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# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)  
UNIT 1 PPT SLIDES

## TEXT BOOKS:

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th editon, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
  2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, pearson eduction.
- 

No. of slides: 24

# INDEX

## UNIT 1 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Need for oop paradigm, A way of viewing world – Agents	L1	L1.1 TO L1.4
2	Responsibility, Messages, Methods	L2	L2.1 TO L2.3
3	classes and instances, class hierarchies, Inheritance	L3	L3.1 TO L3.6
4	method binding overriding and exceptions	L 4	L4.1 TO L4.5
5	summary of oop concepts, coping with complexity, abstraction mechanisms	L5	L5.1 TO 5.4

# Need for OOP Paradigm

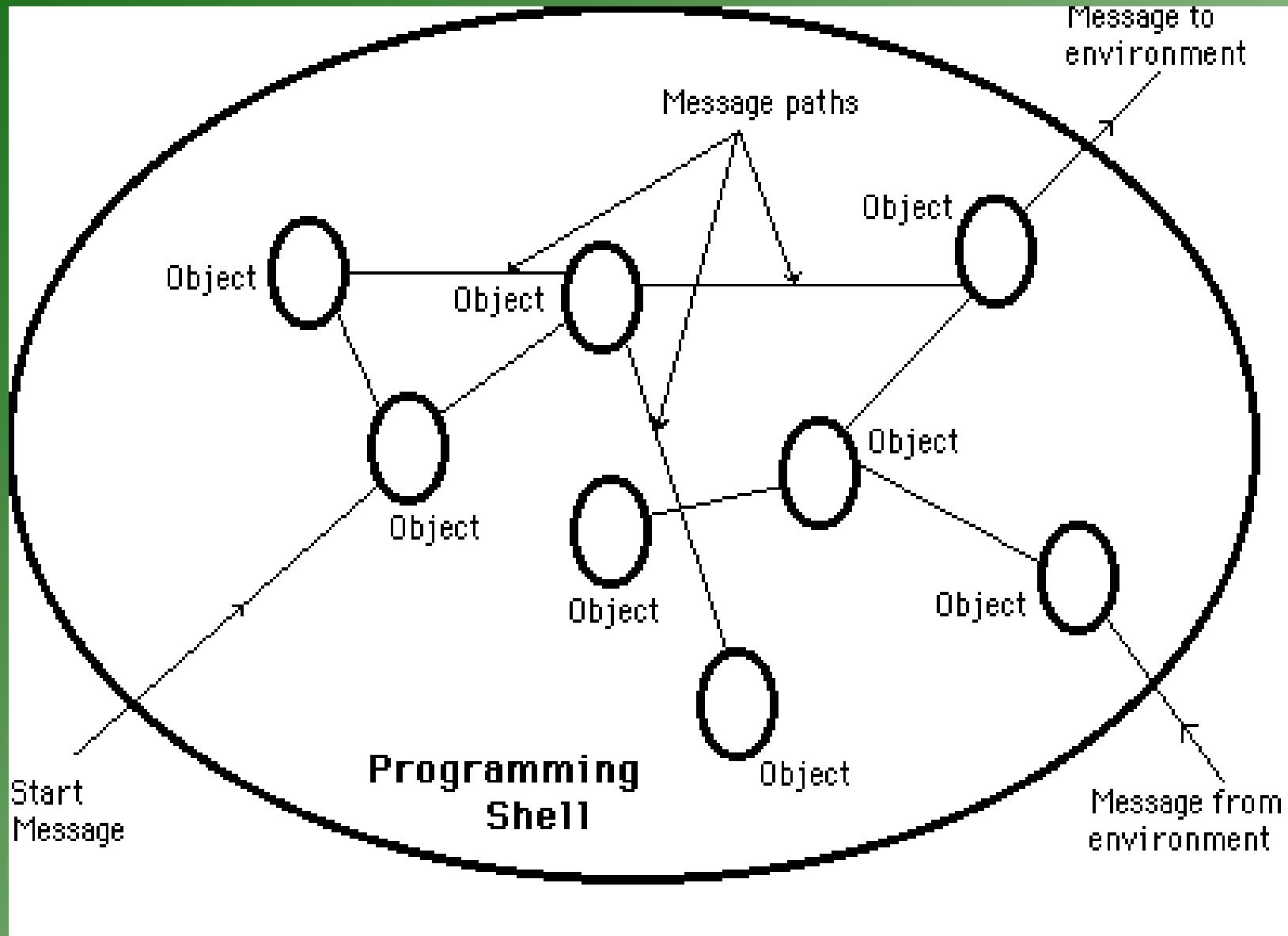
- OOP is an approach to program organization and development, which attempts to eliminate some of the drawbacks of conventional programming methods by incorporating the best of structured programming features with several new concepts.
- OOP allows us to decompose a problem into number of entities called objects and then build data and methods (functions) around these entities.
- The data of an object can be accessed only by the methods associated with the object.

## **Some of the Object-Oriented Paradigm are:**

1. Emphasis is on data rather than procedure.
2. Programs are divided into objects.
3. Data Structures are designed such that they Characterize the objects.
4. Methods that operate on the data of an object are tied together in the data structure.
5. Data is hidden and can not be accessed by external functions.
6. Objects may communicate with each other through methods.

# A way of viewing world – Agents

- OOP uses an approach of treating a real world agent as an object.
- Object-oriented programming organizes a program around its data (that is, objects) and a set of well-defined interfaces to that data.
- An object-oriented program can be characterized as *data controlling access to code* by switching the controlling entity to data.



# Responsibility

- primary motivation is the need for a platform-independent (that is, architecture- neutral) language that could be used to create software to be embedded in various consumer electronic devices, such as microwave ovens and remote controls.
- Objects with clear responsibilities
- Each class should have a clear responsibility.
- If you can't state the purpose of a class in a single, clear sentence, then perhaps your class structure needs some thought.

# Messages

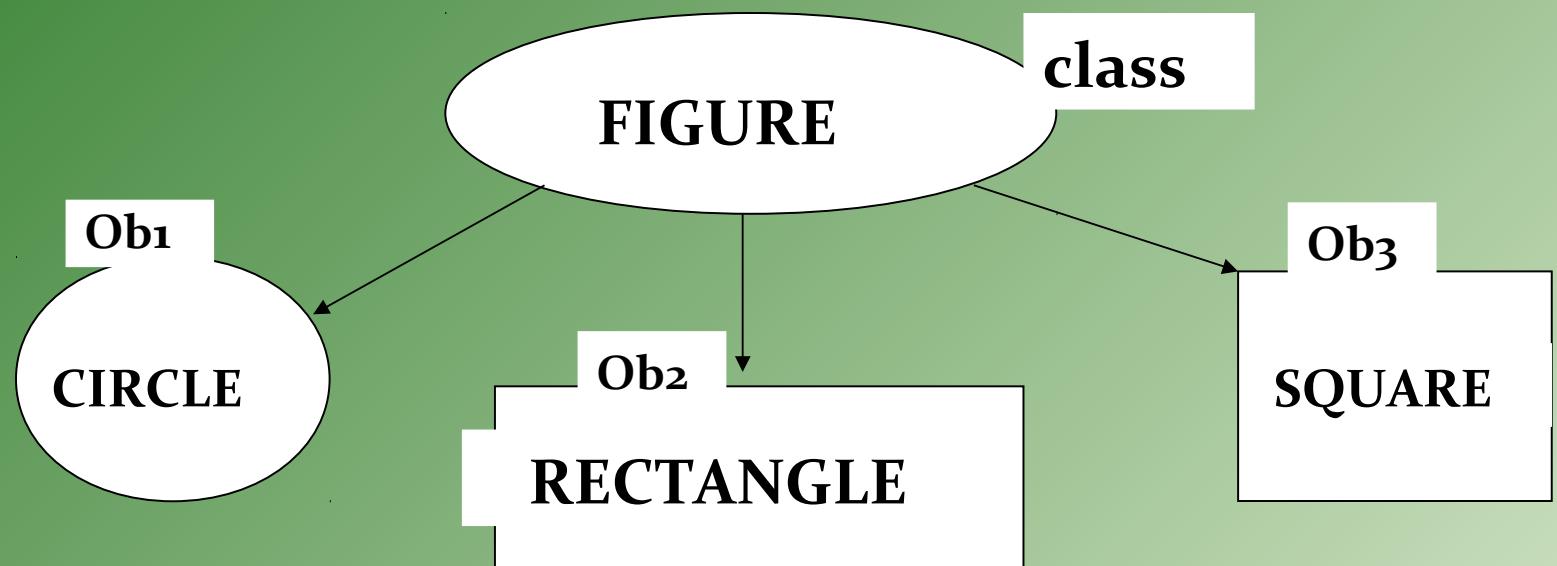
- We all like to use programs that let us know what's going on. Programs that keep us informed often do so by displaying status and error messages.
- These messages need to be translated so they can be understood by end users around the world.
- The Section discusses translatable text messages. Usually, you're done after you move a message String into a ResourceBundle.
- If you've embedded variable data in a message, you'll have to take some extra steps to prepare it for translation.

# Methods

- A method is a group of instructions that is given a name and can be called up at any point in a program simply by quoting that name.
- Drawing a Triangle require draw of three straight lines. This instruction three times to draw a simple triangle.
- We can define a method to call this instruction three times and draw the triangle(i.e. create a method drawLine() to draw lines and this method is called repeatedly to achieve the needed task)
- The idea of methods appears in all programming languages, although sometimes it goes under the name *functions* and sometimes under the name *procedures*.
- The name *methods* is a throw-back to the language C++, from which Java was developed.
- In C++, there is an object called a *class* which can contain methods. However, everything in Java is enclosed within a class .so the functions within it are called methods

# CLASSES

- Class is blue print or an idea of an Object
- From One class any number of Instances can be created
- It is an encapsulation of attributes and methods



# syntax of CLASS

```
class <ClassName>
{
    attributes/variables;
    Constructors();
    methods();
}
```

# INSTANCE

- **Instance is an Object of a class which is an entity with its own attribute values and methods.**
- **Creating an Instance**

**ClassName refVariable;**

**refVariable = new Constructor();**

**or**

**ClassName refVariable = new Constructor();**

# Java Class Hierarchy

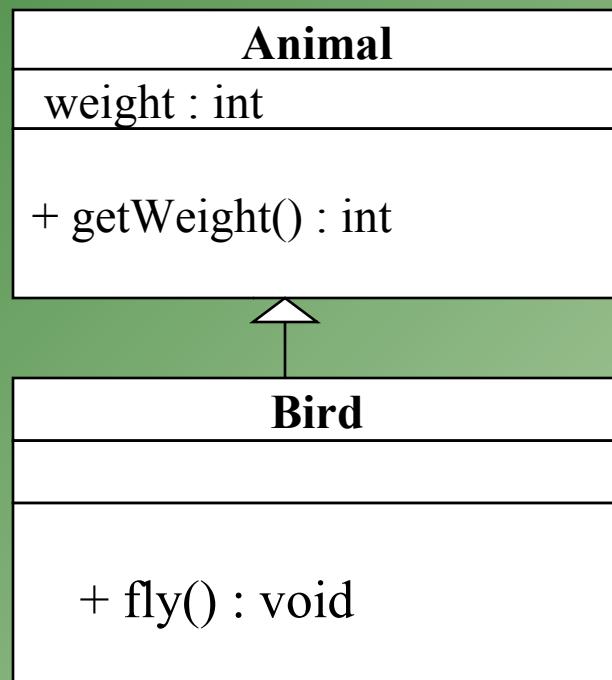
- In Java, class “Object” is the base class to all other classes
  - If we do not explicitly say extends in a new class definition, it implicitly extends Object
  - The tree of classes that extend from Object and all of its subclasses are is called the class hierarchy
  - All classes eventually lead back up to Object
  - This will enable consistent access of objects of different classes.

# Inheritance

- Methods allows to reuse a sequence of statements
- *Inheritance* allows to reuse classes by deriving a new class from an existing one
- The existing class is called the *parent class*, or *superclass*, or *base class*
- The derived class is called the *child class* or *subclass*.
- The child class inherits characteristics of the parent class(i.e the child class *inherits* the methods and data defined for the parent class

# Inheritance

- Inheritance relationships are often shown graphically in a *class diagram*, with the arrow pointing to the parent class



# Method Binding

- Objects are used to call methods.
- **MethodBinding** is an object that can be used to call an arbitrary public method, on an instance that is acquired by evaluating the leading portion of a method binding expression via a value binding.
- It is legal for a class to have two or more methods with the same name.
- Java has to be able to uniquely associate the invocation of a method with its definition relying on the number and types of arguments.
- Therefore the same-named methods must be distinguished:
  - 1) by the number of arguments, or
  - 2) by the types of arguments
- Overloading and inheritance are two ways to implement polymorphism.

# Method Overriding.

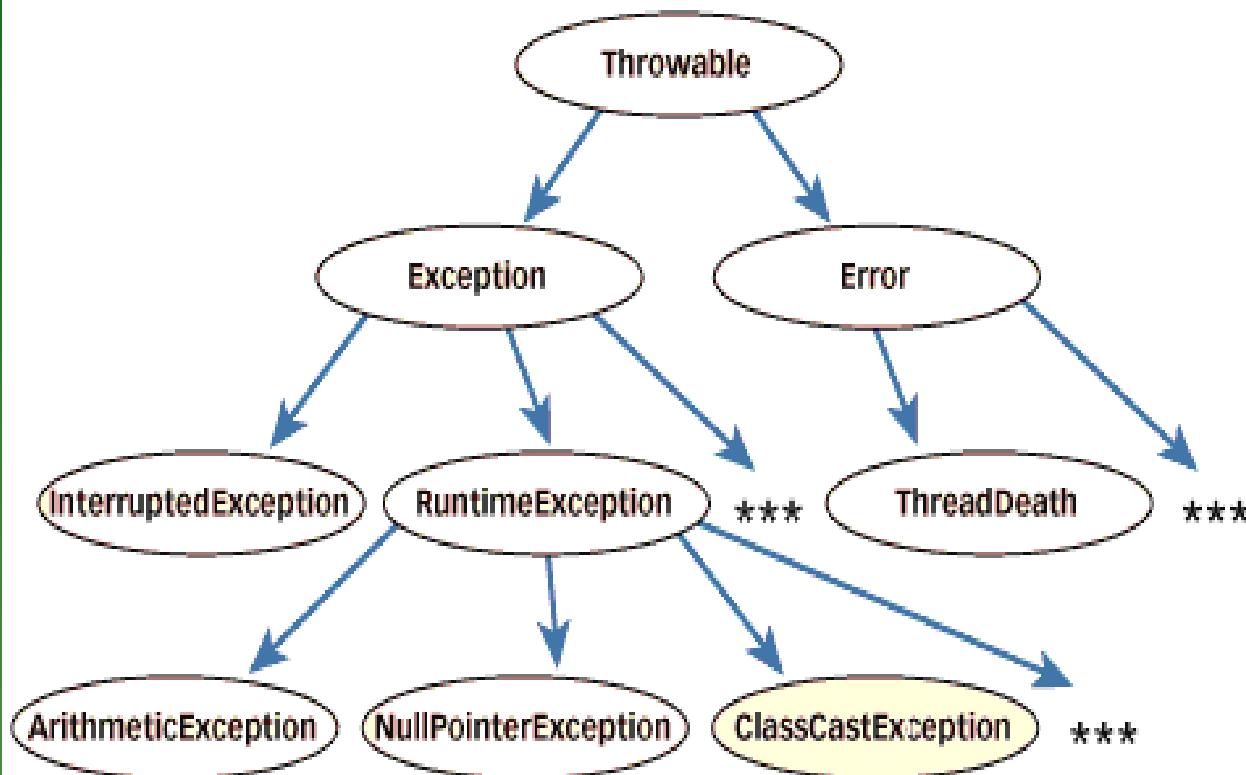
- There may be some occasions when we want an object to respond to the same method but have different behaviour when that method is called.
- That means, we should override the method defined in the superclass. This is possible by defining a method in a sub class that has the same name, same arguments and same return type as a method in the superclass.
- Then when that method is called, the method defined in the sub class is invoked and executed instead of the one in the superclass. This is known as overriding.

# Exceptions in Java

- Exception is an abnormal condition that arises in the code sequence.
- Exceptions occur during compile time or run time.
- “`Throwable`” is the super class in exception hierarchy.
- Compile time errors occurs due to incorrect syntax.
- Run-time errors happen when
  - User enters incorrect input
  - Resource is not available (ex. file)
  - Logic error (bug) that was not fixed

# Exception classes

- In Java, exceptions are objects. When you throw an exception, you throw an object. You can't throw just any object as an exception, however -- only those objects whose classes descend from `Throwable`.
- `Throwable` serves as the base class for an entire family of classes, declared in `java.lang`, that your program can instantiate and throw.
- `Throwable` has two direct subclasses, `Exception` and `Error`.
- Exceptions are thrown to signal abnormal conditions that can often be handled by some catcher, though it's possible they may not be caught and therefore could result in a dead thread.
- Errors are usually thrown for more serious problems, such as `OutOfMemoryError`, that may not be so easy to handle. In general, code you write should throw only exceptions, not errors.
- Errors are usually thrown by the methods of the Java API, or by the Java virtual machine itself.



# Summary of OOPS

The following are the basic oops concepts: They are as follows:

1. Objects.
2. Classes.
3. Data Abstraction.
4. Data Encapsulation.
5. Inheritance.
6. Polymorphism.
7. Dynamic Binding.
8. Message Passing.

# Abstraction in Object-Oriented Programming

## Procedural Abstraction

- Procedural Abstractions organize instructions.



**Function Power**

**Give me two numbers (base & exponent)**

**I'll return  $\text{base}^{\text{exponent}}$**

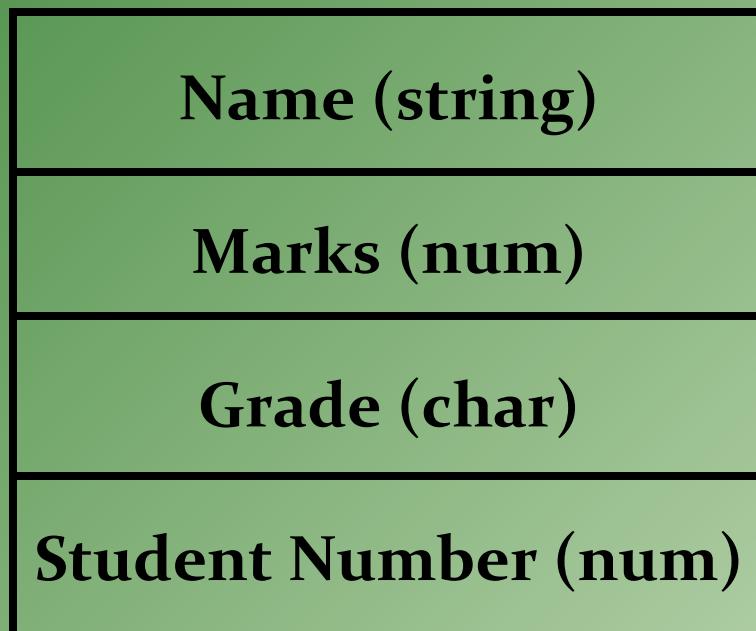


**Implementation**

# Data Abstraction

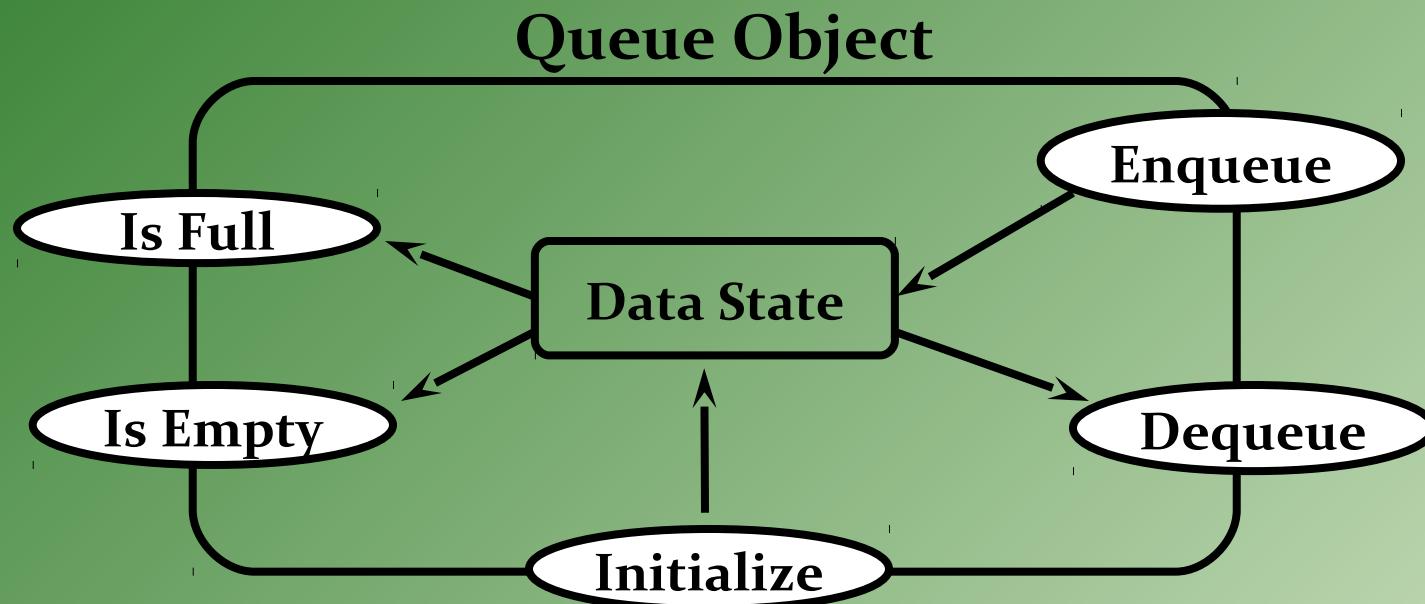
- Data Abstractions organize data.

