coroutines, Flow, and modern language features
- Build adaptive user interfaces with Jetpack Compose following Material Design 3 guidelines
- Architect applications using recommended patterns: MVVM, MVI, Clean Architecture, and dependency injection with Hilt
- Manage the Android component lifecycle correctly and handle process death gracefully
- Implement privacy-first permissions, scoped storage, and security best practices
- Schedule reliable background work with WorkManager and respect battery optimization constraints
- Connect to networks, persist data locally, and build offline-first applications
- Integrate on-device machine learning using LiteRT and MediaPipe
- Profile, optimize, and benchmark your application for performance and battery efficiency
- Make your app accessible to all users through TalkBack, dynamic type, and inclusive design
- Write comprehensive unit, instrumentation, and UI tests
- Publish to the Google Play Store with proper signing, bundling, and compliance

How to Use This Book

The chapters are organized to build on each other progressively. Chapters 1 through 3 establish the foundation: platform architecture, development environment setup, and Kotlin fundamentals. Chapters 4 through 7 cover application structure and UI development. Chapters 8 through 12 address system integration, data, and media. Chapters 13 through 16 focus on quality assurance, performance, and production readiness. The final chapters cover publishing and migration strategies.

Each chapter contains section headings that organize the material into digestible topics. Code examples are provided throughout, marked clearly with language labels. Where a concept benefits from visual explanation, ASCII diagrams or structured tables are included. End-of-chapter exercises give you hands-on practice, and interview questions help you prepare for technical discussions.

Getting the Most Out of This Book

For the best results, follow along with the code examples using Android Studio Quail (2026.1.x) or later, targeting Android 17 (API level 37). The code samples use Kotlin as the primary language, following Google's current recommendations. Where Java equivalents are relevant, they are noted.

You can find all official documentation referenced in this book at the Android Developers site (developer.android.com), and source code for examples is available through the companion repository noted in the references section.

Now let us begin.

Chapter 1: The Android Platform — History, Architecture, and Where We Are Today

Android is not simply an operating system. It is a complete software stack built on Linux, designed for diversity across form factors from smartphones to tablets, foldables, watches, automotive displays, and XR headsets. Understanding the platform's architecture and evolution is essential context for every Android developer. This chapter traces Android's history, explains its layered architecture, examines what makes Android 17 significant, and discusses the realities of device fragmentation.

From Android 1 to Android 17 — A Brief History

Android was conceived in 2003 by Andy Rubin, Rich Miner, Nick Sears, and Chris White. Google acquired the company in 2005, and the first Android SDK was released in November 2007. The T-Mobile G1, also known as the HTC Dream, became the first commercial Android device in October 2008, running Android 1.0 with API level 1.

The early years moved fast. Android 1.5 “Cupcake” (API level 3, 2009) introduced on-screen soft keyboards and widgets. Android 2.0/2.1 “Donut” (API level 7, 2009) added the Searchable widget and Android Market (later Google Play). Android 2.2 “Froyo” (API level 8, 2010) brought JIT compilation, Bluetooth sharing, and VoIP support. Android 2.3 “Gingerbread” (API level 9-10, 2010-2011) improved touch responsiveness and added copy-and-paste.

The platform matured dramatically with Android 4.x “Ice Cream Sandwich” through “KitKat” (API levels 14-19, 2011-2013). Holo design language arrived, multi-window support was introduced, and the ART runtime was added as an experimental alternative to Dalvik. Android 5.0 “Lollipop” (API level 21, 2014) made ART the default runtime, introduced Material Design, and brought significant performance improvements through AOT compilation.

Android 6.0 “Marshmallow” (API level 23, 2015) revolutionized permissions with runtime permission requests, replacing the all-or-nothing install-time model. Android 7.0 “Nougat” (API level 24-25, 2016) introduced multi-window support and ART improvements. Android 8.0 “Oreo” (API level 26, 2017) brought background execution limits, notification channels, and Picture-in-Picture mode.

The pace accelerated. Android 9 “Pie” (API level 28, 2018) introduced neural networks API and adaptive battery. Android 10 (API level 29, 2019) brought scoped storage, dark theme, and on-device intelligence. Android 11 (API level 30, 2020) added bubble conversations, device pairing flows, and one-handed mode. Android 12 (API level 31, 2021) introduced Material You with dynamic color, a new motion system, and precise background location access. Android 13 (API level 33, 2022) refined permissions further with granular media permissions and notification permission. Android 14 (API level 34, 2023) brought foreground service types, health connect, and battery-saving standby buckets. Android 15 (API level 35, 2024) introduced per-app language settings, predictive back animation, and additional privacy controls. Android 16 (API level 36, 2025) added the permission controller API, eye dropper enhancements, and large screen adaptivity improvements.

Now we arrive at Android 17 “Cinnamon Bun” (API level 37, released June 16, 2026), which continues this trajectory of platform evolution with mandatory large-screen adaptivity, enhanced privacy protections, new cross-device features, and significant performance improvements.

The following table summarizes the version history:

Version	API Level	Codename	Year	Key Innovation
1.0	1	–	2008	First release
1.5	3	Cupcake	2009	Soft keyboard, widgets
4.0	14-15	Ice Cream Sandwich	2011	Holo design, multi-touch
5.0	21	Lollipop	2014	ART runtime, Material Design
6.0	23	Marshmallow	2015	Runtime permissions

Version	API Level	Codename	Year	Key Innovation
7.0	24-25	Nougat	2016	Multi-window, ART improvements
8.0	26	Oreo	2017	Background limits, notification channels
9	28	Pie	2018	NNAPI, adaptive battery
10	29	–	2019	Scoped storage, dark theme
11	30	–	2020	Bubbles, device pairing
12	31	–	2021	Material You, precise location
13	33	–	2022	Granular media permissions
14	34	–	2023	Foreground service types
15	35	–	2024	Per-app language, predictive back
16	36	Baklava	2025	Permission controller, large screen adaptivity
17	37	Cinnamon Bun	2026	Mandatory adaptivity, Handoff API, memory limits

Source: Android version history documentation and release notes [1, 2].