**StudentType**



# Behavioral Abstraction

- Behavioral Abstractions combine procedural and data abstractions.



UNIVERSITY-2

# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)

UNIT 2 PPT SLIDES

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th editon, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
  2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, pearson eduction.
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No. of slides: 85

# INDEX

## UNIT 2 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	History of Java, Java buzzwords, data types.	L1 L1.1 TO L1.20	
2	variables, scope and life time of variables,L2 arrays, operators, expressions	L2.1 TO L2.20	
3	control statements, type conversion and costing	L3	L3.1 TO L3.9
4	simple java program, L 4 classes and objects – concepts of classes	L4.1 TO L4.8	
5	objects, constructors, methods	L5	L5.1 TO 5.6
6	Access control, this keyword, L6 garbage collection	L6.1 TO 6.8	
7	overloading methods and constructors, L7 parameter passing	L7.1 TO 7.6	
8	Recursion, string handling.	L8	L 8.1 TO 8.6

# Java History

- Computer language innovation and development occurs for two fundamental reasons:
  - 1) to adapt to changing environments and uses
  - 2) to implement improvements in the art of programming
- The development of Java was driven by both in equal measures.
- Many Java features are inherited from the earlier languages:

B → C → C++ → Java

# Before Java: C

- Designed by Dennis Ritchie in 1970s.
- Before C: BASIC, COBOL, FORTRAN, PASCAL
- C- structured, efficient, high-level language that could replace assembly code when creating systems programs.
- Designed, implemented and tested by programmers.

# Before Java: C++

- Designed by Bjarne Stroustrup in 1979.
- Response to the increased complexity of programs and respective improvements in the programming paradigms and methods:
  - 1) assembler languages
  - 2) high-level languages
  - 3) structured programming
  - 4) object-oriented programming (OOP)
- OOP – methodology that helps organize complex programs through the use of inheritance, encapsulation and polymorphism.
- C++ extends C by adding object-oriented features.

# Java: History

- In 1990, Sun Microsystems started a project called Green.
- Objective: to develop software for consumer electronics.
- Project was assigned to James Gosling, a veteran of classic network software design. Others included Patrick Naughton, Chris Warth, Ed Frank, and Mike Sheridan.
- The team started writing programs in C++ for embedding into
  - toasters
  - washing machines
  - VCR's
- Aim was to make these appliances more “intelligent”.

# Java: History (contd.)

- C++ is powerful, but also dangerous. The power and popularity of C derived from the extensive use of pointers. However, any incorrect use of pointers can cause memory leaks, leading the program to crash.
- In a complex program, such memory leaks are often hard to detect.
- Robustness is essential. Users have come to expect that Windows may crash or that a program running under Windows may crash. (“This program has performed an illegal operation and will be shut down”)
- However, users do not expect toasters to crash, or washing machines to crash.
- A design for consumer electronics has to be *robust*.
- Replacing pointers by references, and automating memory management was the proposed solution.

# Java: History (contd.)

- Hence, the team built a new programming language called Oak, which avoided potentially dangerous constructs in C++, such as pointers, pointer arithmetic, operator overloading etc.
- Introduced automatic memory management, freeing the programmer to concentrate on other things.
- Architecture neutrality (Platform independence)
- Many different CPU's are used as controllers. Hardware chips are evolving rapidly. As better chips become available, older chips become obsolete and their production is stopped. Manufacturers of toasters and washing machines would like to use the chips available off the shelf, and would not like to reinvest in compiler development every two-three years.
- So, the software and programming language had to be *architecture neutral*.

# Java: History (contd)

- It was soon realized that these design goals of consumer electronics perfectly suited an ideal programming language for the Internet and WWW, which should be:
  - ❖ object-oriented (& support GUI)
  - ❖ – robust
  - ❖ – architecture neutral
- Internet programming presented a BIG business opportunity. Much bigger than programming for consumer electronics.
- Java was “re-targeted” for the Internet
- The team was expanded to include Bill Joy (developer of Unix), Arthur van Hoff, Jonathan Payne, Frank Yellin, Tim Lindholm etc.
- In 1994, an early web browser called WebRunner was written in Oak. WebRunner was later renamed HotJava.
- In 1995, Oak was renamed Java.
- A common story is that the name Java relates to the place from where the development team got its coffee. The name Java survived the trade mark search.

# Java History

- Designed by James Gosling, Patrick Naughton, Chris Warth, Ed Frank and Mike Sheridan at Sun Microsystems in 1991.
- The original motivation is not Internet: platform-independent software embedded in consumer electronics devices.
- With Internet, the urgent need appeared to break the fortified positions of Intel, Macintosh and Unix programmer communities.
- Java as an “Internet version of C++”? No.
- Java was not designed to replace C++, but to solve a different set of problems.

# The Java Buzzwords

- The key considerations were summed up by the Java team in the following list of buzzwords:
  - ❖ Simple
  - ❖ Secure
  - ❖ Portable
  - ❖ Object-oriented
  - ❖ Robust
  - ❖ Multithreaded
  - ❖ Architecture-neutral
  - ❖ Interpreted
  - ❖ High performance
  - ❖ Distributed
  - ❖ Dynamic

- **simple** – Java is designed to be easy for the professional programmer to learn and use.
- **object-oriented**: a clean, usable, pragmatic approach to objects, not restricted by the need for compatibility with other languages.
- **Robust**: restricts the programmer to find the mistakes early, performs compile-time (strong typing) and run-time (exception-handling) checks, manages memory automatically.
- **Multithreaded**: supports multi-threaded programming for writing program that perform concurrent computations

- **Architecture-neutral:** Java Virtual Machine provides a platform independent environment for the execution of Java byte code
- **Interpreted and high-performance:** Java programs are compiled into an intermediate representation – byte code:
  - a) can be later interpreted by any JVM
  - b) can be also translated into the native machine code for efficiency.

- **Distributed:** Java handles TCP/IP protocols, accessing a resource through its URL much like accessing a local file.
- **Dynamic:** substantial amounts of run-time type information to verify and resolve access to objects at run-time.
- **Secure:** programs are confined to the Java execution environment and cannot access other parts of the computer.

- **Portability:** Many types of computers and operating systems are in use throughout the world—and many are connected to the Internet.
- For programs to be dynamically downloaded to all the various types of platforms connected to the Internet, some means of generating portable executable code is needed. The same mechanism that helps ensure security also helps create portability.
- Indeed, Java's solution to these two problems is both elegant and efficient.

# Data Types

- Java defines eight simple types:
  - 1)byte – 8-bit integer type
  - 2)short – 16-bit integer type
  - 3)int – 32-bit integer type
  - 4)long – 64-bit integer type
  - 5)float – 32-bit floating-point type
  - 6)double – 64-bit floating-point type
  - 7)char – symbols in a character set
  - 8)boolean – logical values true and false

- byte: 8-bit integer type.

Range: -128 to 127.

Example: byte b = -15;

Usage: particularly when working with data streams.

- short: 16-bit integer type.

Range: -32768 to 32767.

Example: short c = 1000;

Usage: probably the least used simple type.

- **int:** 32-bit integer type.

Range: -2147483648 to 2147483647.

Example: int b = -50000;

Usage:

- 1) Most common integer type.
- 2) Typically used to control loops and to index arrays.
- 3) Expressions involving the byte, short and int values are promoted to int before calculation.

- **long:** 64-bit integer type.

Range: -9223372036854775808 to  
9223372036854775807.

Example: long l = 1000000000000000;

Usage: 1) useful when int type is not large enough to hold the desired value

- **float:** 32-bit floating-point number.

Range: 1.4e-045 to 3.4e+038.

Example: float f = 1.5;

Usage:

1) fractional part is needed

2) large degree of precision is not required

- **double:** 64-bit floating-point number.

Range:  $4.9 \times 10^{-324}$  to  $1.8 \times 10^{308}$ .

Example: double pi = 3.1416;

Usage:

- 1) accuracy over many iterative calculations
- 2) manipulation of large-valued numbers

**char:** 16-bit data type used to store characters.

Range: 0 to 65536.

Example: char c = 'a';

Usage:

- 1) Represents both ASCII and Unicode character sets;  
    Unicode defines a  
    character set with characters found in (almost) all  
    human languages.
- 2) Not the same as in C/C++ where char is 8-bit and  
    represents ASCII only.

- **boolean**: Two-valued type of logical values.

Range: values true and false.

Example: boolean b = (1<2);

Usage:

- 1) returned by relational operators, such as `1<2`
- 2) required by branching expressions such as  
`if` or `for`

# Variables

- declaration – how to assign a type to a variable
- initialization – how to give an initial value to a variable
- scope – how the variable is visible to other parts of the program
- lifetime – how the variable is created, used and destroyed
- type conversion – how Java handles automatic type conversion
- type casting – how the type of a variable can be narrowed down
- type promotion – how the type of a variable can be expanded

# Variables

- Java uses variables to store data.
- To allocate memory space for a variable JVM requires:
  - 1) to specify the data type of the variable
  - 2) to associate an identifier with the variable
  - 3) optionally, the variable may be assigned an initial value
- All done as part of variable declaration.

# Basic Variable Declaration

- datatype identifier [=value];
- datatype must be
  - A simple datatype
  - User defined datatype (class type)
- Identifier is a recognizable name conform to identifier rules
- Value is an optional initial value.

# Variable Declaration

- We can declare several variables at the same time:  
type identifier [=value][, identifier [=value] ...];

Examples:

int a, b, c;

int d = 3, e, f = 5;

byte g = 22;

double pi = 3.14159;

char ch = 'x';

# Variable Scope

- Scope determines the visibility of program elements with respect to other program elements.
- In Java, scope is defined separately for classes and methods:
  - variables defined by a class have a global scope
  - variables defined by a method have a local scopeA scope is defined by a block:

```
{  
...  
}
```

A variable declared inside the scope is not visible outside:

```
{  
int n;  
}
```

```
n = 1; // this is illegal
```

# Variable Lifetime

- Variables are created when their scope is entered by control flow and destroyed when their scope is left:
- A variable declared in a method will not hold its value between different invocations of this method.
- A variable declared in a block loses its value when the block is left.
- Initialized in a block, a variable will be re-initialized with every re-entry. Variables lifetime is confined to its scope!

# Arrays

- An array is a group of liked-typed variables referred to by a common name, with individual variables accessed by their index.
- Arrays are:
  - 1) declared
  - 2) created
  - 3) initialized
  - 4) used
- Also, arrays can have one or several dimensions.

# Array Declaration

- Array declaration involves:
  - 1) declaring an array identifier
  - 2) declaring the number of dimensions
  - 3) declaring the data type of the array elements
- Two styles of array declaration:

type array-variable[];

or

type [] array-variable;

# Array Creation

- After declaration, no array actually exists.
- In order to create an array, we use the new operator:

```
type array-variable[];  
array-variable = new type[size];
```

- This creates a new array to hold size elements of type type, which reference will be kept in the variable array-variable.

# Array Indexing

- Later we can refer to the elements of this array through their indexes:
- array-variable[index]
- The array index always starts with zero!
- The Java run-time system makes sure that all array indexes are in the correct range, otherwise raises a run-time error.

# Array Initialization

- Arrays can be initialized when they are declared:
- `int monthDays[] = {31,28,31,30,31,30,31,31,30,31,30,31};`
- Note:
  - 1) there is no need to use the new operator
  - 2) the array is created large enough to hold all specified elements

# Multidimensional Arrays

- Multidimensional arrays are arrays of arrays:

- 1) declaration: int array[][];
- 2) creation: int array = new int[2][3];
- 3) initialization

```
int array[][] = { {1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6} };
```

# Operators Types

- Java operators are used to build value expressions.
- Java provides a rich set of operators:
  - 1) assignment
  - 2) arithmetic
  - 3) relational
  - 4) logical
  - 5) bitwise

# Arithmetic assignments

<code>+ =</code>	<code>v += expr;</code>	<code>v = v + expr ;</code>
<code>- =</code>	<code>v -=expr;</code>	<code>v = v - expr ;</code>
<code>* =</code>	<code>v *= expr;</code>	<code>v = v * expr ;</code>
<code>/ =</code>	<code>v /= expr;</code>	<code>v = v / expr ;</code>
<code>% =</code>	<code>v %= expr;</code>	<code>v = v % expr ;</code>

# Basic Arithmetic Operators

+	$op1 + op2$	ADD
-	$op1 - op2$	SUBTRACT
*	$op1 * op2$	MULTIPLY
/	$op1 / op2$	DIVISION
%	$op1 \% op2$	REMAINDER

# Relational operator

<code>==</code>	Equals to	Apply to any type
<code>!=</code>	Not equals to	Apply to any type
<code>&gt;</code>	Greater than	Apply to numerical type
<code>&lt;</code>	Less than	Apply to numerical type
<code>&gt;=</code>	Greater than or equal	Apply to numerical type
<code>&lt;=</code>	Less than or equal	Apply to numerical type

# Logical operators

&	$op1 \ \& \ op2$	Logical AND
	$op1 \   \ op2$	Logical OR
&&	$op1 \ \&\& \ op2$	Short-circuit AND
	$op1 \    \ op2$	Short-circuit OR
!	$! \ op$	Logical NOT
^	$op1 \ ^ \ op2$	Logical XOR

# Bit wise operators

<code>~</code>	<code>~op</code>	Inverts all bits
<code>&amp;</code>	<code>op1 &amp; op2</code>	Produces 1 bit if both operands are 1
<code> </code>	<code>op1  op2</code>	Produces 1 bit if either operand is 1
<code>^</code>	<code>op1 ^ op2</code>	Produces 1 bit if exactly one operand is 1
<code>&gt;&gt;</code>	<code>op1 &gt;&gt; op2</code>	Shifts all bits in op1 right by the value of op2
<code>&lt;&lt;</code>	<code>op1 &lt;&lt; op2</code>	Shifts all bits in op1 left by the value of op2

# Expressions

- An *expression* is a construct made up of variables, operators, and method invocations, which are constructed according to the syntax of the language, that evaluates to a single value.
- Examples of expressions are in bold below:

**int number = 0;**

**anArray[0] = 100;**

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

**int result = 1 + 2; // result is now 3 if(value1 ==  
value2)**

**System.out.println("value1 == value2");**

# Expressions

- The data type of the value returned by an expression depends on the elements used in the expression.
- The expression `number = 0` returns an `int` because the assignment operator returns a value of the same data type as its left-hand operand; in this case, `number` is an `int`.
- As you can see from the other expressions, an expression can return other types of values as well, such as `boolean` or `String`.
- The Java programming language allows you to construct compound expressions from various smaller expressions as long as the data type required by one part of the expression matches the data type of the other.
- Here's an example of a compound expression:  $1 * 2 * 3$

# Control Statements

- Java control statements cause the flow of execution to advance and branch based on the changes to the state of the program.
- Control statements are divided into three groups:
- 1) selection statements allow the program to choose different parts of the execution based on the outcome of an expression
- 2) iteration statements enable program execution to repeat one or more statements
- 3) jump statements enable your program to execute in a non-linear fashion

# Selection Statements

- Java selection statements allow to control the flow of program's execution based upon conditions known only during run-time.
- Java provides four selection statements:
  - 1) if
  - 2) if-else
  - 3) if-else-if
  - 4) switch

# Iteration Statements

- Java iteration statements enable repeated execution of part of a program until a certain termination condition becomes true.
- Java provides three iteration statements:
  - 1) while
  - 2) do-while
  - 3) for

# Jump Statements

- Java jump statements enable transfer of control to other parts of program.
- Java provides three jump statements:
  - 1) break
  - 2) continue
  - 3) return
- In addition, Java supports exception handling that can also alter the control flow of a program.

# Type Conversion

- Size Direction of Data Type
  - Widening Type Conversion (Casting down)
    - Smaller Data Type → Larger Data Type
  - Narrowing Type Conversion (Casting up)
    - Larger Data Type → Smaller Data Type
- Conversion done in two ways
  - Implicit type conversion
    - Carried out by compiler automatically
  - Explicit type conversion
    - Carried out by programmer using casting

# Type Conversion

- Widening Type Converstion
  - Implicit conversion by compiler automatically

byte -> short, int, long, float, double

short -> int, long, float, double

char -> int, long, float, double

int -> long, float, double

long -> float, double

float -> double

# Type Conversion

- Narrowing Type Conversion
  - Programmer should describe the conversion explicitly

byte -> char

short -> byte, char

char -> byte, short

int -> byte, short, char

long -> byte, short, char, int

float -> byte, short, char, int, long

double -> byte, short, char, int, long, float

# Type Conversion

- byte and short are always promoted to int
- if one operand is long, the whole expression is promoted to long
- if one operand is float, the entire expression is promoted to float
- if any operand is double, the result is double

# Type Casting

- General form: (targetType) value
- Examples:
  - 1) integer value will be reduced module bytes range:

```
int i;
byte b = (byte) i;
```
  - 2) floating-point value will be truncated to integer value:

```
float f;
int i = (int) f;
```

# Simple Java Program

- A class to display a simple message:

```
class MyProgram
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.println("First Java program.");
    }
}
```

# What is an Object?

- Real world objects are things that have:
  - 1) state
  - 2) behavior

Example: your dog:
- state – name, color, breed, sits?, barks?, wags tail?, runs?
- behavior – sitting, barking, wagging tail, running
- A software object is a bundle of variables (state) and methods (operations).

# What is a Class?

- A class is a blueprint that defines the variables and methods common to all objects of a certain kind.
- Example: ‘your dog’ is a object of the class Dog.
- An object holds values for the variables defines in the class.
- An object is called an instance of the Class

# Object Creation

- A variable is declared to refer to the objects of type/class String:  
`String s;`
- The value of s is null; it does not yet refer to any object.
- A new String object is created in memory with initial “abc” value:
- `String s = new String("abc");`
- Now s contains the address of this new object.

# Object Destruction

- A program accumulates memory through its execution.
- Two mechanism to free memory that is no longer need by the program:
  - 1) manual – done in C/C++
  - 2) automatic – done in Java
- In Java, when an object is no longer accessible through any variable, it is eventually removed from the memory by the garbage collector.
- Garbage collector is parts of the Java Run-Time Environment.