The Android Platform Architecture: HAL, Kernel, Runtime, and Framework

Android's software stack is organized into five layers, each building on the one below it. Understanding these layers helps you understand where your application code fits in the broader system.

Linux Kernel

At the foundation sits the Linux kernel, which provides core operating system services. The kernel handles process scheduling, memory management, networking, device drivers, and power management. Android uses a subset of Linux kernel features and adds its own components like the wakelock mechanism for power management and the Binder inter-process communication (IPC) mechanism for efficient cross-process calls.

The kernel layer also includes hardware-specific drivers that communicate directly with device components: display, camera, touchscreen, audio, Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, GPS, and more. These drivers are essential because they translate between the abstract interfaces expected by the upper layers and the concrete electrical signals required by physical hardware.

Hardware Abstraction Layer (HAL)

The HAL sits between the kernel's device drivers and the Android framework. It provides standard interfaces that the Java/Kotlin API framework can use to access hardware capabilities without knowing the specifics of any particular device. The HAL consists of modular library files, typically implementing interfaces for camera, audio, Bluetooth, sensors, and graphics.

When your application calls a framework API like `CameraManager.openCamera()`, the request flows through the Java framework, crosses into native code via JNI, reaches the appropriate HAL module, and eventually communicates with the kernel driver. This layered approach means that the same Android application can run on devices from completely different manufacturers, as long as each manufacturer provides proper HAL implementations for their hardware.

Android Runtime (ART)

The Android Runtime is one of the most critical components for application developers. ART executes your compiled application code and provides the runtime environment in which your app runs. Key aspects include:

- **Process isolation:** Each Android app runs in its own Linux process with its own ART instance, providing security sandboxing.
- **DEX format:** Build tools compile Java and Kotlin source code into Dalvik Executable (DEX) bytecode, a format optimized for minimal memory footprint on mobile devices.
- **AOT and JIT compilation:** ART uses ahead-of-time (AOT) compilation during app installation to convert DEX to native machine code, and just-in-time (JIT) compilation at runtime to profile and optimize frequently executed code paths.
- **Generational garbage collection:** Android 17 introduces generational GC in ART's Concurrent Mark-Compact collector, prioritizing frequent, low-cost “young generation” collections for improved performance [3].
- **Core libraries:** ART bundles core Java libraries that provide most standard functionality, including select Java 8 features used by the Android framework.

Native C/C++ Libraries

Beneath the Java/Kotlin framework layer, Android relies on native libraries written in C and C++. These include:

- **SurfaceFlinger:** Composes and manages all visual surfaces on the display
- **Media Framework:** Handles audio and video encoding/decoding
- **SQLite:** Embedded relational database engine
- **OpenGL ES / Vulkan:** 2D and 3D graphics rendering
- **WebGPU:** New in Android 17, providing Kotlin and Java graphics APIs backed by Vulkan [4]
- **libc, libm, libz:** Standard C library, math library, and compression library

Developers who need native code performance can use the Android NDK to write C/C++ libraries that are loaded into their applications via `System.loadLibrary()`. Android 17 extends Safer Dynamic Code Loading (DCL) protection to native libraries, requiring all files loaded via `System.load()` to be marked read-only [5].

Java API Framework

The framework layer provides the APIs that developers interact with most directly. Key components include:

- **Activity Manager:** Manages application lifecycles, navigation, and the back stack
- **Window Manager:** Handles window layout, input events, and display composition
- **Content Providers:** Enable data sharing between applications
- **Resource Manager:** Provides access to non-code resources like strings, layouts, drawables, and animations
- **Notification Manager:** Enables apps to post status bar notifications
- **View System:** The traditional UI toolkit for building interfaces with XML layouts and View classes
- **Jetpack Libraries:** Modern, backward-compatible components that extend the framework with features like Lifecycle, ViewModel, Room, Work-Manager, Navigation, and Compose

System Applications

At the top of the stack are the system applications: Launcher, Settings, Phone, Contacts, Messaging, and others. These apps have no special privileges over third-party applications (with a few exceptions like Settings). Users can replace most system defaults with third-party alternatives.

What Makes Android 17 Different: Key Themes and Design Philosophy

Android 17 follows three major design themes that distinguish it from previous releases:

Theme 1: Adaptive by Default

Android 16 introduced platform API changes to ignore orientation, resizable, and aspect ratio constraints on large screens (smallest width $\geq$ 600dp).

Android 17 removes the developer opt-out entirely. Apps targeting API level 37 can no longer use `screenOrientation`, `resizeableActivity`, `minAspectRatio`, or `maxAspectRatio` to restrict their behavior on tablets, foldables, and desktop-mode devices [6]. This forces developers to build truly adaptive layouts that respond to available screen space.

Additionally, Android 17 optimizes configuration changes. The system no longer restarts Activities by default for keyboard availability, navigation method, touchscreen type, color mode, and desk UI mode transitions. This reduces jank and preserves application state during common hardware events [7].

Theme 2: Privacy Hardening

Android 17 introduces several privacy-first changes:

- **ACCESS_LOCAL_NETWORK permission:** Apps targeting API 37 must request this runtime permission (part of the `NEARBY_DEVICES` group) to access local network devices. This was opt-in in Android 16 and is now mandatory [8].
- **Contacts Picker:** A new system-level picker allows apps to request specific contact fields without needing the broad `READ_CONTACTS` permission. Access is session-based and user-controlled [9].
- **OTP Protection:** Standard SMS messages containing one-time passwords are delayed by three hours for most apps, preventing OTP hijacking. Developers should migrate to SMS Retriever or SMS User Consent APIs [10].
- **ECH (Encrypted Client Hello):** TLS connections now use ECH by default, encrypting the Server Name Indication in the handshake to prevent network observers from identifying target domains [11].

Theme 3: Performance and Reliability

Android 17 brings significant runtime improvements:

- **Lock-free MessageQueue:** A new implementation reduces contention and missed frames for apps targeting API 37 [12].

- **Generational GC:** ART's garbage collector now distinguishes between young and old objects, performing cheaper collections more frequently [13].
- **App Memory Limits:** The system enforces RAM-based memory limits per app, with `ApplicationExitInfo.getDescription()` returning “MemoryLimiter” when an app is killed [14].
- **New Profiling Triggers:** `ProfilingManager` adds triggers for cold start, OOM, excessive CPU usage, and anomaly detection, making it easier to diagnose performance issues in production [15].

The Android Open Source Project and the Release Cadence

Android is primarily developed through the Android Open Source Project (AOSP), which publishes its source code under Apache 2.0 and other permissive licenses. Google leads development, but manufacturers, carriers, and independent contributors all participate.

The release cadence has accelerated in recent years. Android 17 followed this schedule:

- **November 2025:** Developer Preview (Canary) builds available for early testing
- **February 2026:** Beta 1 released, suitable for development and general use
- **February-March 2026:** Beta 2 with Platform Stability milestone (final APIs and behaviors)
- **March 2026:** Beta 3 with API surface locked
- **April 2026:** Beta 4, the final scheduled beta
- **May 12, 2026:** Official announcement at The Android Show
- **June 16, 2026:** Stable release on supported Pixel devices
- **Q4 2026 (planned):** Minor SDK release with additional API extensions

Quarterly Platform Releases (QPRs) provide incremental updates between major releases, delivering bug fixes, security patches, and minor feature additions to devices that have already received the latest major Android version.

Device Fragmentation in 2026 and API Level Targeting

Despite Android's growth, fragmentation remains a reality. As of mid-2026, the installed base spans roughly twelve major Android versions, from Android 10 (API 29) through Android 17 (API 37). This diversity means that developers must make deliberate choices about which API levels to support.

Understanding the Three API Level Attributes

Every Android application declares three key API level attributes in its manifest:

- **minSdk**: The minimum API level your app supports. Devices running older versions cannot install your app.
- **targetSdk**: The highest API level you have tested against. This determines which behavioral changes apply to your app.
- **compileSdk**: The API level used by the compiler to check your code. This should generally match or exceed targetSdk.

Google Play Requirements

As of August 31, 2026, all new apps and app updates submitted to Google Play must target Android 16 (API level 36) or higher [16]. This means that for any app submitted to the Play Store in the second half of 2026, targetSdk must be at least 36. Targeting API level 37 (Android 17) is strongly recommended to take advantage of new features and ensure your app behaves correctly on the latest devices.

Choosing Your minSdk

The choice of minimum SDK level involves trade-offs. A lower minSdk reaches more users but requires more compatibility code and testing. A higher minSdk simplifies development but excludes older devices. Current guidance suggests:

- For new apps in 2026, a minSdk of 24 (Android 7.0) or higher is reasonable, as Android 7.0+ covers the vast majority of active devices

- For apps with heavy use of modern APIs like Compose, Room, or Work-Manager, the effective minimum may be higher due to library dependencies
- Always check your target audience's device distribution using the Google Play Console dashboard

The Fragmentation Strategy

The recommended approach is to set your `minSdk` as low as your business requirements allow, while setting `targetSdk` to the latest stable release. Use AndroidX libraries for backward-compatible features, runtime API checks for newer capabilities, and feature flags to gracefully degrade functionality on older devices.

Chapter Summary

Android 17 represents a platform that is more adaptive, more private, and more performant than ever before. Its mandatory large-screen support forces developers to think about responsive layouts. Its privacy enhancements require careful permission management. Its performance improvements provide new tools for optimization and debugging.

Understanding the Android platform architecture helps you write better code because you know where your application fits in the broader system. Knowing the release cadence helps you plan your development timeline. And understanding fragmentation helps you make informed decisions about API level targeting.

In the next chapter, we will set up your complete development environment, install the latest tools, and create your first Android 17 project.

Exercises

1. Research the Android version installed on three different devices you have access to (or can find information about). Note their API levels and screen sizes. What patterns do you observe?

2. Read the official Android 17 behavior changes documentation at developer.android.com/about/versions/17/behavior-changes-17. Identify three changes that would affect a typical application and describe how you would adapt your code.
3. Draw the Android platform architecture diagram from memory, labeling each layer and describing one key component in each layer.

Interview Questions

1. What are the five layers of the Android platform architecture, and what is the role of each?
2. How does ART differ from the original Dalvik runtime, and what improvements did Android 17 bring to garbage collection?
3. What is the difference between minSdk, targetSdk, and compileSdk, and why does each matter?
4. Why does Google mandate a minimum targetSdk for Play Store submissions, and how does this affect app behavior?
5. Describe the Android 17 release schedule. What is the significance of the Platform Stability milestone?

Chapter 2: Setting Up Your Development Environment

Before you can write a single line of Android code, you need a properly configured development environment. This chapter walks through installing Android Studio, configuring the SDK, setting up emulators and physical devices, and creating your first project. A solid foundation here saves hours of debugging later.

Installing Android Studio Ladybug/Next Generation

Android Studio is Google's official integrated development environment (IDE) for Android development. Built on JetBrains IntelliJ IDEA Community Edition, it provides code editing, debugging, profiling, testing, and deployment tools all in one package.

Current Version: Android Studio Quail

As of mid-2026, the stable release is Android Studio Quail version 2026.1.x. The preview channel offers Android Studio Quail 3 (2026.1.3 Canary 3) with experimental features for early adopters. You can install both channels side by side on the same machine, as they use separate configuration directories.

System Requirements

Android Studio has substantial system requirements due to the Gradle build system, emulator, and profiling tools:

- **Operating System:** Windows 10 or later (64-bit), macOS 13 Ventura or later, or Linux (64-bit, glibc 2.17+)
- **RAM:** Minimum 8 GB recommended, 16 GB or more for comfortable development

- **Disk Space:** At least 8 GB for Android Studio itself, plus 20 GB or more for SDK packages and system images
- **SSD:** Strongly recommended for faster builds and emulator performance
- **Display Resolution:** Minimum 1280 x 800 pixels

Installation Steps

1. Download Android Studio from developer.android.com/studio
2. Run the installer and follow the setup wizard
3. During installation, choose the “Standard” installation type to include the Android SDK, emulator, and performance profiling tools
4. The Android SDK Manager will launch after installation. Accept the licenses for all required components
5. Restart Android Studio when prompted

First Launch Configuration

On first launch, Android Studio may prompt you to:

- Import settings from a previous version (skip if this is your first installation)
- Choose a UI theme (Dark or Light)
- Install additional plugins
- Configure proxy settings if behind a corporate firewall

Configuring the Android 17 SDK and System Images

The Android Software Development Kit (SDK) provides the APIs, tools, and libraries you need to build Android applications. The SDK Manager within Android Studio handles installation and updates.