# Class

- A basis for the Java language.
- Each concept we wish to describe in Java must be included inside a class.
- A class defines a new data type, whose values are objects:
- A class is a template for objects
- An object is an instance of a class

# Class Definition

- A class contains a name, several variable declarations (instance variables) and several method declarations. All are called members of the class.
- General form of a class:

```
class classname {  
    type instance-variable-1;  
    ...  
    type instance-variable-n;  
    type method-name-1(parameter-list) { ... }  
    type method-name-2(parameter-list) { ... }  
    ...  
    type method-name-m(parameter-list) { ... }  
}
```

# Example: Class Usage

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
}  
  
class BoxDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Box mybox = new Box();  
        double vol;  
        mybox.width = 10;  
        mybox.height = 20;  
        mybox.depth = 15;  
        vol = mybox.width * mybox.height * mybox.depth;  
        System.out.println ("Volume is " + vol);  
    } }
```

# Constructor

- A constructor initializes the instance variables of an object.
- It is called immediately after the object is created but before the new operator completes.
  - 1) it is syntactically similar to a method:
  - 2) it has the same name as the name of its class
  - 3) it is written without return type; the default return type of a class
- constructor is the same class
- When the class has no constructor, the default constructor automatically initializes all its instance variables with zero.

# Example: Constructor

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
    Box() {  
        System.out.println("Constructing Box");  
        width = 10; height = 10; depth = 10;  
    }  
    double volume() {  
        return width * height * depth;  
    }  
}
```

# Parameterized Constructor

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
    Box(double w, double h, double d) {  
        width = w; height = h; depth = d;  
    }  
    double volume()  
    { return width * height * depth;  
    }  
}
```

# Methods

- General form of a method definition:

```
type name(parameter-list) {  
    ... return value;  
    ...  
}
```
- Components:
  - 1) type - type of values returned by the method. If a method does not return any value, its return type must be void.
  - 2) name is the name of the method
  - 3) parameter-list is a sequence of type-identifier lists separated by commas
  - 4) return value indicates what value is returned by the method.

# Example: Method

- Classes declare methods to hide their internal data structures, as well as for their own internal use: Within a class, we can refer directly to its member variables:

```
class Box {  
    double width, height, depth;  
    void volume() {  
        System.out.print("Volume is ");  
        System.out.println(width * height * depth);  
    }  
}
```

# Parameterized Method

- Parameters increase generality and applicability of a method:
  - 1) method without parameters

```
int square() { return 10*10; }
```
  - 2) method with parameters

```
int square(int i) { return i*i; }
```
- Parameter: a variable receiving value at the time the method is invoked.
- Argument: a value passed to the method when it is invoked.

# Access Control: Data Hiding and Encapsulation

- Java provides control over the *visibility* of variables and methods.
- *Encapsulation*, safely sealing data within the *capsule* of the class Prevents programmers from relying on details of class implementation, so you can update without worry
- Helps in protecting against accidental or wrong usage.
- Keeps code elegant and clean (easier to maintain)

# Access Modifiers: Public, Private, Protected

- *Public*: keyword applied to a class, makes it available/visible everywhere. Applied to a method or variable, completely visible.
- Default(No visibility modifier is specified): it behaves like public in its package and private in other packages.
- *Default Public* keyword applied to a class, makes it available/visible everywhere. Applied to a method or variable, completely visible.

- *Private* fields or methods for a class only visible within that class. Private members are *not* visible within subclasses, and are *not* inherited.
- *Protected* members of a class are visible within the class, subclasses and *also* within all classes that are in the same package as that class.

# Visibility

```
public class Circle {  
    private double x,y,r;  
  
    // Constructor  
    public Circle (double x, double y, double r) {  
        this.x = x;  
        this.y = y;  
        this.r = r;  
    }  
    //Methods to return circumference and area  
    public double circumference() { return 2*3.14*r; }  
    public double area() { return 3.14 * r * r; }  
}
```

# Keyword this

- Can be used by any object to refer to itself in any class method
- Typically used to
  - Avoid variable name collisions
  - Pass the receiver as an argument
  - Chain constructors

# Keyword this

- Keyword this allows a method to refer to the object that invoked it.
- It can be used inside any method to refer to the current object:

```
Box(double width, double height, double depth) {  
    this.width = width;  
    this.height = height;  
    this.depth = depth;  
}
```

# Garbage Collection

- Garbage collection is a mechanism to remove objects from memory when they are no longer needed.
- Garbage collection is carried out by the garbage collector:
- 1) The garbage collector keeps track of how many references an object has.
- 2) It removes an object from memory when it has no longer any references.
- 3) Thereafter, the memory occupied by the object can be allocated again.
- 4) The garbage collector invokes the finalize method.

# finalize() Method

- A constructor helps to initialize an object just after it has been created.
- In contrast, the finalize method is invoked just before the object is destroyed:
  - 1) implemented inside a class as:

```
protected void finalize() { ... }
```
  - 2) implemented when the usual way of removing objects from memory is insufficient, and some special actions has to be carried out

# Method Overloading

- It is legal for a class to have two or more methods with the same name.
- However, Java has to be able to uniquely associate the invocation of a method with its definition relying on the number and types of arguments.
- Therefore the same-named methods must be distinguished:
  - 1) by the number of arguments, or
  - 2) by the types of arguments
- Overloading and inheritance are two ways to implement polymorphism.

# Example: Overloading

```
class OverloadDemo {  
void test() {  
System.out.println("No parameters");  
}  
void test(int a) {  
System.out.println("a: " + a);  
}  
void test(int a, int b) {  
System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);  
}  
double test(double a) {  
System.out.println("double a: " + a); return a*a;  
}  
}
```

# Constructor Overloading

```
class Box {  
    double width, height, depth;  
    Box(double w, double h, double d) {  
        width = w; height = h; depth = d;  
    }  
    Box() {  
        width = -1; height = -1; depth = -1;  
    }  
    Box(double len) {  
        width = height = depth = len;  
    }  
    double volume() { return width * height * depth; }  
}
```

# Parameter Passing

- Two types of variables:
  - 1) simple types
  - 2) class types
- Two corresponding ways of how the arguments are passed to methods:
- 1) by value a method receives a copy of the original value; parameters of simple types
- 2) by reference a method receives the memory address of the original value, not the value itself; parameters of class types

# Call by value

```
class CallByValue {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Test ob = new Test();  
        int a = 15, b = 20;  
        System.out.print("a and b before call: ");  
        System.out.println(a + " " + b);  
        ob.meth(a, b);  
        System.out.print("a and b after call: ");  
        System.out.println(a + " " + b);  
    }  
}
```

# Call by refference

- As the parameter hold the same address as the argument, changes to the object inside the method do affect the object used by the argument:

```
class CallByRef {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Test ob = new Test(15, 20);  
        System.out.print("ob.a and ob.b before call: ");  
        System.out.println(ob.a + " " + ob.b);  
        ob.meth(ob);  
        System.out.print("ob.a and ob.b after call: ");  
        System.out.println(ob.a + " " + ob.b);  
    }  
}
```

# Recursion

- A recursive method is a method that calls itself:
  - 1) all method parameters and local variables are allocated on the stack
  - 2) arguments are prepared in the corresponding parameter positions
  - 3) the method code is executed for the new arguments
  - 4) upon return, all parameters and variables are removed from the stack
  - 5) the execution continues immediately after the invocation point

# Example: Recursion

```
class Factorial {  
int fact(int n) {  
if (n==1) return 1;  
return fact(n-1) * n;  
}  
}  
  
class Recursion {  
public static void main(String args[]) {  
Factorial f = new Factorial();  
System.out.print("Factorial of 5 is ");  
System.out.println(f.fact(5));  
} }
```

# String Handling

- **String** is probably the most commonly used class in Java's class library. The obvious reason for this is that strings are a very important part of programming.
- The first thing to understand about strings is that every string you create is actually an object of type **String**. Even string constants are actually **String** objects.
- For example, in the statement

```
System.out.println("This is a String, too");
```

the string "This is a String, too" is a **String** constant

- Java defines one operator for **String** objects: +.
- It is used to concatenate two strings. For example, this statement
- `String myString = "I" + " like " + "Java.;"`  
results in **myString** containing  
"I like Java."

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

```
class StringDemo2 {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        String strOb1 = "First String";  
        String strOb2 = "Second String";  
        String strOb3 = strOb1;  
        System.out.println("Length of strOb1: " +  
                           strOb1.length());  
    }  
}
```

```
System.out.println ("Char at index 3 in strOb1: " +  
strOb1.charAt(3));  
if(strOb1.equals(strOb2))
```

```
System.out.println("strOb1 == strOb2");  
else  
System.out.println("strOb1 != strOb2");  
if(strOb1.equals(strOb3))  
System.out.println("strOb1 == strOb3");  
else  
System.out.println("strOb1 != strOb3");  
} }
```

This program generates the following output:

```
Length of strOb1: 12  
Char at index 3 in strOb1: s  
strOb1 != strOb2  
strOb1 == strOb3
```

UNIVERSITY - 3

# **OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING**

**B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)**  
**UNIT 3 PPT SLIDES**

## **TEXT BOOKS:**

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th edition, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, Pearson education.

**No. of slides:66**

INDEX  
UNIT 3 PPT SLIDES

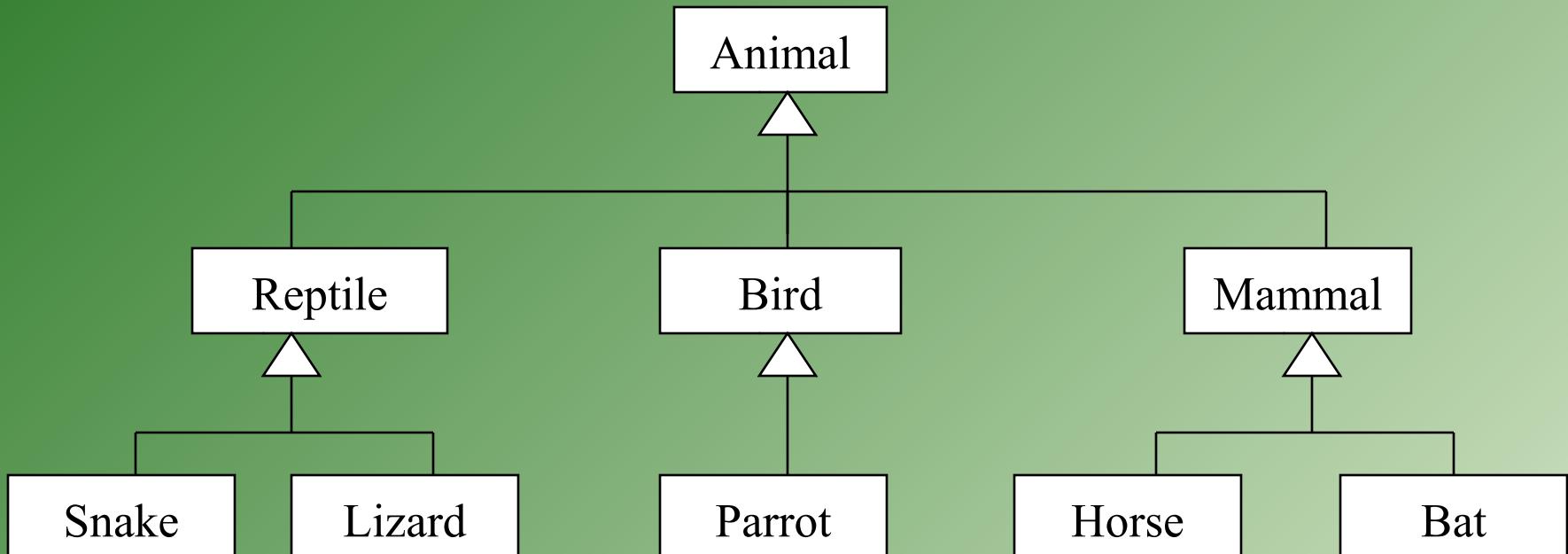
S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Hierarchical abstractions Base class object.		L1 L1.1 TO L1.9
2	subclass, subtype, substitutability.	L2	L2.1 TO L2.8
3	forms of inheritance- specialization, construction, extension, limitation, combination.	L3	L3.1 TO L3.5 specification.
4		L4	L4.1 TO L4.9
5	Benefits of inheritance, costs of inheritance.	L5	L5.1 TO 5.4
6	Member access rules, super uses, using final with inheritance.	L6	L6.1 TO 6.17
7	polymorphism- method overriding, abstract classes.	L7	L7.1 TO 7.11

# Hierarchical Abstraction

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

# Class Hierarchy

- A child class of one parent can be the parent of another child, forming *class hierarchies*



- At the top of the hierarchy there's a default class called *Object*.

# Class Hierarchy

- Good class design puts all common features as high in the hierarchy as reasonable
- The class hierarchy determines how methods are executed
- inheritance is transitive
  - An instance of class Parrot is also an instance of Bird, an instance of Animal, ..., and an instance of class Object

# Base Class Object

- In Java, all classes use inheritance.
- If no parent class is specified explicitly, the base class **Object** is implicitly inherited.
- All classes defined in Java, is a child of **Object** class, which provides minimal functionality guaranteed to be common to all objects.

# Base Class Object

## (cont)

**Methods defined in Object class are;**

- 1. `equals (Object obj)`** Determine whether the argument object is the same as the receiver.
- 2. `getClass ()`** Returns the class of the receiver, an object of type Class.
- 3. `hashCode ()`** Returns a hash value for this object. Should be overridden when the equals method is changed.
- 4. `toString ()`** Converts object into a string value. This method is also often overridden.

# Base class

- 1) a class obtains variables and methods from another class
- 2) the former is called subclass, the latter super-class (Base class)
- 3) a sub-class provides a specialized behavior with respect to its super-class
- 4) inheritance facilitates code reuse and avoids duplication of data

- One of the pillars of object-orientation.
- A new class is derived from an existing class:
  - 1) existing class is called super-class
  - 2) derived class is called sub-class
- A sub-class is a specialized version of its super-class:
  - 1) has all non-private members of its super-class
  - 2) may provide its own implementation of super-class methods
- Objects of a sub-class are a special kind of objects of a super-class.

# extends

- Is a keyword used to inherit a class from another class
- Allows to extend from only one class

**class One**

{

**int a=5;**

}

**class Two extends One**

{

**int b=10;**

}

- One **baseobj**// base class object.
- super class object **baseobj** can be used to refer its sub class objects.
- For example, **Two subobj=new Two;**
- **Baseobj=subobj** // now its pointing to sub class

# Subclass, Subtype and Substitutability

- A subtype is a class that satisfies the principle of substitutability.
- A subclass is something constructed using inheritance, whether or not it satisfies the principle of substitutability.
- The two concepts are independent. Not all subclasses are subtypes, and (at least in some languages) you can construct subtypes that are not subclasses.

# Subclass, Subtype, and Substitutability

- Substitutability is fundamental to many of the powerful software development techniques in OOP.
- The idea is that, declared a variable in one type may hold the value of different type.
- Substitutability can occur through use of inheritance, whether using **extends**, or using **implements** keywords.

# Subclass, Subtype, and Substitutability

When new classes are constructed using inheritance, the argument used to justify the validity of substitutability is as follows;

- Instances of the subclass must possess all data fields associated with its parent class.
- Instances of the subclass must implement, through inheritance at least, all functionality defined for parent class. (Defining new methods is not important for the argument.)
- Thus, an instance of a child class can mimic the behavior of the parent class and should be *indistinguishable* from an instance of parent class if substituted in a similar situation.

# Subclass, Subtype, and Substitutability

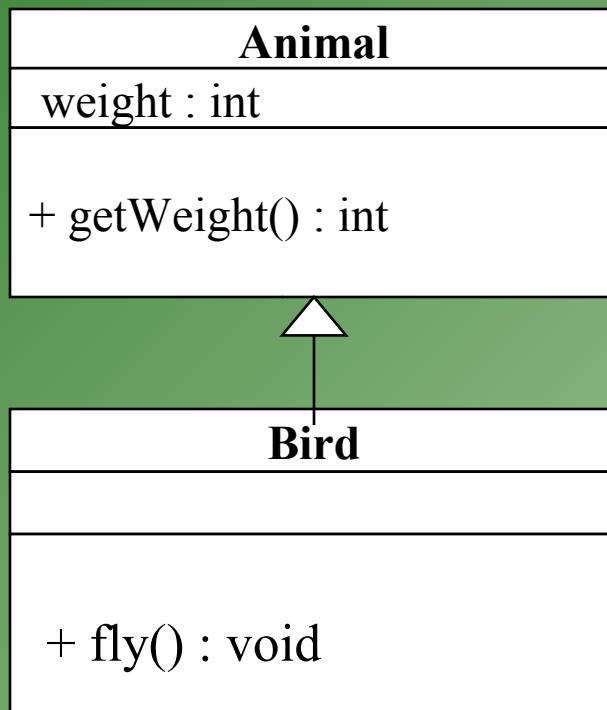
- The term *subtype* is used to describe the relationship between types that explicitly recognizes the principle of *substitution*. A type B is considered to be a subtype of A if instances of B can legally be assigned to a variable declared as of type A.
- The term *subclass* refers to inheritance mechanism made by extends keyword.
- Not all *subclasses* are *subtypes*. *Subtypes* can also be formed using *interface*, linking types that have no inheritance relationship.

# Subclass

- Methods allows to reuse a sequence of statements
- *Inheritance* allows to reuse classes by deriving a new class from an existing one
- The existing class is called the *parent class*, or *superclass*, or *base class*
- The derived class is called the *child class* or *subclass*.
- As the name implies, the child inherits characteristics of the parent(i.e the child class *inherits* the methods and data defined for the parent class

# Subtype

- Inheritance relationships are often shown graphically in a *class diagram*, with the arrow pointing to the parent class



# Substitutability (Deriving Subclasses)

- In Java, we use the reserved word `extends` to establish an inheritance relationship

```
class Animal
{
    // class contents
    int weight;
    public void int getWeight() { ... }

}

class Bird extends Animal
{
    // class contents
    public void fly() { ... };
}
```

# Defining Methods in the Child Class: Overriding by Replacement

- A child class can *override* the definition of an inherited method in favor of its own
  - that is, a child can redefine a method that it inherits from its parent
  - the new method must have the same signature as the parent's method, but can have different code in the body
- In java, all methods except of constructors override the methods of their ancestor class by replacement. E.g.:
  - the Animal class has method eat()
  - the Bird class has method eat() and Bird extends Animal
  - variable *b* is of class Bird, i.e. Bird *b* = ...
  - *b.eat()* simply invokes the eat() method of the Bird class
- If a method is declared with the `final` modifier, it cannot be overridden

# Forms of Inheritance

Inheritance is used in a variety of ways and for a variety of different purposes .

- Inheritance for Specialization
- Inheritance for Specification
- Inheritance for Construction
- Inheritance for Extension
- Inheritance for Limitation
- Inheritance for Combination

One or many of these forms may occur in a single case.

# Forms of Inheritance

(- *Inheritance for Specialization*-)

Most commonly used inheritance and sub classification is for specialization.

Always creates a subtype, and the principles of substitutability is explicitly upheld.

It is the most ideal form of inheritance.

An example of subclassification for specialization is;

```
public class PinBallGame extends Frame {  
    // body of class  
}
```

# Specialization

- By far the most common form of inheritance is for specialization.
  - Child class is a specialized form of parent class
  - Principle of substitutability holds
- A good example is the Java hierarchy of Graphical components in the AWT:
  - Component
    - Label
    - Button
    - TextComponent
      - TextArea
      - TextField
    - CheckBox
    - ScrollBar

# Forms of Inheritance

(- *Inheritance for Specification* -)

This is another most common use of inheritance. Two different mechanisms are provided by Java, *interface* and *abstract*, to make use of *subclassification for specification*. Subtype is formed and substitutability is explicitly upheld.

Mostly, not used for refinement of its parent class, but instead is used for definitions of the properties provided by its parent.