Installing the Android 17 SDK Platform

Open the SDK Manager (Tools > SDK Manager) and navigate to the SDK Platforms tab. Check “Android 17.0 (Cinnamon Bun)” with API level 37, then click Apply. This installs:

- **Android SDK Platform 37:** The core Android framework APIs
- **Google APIs Intel x86_64 Atom System Image:** For emulator use
- **Google Play Intel x86_64 Atom System Image:** Includes Google Play Services
- **Android Emulator:** The virtual device runner

SDK Tools

In the SDK Tools tab, ensure the following are installed:

- **Android SDK Build-Tools** (latest version): Contains aapt, dx, d8, apksigner, and other build tools
- **Android SDK Platform-Tools:** Contains adb (Android Debug Bridge) and fastboot
- **Android Emulator:** Latest version for virtual device support
- **Android SDK Command-line Tools:** For command-line builds and CI/CD pipelines
- **NDK (Side by side):** If you plan to use native C/C++ code
- **Performance (Intel HAXM):** Hardware-accelerated execution manager for emulators on Windows

Configuring SDK Paths

The default SDK installation path varies by operating system:

OS	Default Path
Windows	C:\Users\<username>\AppData\Local\Android\Sdk
macOS	~/Library/Android/sdk

OS	Default Path
Linux	~/Android/Sdk

You can customize this path in Android Studio settings (Appearance & Behavior > System Settings > Android SDK). The `ANDROID_HOME` environment variable should point to your SDK directory for command-line tools and CI systems.

Verifying Your Installation

Open a terminal and run:

```
1 adb version
```

This should return the ADB version information. You can also verify the SDK platform by listing available platforms:

```
1 sdkmanager --list
```

Emulator Setup: Hardware Acceleration, Virtual Devices, and Cloud Testing

The Android Emulator provides a virtual device that runs on your development machine. It is essential for testing across different screen sizes, Android versions, and hardware configurations without physical devices.

Creating a Virtual Device

Open the Device Manager (Tools > Device Manager) and click “Create Device.” The wizard guides you through:

1. **Hardware Selection:** Choose from predefined device definitions (Pixel 9, Pixel Fold, Galaxy S series, etc.) or create a custom profile

2. **System Image Selection:** Choose an Android version with Google APIs or Play Store support. For Android 17 development, select the API level 37 image
3. **Verification:** The wizard checks for hardware acceleration support and provides recommendations
4. **Naming:** Give your virtual device a descriptive name

Hardware Acceleration

Emulator performance depends heavily on hardware acceleration. The following technologies provide GPU and CPU acceleration:

- **Intel HAXM** (Hardware Accelerated Execution Manager): For Intel processors on Windows and macOS
- **Windows Hypervisor Platform:** For Windows 10/11 with Hyper-V enabled
- **Apple Silicon Native Emulation:** On M1/M2/M3 Macs, the emulator runs natively in ARM mode
- **KVM** (Kernel-based Virtual Machine): For Linux systems

To verify hardware acceleration is working, check the emulator's performance monitor. A well-accelerated emulator should achieve 60 frames per second for standard UI rendering.

Emulator Performance Tips

- Allocate at least 2 GB of RAM and 2 CPU cores to your virtual device
- Use the x86_64 system images rather than ARM images (unless testing specific ARM behavior)
- Enable “Host GPU” acceleration in the advanced settings
- Use cold boot for initial testing, then switch to quick boot for faster restarts
- Snapshot the emulator state after setup to avoid reconfiguring on each launch

Essential Emulator Commands

The emulator supports several useful command-line options:

```
1  # List running emulators
2  emulator -list-avds
3
4  # Start a specific virtual device
5  emulator -avd Pixel_9_API_37
6
7  # Take a screenshot
8  adb shell screencap -p /sdcard/screenshot.png
9  adb pull /sdcard/screenshot.png
10
11 # Simulate phone call
12 adb emu gsm call 5556
13
14 # Simulate GPS location
15 adb emu geo fix -122.39 37.70
```

Cloud Testing Alternatives

For comprehensive device testing, consider cloud-based solutions:

- **Firebase Test Lab:** Google's cloud testing service that runs your tests on hundreds of physical devices
- **BrowserStack App Automate:** Cross-device testing with real and virtual devices
- **Sauce Labs:** Automated mobile testing across platforms

These services are particularly valuable for testing on device models you do not own physically.

Physical Device Configuration: USB Debugging, ADB, and Fastboot

While emulators are convenient, physical devices provide the most realistic testing environment. They reveal real-world performance characteristics, hardware-specific bugs, and network conditions that emulation cannot fully replicate.

Enabling Developer Options

On your Android device:

1. Open Settings > About phone
2. Tap “Build number” seven times to enable Developer options
3. Return to Settings > System > Developer options
4. Enable “USB debugging”
5. Optionally enable “USB debugging (Security settings)” for automated permission grants

Connecting via USB

1. Connect your device to your development machine using a USB cable
2. On the device, you may see a prompt asking to allow USB debugging from this computer. Check “Always allow” and tap OK
3. Verify the connection by running `adb devices` in a terminal

```
1 $ adb devices
2 List of devices attached
3 ABC123DEF456    device
```

If your device shows as “unauthorized,” check the USB debugging dialog on the device. If it does not appear at all, try a different USB cable or port.