```
class FireButtonListener implements ActionListener {  
    // body of class  
}  
  
class B extends A {  
    // class A is defined as abstract specification class  
    L 3.4  
}
```

# Specification

- The next most common form of inheritance involves specification. The parent class specifies some behavior, but does not implement the behavior
  - Child class implements the behavior
  - Similar to Java interface or abstract class
  - When parent class does not implement actual behavior but merely defines the behavior that will be implemented in child classes
- Example, Java 1.1 Event Listeners:  
ActionListener, MouseListener, and so on specify behavior, but must be subclassed.

# Forms of Inheritance

(- *Inheritance for Construction* -)

Child class inherits most of its functionality from parent, but may change the name or parameters of methods inherited from parent class to form its interface.

This type of inheritance is also widely used for code reuse purposes. It simplifies the construction of newly formed abstraction but is not a form of subtype, and often violates substitutability.

Example is ***Stack*** class defined in Java libraries.

# Construction

- The parent class is used only for its behavior, the child class has no *is-a* relationship to the parent.
  - Child modify the arguments or names of methods
- An example might be subclassing the idea of a *Set* from an existing *List* class.
- Child class is not a more specialized form of parent class; no substitutability

# Forms of Inheritance

( - *Inheritance for Extension* - )

Subclassification for extension occurs when a child class only adds new behavior to the parent class and does not modify or alter any of the inherited attributes.

Such subclasses are always subtypes, and substitutability can be used.

Example of this type of inheritance is done in the definition of the class Properties which is an extension of the class HashTable.

# Generalization or Extension

- The child class generalizes or extends the parent class by providing more functionality
  - In some sense, opposite of subclassing for specialization
- The child doesn't change anything inherited from the parent, it simply adds new features
  - Often used when we cannot modify existing base parent class
- Example, ColoredWindow inheriting from Window
  - Add additional data fields
  - Override window display methods

# Forms of Inheritance

(- *Inheritance for Limitation* -)

Subclassification for limitation occurs when the behavior of the subclass is smaller or more restrictive than the behavior of its parent class.

Like subclassification for extension, this form of inheritance occurs most frequently when a programmer is building on a base of existing classes.

Is not a subtype, and substitutability is not proper.

# Limitation

- The child class limits some of the behavior of the parent class.
- Example, you have an existing List data type, and you want a Stack
- Inherit from List, but override the methods that allow access to elements other than top so as to produce errors.

# Forms of Inheritance

(- *Inheritance for Combination* -)

This types of inheritance is known as *multiple inheritance* in Object Oriented Programming.

Although the Java does not permit a subclass to be formed by inheritance from more than one parent class, several approximations to the concept are possible.

Example of this type is Hole class defined as;

```
class Hole extends Ball implements  
PinBallTarget{  
  
// body of class  
  
}
```

## Combimnation

- Two or more classes that seem to be related, but its not clear who should be the parent and who should be the child.
- Example: Mouse and TouchPad and JoyStick
- Better solution, abstract out common parts to new parent class, and use subclassing for specialization.

# Summary of Forms of Inheritance

- Specialization. The child class is a special case of the parent class; in other words, the child class is a subtype of the parent class.
- Specification. The parent class defines behavior that is implemented in the child class but not in the parent class.
- Construction. The child class makes use of the behavior provided by the parent class, but is not a subtype of the parent class.
- Generalization. The child class modifies or overrides some of the methods of the parent class.
- Extension. The child class adds new functionality to the parent class, but does not change any inherited behavior.
- Limitation. The child class restricts the use of some of the behavior inherited from the parent class.
- Variance. The child class and parent class are variants of each other, and the class-subclass relationship is arbitrary.
- Combination. The child class inherits features from more than one parent class. This is multiple inheritance and will be the subject of a later chapter.

# The Benefits of Inheritance

- Software Reusability (among projects)
- Increased Reliability (resulting from reuse and sharing of well-tested code)
- Code Sharing (within a project)
- Consistency of Interface (among related objects)
- Software Components
- Rapid Prototyping (quickly assemble from pre-existing components)
- Polymorphism and Frameworks (high-level reusable components)
- Information Hiding

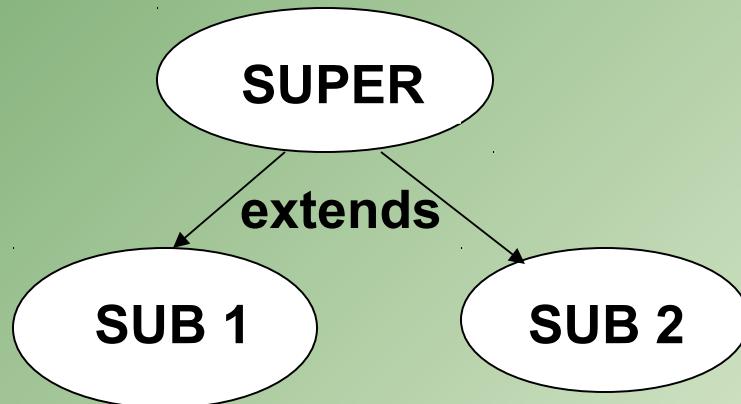
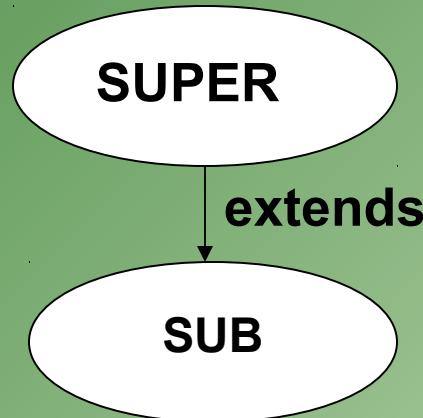
# The Costs of Inheritance

- Execution Speed
- Program Size
- Message-Passing Overhead
- Program Complexity (in overuse of inheritance)

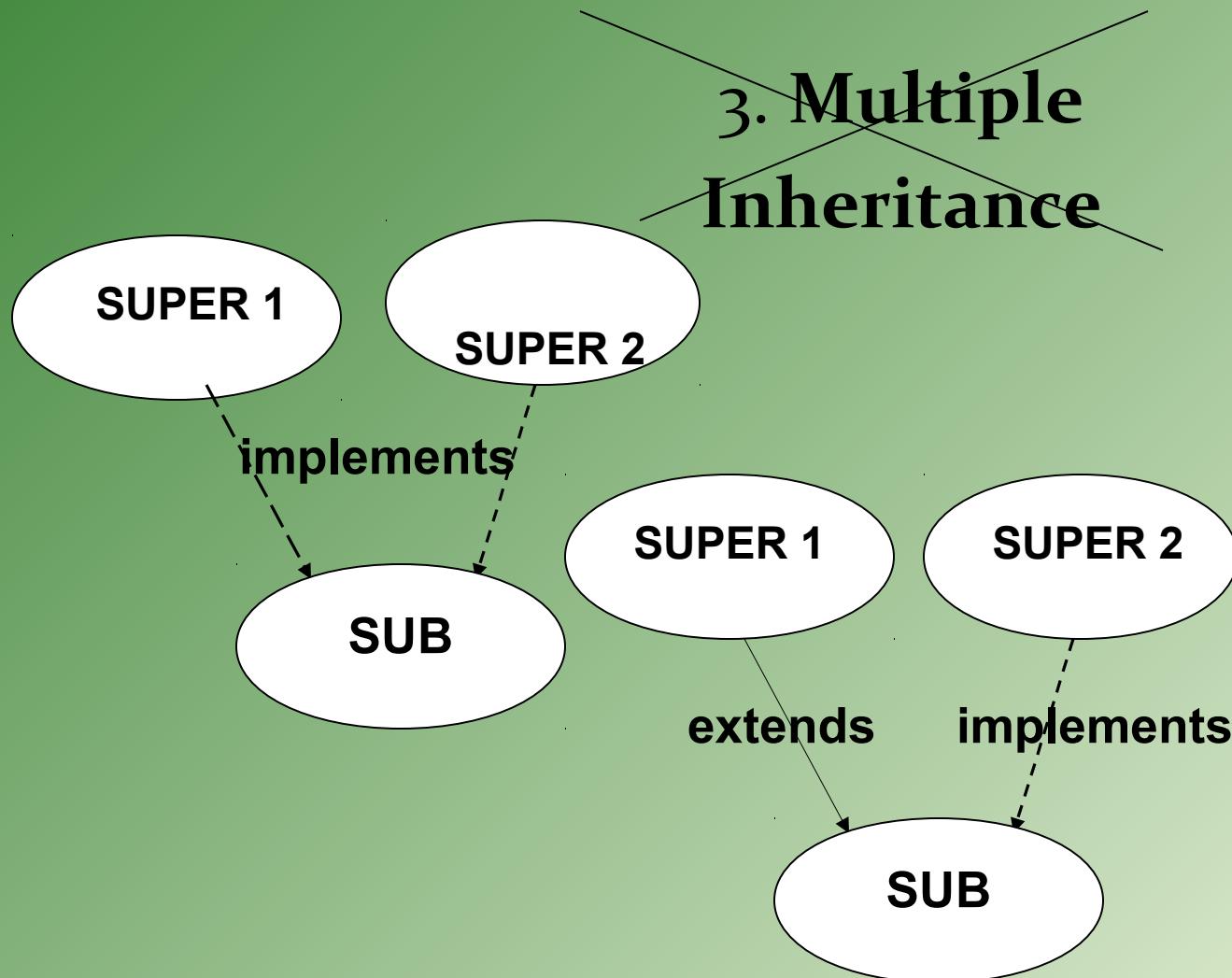
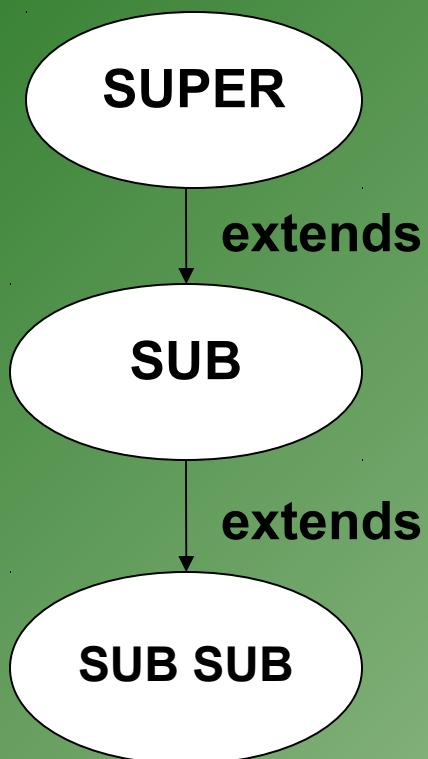
# Types of inheritance

- Acquiring the properties of an existing Object into newly creating Object to overcome the redeclaration of properties in deferent classes.
- These are 3 types:

## 1. Simple Inheritance



## 2. Multi Level Inheritance



# Member access rules

- Visibility modifiers determine which class members are accessible and which do not
- Members (variables and methods) declared with public visibility are accessible, and those with private visibility are not
- Problem: How to make class/instance variables visible only to its subclasses?
- Solution: Java provides a third visibility modifier that helps in inheritance situations: protected

# Modifiers and Inheritance (cont.)

## **Visibility Modifiers for class/interface:**

`public` : can be accessed from outside the class definition.

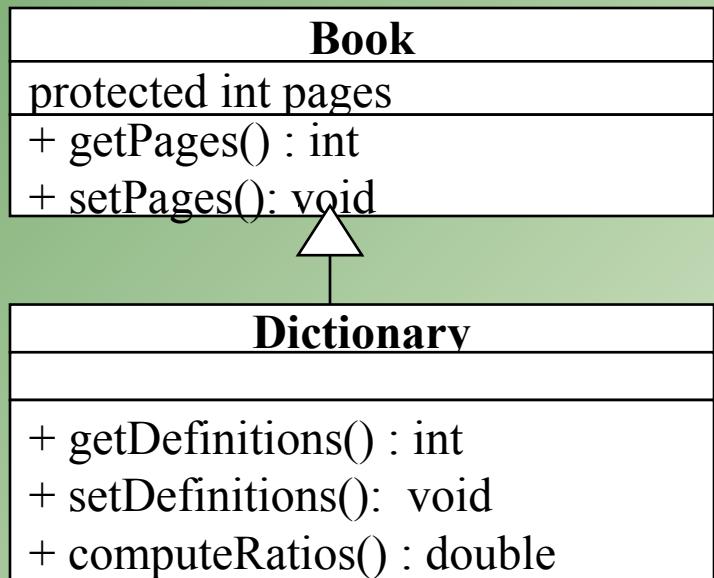
`protected` : can be accessed only within the class definition in which it appears, within other classes in the same package, or within the definition of subclasses.

`private` : can be accessed only within the class definition in which it appears.

`default-access (if omitted)` features accessible from inside the current Java package

# The protected Modifier

- The protected visibility modifier allows a member of a base class to be accessed in the child
  - protected visibility provides more encapsulation than public does
  - protected visibility is not as tightly encapsulated as private visibility



# Example: Super-Class

```
class A {  
    int i;  
    void showi() {  
        System.out.println("i: " + i);  
    }  
}
```

## Example: Sub-Class

```
class B extends A {  
    int j;  
    void showj() {  
        System.out.println("j: " + j);  
    }  
    void sum() {  
        System.out.println("i+j: " + (i+j));  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Testing Class

```
class SimpleInheritance {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        A a = new A();  
        B b = new B();  
        a.i = 10;  
        System.out.println("Contents of a: ");  
        a.showi();  
        b.i = 7; b.j = 8;  
        System.out.println("Contents of b: ");  
        subOb.showi(); subOb.showj();  
        System.out.println("Sum of I and j in b:");  
        b.sum();}}}
```

# Multi-Level Class Hierarchy

The basic Box class:

```
class Box {  
    private double width, height, depth;  
    Box(double w, double h, double d) {  
        width = w; height = h; depth = d;  
    }  
    Box(Box ob) {  
        width = ob.width;  
        height = ob.height; depth = ob.depth;  
    }  
    double volume() {  
        return width * height * depth;  
    }  
}
```

# Multi-Level Class Hierarchy

Adding the weight variable to the Box class:

```
class BoxWeight extends Box {  
    double weight;  
    BoxWeight(BoxWeight ob) {  
        super(ob); weight = ob.weight;  
    }  
    BoxWeight(double w, double h, double d, double  
             m) {  
        super(w, h, d); weight = m;  
    }  
}
```

# Multi-Level Class Hierarchy

Adding the cost variable to the BoxWeight class:

```
class Ship extends BoxWeight {  
    double cost;  
    Ship(Ship ob) {  
        super(ob);  
        cost = ob.cost;  
    }  
    Ship(double w, double h,  
         double d, double m, double c) {  
        super(w, h, d, m); cost = c;  
    }}
```

# Multi-Level Class Hierarchy

```
class DemoShip {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Ship ship1 = new Ship(10, 20, 15, 10, 3.41);  
        Ship ship2 = new Ship(2, 3, 4, 0.76, 1.28);  
        double vol;  
        vol = ship1.volume();  
        System.out.println("Volume of ship1 is " + vol);  
        System.out.print("Weight of ship1 is");  
        System.out.println(ship1.weight);  
        System.out.print("Shipping cost: $");  
        System.out.println(ship1.cost);  
    }  
}
```

# Multi-Level Class Hierarchy

```
vol = ship2.volume();
System.out.println("Volume of ship2 is " + vol);
System.out.print("Weight of ship2 is ");
System.out.println(ship2.weight);
System.out.print("Shipping cost: $");
System.out.println(ship2.cost);
}
}
```

# “super” uses

- ‘super’ is a keyword used to refer to hidden variables of super class from sub class.
  - **super.a=a;**
- It is used to call a constructor of super class from constructor of sub class which should be first statement.
  - **super(a,b);**
- It is used to call a super class method from sub class method to avoid redundancy of code
  - **super.addNumbers(a, b);**

# Super and Hiding

- Why is super needed to access super-class members?
- When a sub-class declares the variables or methods with the same names and types as its super-class:

```
class A {  
    int i = 1;  
}  
  
class B extends A {  
    int i = 2;  
    System.out.println("i is " + i);  
}
```

- The re-declared variables/methods hide those of the super-class.

# Example: Super and Hiding

```
class A {  
    int i;  
}  
  
class B extends A {  
    int i;  
    B(int a, int b) {  
        super.i = a; i = b;  
    }  
    void show() {  
        System.out.println("i in superclass: " + super.i);  
        System.out.println("i in subclass: " + i);  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Super and Hiding

- Although the `i` variable in `B` hides the `i` variable in `A`, `super` allows access to the hidden variable of the super-class:

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

# Using final with inheritance

- **final keyword is used declare constants which can not change its value of definition.**
- **final Variables can not change its value.**
- **final Methods can not be Overridden or Over Loaded**
- **final Classes can not be extended or inherited**

# Preventing Overriding with final

- A method declared **final** cannot be overridden in any sub-class:

```
class A {  
    final void meth() {  
        System.out.println("This is a final method.");  
    }  
}
```

This class declaration is illegal:

```
class B extends A {  
    void meth() {  
        System.out.println("Illegal!");  
    }  
}
```

# Preventing Inheritance with final

- A class declared **final** cannot be inherited – has no sub-classes.  
`final class A { ... }`
- This class declaration is considered illegal:  
`class B extends A { ... }`
- Declaring a class **final** implicitly declares all its methods **final**.
- It is illegal to declare a class as both **abstract** and **final**.

# Polymorphism

- Polymorphism is one of three pillars of object-orientation.
- Polymorphism: many different (poly) forms of objects that share a common interface respond differently when a method of that interface is invoked:
  - 1) a super-class defines the common interface
  - 2) sub-classes have to follow this interface (inheritance), but are also permitted to provide their own implementations (overriding)
- A sub-class provides a specialized behaviors relying on the common elements defined by its super-class.

# Polymorphism

- A polymorphic reference can refer to different types of objects at different times
  - In java every reference can be polymorphic except of references to base types and final classes.
- It is the type of the object being referenced, not the reference type, that determines which method is invoked
  - Polymorphic references are therefore resolved at run-time, not during compilation; this is called *dynamic binding*
- Careful use of polymorphic references can lead to elegant, robust software designs

# Method Overriding

- When a method of a sub-class has the same name and type as a method of the super-class, we say that this method is overridden.
- When an overridden method is called from within the sub-class:
  - 1) it will always refer to the sub-class method
  - 2) super-class method is hidden

# Example: Hiding with Overriding 1

```
class A {  
    int i, j;  
    A(int a, int b) {  
        i = a; j = b;  
    }  
    void show() {  
        System.out.println("i and j: " + i + " " + j);  
    }  
}
```

## Example: Hiding with Overriding 2

```
class B extends A {  
    int k;  
    B(int a, int b, int c) {  
        super(a, b);  
        k = c;  
    }  
    void show() {  
        System.out.println("k: " + k);  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Hiding with Overriding 3

- When `show()` is invoked on an object of type `B`, the version of `show()` defined in `B` is used:

```
class Override {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        B subOb = new B(1, 2, 3);  
        subOb.show();  
    }  
}
```

- The version of `show()` in `A` is hidden through overriding.

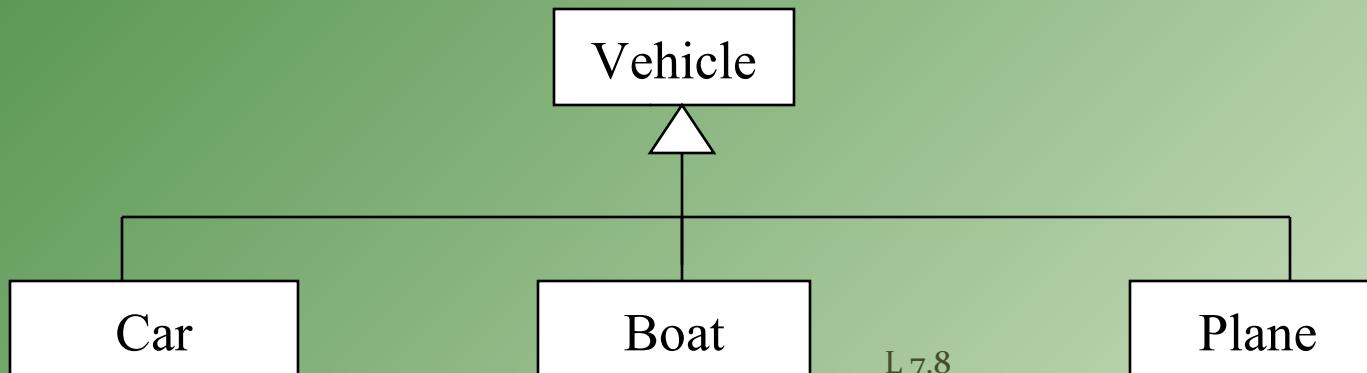
# Overloading vs. Overriding

- Overloading deals with multiple methods in the same class with the same name but different signatures
- Overloading lets you define a similar operation in different ways for different data
- Overriding deals with two methods, one in a parent class and one in a child class, that have the same signature
- Overriding lets you define a similar operation in different ways for different object types

# Abstract Classes

- Java allows abstract classes
  - use the modifier `abstract` on a class header to declare an abstract class

```
abstract class Vehicle
{ ... }
```
- An abstract class is a placeholder in a class hierarchy that represents a generic concept



# Abstract Class: Example

- An abstract class often contains *abstract methods*, though it doesn't have to
  - Abstract methods consist of only methods *declarations*, without any method body

```
public abstract class Vehicle
{
    String name;
    public String getName()
        { return name; } \\ method body

    abstract public void move();
                                \\ no body!
}
```

# Abstract Classes

- An abstract class often contains *abstract methods*, though it doesn't have to
  - Abstract methods consist of only methods *declarations*, without any method body
- The non-abstract child of an abstract class must override the abstract methods of the parent
- An abstract class cannot be instantiated
- The use of abstract classes is a design decision; it helps us establish common elements in a class that is too general to instantiate

# Abstract Method

- Inheritance allows a sub-class to override the methods of its super-class.
- A super-class may altogether leave the implementation details of a method and declare such a method abstract:
- abstract type name(parameter-list);
- Two kinds of methods:
  - 1) concrete – may be overridden by sub-classes
  - 2) abstract – must be overridden by sub-classes
- It is illegal to define abstract constructors or static methods.

UNIT-4

# **OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING**

## **B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)**

### **UNIT 4 PPT SLIDES**

#### **TEXT BOOKS:**

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th edition, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, Pearson education.

**No. of slides: 56**

# INDEX

## UNIT 4 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Defining, Creating and Accessing a Package		L1 L1.1 TO L1.11
2	Importing packages	L2	L2.1 TO L2.5
3	Differences between classes and interfaces		L3 L3.1 TO L3.2
4	Defining an interface	L 4	L4.1 TO L4.2
5	Implementing interface		L5 L5.1 TO 5.7
6	Applying interfaces	L6	L6.1 TO 6.3
7	variables in interface and extending interfaces		L7 L7.1 TO 7.9
8	Exploring packages – Java.io	L8	L 8.1 TO 8.6
9	Exploring packages- java.util.	L9	L 9.1 TO 9.9

# Defining a Package

- ❖ A package is both a naming and a visibility control mechanism:
  - 1) divides the name space into disjoint subsets It is possible to define classes within a package that are not accessible by code outside the package.
  - 2) controls the visibility of classes and their members It is possible to define class members that are only exposed to other members of the same package.
- ❖ Same-package classes may have an intimate knowledge of each other, but not expose that knowledge to other packages

# Creating a Package

- A package statement inserted as the first line of the source file:

```
package myPackage;  
class MyClass1 { ... }  
class MyClass2 { ... }
```

- means that all classes in this file belong to the myPackage package.
- The package statement creates a name space where such classes are stored.
- When the package statement is omitted, class names are put into the default package which has no name.

# Multiple Source Files

- Other files may include the same package instruction:
  1. package myPackage;  
    class MyClass1 { ... }  
    class MyClass2 { ... }
  2. package myPackage;  
    class MyClass3{ ... }
- A package may be distributed through several source files

# Packages and Directories

- Java uses file system directories to store packages.
- Consider the Java source file:

```
package myPackage;  
class MyClass1 { ... }  
class MyClass2 { ... }
```

- The byte code files MyClass1.class and MyClass2.class must be stored in a directory myPackage.
- Case is significant! Directory names must match package names exactly.

# Package Hierarchy

- To create a package hierarchy, separate each package name with a dot:

```
package myPackage1.myPackage2.myPackage3;
```

- A package hierarchy must be stored accordingly in the file system:
  - 1) Unix myPackage1/myPackage2/myPackage3
  - 2) Windows myPackage1\myPackage2\myPackage3
  - 3) Macintosh myPackage1:myPackage2:myPackage3
- You cannot rename a package without renaming its directory!

# Accessing a Package

- As packages are stored in directories, how does the Java run-time system know where to look for packages?
- Two ways:
  - 1) The current directory is the default start point - if packages are stored in the current directory or sub-directories, they will be found.
  - 2) Specify a directory path or paths by setting the CLASSPATH environment variable.

# CLASSPATH Variable

- **CLASSPATH - environment variable that points to the root directory of the system's package hierarchy.**
- **Several root directories may be specified in CLASSPATH,**
- **e.g. the current directory and the C:\raju\myJava directory:**  
`.;C:\raju\myJava`
- **Java will search for the required packages by looking up subsequent directories described in the CLASSPATH variable.**

# Finding Packages

- Consider this package statement:  
    package myPackage;
- In order for a program to find myPackage, one of the following must be true:
  - 1) program is executed from the directory immediately above myPackage (the parent of myPackage directory)
  - 2) CLASSPATH must be set to include the path to myPackage

# Example: Package

```
package MyPack;

class Balance {
    String name;
    double bal;
    Balance(String n, double b) {
        name = n; bal = b;
    }
    void show() {
        if (bal<0) System.out.print("-->> ");
        System.out.println(name + ": $" + bal);
    } }
```

# Example: Package

```
class AccountBalance {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Balance current[] = new Balance[3];  
        current[0] = new Balance("K. J. Fielding", 123.23);  
        current[1] = new Balance("Will Tell", 157.02);  
        current[2] = new Balance("Tom Jackson", -12.33);  
        for (int i=0; i<3; i++) current[i].show();  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Package

- Save, compile and execute:
  - 1) call the file AccountBalance.java
  - 2) save the file in the directory MyPack
  - 3) compile; AccountBalance.class should be also in MyPack
  - 4) set access to MyPack in CLASSPATH variable, or make the parent of MyPack your current directory
  - 5) run: java MyPack.AccountBalance
- Make sure to use the package-qualified class name.

# Importing of Packages

- Since classes within packages must be fully-qualified with their package names, it would be tedious to always type long dot-separated names.
- The import statement allows to use classes or whole packages directly.
- Importing of a concrete class:  
`import myPackage1.myPackage2.myClass;`
- Importing of all classes within a package:  
`import myPackage1.myPackage2.*;`

# Import Statement

- The import statement occurs immediately after the package statement and before the class statement:

```
package myPackage;
```

- `import otherPackage1;otherPackage2.otherClass;`  
`class myClass { ... }`

- The Java system accepts this import statement by default:

```
import java.lang.*;
```

- This package includes the basic language functions. Without such functions, Java is of no much use.

# Example: Packages 1

- A package MyPack with one public class Balance. The class has two same-package variables: public constructor and a public show method.

```
package MyPack;
public class Balance {
    String name;
    double bal;
    public Balance(String n, double b) {
        name = n; bal = b;
    }
    public void show() {
        if (bal<0) System.out.print("-->> ");
        System.out.println(name + ": $" + bal);
    }
}
```

## Example: Packages 2

The importing code has access to the public class Balance of the MyPack package and its two public members:

```
import MyPack.*;  
class TestBalance {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Balance test = new Balance("J. J. Jaspers", 99.88);  
        test.show();  
    }  
}
```

# Java Source File

- Finally, a Java source file consists of:
  - 1) a single package instruction (optional)
  - 2) several import statements (optional)
  - 3) a single public class declaration (required)
  - 4) several classes private to the package (optional)
- At the minimum, a file contains a single public class declaration.

## Differences between classes and interfaces

- Interfaces are syntactically similar to classes, but they lack instance variables, and their methods are declared without any body.
- One class can implement any number of interfaces.
- Interfaces are designed to support dynamic method resolution at run time.

- Interface is little bit like a class... but interface is lack in instance variables....that's u can't create object for it.....
- Interfaces are developed to support multiple inheritance...
- The methods present in interfaces r pure abstract..
- The access specifiers public,private,protected are possible with classes, but the interface uses only one specifier public.....
- interfaces contains only the method declarations.... no definitions.....
- A interface defines, which method a class has to implement. This is way - if you want to call a method defined by an interface - you don't need to know the exact class type of an object, you only need to know that it implements a specific interface.
- Another important point about interfaces is that a class can implement multiple interfaces.

# Defining an interface

- Using interface, we specify what a class must do, but not how it does this.
- An interface is syntactically similar to a class, but it lacks instance variables and its methods are declared without any body.
- An interface is defined with an interface keyword.

# Defining an Interface

- ❖ An interface declaration consists of modifiers, the keyword `interface`, the interface name, a comma-separated list of parent interfaces (if any), and the interface body. For example:

```
public interface GroupedInterface extends Interface1, Interface2,  
Interface3 {  
    // constant declarations double E = 2.718282;  
    // base of natural logarithms //  
    //method signatures  
    void doSomething (int i, double x);  
    int doSomethingElse(String s);  
}
```

- ❖ The `public` access specifier indicates that the interface can be used by any class in any package. If you do not specify that the interface is `public`, your interface will be accessible only to classes defined in the same package as the interface.
- ❖ An interface can extend other interfaces, just as a class can extend or subclass another class. However, whereas a class can extend only one other class, an interface can extend any number of interfaces. The interface declaration includes a comma-separated list of all the interfaces that it extends

# Implementing interface

- General format:

```
access interface name {  
    type method-name1(parameter-list);  
    type method-name2(parameter-list);  
    ...  
    type var-name1 = value1;  
    type var-nameM = valueM;  
    ...  
}
```

- Two types of access:
  - 1) public – interface may be used anywhere in a program
  - 2) default – interface may be used in the current package only
- Interface methods have no bodies – they end with the semicolon after the parameter list.
- They are essentially abstract methods.
- An interface may include variables, but they must be final, static and initialized with a constant value.
- In a public interface, all members are implicitly public.

# Interface Implementation

- A class implements an interface if it provides a complete set of methods defined by this interface.
  - 1) any number of classes may implement an interface
  - 2) one class may implement any number of interfaces
- Each class is free to determine the details of its implementation.
- Implementation relation is written with the implements keyword.

# Implementation Format

- General format of a class that includes the implements clause:
- Syntax:

```
access class name extends super-class implements  
interface1, interface2, ..., interfaceN {
```

...

}

- Access is public or default.

# Implementation Comments

- If a class implements several interfaces, they are separated with a comma.
- If a class implements two interfaces that declare the same method, the same method will be used by the clients of either interface.
- The methods that implement an interface must be declared public.
- The type signature of the implementing method must match exactly the type signature specified in the interface definition.

# Example: Interface

Declaration of the Callback interface:

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

Client class implements the Callback interface:

```
class Client implements Callback {  
    public void callback(int p) {  
        System.out.println("callback called with " + p);  
    }  
}
```

# More Methods in Implementation

- An implementing class may also declare its own methods:

```
class Client implements Callback {  
    public void callback(int p) {  
        System.out.println("callback called with " + p);  
    }  
  
    void nonIfaceMeth() {  
        System.out.println("Classes that implement " +  
            "interfaces may also define " +  
            "other members, too.");  
    }  
}
```

# Applying interfaces

A Java *interface* declares a set of method signatures  
i.e., says what behavior exists Does not say how  
the behavior is implemented

i.e., does not give code for the methods

- Does not describe any state (but may include “final” constants)

- ❖ A concrete class that implements an interface  
Contains “implements *InterfaceName*” in the class declaration
- ❖ Must provide implementations (either directly or inherited from a superclass) of all methods declared in the interface
- ❖ An abstract class can also implement an interface
- ❖ Can optionally have implementations of some or all interface methods

- Interfaces and Extends both describe an “is- a” relation
- If B *implements* interface A, then B inherits the (abstract) method signatures in A
- If B *extends* class A, then B inherits everything in A,
  - which can include method code and instance variables as well as abstract method signatures
- “Inheritance” is sometimes used to talk about the superclass/subclass “extends” relation only

# variables in interface

- Variables declared in an interface must be constants.
- A technique to import shared constants into multiple classes:
  - 1) declare an interface with variables initialized to the desired values
  - 2) include that interface in a class through implementation
- As no methods are included in the interface, the class does not implement anything except importing the variables as constants.

# Example: Interface Variables 1

An interface with constant values:

```
import java.util.Random;  
interface SharedConstants {  
    int NO = 0;  
    int YES = 1;  
    int MAYBE = 2;  
    int LATER = 3;  
    int SOON = 4;  
    int NEVER = 5;  
}
```

# Example: Interface Variables 2

- Question implements SharedConstants, including all its constants.
- Which constant is returned depends on the generated random number:

```
class Question implements SharedConstants {  
    Random rand = new Random();  
    int ask() {  
        int prob = (int) (100 * rand.nextDouble());  
        if (prob < 30) return NO;  
        else if (prob < 60) return YES;  
        else if (prob < 75) return LATER;  
        else if (prob < 98) return SOON;  
        else return NEVER;  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Interface Variables 3

- AskMe includes all shared constants in the same way, using them to display the result, depending on the value received:

```
class AskMe implements SharedConstants {  
    static void answer(int result) {  
        switch(result) {  
            case NO: System.out.println("No"); break;  
            case YES: System.out.println("Yes"); break;  
            case MAYBE: System.out.println("Maybe"); break;  
            case LATER: System.out.println("Later"); break;  
            case SOON: System.out.println("Soon"); break;  
            case NEVER: System.out.println("Never"); break;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Interface Variables 4

- The testing function relies on the fact that both ask and answer methods, defined in different classes, rely on the same constants:

```
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    Question q = new Question();  
    answer(q.ask());  
    answer(q.ask());  
    answer(q.ask());  
    answer(q.ask());  
}  
}
```

# extending interfaces

- One interface may inherit another interface.
- The inheritance syntax is the same for classes and interfaces.

```
interface MyInterface1 {  
    void myMethod1(...) ;  
}
```

```
interface MyInterface2 extends MyInterface1 {  
    void myMethod2(...) ;  
}
```

- When a class implements an interface that inherits another interface, it must provide implementations for all methods defined within the interface inheritance chain.

# Example: Interface Inheritance 1

- Consider interfaces A and B.

```
interface A {  
    void meth1();  
    void meth2();  
}
```

B extends A:

```
interface B extends A {  
    void meth3();  
}
```

# Example: Interface Inheritance 2

- MyClass must implement all of A and B methods:

```
class MyClass implements B {  
    public void meth1() {  
        System.out.println("Implement meth1().");  
    }  
    public void meth2() {  
        System.out.println("Implement meth2().");  
    }  
    public void meth3() {  
        System.out.println("Implement meth3().");  
    } }
```

# Example: Interface Inheritance 3

- Create a new MyClass object, then invoke all interface methods on it:

```
class IFExtend {  
    public static void main(String arg[]) {  
        MyClass ob = new MyClass();  
        ob.meth1();  
        ob.meth2();  
        ob.meth3();  
    }  
}
```

# Package java.io

- Provides for system input and output through data streams, serialization and the file system.

## Interface Summary

- **.DataInput** The DataInput interface provides for reading bytes from a binary stream and reconstructing from them data in any of the Java primitive types.
- **DataOutput** The DataOutput interface provides for converting data from any of the Java primitive types to a series of bytes and writing these bytes to a binary stream
- **.Externalizable** Only the identity of the class of an Externalizable instance is written in the serialization stream and it is the responsibility of the class to save and restore the contents of its instances.
- **Serializable** Serializability of a class is enabled by the class implementing the java.io.Serializable interface.

# Class Summary

- **BufferedInputStream:** A BufferedInputStream adds functionality to another input stream—namely, the ability to buffer the input and to support the mark and reset methods.
- **BufferedOutputStream:** The class implements a buffered output stream.
- **BufferedReader:** Reads text from a character-input stream, buffering characters so as to provide for the efficient reading of characters, arrays, and lines.
- **BufferedWriter:** Writes text to a character-output stream, buffering characters so as to provide for the efficient writing of single characters, arrays, and strings
- **ByteArrayInputStream:** A ByteArrayInputStream contains an internal buffer that contains bytes that may be read from the stream.
- **ByteArrayOutputStream:** This class implements an output stream in which the data is written into a byte array.

- **CharArrayReader**: This class implements a character buffer that can be used as a character-input stream
- **.CharArrayWriter**: This class implements a character buffer that can be used as an Writer
- **Console**: Methods to access the character-based console device, if any, associated with the current Java virtual machine.
- **DataInputStream**: A data input stream lets an application read primitive Java data types from an underlying input stream in a machine-independent way.
- **DataOutputStream**: A data output stream lets an application write primitive Java data types to an output stream in a portable way.

- **File**: An abstract representation of file and directory pathnames.
- **FileInputStream**: A FileInputStream obtains input bytes from a file in a file system.
- **OutputStream**: A file output stream is an output stream for writing data to a File or to a FileDescriptor.
- **FileReader**: Convenience class for reading character files.
- **FileWriter**: Convenience class for writing character files.
- **FilterInputStream**: A FilterInputStream contains some other input stream, which it uses as its basic source of data, possibly transforming the data along the way or providing additional functionality.
- **FilterOutputStream**: This class is the superclass of all classes that filter output streams
- **.FilterReader**: Abstract class for reading filtered character streams
- **.FilterWriter**: Abstract class for writing filtered character streams
- **.InputStream**: This abstract class is the superclass of all classes representing an input stream of bytes.
- **InputStreamReader**: An InputStreamReader is a bridge from byte streams to character streams: It reads bytes and decodes them into characters using a specified **charset**.

- **ObjectInputStream**: An ObjectInputStream deserializes primitive data and objects previously written using an ObjectOutputStream
- **ObjectOutputStream**: An ObjectOutputStream writes primitive data types and graphs of Java objects to an OutputStream.
- **OutputStream**: This abstract class is the superclass of all classes representing an output stream of bytes.
- **OutputStreamWriter**: An OutputStreamWriter is a bridge from character streams to byte streams: Characters written to it are encoded into bytes using a specified **charset**.
- **PrintWriter**: Prints formatted representations of objects to a text-output stream.
- **RandomAccessFile**: Instances of this class support both reading and writing to a random access file.
- **StreamTokenizer**: The StreamTokenizer class takes an input stream and parses it into "tokens", allowing the tokens to be read one at a time.

# Exception Summary

- **FileNotFoundException:** Signals that an attempt to open the file denoted by a specified pathname has failed.
- **InterruptedException:** Signals that an I/O operation has been interrupted
- **InvalidClassException:** Thrown when the Serialization runtime detects one of the following problems with a Class.
- **InvalidObjectException:** Indicates that one or more deserialized objects failed validation tests.
- **IOException:** Signals that an I/O exception of some sort has occurred.

# Package `java.util`

- Contains the collections framework, legacy collection classes, event model, date and time facilities, internationalization, and miscellaneous utility classes (a string tokenizer, a random-number generator, and a bit array).

# Interface Summary

- **Collection<E>**: The root interface in the *collection hierarchy*.
- **Comparator<T>**: A comparison function, which imposes a *total ordering* on some collection of objects.
- **Enumeration<E>**: An object that implements the Enumeration interface generates a series of elements, one at a time.
- **EventListener**: A tagging interface that all event listener interfaces must extend.
- **Iterator<E>**: An iterator over a collection
- **List<E>**: An ordered collection (also known as a *sequence*).
- **ListIterator<E>**: An iterator for lists that allows the programmer to traverse the list in either direction, modify the list during iteration, and obtain the iterator's current position in the list.

- **Map<K,V>**: An object that maps keys to values.
- **Observer**: A class can implement the Observer interface when it wants to be informed of changes in observable objects.
- **Queue<E>**: A collection designed for holding elements prior to processing.
- **Set<E>**: A collection that contains no duplicate elements.
- **SortedMap<K,V>**: A Map that further provides a *total ordering* on its keys.
- **SortedSet<E>**: A Set that further provides a *total ordering* on its elements.

# Class Summary

- **AbstractCollection<E>**: This class provides a skeletal implementation of the Collection interface, to minimize the effort required to implement this interface.
- **AbstractList<E>**: This class provides a skeletal implementation of the List interface to minimize the effort required to implement this interface backed by a "random access" data store (such as an array).
- **AbstractMap<K,V>**: This class provides a skeletal implementation of the Map interface, to minimize the effort required to implement this interface.
- **AbstractQueue<E>**: This class provides skeletal implementations of some Queue operations.
- **AbstractSequentialList<E>**: This class provides a skeletal implementation of the List interface to minimize the effort required to implement this interface backed by a "sequential access" data store (such as a linked list).
- **AbstractSet<E>**: This class provides a skeletal implementation of the Set interface to minimize the effort required to implement this interface.

- **ArrayList<E>**: Resizable-array implementation of the List interface
- **Arrays**: This class contains various methods for manipulating arrays (such as sorting and searching).
- **BitSet**: This class implements a vector of bits that grows as needed
- **Calendar**: The Calendar class is an abstract class that provides methods for converting between a specific instant in time and a set of calendar fields: such as YEAR, MONTH, DAY\_OF\_MONTH, HOUR, and so on, and for manipulating the calendar fields, such as getting the date of the next week

- **Collections:** This class consists exclusively of static methods that operate on or return collections
- **Currency:** Represents a currency.
- **Date:** The class Date represents a specific instant in time, with millisecond precision.
- **Dictionary<K,V>:** The Dictionary class is the abstract parent of any class, such as Hashtable, which maps keys to values.
- **EventObject:** The root class from which all event state objects shall be derived.

- **GregorianCalendar:** GregorianCalendar is a concrete subclass of Calendar and provides the standard calendar system used by most of the world.
- **HashMap<K,V>:** Hash table based implementation of the Map interface.
- **HashSet<E>:** This class implements the Set interface, backed by a hash table (actually a HashMap instance)
- **.Hashtable<K,V>:** This class implements a hashtable, which maps keys to values.
- **LinkedList<E>:** Linked list implementation of the List interface
- **Locale:** A Locale object represents a specific geographical, political, or cultural region.
- **Observable:** This class represents an observable object, or "data" in the model-view paradigm
- **Properties:** The Properties class represents a persistent set of properties.

- **Random**: An instance of this class is used to generate a stream of pseudorandom numbers.
- **ResourceBundle**: Resource bundles contain locale-specific objects.
- **SimpleTimeZone**: SimpleTimeZone is a concrete subclass of TimeZone that represents a time zone for use with a Gregorian calendar.
- **Stack<E>**: The Stack class represents a last-in-first-out (LIFO) stack of objects.
- **StringTokenizer**: The string tokenizer class allows an application to break a string into tokens.
- **TimeZone**: TimeZone represents a time zone offset, and also figures out daylight savings.
- **TreeMap<K,V>**: A Red-Black tree based NavigableMap implementation.
- **TreeSet<E>**: A NavigableSet implementation based on a TreeMap.UUIDA class that represents an immutable universally unique identifier (UUID).
- **Vector<E>**: The Vector class implements a growable array of objects

# Exception Summary

- **EmptyStackException:** Thrown by methods in the Stack class to indicate that the stack is empty.
- **InputMismatchException:** Thrown by a Scanner to indicate that the token retrieved does not match the pattern for the expected type, or that the token is out of range for the expected type.
- **InvalidPropertiesFormatException:** Thrown to indicate that an operation could not complete because the input did not conform to the appropriate XML document type for a collection of properties, as per the Properties specification.
- **NoSuchElementException:** Thrown by the nextElement method of an Enumeration to indicate that there are no more elements in the enumeration.
- **TooManyListenersException:** The TooManyListenersException Exception is used as part of the Java Event model to annotate and implement a unicast special case of a multicast Event Source.
- **UnknownFormatConversionException:** Unchecked exception thrown when an unknown conversion is given.

UNIT-5

# **OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING**

**B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)**  
**UNIT 5 PPT SLIDES**

## **TEXT BOOKS:**

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th edition, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, Pearson education.

**No. of slides:75**

# Concepts of exception handling

## Exceptions

- Exception is an abnormal condition that arises when executing a program.
- In the languages that do not support exception handling, errors must be checked and handled manually, usually through the use of error codes.
- In contrast, Java:
  - 1) provides syntactic mechanisms to signal, detect and handle errors
  - 2) ensures a clean separation between the code executed in the absence of errors and the code to handle various kinds of errors
  - 3) brings run-time error management into object-oriented programming

# Exception Handling

- An exception is an object that describes an exceptional condition (error) that has occurred when executing a program.
- Exception handling involves the following:
  - 1) when an error occurs, an object (exception) representing this error is created and thrown in the method that caused it
  - 2) that method may choose to handle the exception itself or pass it on
  - 3) either way, at some point, the exception is caught and processed

# Exception Sources

- Exceptions can be:
  - 1) generated by the Java run-time system Fundamental errors that violate the rules of the Java language or the constraints of the Java execution environment.
  - 2) manually generated by programmer's code Such exceptions are typically used to report some error conditions to the caller of a method.

# Exception Constructs

- Five constructs are used in exception handling:
  - 1) try – a block surrounding program statements to monitor for exceptions
  - 2) catch – together with try, catches specific kinds of exceptions and handles them in some way
  - 3) finally – specifies any code that absolutely must be executed whether or not an exception occurs
  - 4) throw – used to throw a specific exception from the program
  - 5) throws – specifies which exceptions a given method can throw

# Exception-Handling Block

General form:

```
try { ... }  
catch(Exception1 ex1) { ... }  
catch(Exception2 ex2) { ... }  
...  
finally { ... }
```

where:

- 1) try { ... } is the block of code to monitor for exceptions
- 2) catch(Exception ex) { ... } is exception handler for the exception Exception
- 3) finally { ... } is the block of code to execute before the try block ends

# Benefits of exception handling

- Separating Error-Handling code from “regular” business logic code
- Propagating errors up the call stack
- Grouping and differentiating error types

## Separating Error Handling Code from Regular Code

In traditional programming, error detection, reporting, and handling often lead to confusing code

Consider pseudocode method here that reads an entire file into memory

```
readFile {  
    open the file;  
    determine its size;  
    allocate that much memory;  
    read the file into memory;  
    close the file;  
}
```

# Traditional Programming: No separation of error handling code

- In traditional programming, To handle such cases, the *readFile* function must have more code to do error detection, reporting, and handling.