ADB (Android Debug Bridge) Essentials

ADB is the Swiss Army knife of Android development. Here are the most commonly used commands:

```
1  # Install an APK
2  adb install app-debug.apk
3
4  # Uninstall an app
5  adb uninstall com.example.myapp
6
7  # Clear app data
8  adb shell pm clear com.example.myapp
9
10 # View logcat output
11 adb logcat
12
13 # Filter logcat by tag
14 adb logcat -s ActivityManager
15
16 # Forward a port (useful for debugging web servers)
17 adb forward tcp:8080 tcp:8080
18
19 # Reboot the device
20 adb reboot
21
22 # Reboot into recovery mode
23 adb reboot recovery
24
25 # Pull files from the device
26 adb pull /sdcard/Download/file.txt ./
27
28 # Push files to the device
29 adb push myfile.txt /sdcard/Download/
30
31 # Screenshot
32 adb shell screencap -p /sdcard/screen.png
33 adb pull /sdcard/screen.png
34
35 # Screen recording
36 adb shell screenrecord /sdcard/recording.mp4
37 adb pull /sdcard/recording.mp4
```

Fastboot for Bootloader Operations

Fastboot communicates with devices in bootloader mode. Common uses include:

```
1  # Enter fastboot mode from adb
2  adb reboot bootloader
3
4  # Flash a custom recovery
5  fastboot flash recovery recovery.img
6
7  # Flash a system image
8  fastboot flash boot boot.img
9
10 # Reboot from fastboot
11 fastboot reboot
```

Fastboot is primarily used for flashing factory images, installing custom ROMs, and unlocking bootloaders. Use it cautiously, as incorrect commands can brick your device.

Project Templates and Your First “Hello World”

With your environment configured, it is time to create your first Android 17 project.

Creating a New Project

1. Open Android Studio and select “New Project”
2. Choose the “Empty Activity” template (for Compose-based projects) or “Empty Views Activity” (for traditional View-based projects)
3. Configure the project:
 - **Name:** MyFirstApp
 - **Package name:** com.example.myfirstapp
 - **Save location:** Your preferred project directory
 - **Language:** Kotlin
 - **Minimum SDK:** API 24 (Android 7.0) or higher
 - **Build Configuration Language:** Prefer Kotlin DSL (`build.gradle.kts`) over Groovy
4. Click “Finish” and wait for Gradle to sync

Understanding the Project Structure

A new Android project follows this structure:


```

1  MyFirstApp/
2  └─ app/
3     └─ src/
4        └─ main/
5           └─ java/com/example/myfirstapp/
6              └─ MainActivity.kt
7                 └─ MyApplication.kt
8           └─ res/
9              └─ drawable/
10             └─ mipmap-*/
11             └─ values/
12                └─ strings.xml
13                └─ themes.xml
14                └─ colors.xml
15             └─ xml/
16                └─ AndroidManifest.xml
17           └─ androidTest/
18              └─ test/
19 └─ build.gradle.kts
20 └─ proguard-rules.pro
21 └─ build.gradle.kts           (project-level)
22 └─ settings.gradle.kts
23 └─ gradle.properties
24 └─ local.properties

```

Key files explained:

- **MainActivity.kt**: Your main entry point Activity, containing the `onCreate()` method
- **AndroidManifest.xml**: Declares app components, permissions, and configuration
- **build.gradle.kts** (app-level): App-specific dependencies and build configuration
- **build.gradle.kts** (project-level): Project-wide plugins and repositories
- **settings.gradle.kts**: Module inclusion and plugin management
- **local.properties**: Local SDK path (not committed to version control)

The Empty Compose Activity Template

The default “Empty Activity” template creates a Compose-based application. Here is what the generated `MainActivity.kt` looks like:

```

1  package com.example.myfirstapp
2
3  import android.os.Bundle
4  import androidx.activity.ComponentActivity
5  import androidx.activity.compose.setContent
6  import androidx.activity.enableEdgeToEdge
7  import androidx.compose.foundation.layout.fillMaxSize
8  import androidx.compose.foundation.layout.padding
9  import androidx.compose.material3.Scaffold
10 import androidx.compose.material3.Text
11 import androidx.compose.runtime.Composable
12 import androidx.compose.ui.Modifier
13 import androidx.compose.ui.tooling.preview.Preview
14 import com.example.myfirstapp.ui.theme.MyFirstAppTheme
15
16 class MainActivity : ComponentActivity() {
17     override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
18         super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
19         enableEdgeToEdge()
20         setContent {
21             MyFirstAppTheme {
22                 Scaffold(modifier = Modifier.fillMaxSize()) { innerPadding ->
23                     Greeting(
24                         name = "Android 17",
25                         modifier = Modifier.padding(innerPadding)
26                     )
27                 }
28             }
29         }
30     }
31 }
32
33 @Composable
34 fun Greeting(name: String, modifier: Modifier = Modifier) {
35     Text(
36         text = "Hello, $name!",
37         modifier = modifier
38     )
39 }
40
41 @Preview(showBackground = true)
42 @Composable
43 fun GreetingPreview() {
44     MyFirstAppTheme {
45         Greeting("Android")
46     }
47 }

```

This template demonstrates several key concepts:

- **ComponentActivity**: The base class for activities using Jetpack components
- **setContent {}**: Sets the Compose UI hierarchy for the activity
- **enableEdgeToEdge()**: Enables edge-to-edge layout with system bar transparency
- **Scaffold**: A layout component that implements the basic Material Design visual layout structure
- **@Preview**: Annotation that enables instant preview in Android Studio's layout editor

Building and Running

1. Select a target device (emulator or physical) from the device selector toolbar
2. Click the green “Run” button (Shift + F10) or select Run > Run ‘app’
3. Gradle builds the application, packages it as an APK, installs it on the selected device, and launches the main activity

The first build may take a minute or two as Gradle downloads dependencies and compiles the project. Subsequent builds are significantly faster.