```
errorCodeType readFile {  
    initialize errorCode = 0;  
    open the file;  
    if (theFileIsOpen) {  
        determine the length of the file;  
        if (gotTheFileLength) {  
            allocate that much memory;  
            if (gotEnoughMemory) {  
                read the file into memory;  
                if (readFailed) {  
                    errorCode = -1;  
                }  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
else {
    errorCode = -2;
}
} else {
    errorCode = -3;
}
close the file;
if (theFileDidntClose && errorCode == 0) {
    errorCode = -4;
} else {
    errorCode = errorCode and -4;
}
} else {
    errorCode = -5;
}
return errorCode;
}
```

# Separating Error Handling Code from Regular Code (in Java)

Exceptions enable you to write the main flow of your code and to deal with the exceptional cases elsewhere

```
readFile {  
    try {  
        open the file;  
        determine its size;  
        allocate that much memory;  
        read the file into memory;  
        close the file;  
    } catch (fileOpenFailed) {  
        doSomething;  
    }  
}
```

```
catch (sizeDeterminationFailed) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch (memoryAllocationFailed) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch (readFailed) {  
    doSomething;  
} catch (fileCloseFailed) {  
    doSomething;  
}  
}
```

- Note that exceptions don't spare you the effort of doing the work of detecting, reporting, and handling errors, but they do help you organize the work more effectively.

# Propagating Errors Up the Call Stack

- ❖ Suppose that the *readFile* method is the fourth method in a series of nested method calls made by the main program: *method1* calls *method2*, which calls *method3*, which finally calls *readFile*
- ❖ Suppose also that *method1* is the only method interested in the errors that might occur within *readFile*.

```
method1 {  
    call method2;  
}  
method2 {  
    call method3;  
}  
method3 {  
    call readFile;  
}
```

# Traditional Way of Propagating Errors

```
method1 {  
    errorCodeType error;  
    error = call method2;  
    if (error)  
        doErrorProcessing;  
    else  
        proceed;  
    }  
errorCodeType method2 {  
    errorCodeType error;  
    error = call method3;  
    if (error)  
        return error;  
    else  
        proceed;  
    }  
errorCodeType method3 {  
    errorCodeType error;  
    error = call readFile;  
    if (error)  
        return error;  
    else  
        proceed;  
    }
```

- Traditional error notification Techniques force `method2` and `method3` to propagate the error codes returned by `readFile` up the call stack until the error codes finally reach `method1`—the only method that is interested in them.

# Using Java Exception Handling

```
method1 {  
    try {  
        call method2;  
    } catch (exception e) {  
        doErrorProcessing;  
    }  
}  
  
method2 throws exception {  
    call method3;  
}  
  
method3 throws exception {  
    call readFile;  
}
```

- ❖ Any checked exceptions that can be thrown within a method must be specified in its throws clause.

# Grouping and Differentiating Error Types

- ❖ Because all exceptions thrown within a program are objects, the grouping or categorizing of exceptions is a natural outcome of the class hierarchy
- ❖ An example of a group of related exception classes in the Java platform are those defined in `java.io.IOException` and its descendants
- ❖ `IOException` is the most general and represents any type of error that can occur when performing I/O
- ❖ Its descendants represent more specific errors. For example, `FileNotFoundException` means that a file could not be located on disk.

- ❖ A method can write specific handlers that can handle a very specific exception
- ❖ The FileNotFoundException class has no descendants, so the following handler can handle only one type of exception.

```
catch (FileNotFoundException e) {  
    ...  
}
```

- ❖ A method can catch an exception based on its group or general type by specifying any of the exception's super classes in the catch statement.
- ❖ For example, to catch all I/O exceptions, regardless of their specific type, an exception handler specifies an IOException argument.

```
// Catch all I/O exceptions, including  
// FileNotFoundException, EOFException, and so on.  
catch (IOException e) {  
    ...  
}
```

# Termination vs. resumption

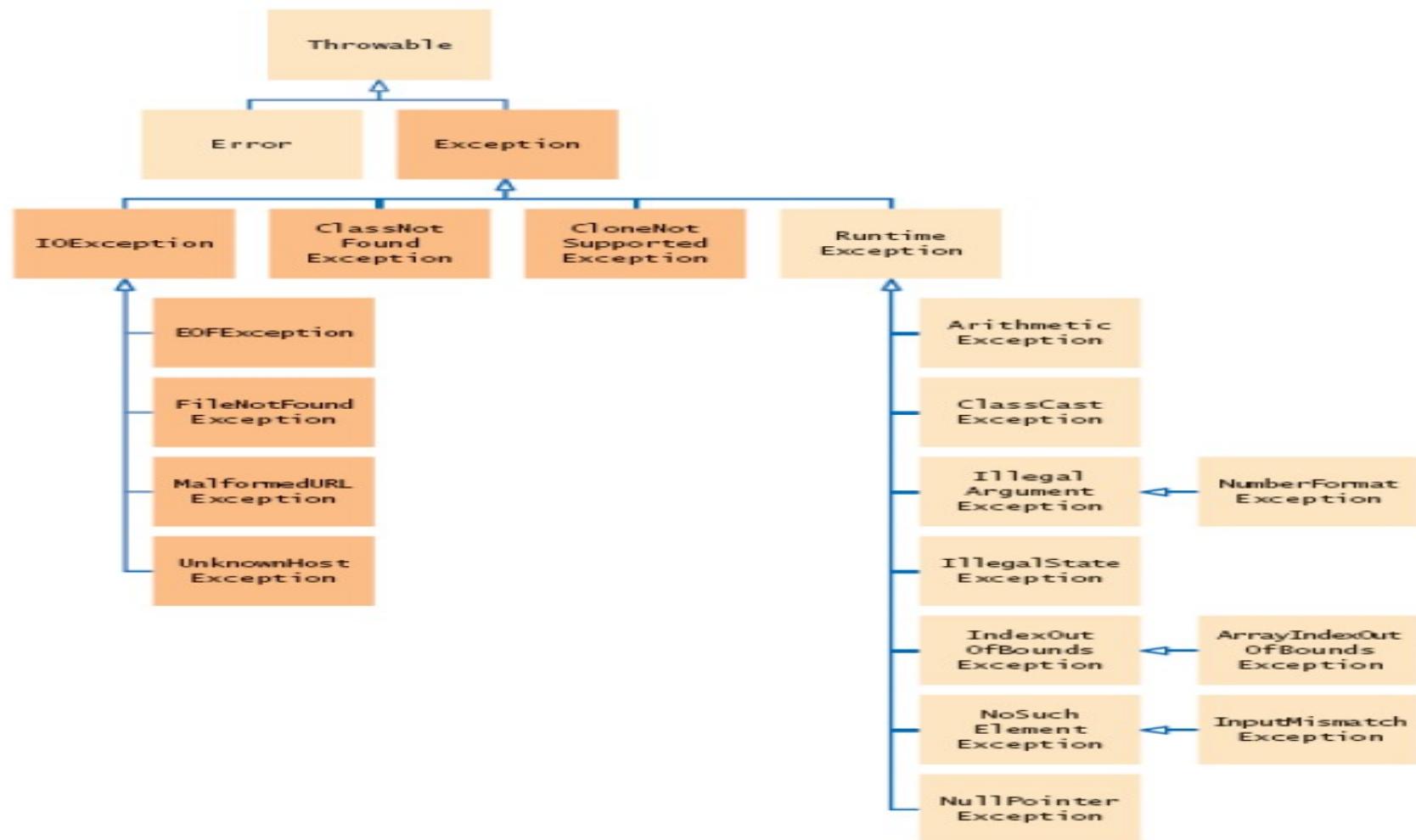
- There are two basic models in exception-handling theory.
- In *termination* the error is so critical there's no way to get back to where the exception occurred. Whoever threw the exception decided that there was no way to salvage the situation, and they don't want to come back.
- The alternative is called *resumption*. It means that the exception handler is expected to do something to rectify the situation, and then the faulting method is retried, presuming success the second time. If you want resumption, it means you still hope to continue execution after the exception is handled.

- In resumption a method call that want resumption-like behavior (i.e don't throw an exception all a method that fixes the problem.)
- Alternatively, place your **try** block inside a **while** loop that keeps reentering the **try** block until the result is satisfactory.
- Operating systems that supported resumptive exception handling eventually ended up using termination-like code and skipping resumption.

# Exception Hierarchy

- All exceptions are sub-classes of the build-in class Throwable.
- Throwable contains two immediate sub-classes:
  - 1) Exception – exceptional conditions that programs should catch
    - The class includes:
      - a) RuntimeException – defined automatically for user programs to include: division by zero, invalid array indexing, etc.
      - b) use-defined exception classes
    - 2) Error – exceptions used by Java to indicate errors with the runtime environment; user programs are not supposed to catch them

# Hierarchy of Exception Classes



# Usage of *try-catch* Statements

- Syntax:

```
try {  
    <code to be monitored for exceptions>  
} catch (<ExceptionType1> <ObjName>) {  
    <handler if ExceptionType1 occurs>  
}  
...  
} catch (<ExceptionTypeN> <ObjName>) {  
    <handler if ExceptionTypeN occurs>  
}
```

# Catching Exceptions: The *try-catch* Statements

```
class DivByZero {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            System.out.println(3/0);  
            System.out.println("Please print me.");  
        } catch (ArithmetricException exc) {  
            //Division by zero is an ArithmetricException  
            System.out.println(exc);  
        }  
        System.out.println("After exception.");  
    }  
}
```

# Catching Exceptions: Multiple catch

```
class MultipleCatch {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            int den = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);  
            System.out.println(3/den);  
        } catch (ArithmaticException exc) {  
            System.out.println("Divisor was 0.");  
        } catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException exc2) {  
            System.out.println("Missing argument.");  
        }  
        System.out.println("After exception.");  
    }  
}
```

# Catching Exceptions: Nested try's

```
class NestedTryDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]){  
        try {  
            int a = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);  
            try {  
                int b = Integer.parseInt(args[1]);  
                System.out.println(a/b);  
            } catch (ArithmetricException e) {  
                System.out.println("Div by zero error!");  
            } } catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException) {  
                System.out.println("Need 2 parameters!");  
            } } }
```

# Catching Exceptions: Nested try's with methods

```
class NestedTryDemo2 {  
    static void nestedTry(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            int a = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);  
            int b = Integer.parseInt(args[1]);  
            System.out.println(a/b);  
        } catch (ArithmetricException e) {  
            System.out.println("Div by zero error!");  
        }  
    }  
    public static void main(String args[]){  
        try {  
            nestedTry(args);  
        } catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) {  
            System.out.println("Need 2 parameters!");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# Throwing Exceptions(throw)

- So far, we were only catching the exceptions thrown by the Java system.
- In fact, a user program may throw an exception explicitly:

throw ThrowableInstance;

- ThrowableInstance must be an object of type Throwable or its subclass.

Once an exception is thrown by:

```
throw ThrowableInstance;
```

- 1) the flow of control stops immediately
- 2) the nearest enclosing try statement is inspected if it has a catch statement that matches the type of exception:
  - 1) if one exists, control is transferred to that statement
  - 2) otherwise, the next enclosing try statement is examined
  - 3) if no enclosing try statement has a corresponding catch clause, the default exception handler halts the program and prints the stack

# Creating Exceptions

Two ways to obtain a Throwable instance:

- 1) creating one with the new operator

All Java built-in exceptions have at least two Constructors:

One without parameters and another with one String parameter:

```
throw new NullPointerException("demo");
```

- 2) using a parameter of the catch clause

```
try { ... } catch( Throwable e ) { ... e ... }
```

# Example: throw 1

```
class ThrowDemo {  
    //The method demoproc throws a NullPointerException  
    exception which is immediately caught in the try block and  
    re-thrown:  
    static void demoproc() {  
        try {  
            throw new NullPointerException("demo");  
        } catch(NullPointerException e) {  
            System.out.println("Caught inside demoproc.");  
            throw e;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

# Example: throw 2

The main method calls demoproc within the try block which catches and handles the NullPointerException exception:

```
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    try {  
        demoproc();  
    } catch(NullPointerException e) {  
        System.out.println("Recaught: " + e);  
    }  
}
```

# throws Declaration

- If a method is capable of causing an exception that it does not handle, it must specify this behavior by the throws clause in its declaration:

```
type name(parameter-list) throws exception-list {  
    ...  
}
```

- where exception-list is a comma-separated list of all types of exceptions that a method might throw.
- All exceptions must be listed except Error and RuntimeException or any of their subclasses, otherwise a compile-time error occurs.

# Example: throws 1

- The throwOne method throws an exception that it does not catch, nor declares it within the throws clause.

```
class ThrowsDemo {  
    static void throwOne() {  
        System.out.println("Inside throwOne.");  
        throw new IllegalAccessException("demo");  
    }  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        throwOne();  
    }  
}
```

- Therefore this program does not compile.

# Example: throws 2

- Corrected program: throwOne lists exception, main catches it:

```
class ThrowsDemo {  
    static void throwOne() throws IllegalAccessException {  
        System.out.println("Inside throwOne.");  
        throw new IllegalAccessException("demo");  
    }  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        try {  
            throwOne();  
        } catch (IllegalAccessException e) {  
            System.out.println("Caught " + e);  
        } } }
```

# **finally**

- When an exception is thrown:
  - 1) the execution of a method is changed
  - 2) the method may even return prematurely.
- This may be a problem in many situations.
- For instance, if a method opens a file on entry and closes on exit; exception handling should not bypass the proper closure of the file.
- The finally block is used to address this problem.

# finally Clause

- The try/catch statement requires at least one catch or finally clause, although both are optional:

```
try { ... }  
catch(Exception1 ex1) { ... } ...  
finally { ... }
```

- Executed after try/catch whether or not the exception is thrown.
- Any time a method is to return to a caller from inside the try/catch block via:
  - 1) uncaught exception or
  - 2) explicit returnthe finally clause is executed just before the method returns.

# Example: finally 1

- Three methods to exit in various ways.

```
class FinallyDemo {  
    //procA prematurely breaks out of the try by throwing an  
    //exception, the finally clause is executed on the way out:  
    static void procA() {  
        try {  
            System.out.println("inside procA");  
            throw new RuntimeException("demo");  
        } finally {  
            System.out.println("procA's finally");  
        } }  
}
```

# Example: finally 2

// procB's try statement is exited via a return statement,  
the finally clause is executed before procB returns:

```
static void procB() {  
    try {  
        System.out.println("inside procB");  
        return;  
    } finally {  
        System.out.println("procB's finally");  
    }  
}
```

# Example: finally 3

- In procC, the try statement executes normally without error, however the finally clause is still executed:

```
static void procC() {  
    try {  
        System.out.println("inside procC");  
    } finally {  
        System.out.println("procC's finally");  
    }  
}
```

# Example: finally 4

- Demonstration of the three methods:

```
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    try {  
        procA();  
    } catch (Exception e) {  
        System.out.println("Exception caught");  
    }  
    procB();  
    procC();  
}
```

# Java Built-In Exceptions

- The default `java.lang` package provides several exception classes, all sub-classing the `RuntimeException` class.
- Two sets of build-in exception classes:
  - 1) unchecked exceptions – the compiler does not check if a method handles or throws there exceptions
  - 2) checked exceptions – must be included in the method's throws clause if the method generates but does not handle them

# Unchecked Built-In Exceptions

- Methods that generate but do not handle those exceptions need not declare them in the throws clause:
  - 1) `ArithmaticException`
  - 2) `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`
  - 3) `ArrayStoreException`
  - 4) `ClassCastException`
  - 5) `IllegalStateException`
  - 6) `IllegalMonitorStateException`
  - 7) `IllegalArgumentException`

8. `StringIndexOutOfBoundsException`
9. `UnsupportedOperationException`
10. `SecurityException`
11. `NumberFormatException`
12. `NullPointerException`
13. `NegativeArraySizeException`
14. `IndexOutOfBoundsException`
15. `IllegalThreadStateException`

# Checked Built-In Exceptions

- Methods that generate but do not handle those exceptions must declare them in the throws clause:
  1. `NoSuchMethodException` `NoSuchFieldException`
  2. `InterruptedException`
  3. `InstantiationException`
  4. `IllegalAccessException`
  5. `CloneNotSupportedException`
  6. `ClassNotFoundException`

# Creating Own Exception Classes

- Build-in exception classes handle some generic errors.
- For application-specific errors define your own exception classes. How? Define a subclass of Exception:

```
class MyException extends Exception { ... }
```

- MyException need not implement anything – its mere existence in the type system allows to use its objects as exceptions.

# Example: Own Exceptions 1

- A new exception class is defined, with a private detail variable, a one parameter constructor and an overridden `toString` method:

```
class MyException extends Exception {  
    private int detail;  
    MyException(int a) {  
        detail = a;  
    }  
    public String toString() {  
        return "MyException[" + detail + "]";  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Own Exceptions 2

```
class ExceptionDemo {  
    The static compute method throws the MyException  
    exception whenever its a argument is greater than 10:  
    static void compute(int a) throws MyException {  
        System.out.println("Called compute(" + a + ")");  
        if (a > 10) throw new MyException(a);  
        System.out.println("Normal exit");  
    }  
}
```

# Example: Own Exceptions 3

The main method calls compute with two arguments within a try block that catches the MyException exception:

```
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    try {  
        compute(1);  
        compute(20);  
    } catch (MyException e) {  
        System.out.println("Caught " + e);  
    }  
}
```

# Differences between multi threading and multitasking

## Multi-Tasking

- Two kinds of multi-tasking:
  - 1) process-based multi-tasking
  - 2) thread-based multi-tasking
- Process-based multi-tasking is about allowing several programs to execute concurrently, e.g. Java compiler and a text editor.
- Processes are heavyweight tasks:
  - 1) that require their own address space
  - 2) inter-process communication is expensive and limited
  - 3) context-switching from one process to another is expensive and limited

# Thread-Based Multi-Tasking

- Thread-based multi-tasking is about a single program executing concurrently
- several tasks e.g. a text editor printing and spell-checking text.
- Threads are lightweight tasks:
  - 1) they share the same address space
  - 2) they cooperatively share the same process
  - 3) inter-thread communication is inexpensive
  - 4) context-switching from one thread to another is low-cost
- Java multi-tasking is thread-based.