Troubleshooting Common Setup Issues

Problem	Solution
“SDK not found” error	Verify ANDROID_HOME points to your SDK directory in File > Project Structure > SDK Location
Emulator won't start	Check hardware acceleration is enabled; try creating a new virtual device with x86_64 image
Device not detected by ADB	Enable USB debugging, try different USB cable/port, install OEM USB drivers (Windows)

Problem	Solution
Gradle sync fails	Check internet connection; try File > Invalidate Caches / Restart
“Build tools revision too old”	Update Build-Tools in SDK Manager to the latest version
Compose preview not rendering	Enable “Enable Jetpack Compose Preview” in Settings > Languages & Frameworks > Kotlin > Compiler

Chapter Summary

Setting up your development environment is an investment that pays dividends throughout your Android development journey. Android Studio Quail provides a comprehensive IDE with the Android 17 SDK, emulators for testing across configurations, and powerful debugging tools. Physical device testing through ADB ensures your app works correctly on real hardware. The project template gives you a solid starting point with modern Compose-based architecture.

In the next chapter, we dive into Kotlin, the primary language for Android development, covering the features and patterns that make it ideal for building Android applications.

Exercises

1. Install Android Studio Quail (or the latest stable version available) on your machine. Verify the installation by checking the “About” dialog.
2. Create a virtual device running Android 17 (API level 37) with Google APIs. Launch it and verify hardware acceleration is working by checking the performance monitor.
3. Connect a physical Android device via USB and verify the connection using `adb devices`. Take a screenshot using ADB commands.
4. Create a new “Empty Activity” project targeting API level 37. Modify the greeting text to display your name, build the project, and run it on both an emulator and a physical device.

Interview Questions

1. What is the difference between the SDK Platform, SDK Build-Tools, and SDK Platform-Tools?
2. How do you enable hardware acceleration for the Android Emulator on different operating systems?
3. What is the purpose of the adb tool, and name five commonly used ADB commands.
4. Why is the AndroidManifest.xml file essential, and what are three things it declares?
5. What is the difference between the “Empty Activity” template and the “Empty Views Activity” template?

Chapter 3: Kotlin-First Development on Android

Kotlin is the official preferred language for Android development. Google announced Kotlin-first status at Google I/O 2019, and today every new template, library, and documentation example is written in Kotlin first. This chapter covers the Kotlin features that matter most for Android development, from basic syntax to advanced concurrency patterns.

Why Kotlin Won: History, Adoption, and Language Design

Kotlin was created by JetBrains and first released in 2011. It was designed from the start to be fully interoperable with Java, run on the JVM, and address the pain points developers experienced when writing Java code. Key design goals included null safety, conciseness without sacrificing readability, and functional programming support.

The Android Adoption Story

Google's endorsement at I/O 2019 was the catalyst. Within two years, the majority of new Android projects were Kotlin-first. By 2024, over 90 percent of top Google Play apps used Kotlin extensively. The language became so deeply integrated into the Android ecosystem that many Jetpack libraries provide Kotlin-specific APIs with features like extension functions, coroutines support, and type-safe builders that have no Java equivalent.

Why Kotlin Over Java for Android

- **Null Safety:** Kotlin's type system distinguishes between nullable and non-nullable types at compile time, eliminating the dreaded `NullPointerException` as a category of bugs

- **Conciseness:** Data classes, extension functions, string templates, and smart casts reduce boilerplate significantly
- **Coroutines:** Structured concurrency provides an elegant solution to asynchronous programming without callback hell
- **Interoperability:** Kotlin calls Java code seamlessly and vice versa, making migration incremental
- **Modern Language Features:** Pattern matching (when expressions), sealed classes, inline functions with reified type parameters, and delegation

Kotlin Fundamentals for Android: Types, Null Safety, and Extension Functions

Type System and Null Safety

Kotlin's type system is the language's most important safety feature. Every type in Kotlin is non-nullable by default:

```
1 // This variable cannot hold null
2 var name: String = "Android"
3 name = null // Compile error: null can not be a value of a non-null type String
4
5 // To allow null, explicitly mark the type as nullable
6 var description: String? = null
7 description = "A mobile OS"
```

When working with nullable types, Kotlin forces you to handle the null case:

```
1 fun greet(name: String?) {
2     // Option 1: Safe call operator
3     val length = name?.length // Returns Int? (nullable)
4
5     // Option 2: Elvis operator for default values
6     val safeLength = name?.length ?: 0
7
8     // Option 3: Not-null assertion (use with caution)
9     val asserted = name!! // Throws NullPointerException if name is null
10
11     // Option 4: Safe cast
12     val str = name as? String // Returns null instead of throwing on failed cast
13 }
```

Smart Casts

Kotlin's compiler tracks type checks and automatically casts variables when it can prove the type is safe:

```
1 fun formatValue(value: Any): String {
2     if (value is String) {
3         // value is automatically cast to String here
4         return value.uppercase()
5     }
6     if (value is Int) {
7         return "Number: $value"
8     }
9     return "Unknown"
10 }
```

Data Classes

Data classes reduce boilerplate for classes that primarily hold data:

```
1 data class User(
2     val id: Long,
3     val name: String,
4     val email: String?,
5     val isActive: Boolean = true
6 )
7
8 val user = User(1, "Alice", "alice@example.com")
9 val copy = user.copy(email = "newalice@example.com") // Easy immutable updates
10 println(user.component1()) // Destructuring: 1
11 val (id, name, email, active) = user // Destructuring declaration
```

Data classes automatically generate `equals()`, `hashCode()`, `toString()`, `copy()`, and `componentN()` functions.

Extension Functions

Extension functions let you add methods to existing classes without modifying their source code:


```

1  // Extend Context with a convenience function
2  fun Context.toast(message: String, duration: Int = Toast.LENGTH_SHORT) {
3      Toast.makeText(this, message, duration).show()
4  }
5
6  // Use it in an Activity
7  class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
8      override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
9          super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
10         toast("Hello Android 17!") // No need for Toast.makeText()
11     }
12 }
13
14 // Extension properties
15 val Activity.screenWidth: Int
16     get() = windowManager.defaultDisplay.width
17
18 val Activity.screenHeight: Int
19     get() = windowManager.defaultDisplay.height

```

When Expressions

Kotlin's when expression replaces Java's switch statement with a more powerful construct:

```

1  fun describe(apiLevel: Int): String = when (apiLevel) {
2      37 -> "Android 17 - Cinnamon Bun"
3      36 -> "Android 16 - Baklava"
4      in 30..35 -> "Android 11-15"
5      in 21..29 -> "Android 5.0-9"
6      else -> "Legacy Android"
7  }
8
9  // When without argument (like if-else chain)
10 fun parseInput(input: Any): String = when {
11     input is String -> "String: ${input.length} chars"
12     input is Int -> "Integer: $input"
13     input.isEmpty() -> "Empty collection"
14     else -> "Unknown type"
15 }