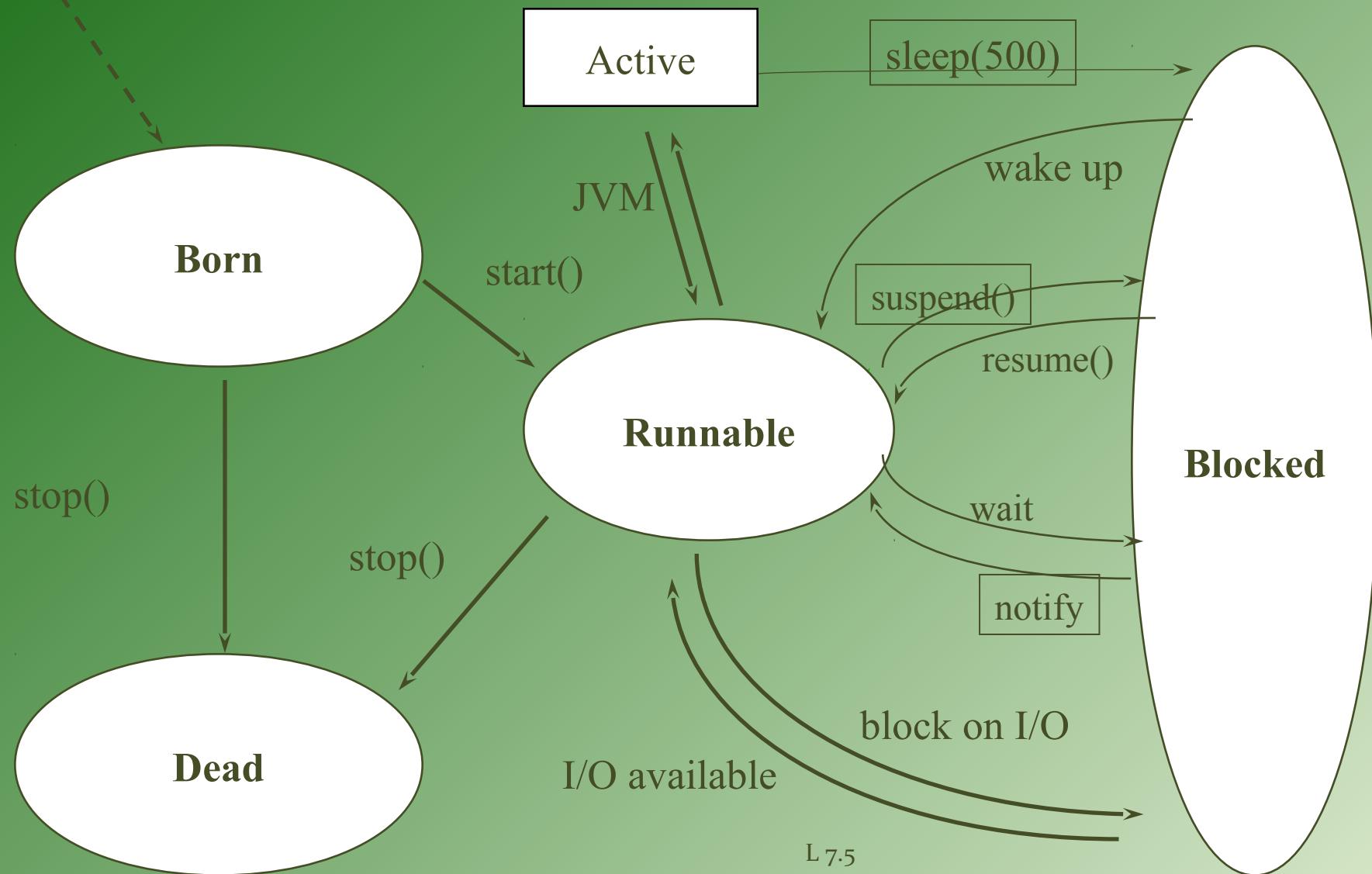
# Reasons for Multi-Threading

- Multi-threading enables to write efficient programs that make the maximum use of the CPU, keeping the idle time to a minimum.
- There is plenty of idle time for interactive, networked applications:
  - 1) the transmission rate of data over a network is much slower than the rate at which the computer can process it
  - 2) local file system resources can be read and written at a much slower rate than can be processed by the CPU
  - 3) of course, user input is much slower than the computer

# Thread Lifecycle

- Thread exist in several states:
  - 1) ready to run
  - 2) running
  - 3) a running thread can be suspended
  - 4) a suspended thread can be resumed
  - 5) a thread can be blocked when waiting for a resource
  - 6) a thread can be terminated
- Once terminated, a thread cannot be resumed.

# Thread Lifecycle



- **New state** – After the creation of Thread instance the thread is in this state but before the start() method invocation. At this point, the thread is considered not alive.
- **Runnable (Ready-to-run) state** – A thread starts its life from Runnable state. A thread first enters runnable state after the invoking of start() method but a thread can return to this state after either running, waiting, sleeping or coming back from blocked state also. On this state a thread is waiting for a turn on the processor.
- **Running state** – A thread is in running state that means the thread is currently executing. There are several ways to enter in Runnable state but there is only one way to enter in Running state: the scheduler selects a thread from runnable pool.
- **Dead state** – A thread can be considered dead when its run() method completes. If any thread comes on this state that means it cannot ever run again.
- **Blocked** - A thread can enter in this state because of waiting the resources that are held by another thread.

# Creating Threads

- To create a new thread a program will:
  - 1) extend the Thread class, or
  - 2) implement the Runnable interface
- Thread class encapsulates a thread of execution.
- The whole Java multithreading environment is based on the Thread class.

# Thread Methods

- Start: a thread by calling start its run method
- Sleep: suspend a thread for a period of time
- Run: entry-point for a thread
- Join: wait for a thread to terminate
- isAlive: determine if a thread is still running
- getPriority: obtain a thread's priority
- getName: obtain a thread's name

# New Thread: Runnable

- To create a new thread by implementing the Runnable interface:
  - 1) create a class that implements the run method (inside this method, we define the code that constitutes the new thread):

```
public void run()
```

- 2) instantiate a Thread object within that class, a possible constructor is:

```
Thread(Runnable threadOb, String threadName)
```

- 3) call the start method on this object (start calls run):

```
void start()
```

# Example: New Thread 1

- A class NewThread that implements Runnable:

```
class NewThread implements Runnable {  
    Thread t;  
    //Creating and starting a new thread. Passing this to the  
    // Thread constructor – the new thread will call this  
    // object's run method:  
    NewThread() {  
        t = new Thread(this, "Demo Thread");  
        System.out.println("Child thread: " + t);  
        t.start();  
    }  
}
```

# Example: New Thread 2

```
//This is the entry point for the newly created thread – a five-iterations
//loop
//with a half-second pause between the iterations all within try/catch:
public void run() {
    try {
        for (int i = 5; i > 0; i--) {
            System.out.println("Child Thread: " + i);
            Thread.sleep(500);
        }
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {
        System.out.println("Child interrupted.");
    }
    System.out.println("Exiting child thread.");
}
```

# Example: New Thread 3

```
class ThreadDemo {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        //A new thread is created as an object of  
        // NewThread:  
        new NewThread();  
        //After calling the NewThread start method,  
        // control returns here.  
    }  
}
```

# Example: New Thread 4

```
//Both threads (new and main) continue concurrently.  
//Here is the loop for the main thread:  
try {  
    for (int i = 5; i > 0; i--) {  
        System.out.println("Main Thread: " + i);  
        Thread.sleep(1000);  
    }  
} catch (InterruptedException e) {  
    System.out.println("Main thread interrupted.");  
}  
System.out.println("Main thread exiting.");  
}
```

# New Thread: Extend Thread

- The second way to create a new thread:
  - 1) create a new class that extends Thread
  - 2) create an instance of that class
- Thread provides both run and start methods:
  - 1) the extending class must override run
  - 2) it must also call the start method

# Example: New Thread 1

- The new thread class extends Thread:

```
class NewThread extends Thread {  
    //Create a new thread by calling the Thread's  
    // constructor and start method:  
    NewThread() {  
        super("Demo Thread");  
        System.out.println("Child thread: " + this);  
        start();  
    }  
}
```

# Example: New Thread 2

NewThread overrides the Thread's run method:

```
public void run() {  
    try {  
        for (int i = 5; i > 0; i--) {  
            System.out.println("Child Thread: " + i);  
            Thread.sleep(500);  
        }  
    } catch (InterruptedException e) {  
        System.out.println("Child interrupted.");  
    }  
    System.out.println("Exiting child thread.");  
}
```

# Example: New Thread 3

```
class ExtendThread {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        //After a new thread is created:  
        new NewThread();  
        //the new and main threads continue  
        //concurrently...  
    }  
}
```

# Example: New Thread 4

```
//This is the loop of the main thread:  
try {  
    for (int i = 5; i > 0; i--) {  
        System.out.println("Main Thread: " + i);  
        Thread.sleep(1000);  
    }  
} catch (InterruptedException e) {  
    System.out.println("Main thread interrupted.");  
}  
System.out.println("Main thread exiting.");  
}
```

# Threads: Synchronization

- Multi-threading introduces asynchronous behavior to a program.
- How to ensure synchronous behavior when we need it?
- For instance, how to prevent two threads from simultaneously writing and reading the same object?
- Java implementation of monitors:
  - 1) classes can define so-called synchronized methods
  - 2) each object has its own implicit monitor that is automatically entered when one of the object's synchronized methods is called
  - 3) once a thread is inside a synchronized method, no other thread can call any other synchronized method on the same object

# Thread Synchronization

- Language keyword: `synchronized`
- Takes out a monitor lock on an object
  - Exclusive lock for that thread
- If lock is currently unavailable, thread will block

# Thread Synchronization

- Protects access to code, not to data
  - Make data members private
  - Synchronize accessor methods
- Puts a “force field” around the locked object so no other threads can enter
  - Actually, it only blocks access to other synchronizing threads

# Daemon Threads

- Any Java thread can be a *daemon* thread.
- Daemon threads are service providers for other threads running in the same process as the daemon thread.
- The run() method for a daemon thread is typically an infinite loop that waits for a service request. When the only remaining threads in a process are daemon threads, the interpreter exits. This makes sense because when only daemon threads remain, there is no other thread for which a daemon thread can provide a service.
- To specify that a thread is a daemon thread, call the setDaemon method with the argument true. To determine if a thread is a daemon thread, use the accessor method isDaemon.

# Thread Groups

- o Every Java thread is a member of a *thread group*.
- o Thread groups provide a mechanism for collecting multiple threads into a single object and manipulating those threads all at once, rather than individually.
- o For example, you can start or suspend all the threads within a group with a single method call.
- o Java thread groups are implemented by the “`ThreadGroup`” class in the `java.lang` package.
- The runtime system puts a thread into a thread group during thread construction.
- When you create a thread, you can either allow the runtime system to put the new thread in some reasonable default group or you can explicitly set the new thread's group.
- The thread is a permanent member of whatever thread group it joins upon its creation--you cannot move a thread to a new group after the thread has been created

# The ThreadGroup Class

- The “ThreadGroup” class manages groups of threads for Java applications.
- A ThreadGroup can contain any number of threads.
- The threads in a group are generally related in some way, such as who created them, what function they perform, or when they should be started and stopped.
- ThreadGroups can contain not only threads but also other ThreadGroups.
- The top-most thread group in a Java application is the thread group named main.
- You can create threads and thread groups in the main group.
- You can also create threads and thread groups in subgroups of main.

# Creating a Thread Explicitly in a Group

- A thread is a permanent member of whatever thread group it joins when its created--you cannot move a thread to a new group after the thread has been created. Thus, if you wish to put your new thread in a thread group other than the default, you must specify the thread group explicitly when you create the thread.
- The Thread class has three constructors that let you set a new thread's group:

```
public Thread(ThreadGroup group, Runnable target) public  
Thread(ThreadGroup group, String name) public  
Thread(ThreadGroup group, Runnable target, String name)
```

- Each of these constructors creates a new thread, initializes it based on the Runnable and String parameters, and makes the new thread a member of the specified group.

For example:

```
ThreadGroup myThreadGroup = new ThreadGroup("My Group of Threads");  
Thread myThread = new Thread(myThreadGroup, "a thread for my group");
```

UNIVERSITY-6

# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)

UNIT 6 PPT SLIDES

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th editon, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
  2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, pearson eduction.
- 

No. of slides:53

# INDEX

## UNIT 6 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Events, Event sources, Event classes,	L1	L1.1 TO L1.10
2	Event Listeners, Delegation event model	L2	L2.1 TO L2.3
3	Handling mouse and keyboard events, Adapter classes, inner classes.	L3	L3.1 TO L3.5
4	The AWT class hierarchy,	L 4	L4.1 TO L4.4
5	user interface components- labels, button, canvas, scrollbars, text	L 5	L5.1 TO L5.8
6	components, check box, check box groups, choices	L 6	L6.1 TO L6.7
7	lists panels – scrollpane, dialogs	L 7	L7.1 TO L7.4
8	menubar, graphics	L 8	L8.1 TO L8.3
9	layout manager – layout manager types – boarder, grid, flow, card and grib bag	L 9	L9.1 TO L9.7

# Event handling

- For the user to interact with a GUI, the underlying operating system must support event handling.
  - 1) operating systems constantly monitor events such as keystrokes, mouse clicks, voice command, etc.
  - 2) operating systems sort out these events and report them to the appropriate application programs
  - 3) each application program then decides what to do in response to these events

# Events

- An *event* is an object that describes a state change in a source.
- It can be generated as a consequence of a person interacting with the elements in a graphical user interface.
- Some of the activities that cause events to be generated are pressing a button, entering a character via the keyboard, selecting an item in a list, and clicking the mouse.

- Events may also occur that are not directly caused by interactions with a user interface.
- For example, an event may be generated when a timer expires, a counter exceeds a value, a software or hardware failure occurs, or an operation is completed.
- Events can be defined as needed and appropriate by application.

# Event sources

- A *source* is an object that generates an event.
- This occurs when the internal state of that object changes in some way.
- Sources may generate more than one type of event.
- A source must register listeners in order for the listeners to receive notifications about a specific type of event.
- Each type of event has its own registration method.
- General form is:

```
public void addTypeListener(TypeListener el)
```

Here, *Type* is the name of the event and *el* is a reference to the event listener.

- For example,
  1. The method that registers a keyboard event listener is called **addKeyListener()**.
  2. The method that registers a mouse motion listener is called **addMouseMotionListener( )**.

- When an event occurs, all registered listeners are notified and receive a copy of the event object. This is known as *multicasting* the event.
- In all cases, notifications are sent only to listeners that register to receive them.
- Some sources may allow only one listener to register. The general form is:  

```
public void addTypeListener(TypeListener el)
throws java.util.TooManyListenersException
```

*Here Type* is the name of the event and *el* is a reference to the event listener.
- When such an event occurs, the registered listener is notified. This is known as *unicasting* the event.

- A source must also provide a method that allows a listener to unregister an interest in a specific type of event.
- The general form is:  
`public void removeTypeListener(TypeListener el)`  
Here, *Type* is the name of the event and *el* is a reference to the event listener.
- For example, to remove a keyboard listener, you would call **removeKeyListener()**.
- The methods that add or remove listeners are provided by the source that generates events.
- For example, the **Component** class provides methods to add and remove keyboard and mouse event listeners.

## Event classes

- The Event classes that represent events are at the core of Java's event handling mechanism.
- Super class of the Java event class hierarchy is **EventObject**, which is in **java.util**. for all events.
- Constructor is :

EventObject(Object *src*)

Here, *src* is the object that generates this event.

- **EventObject** contains two methods: **getSource( )** and **toString( )**.
- 1. The **getSource( )** method returns the source of the event. General form is : Object getSource()
- 2. The **toString( )** returns the string equivalent of the event.

- EventObject is a superclass of all events.
- AWTEvent is a superclass of all AWT events that are handled by the delegation event model.
- The package **java.awt.event** defines several types of events that are generated by various user interface elements.

# Event Classes in `java.awt.event`

- `ActionEvent`: Generated when a button is pressed, a list item is double clicked, or a menu item is selected.
- `AdjustmentEvent`: Generated when a scroll bar is manipulated.
- `ComponentEvent`: Generated when a component is hidden, moved, resized, or becomes visible.
- `ContainerEvent`: Generated when a component is added to or removed from a container.
- `FocusEvent`: Generated when a component gains or loses keyboard focus.

- InputEvent: Abstract super class for all component input event classes.
- ItemEvent: Generated when a check box or list item is clicked; also occurs when a choice selection is made or a checkable menu item is selected or deselected.
- KeyEvent: Generated when input is received from the keyboard.
- MouseEvent: Generated when the mouse is dragged, moved, clicked, pressed, or released; also generated when the mouse enters or exits a component.
- TextEvent: Generated when the value of a text area or text field is changed.
- WindowEvent: Generated when a window is activated, closed, deactivated, deiconified, iconified, opened, or quit.

# Event Listeners

- A *listener* is an object that is notified when an event occurs.
- Event has two major requirements.
  1. It must have been registered with one or more sources to receive notifications about specific types of events.
  2. It must implement methods to receive and process these notifications.
- The methods that receive and process events are defined in a set of interfaces found in `java.awt.event`.
- For example, the **MouseMotionListener** interface defines two methods to receive notifications when the mouse is dragged or moved.
- Any object may receive and process one or both of these events if it provides an implementation of this interface.

# Delegation event model

- The modern approach to handling events is based on the *delegation event model*, which defines standard and consistent mechanisms to generate and process events.
- Its concept is quite simple: a *source* generates an event and sends it to one or more *listeners*.
- In this scheme, the listener simply waits until it receives an event.
- Once received, the listener processes the event and then returns.
- The advantage of this design is that the application logic that processes events is cleanly separated from the user interface logic that generates those events.
- A user interface element is able to "delegate" the processing of an event to a separate piece of code.

- In the delegation event model, listeners must register with a source in order to receive an event notification. This provides an important benefit: notifications are sent only to listeners that want to receive them.
- This is a more efficient way to handle events than the design used by the old Java 1.0 approach. Previously, an event was propagated up the containment hierarchy until it was handled by a component.
- This required components to receive events that they did not process, and it wasted valuable time. The delegation event model eliminates this overhead.

### Note

- Java also allows you to process events without using the delegation event model.
- This can be done by extending an AWT component.

# Handling mouse events

- mouse events can be handled by implementing the **MouseListener** and the **MouseMotionListener** interfaces.
- **MouseListener Interface** defines five methods. The general forms of these methods are:
  1. void mouseClicked(MouseEvent me)
  2. void mouseEntered(MouseEvent me)
  3. void mouseExited(MouseEvent me)
  4. void mousePressed(MouseEvent me)
  5. void mouseReleased(MouseEvent me)
- **MouseMotionListener Interface**. This interface defines two methods. Their general forms are :
  1. void mouseDragged(MouseEvent me)
  2. void mouseMoved(MouseEvent me)

# Handling keyboard events

- Keyboard events, can be handled by implementing the **KeyListener** interface.
- **KeyListner** interface defines three methods. The general forms of these methods are :
  1. void keyPressed(KeyEvent ke)
  2. void keyReleased(KeyEvent ke)
  3. void keyTyped(KeyEvent ke)
- To implement keyboard events implementation to the above methods is needed.

# Adapter classes

- Java provides a special feature, called an *adapter class*, that can simplify the creation of event handlers.
- An adapter class provides an empty implementation of all methods in an event listener interface.
- Adapter classes are useful when you want to receive and process only some of the events that are handled by a particular event listener interface.
- You can define a new class to act as an event listener by extending one of the adapter classes and implementing only those events in which you are interested.

- adapter classes in **java.awt.event** are.

## Adapter Class

ComponentAdapter

ContainerAdapter

FocusAdapter

KeyAdapter

MouseAdapter

MouseMotionAdapter

WindowAdapter

## Listener Interface

ComponentListener

ContainerListener

FocusListener

KeyListener

MouseListener

MouseMotionListener

WindowListener

# Inner classes

- Inner classes, which allow one class to be defined within another.
- An inner class is a non-static nested class. It has access to all of the variables and methods of its outer class and may refer to them directly in the same way that other non-static members of the outer class do.
- An inner class is fully within the scope of its enclosing class.
- an inner class has access to all of the members of its enclosing class, but the reverse is not true.
- Members of the inner class are known only within the scope of the inner class and may not be used by the outer class

# The AWT class hierarchy

- The AWT classes are contained in the **java.awt** package. It is one of Java's largest packages. some of the AWT classes.
- **AWT Classes**
  1. AWTEvent:Encapsulates AWT events.
  2. AWTEventMulticaster: Dispatches events to multiple listeners.
  3. BorderLayout: The border layout manager. Border layouts use five components: North, South, East, West, and Center.
  4. Button: Creates a push button control.
  5. Canvas: A blank, semantics-free window.
  6. CardLayout: The card layout manager. Card layouts emulate index cards. Only the one on top is showing.

7. Checkbox: Creates a check box control.
8. CheckboxGroup: Creates a group of check box controls.
9. CheckboxMenuItem: Creates an on/off menu item.
10. Choice: Creates a pop-up list.
11. Color: Manages colors in a portable, platform-independent fashion.
12. Component: An abstract super class for various AWT components.
13. Container: A subclass of Component that can hold other components.
14. Cursor: Encapsulates a bitmapped cursor.
15. Dialog: Creates a dialog window.
16. Dimension: Specifies the dimensions of an object. The width is stored in width, and the height is stored in height.
17. Event: Encapsulates events.
18. EventQueue: Queues events.
19. FileDialog: Creates a window from which a file can be selected.
20. FlowLayout: The flow layout manager. Flow layout positions components left to right, top to bottom.

21. Font: Encapsulates a type font.
22. FontMetrics: Encapsulates various information related to a font. This information helps you display text in a window.
23. Frame: Creates a standard window that has a title bar, resize corners, and a menu bar.
24. Graphics: Encapsulates the graphics context. This context is used by various output methods to display output in a window.
25. GraphicsDevice: Describes a graphics device such as a screen or printer.
26. GraphicsEnvironment: Describes the collection of available Font and GraphicsDevice objects.
27. GridBagConstraints: Defines various constraints relating to the GridBagLayout class.
28. GridBagLayout: The grid bag layout manager. Grid bag layout displays components subject to the constraints specified by GridBagConstraints.
29. GridLayout: The grid layout manager. Grid layout displays components in a two-dimensional grid.