```

Scope Functions

Kotlin provides five scope functions that control how you reference the receiver object and the return value:

Function	Receiver	Return Value	Use Case
let	it	Lambda result	Null-checking and transformations
run	this	Lambda result	Configuration without null check
with	this	Lambda result	Non-member function, configuration
apply	this	Object itself	Object initialization and setup
also	it	Object itself	Side effects and logging

```
1 // let: null-safe transformation
2 val length = userName?.let { name ->
3     name.length
4 }
5
6 // apply: object configuration
7 val textView = TextView(this).apply {
8     text = "Hello"
9     textSize = 16f
10    setPadding(16, 16, 16, 16)
11 }
12
13 // also: side effects
14 imageView.also { view ->
15     Log.d("ImageDebug", "Setting image on $view")
16 }.setImageBitmap(bitmap)
```

Coroutines and Structured Concurrency on Android

Asynchronous programming is fundamental to Android development. Network requests, database queries, file I/O, and image loading all happen off the main thread. Kotlin coroutines provide an elegant solution.

Understanding Coroutines

A coroutine is a lightweight thread of execution that can be suspended and resumed without blocking the underlying OS thread. This makes them ideal

for Android, where you must keep the main (UI) thread responsive while performing background work.

```

1  import kotlinx.coroutines.*
2  import kotlinx.coroutines.flow.*
3
4  class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
5      private val viewModel: MainViewModel by viewModels()
6
7      override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
8          super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
9          // ...
10     }
11 }
12
13 class MainViewModel : ViewModel() {
14     private val _uiState = MutableStateFlow<UiState>(UiState.Loading)
15     val uiState: StateFlow<UiState> = _uiState
16
17     init {
18         loadData()
19     }
20
21     fun loadData() {
22         viewModelScope.launch {
23             _uiState.value = UiState.Loading
24             try {
25                 val data = withContext(Dispatchers.IO) {
26                     repository.fetchData() // Runs on IO dispatcher
27                 }
28                 _uiState.value = UiState.Success(data)
29             } catch (e: Exception) {
30                 _uiState.value = UiState.Error(e.message ?: "Unknown error")
31             }
32         }
33     }
34 }
35
36 sealed interface UiState {
37     object Loading : UiState
38     data class Success(val data: List<Item>) : UiState
39     data class Error(val message: String) : UiState
40 }

```

Coroutine Scope and Lifecycle Awareness

Android provides lifecycle-aware coroutine scopes that automatically cancel coroutines when the appropriate lifecycle event occurs:

- **viewModelScope**: Tied to ViewModel lifecycle; cancels when ViewModel is cleared
- **lifecycleScope**: Tied to LifecycleOwner; respects lifecycle states
- **repeatOnLifecycle**: Runs a coroutine block whenever the lifecycle reaches a specified state

```
1 class MainActivity : AppCompatActivity() {
2     private val viewModel: MainViewModel by viewModels()
3
4     override fun onCreate(savedInstanceState: Bundle?) {
5         super.onCreate(savedInstanceState)
6
7         lifecycleScope.launch {
8             repeatOnLifecycle(Lifecycle.State.STARTED) {
9                 // This block runs when STARTED, cancels when STOPPED,
10                // and re-runs when STARTED again
11                viewModel.uiState.collect { state ->
12                    when (state) {
13                        is UiState.Loading -> showLoading()
14                        is UiState.Success -> displayData(state.data)
15                        is UiState.Error -> showError(state.message)
16                    }
17                }
18            }
19        }
20    }
21 }
```

Dispatchers

Kotlin coroutines provide several dispatchers for controlling where code executes:

```

1  // Main thread (UI operations)
2  withContext(Dispatchers.Main) {
3      textView.text = "Updated"
4  }
5
6  // Background thread pool (CPU-intensive work)
7  withContext(Dispatchers.Default) {
8      val sorted = largeList.sorted()
9  }
10
11 // IO-optimized thread pool (network, disk, database)
12 withContext(Dispatchers.IO) {
13     val data = database.query()
14     val response = apiService.getData()
15 }
16
17 // Unconfined (not recommended for production; runs in caller's thread)
18 // Dispatchers.Unconfined

```

Structured Concurrency

Structured concurrency ensures that all child coroutines are properly managed and cancelled:

```

1  suspend fun loadMultipleData() {
2      // All three coroutines run concurrently
3      // If any fails, all are cancelled automatically
4      val results = coroutineScope {
5          val deferredUsers = async(Dispatchers.IO) { fetchUsers() }
6          val deferredPosts = async(Dispatchers.IO) { fetchPosts() }
7          val deferredComments = async(Dispatchers.IO) { fetchComments() }
8
9          CombinedData(
10             users = deferredUsers.await(),
11             posts = deferredPosts.await(),
12             comments = deferredComments.await()
13         )
14     }
15 }

```

Coroutine Best Practices for Android

1. Always use lifecycle-aware scopes (viewModelScope, lifecycleScope) rather than creating custom scopes in Activities or Fragments

2. Use `Dispatchers.IO` for I/O operations and `Dispatchers.Default` for CPU-intensive work
3. Avoid `GlobalScope` in application code; it creates orphaned coroutines
4. Use `repeatOnLifecycle` when collecting flows in UI components
5. Handle exceptions with `try/catch` or coroutine supervisors
6. Prefer `StateFlow` and `SharedFlow` over `LiveData` for new development

Kotlin Flow for Reactive Data Streams

Flow is Kotlin's reactive streams API, providing a cold asynchronous stream that emits values over time. It is the recommended approach for handling streaming data in Android applications.

Creating and Collecting Flows

```
1  // Creating a flow
2  val numbersFlow = flow {
3      for (i in 1..5) {
4          Thread.sleep(100) // Simulate work
5          emit(i)
6      }
7  }
8
9  // Collecting a flow (must be done in a coroutine)
10 lifecycleScope.launch {
11     numbersFlow.collect { number ->
12         Log.d("FlowExample", "Received: $number")
13     }
14 }
```

Flow Operators

Flows support a rich set of operators for transforming, filtering, and combining data:

```

1  val transformedFlow = repository.userFlow
2      .filter { user -> user.isActive }           // Filter inactive users
3      .map { user -> user.name.uppercase() }       // Transform to uppercase names
4      .distinctUntilChanged()                     // Skip duplicates
5      .debounce(300)                             // Wait 300ms between emissions
6      .catch { e -> emit(emptyList()) }           // Handle errors gracefully
7
8  // Combining flows
9  val combinedFlow = combine(userFlow, settingsFlow) { user, settings ->
10      UserWithSettings(user, settings)
11  }
12
13  // Zipping two flows
14  val zippedFlow = flow1.zip(flow2) { a, b ->
15      Pair(a, b)
16  }

```

StateFlow and SharedFlow

For Android development, StateFlow and SharedFlow are the most commonly used Flow types:

```

1  // StateFlow: always has a current value, observers see the latest value
2  class UserRepository @Inject constructor(
3      private val dao: UserDao
4  ) {
5      private val _currentUser = MutableStateFlow<User?>(null)
6      val currentUser: StateFlow<User?> = _currentUser
7
8      fun loadUser(userId: Long) {
9          viewModelScope.launch {
10              _currentUser.value = dao.getUserById(userId)
11          }
12      }
13  }
14
15  // SharedFlow: hot stream, no initial value required, configurable replay
16  class EventManager {
17      private val _events = MutableSharedFlow<AppEvent>(replay = 0)
18      val events: SharedFlow<AppEvent> = _events
19
20      suspend fun sendEvent(event: AppEvent) {
21          _events.emit(event)
22      }
23  }
24
25  sealed class AppEvent {

```

```
26     object UserLoggedIn : AppEvent()
27     object UserLoggedOut : AppEvent()
28     data class NavigationRequested(val route: String) : AppEvent()
29 }
```

Flow vs LiveData

Feature	StateFlow	LiveData
Null safety	Type-safe nullable types	Requires explicit null checks
Initial value	Required for StateFlow	Optional
Backpressure	Built-in operators	Limited
Testing	Easy with TestDispatcher	Requires main dispatcher override
Lifecycle awareness	Manual (repeatOnLifecycle)	Automatic
Compose integration	Direct collectAsStateWithLifecycle	Requires asStateFlow() conversion

For new projects, StateFlow combined with collectAsStateWithLifecycle() in Compose is the recommended approach.

Kotlin Multiplatform: Shared Business Logic

Kotlin Multiplatform (KMP) allows you to share business logic across Android, iOS, desktop, and web platforms while keeping platform-specific UI code native.

What Can Be Shared

- **Network layer:** API clients, data models, serialization
- **Business logic:** Use cases, validation rules, domain models
- **Data storage:** Room-compatible databases (SQLite), preferences
- **Utilities:** Date formatting, string manipulation, encryption

What Remains Platform-Specific

- **UI:** Compose for Android, SwiftUI for iOS
- **Platform APIs:** Sensors, camera, notifications
- **Native libraries:** Platform-specific SDKs

Basic KMP Project Structure

```

1  shared/
2  └─ src/
3     └─ commonMain/kotlin/
4        └─ data/
5           └─ repository/
6              └─ model/
7         └─ domain/
8            └─ usecase/
9               └─ model/
10        └─ di/
11     └─ androidMain/kotlin/
12        └─ Platform.android.kt
13     └─ iosMain/kotlin/
14        └─ Platform.ios.kt

```

```

1  // Expect/Actual pattern for platform-specific code
2  // In commonMain:
3  expect object Platform {
4      val name: String
5  }
6
7  // In androidMain:
8  actual object Platform {
9      actual val name: String = "Android ${android.os.Build.VERSION.SDK_INT}"
10 }
11
12 // In iosMain:
13 actual object Platform {
14     actual val name: String = "iOS"
15 }

```

When to Use KMP

Kotlin Multiplatform makes sense when:

- You are building applications for both Android and iOS
- Significant business logic can be shared between platforms
- Your team has Kotlin expertise but limited iOS development resources
- You want to maintain native UI quality on each platform

For Android-only projects, the complexity of KMP may not justify the benefits. Focus on mastering Android-specific patterns first.

Chapter Summary

Kotlin is the foundation of modern Android development. Its null safety eliminates an entire category of runtime errors. Its conciseness reduces boilerplate without sacrificing clarity. Coroutines and Flow provide elegant solutions for asynchronous programming that respect Android's lifecycle model. Extension functions, data classes, scope functions, and when expressions make everyday coding more pleasant.

In the next chapter, we explore modern app architecture patterns: how to structure your codebase for maintainability, testability, and scalability using MVVM, MVI, Clean Architecture, and dependency injection with Hilt.

Exercises

1. Create a Kotlin data class representing a blog post with fields for title, author, content, publish date, and a list of tags. Write extension functions to format the post as a preview string and to check if it contains a search term.
2. Write a coroutine that fetches data from a simulated API (use `delay()` instead of actual network calls), transforms the result, and emits it through a `StateFlow`. Collect the flow in a lifecycle-aware manner.
3. Convert a Java class with nullable fields, getter/setter methods, and a switch statement to idiomatic Kotlin using data classes, properties, and when expressions.
4. Research Kotlin Multiplatform and identify three libraries that support KMP for networking, serialization, and dependency injection.

Interview Questions

1. What is the difference between a nullable type (`String?`) and a non-nullable type (`String`) in Kotlin, and how does the compiler enforce this distinction?
2. Explain the difference between `let`, `run`, `with`, `apply`, and `also`. When would you use each one?
3. What is structured concurrency in Kotlin coroutines, and why is it important for Android development?
4. How do `StateFlow` and `SharedFlow` differ, and when would you choose one over the other?
5. What are the benefits of using Kotlin Multiplatform, and what types of code should remain platform-specific?

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