30. Scrollbar: Creates a scroll bar control.
31. ScrollPane: A container that provides horizontal and/or vertical scrollbars for another component.
32. SystemColor: Contains the colors of GUI widgets such as windows, scrollbars, text, and others.
33. TextArea: Creates a multiline edit control.
34. TextComponent: A super class for TextArea and TextField.
35. TextField: Creates a single-line edit control.
36. Toolkit: Abstract class implemented by the AWT.
37. Window: Creates a window with no frame, no menu bar, and no title.

# user interface components

- **Labels:** Creates a label that displays a string.
- A *label* is an object of type **Label**, and it contains a string, which it displays.
- Labels are passive controls that do not support any interaction with the user.
- **Label** defines the following constructors:
  1. `Label()`
  2. `Label(String str)`
  3. `Label(String str, int how)`
- The first version creates a blank label.
- The second version creates a label that contains the string specified by *str*. This string is left-justified.
- The third version creates a label that contains the string specified by *str* using the alignment specified by *how*. The value of *how* must be one of these three constants: **Label.LEFT**, **Label.RIGHT**, or **Label.CENTER**.

- Set or change the text in a label is done by using the **setText( )** method.
- Obtain the current label by calling **getText( )**.
- These methods are shown here:

```
void setText(String str)  
String getText()
```

- For **setText( )**, *str* specifies the new label. For **getText( )**, the current label is returned.
- To set the alignment of the string within the label by calling **setAlignment( )**.
- To obtain the current alignment, call **getAlignment( )**.
- The methods are as follows:

```
void setAlignment(int how)  
int getAlignment()
```

Label creation: Label one = new Label("One");

# button

- The most widely used control is the push button.
- A *push button* is a component that contains a label and that generates an event when it is pressed.
- Push buttons are objects of type **Button**. **Button** defines these two constructors:

**Button()**

**Button(String str)**

- The first version creates an empty button. The second creates a button that contains *str* as a label.
- After a button has been created, you can set its label by calling **setLabel()**.
- You can retrieve its label by calling **getLabel()**.
- These methods are as follows:

**void setLabel(String str)**

**String getLabel()**

Here, *str* becomes the new label for the button.

Button creation:     **Button yes = new Button("Yes");**

## canvas

- It is not part of the hierarchy for applet or frame windows
- **Canvas** encapsulates a blank window upon which you can draw.
- Canvas creation:

```
Canvas c = new Canvas();
```

```
Image test = c.createImage(200, 100);
```

- This creates an instance of **Canvas** and then calls the **createImage( )** method to actually make an **Image** object.

At this point, the image is blank.

# scrollbars

- Scrollbar generates adjustment events when the scroll bar is manipulated.
- Scrollbar creates a scroll bar control.
- *Scroll bars* are used to select continuous values between a specified minimum and maximum.
- Scroll bars may be oriented horizontally or vertically.
- A scroll bar is actually a composite of several individual parts.
- Each end has an arrow that you can click to move the current value of the scroll bar one unit in the direction of the arrow.
- The current value of the scroll bar relative to its minimum and maximum values is indicated by the *slider box* (or *thumb*) for the scroll bar.
- The slider box can be dragged by the user to a new position. The scroll bar will then reflect this value.

- **Scrollbar** defines the following constructors:

`Scrollbar()`

`Scrollbar(int style)`

`Scrollbar(int style, int initialValue, int thumbSize, int min, int max)`

- The first form creates a vertical scroll bar.
- The second and third forms allow you to specify the orientation of the scroll bar. If *style* is **Scrollbar.VERTICAL**, a vertical scroll bar is created. If *style* is **Scrollbar.HORIZONTAL**, the scroll bar is horizontal.
- In the third form of the constructor, the initial value of the scroll bar is passed in *initialValue*.
- The number of units represented by the height of the thumb is passed in *thumbSize*.
- The minimum and maximum values for the scroll bar are specified by *min* and *max*.
- `vertSB = new Scrollbar(Scrollbar.VERTICAL, 0, 1, 0, height);`
- `horzSB = new Scrollbar(Scrollbar.HORIZONTAL, 0, 1, 0, width);`

# text

- **Text is created by Using a TextField class**
- The **TextField** class implements a single-line text-entry area, usually called an *edit control*.
- Text fields allow the user to enter strings and to edit the text using the arrow keys, cut and paste keys, and mouse selections.
- **TextField** is a subclass of **TextComponent**. **TextField** defines the following constructors:

`TextField()`

`TextField(int numChars)`

`TextField(String str)`

`TextField(String str, int numChars)`

- The first version creates a default text field.
- The second form creates a text field that is *numChars* characters wide.
- The third form initializes the text field with the string contained in *str*.
- The fourth form initializes a text field and sets its width.
- **TextField** (and its superclass **TextComponent**) provides several methods that allow you to utilize a text field.
- To obtain the string currently contained in the text field, call **getText()**.
- To set the text, call **setText( )**. These methods are as follows:

`String getText( )`

`void setText(String str)`

Here, *str* is the new string.

# components

- At the top of the AWT hierarchy is the **Component** class.
- **Component** is an abstract class that encapsulates all of the attributes of a visual component.
- All user interface elements that are displayed on the screen and that interact with the user are subclasses of **Component**.
- It defines public methods that are responsible for managing events, such as mouse and keyboard input, positioning and sizing the window, and repainting.
- A **Component** object is responsible for remembering the current foreground and background colors and the currently selected text font.

- To add components

Component add(Component compObj)

Here, *compObj* is an instance of the control that you want to add. A reference to *compObj* is returned.

Once a control has been added, it will automatically be visible whenever its parent window is displayed.

- To remove a control from a window when the control is no longer needed call **remove()**.
- This method is also defined by **Container**. It has this general form:

void remove(Component obj)

Here, *obj* is a reference to the control you want to remove. You can remove all controls by calling **removeAll()**.

# check box,

- A *check box* is a control that is used to turn an option on or off. It consists of a small box that can either contain a check mark or not.
- There is a label associated with each check box that describes what option the box represents.
- You can change the state of a check box by clicking on it.
- Check boxes can be used individually or as part of a group.
- Checkboxes are objects of the **Checkbox** class.

- **Checkbox** supports these constructors:
  1. Checkbox( )
  2. Checkbox(String str)
  3. Checkbox(String str, boolean on)
  4. Checkbox(String str, boolean on, CheckboxGroup cbGroup)
  5. Checkbox(String str, CheckboxGroup cbGroup, boolean on)
- The first form creates a check box whose label is initially blank. The state of the check box is unchecked.
- The second form creates a check box whose label is specified by *str*. The state of the check box is unchecked.
- The third form allows you to set the initial state of the check box. If *on* is **true**, the check box is initially checked; otherwise, it is cleared.
- The fourth and fifth forms create a check box whose label is specified by *str* and whose group is specified by *cbGroup*. If this check box is not part of a group, then *cbGroup* must be **null**. (Check box groups are described in the next section.) The value of *on* determines the initial state of the check box.

- To retrieve the current state of a check box, call **getState( )**.
- To set its state, call **setState( )**.
- To obtain the current label associated with a check box by calling **getLabel( )**.
- To set the label, call **setLabel( )**.
- These methods are as follows:

boolean getState( )

void setState(boolean on)

String getLabel( )

void setLabel(String str)

Here, if *on* is **true**, the box is checked. If it is **false**, the box is cleared.

Checkbox creation:

```
CheckBox Win98 = new Checkbox("Windows 98", null, true);
```

# check box groups

- It is possible to create a set of mutually exclusive check boxes in which one and only one check box in the group can be checked at any one time.
- These check boxes are often called *radio buttons*.
- To create a set of mutually exclusive check boxes, you must first define the group to which they will belong and then specify that group when you construct the check boxes.
- Check box groups are objects of type **CheckboxGroup**. Only the default constructor is defined, which creates an empty group.
- To determine which check box in a group is currently selected by calling **getSelectedCheckbox()**.
- To set a check box by calling **setSelectedCheckbox()**.
- These methods are as follows:

```
Checkbox getSelectedCheckbox()
void setSelectedCheckbox(Checkbox which)
```

Here, *which* is the check box that you want to be selected. The previously selected checkbox will be turned off.
  - `CheckboxGroup cbg = new CheckboxGroup();`
  - `Win98 = new Checkbox("Windows 98", cbg, true);`
  - `winNT = new Checkbox("Windows NT", cbg, false);`

# choices

- The **Choice** class is used to create a *pop-up list* of items from which the user may choose.
- A **Choice** control is a form of menu.
- **Choice** only defines the default constructor, which creates an empty list.
- To add a selection to the list, call **addItem( )** or **add( )**.

```
void addItem(String name)
```

```
void add(String name)
```

- Here, *name* is the name of the item being added.
- Items are added to the list in the order to determine which item is currently selected, you may call either **getSelectedItem( )** or **getSelectedIndex( )**.

```
String getSelectedItem()
```

```
int getSelectedIndex()
```

# lists

- The **List** class provides a compact, multiple-choice, scrolling selection list.
- **List** object can be constructed to show any number of choices in the visible window.
- It can also be created to allow multiple selections. **List** provides these constructors:

`List( )`

`List(int numRows)`

`List(int numRows, boolean multipleSelect)`

- To add a selection to the list, call **add( )**. It has the following two forms:

`void add(String name)`

`void add(String name, int index)`

- Ex: `List os = new List(4, true);`

# panels

- The **Panel** class is a concrete subclass of **Container**.
- It doesn't add any new methods; it simply implements **Container**.
- A **Panel** may be thought of as a recursively nestable, concrete screen component. **Panel** is the superclass for **Applet**.
- When screen output is directed to an applet, it is drawn on the surface of a **Panel** object.
- **Panel** is a window that does not contain a title bar, menu bar, or border.
- Components can be added to a **Panel** object by its **add( )** method (inherited from **Container**). Once these components have been added, you can position and resize them manually using the **setLocation( )**, **setSize( )**, or **setBounds( )** methods defined by **Component**.
- Ex:  

```
Panel osCards = new Panel();
CardLayout cardLO = new CardLayout();
osCards.setLayout(cardLO);
```

# scrollpane

- A *scroll pane* is a component that presents a rectangular area in which a component may be viewed.
- Horizontal and/or vertical scroll bars may be provided if necessary.
- constants are defined by the **ScrollPaneConstants** interface.
  1. HORIZONTAL\_SCROLLBAR\_ALWAYS
  2. HORIZONTAL\_SCROLLBAR\_AS\_NEEDED
  3. VERTICAL\_SCROLLBAR\_ALWAYS
  4. VERTICAL\_SCROLLBAR\_AS\_NEEDED

# dialogs

- Dialog class creates a dialog window.
- constructors are :

Dialog(Frame parentWindow, boolean mode)

Dialog(Frame parentWindow, String title, boolean mode)

- The dialog box allows you to choose a method that should be invoked when the button is clicked.
- Ex:

```
Fontf = new Font("Dialog", Font.PLAIN, 12);
```

# menubar

- **MenuBar** class creates a menu bar.
- A top-level window can have a menu bar associated with it. A menu bar displays a list of top-level menu choices. Each choice is associated with a drop-down menu.
- To create a menu bar, first create an instance of **MenuBar**.
- This class only defines the default constructor. Next, create instances of **Menu** that will define the selections displayed on the bar.
- Following are the constructors for **Menu**:

`Menu()`

`Menu(String optionName)`

`Menu(String optionName, boolean removable)`

- Once you have created a menu item, you must add the item to a **Menu** object by using `MenuItem add(MenuItem item)`
- Here, *item* is the item being added. Items are added to a menu in the order in which the calls to **add( )** take place.
- Once you have added all items to a **Menu** object, you can add that object to the menu bar by using this version of **add( )** defined by **MenuBar**:
- `Menu add(Menu menu)`

# Graphics

- The AWT supports a rich assortment of graphics methods.
- All graphics are drawn relative to a window.
- A *graphics context* is encapsulated by the **Graphics** class
- It is passed to an applet when one of its various methods, such as `paint()` or `update()`, is called.
- It is returned by the `getGraphics()` method of Component.
- The **Graphics** class defines a number of drawing functions. Each shape can be drawn edge-only or filled.
- Objects are drawn and filled in the currently selected graphics color, which is black by default.
- When a graphics object is drawn that exceeds the dimensions of the window, output is automatically clipped
- Ex:

```
Public void paint(Graphics g)
{
    G.drawString("welcome",20,20);
}
```

# Layout manager

- A layout manager automatically arranges your controls within a window by using some type of algorithm.
- it is very tedious to manually lay out a large number of components and sometimes the width and height information is not yet available when you need to arrange some control, because the native toolkit components haven't been realized.
- Each **Container** object has a layout manager associated with it.
- A layout manager is an instance of any class that implements the **LayoutManager** interface.
- The layout manager is set by the **setLayout( )** method. If no call to **setLayout( )** is made, then the default layout manager is used.
- Whenever a container is resized (or sized for the first time), the layout manager is used to position each of the components within it.

# Layout manager types

Layout manager class defines the following types of layout managers

- Boarder Layout
- Grid Layout
- Flow Layout
- Card Layout
- GridBag Layout

# Boarder layout

- The **BorderLayout** class implements a common layout style for top-level windows. It has four narrow, fixed-width components at the edges and one large area in the center.
- The four sides are referred to as north, south, east, and west. The middle area is called the center.
- The constructors defined by **BorderLayout**:  
`BorderLayout()`  
`BorderLayout(int horz, int vert)`
- **BorderLayout** defines the following constants that specify the regions:  
`BorderLayout.CENTER`  
`BorderLayout.SOUTH`  
`BorderLayout.EAST`  
`BorderLayout.WEST`  
`BorderLayout.NORTH`
- Components can be added by  
`void add(Component compObj, Object region);`

# Grid layout

- **GridLayout** lays out components in a two-dimensional grid. When you instantiate a
- **GridLayout**, you define the number of rows and columns. The constructors are

`GridLayout()`

`GridLayout(int numRows, int numColumns)`

`GridLayout(int numRows, int numColumns, int horz, int vert)`

- The first form creates a single-column grid layout.
- The second form creates a grid layout with the specified number of rows and columns.
- The third form allows you to specify the horizontal and vertical space left between components in *horz* and *vert*, respectively.
- Either *numRows* or *numColumns* can be zero. Specifying *numRows* as zero allows for unlimited-length columns. Specifying *numColumns* as zero allows for unlimited-lengthrows.

# Flow layout

- **FlowLayout** is the default layout manager.
- Components are laid out from the upper-left corner, left to right and top to bottom. When no more components fit on a line, the next one appears on the next line. A small space is left between each component, above and below, as well as left and right.
- The constructors are
  - FlowLayout( )
  - FlowLayout(int how)
  - FlowLayout(int how, int horz, int vert)

- The first form creates the default layout, which centers components and leaves five pixels of space between each component.
- The second form allows to specify how each line is aligned. Valid values for are:

FlowLayout.LEFT  
FlowLayout.CENTER  
FlowLayout.RIGHT

These values specify left, center, and right alignment, respectively.

- The third form allows to specify the horizontal and vertical space left between components in *horz* and *vert*, respectively

# Card layout

- The **CardLayout** class is unique among the other layout managers in that it stores several different layouts.
- Each layout can be thought of as being on a separate index card in a deck that can be shuffled so that any card is on top at a given time.
- **CardLayout** provides these two constructors:  
`CardLayout()`  
`CardLayout(int horz, int vert)`
- The cards are held in an object of type **Panel**. This panel must have **CardLayout** selected as its layout manager.
- Cards are added to panel using  
`void add(Component panelObj, Object name);`
- methods defined by **CardLayout**:  
`void first(Container deck)`  
`void last(Container deck)`  
`void next(Container deck)`  
`void previous(Container deck)`  
`void show(Container deck, String cardName)`

# GridBag Layout

- The Grid bag layout displays components subject to the constraints specified by GridBagConstraints.
- **GridLayout** lays out components in a two-dimensional grid.
- The constructors are

GridLayout( )

GridLayout(int numRows, int numColumns )

GridLayout(int numRows, int numColumns, int horz, int vert)

UNIT =  $\bar{J}$

# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)

UNIT 7 PPT SLIDES

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th editon, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
  2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, pearson eduction.
- 

No. of slides:45

# INDEX

## UNIT 7 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Concepts of Applets, differences between applets and applications	L1	L1.1 TO L1.5
2	Life cycle of an applet, types of applets	L2	L2.1 TO L2.4
3	Creating applets, passing parameters to applets.	L3	L3.1 TO L3.4
4	Introduction to swings, limitations of AWT	L 4	L4.1 TO L4.5
5	MVC architecture, components, containers	L 5	L5.1 TO L5.10
6	Exploring swing- JApplet, JFrame and JComponent, L 6		L6.1 TO L6.3
7	Icons and Labels, text fields, buttons	L 7	L7.1 TO L7.4
8	Check boxes, Combo boxes, RadioButton, JButton	L 8	L8.1 TO L8.4
9	Tabbed Panes, Scroll Panes, Trees, and Tables	L 9	L9.1 TO L9.4

# Concepts of Applets

- *Applets* are small applications that are accessed on an Internet server, transported over the Internet, automatically installed, and run as part of a Web document.
- After an applet arrives on the client, it has limited access to resources, so that it can produce an arbitrary multimedia user interface and run complex computations without introducing the risk of viruses or breaching data integrity.

- applets – Java program that runs within a Java-enabled browser, invoked through a “applet” reference on a web page, dynamically downloaded to the client computer

```
import java.awt.*;  
import java.applet.*;  
public class SimpleApplet extends Applet {  
    public void paint(Graphics g) {  
        g.drawString("A Simple Applet", 20, 20);  
    }  
}
```

- There are two ways to run an applet:
  1. Executing the applet within a Java-compatible Web browser, such as NetscapeNavigator.
  2. Using an applet viewer, such as the standard JDK tool, **appletviewer**.
- An appletviewer executes your applet in a window. This is generally the fastest and easiest way to test an applet.
- To execute an applet in a Web browser, you need to write a short HTML text file that contains the appropriate APPLET tag.

```
<applet code="SimpleApplet" width=200 height=60>  
</applet>
```

## Differences between applets and applications

- Java can be used to create two types of programs: applications and applets.
- An *application* is a program that runs on your computer, under the operating system of that Computer(i.e an application created by Java is more or less like one created using C or C++).
- When used to create applications, Java is not much different from any other computer language.
- An *applet* is an application designed to be transmitted over the Internet and executed by a Java-compatible Web browser.
- An applet is actually a tiny Java program, dynamically downloaded across the network, just like an image, sound file, or video clip.

- The important difference is that an applet is an *intelligent program*, not just an animation or media file(i.e an applet is a program that can react to user input and dynamically change—not just run the same animation or sound over and over).
- Applications require main method to execute.
- Applets do not require main method.
- Java's console input is quite limited
- Applets are graphical and window-based.

# Life cycle of an applet

- Applets life cycle includes the following methods
  1. **init( )**
  2. **start( )**
  3. **paint( )**
  4. **stop( )**
  5. **destroy( )**
- When an applet begins, the AWT calls the following methods, in this sequence:  
**init( )**  
**start( )**  
**paint( )**
- When an applet is terminated, the following sequence of method calls takes place:  
**stop( )**  
**destroy( )**

- **init( )**: The **init( )** method is the first method to be called. This is where you should initialize variables. This method is called only once during the run time of your applet.
- **start( )**: The **start( )** method is called after **init( )**. It is also called to restart an applet after it has been stopped. Whereas **init( )** is called once—the first time an applet is loaded—**start( )** is called each time an applet's HTML document is displayed onscreen. So, if a user leaves a web page and comes back, the applet resumes execution at **start( )**.
- **paint( )**: The **paint()** method is called each time applet's output must be redrawn. **paint()** is also called when the applet begins execution. Whatever the cause, whenever the applet must redraw its output, **paint( )** is called. The **paint( )** method has one parameter of type **Graphics**. This parameter will contain the graphics context, which describes the graphics environment in which the applet is running. This context is used whenever output to the applet is required.

- **stop( )**: The **stop( )** method is called when a web browser leaves the HTML document containing the applet—when it goes to another page, for example. When **stop( )** is called, the applet is probably running. Applet uses **stop( )** to suspend threads that don't need to run when the applet is not visible. To restart **start( )** is called if the user returns to the page.
- **destroy( )**: The **destroy( )** method is called when the environment determines that your applet needs to be removed completely from memory. The **stop( )** method is always called before **destroy( )**.

# Types of applets

- Applets are two types
  - 1.Simple applets
  - 2.JApplets
- Simple applets can be created by extending Applet class
- JApplets can be created by extending JApplet class of javax.swing.JApplet package

# Creating applets

- Applets are created by extending the Applet class.

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
/*<applet code="AppletSkel" width=300 height=100></applet> */
public class AppletSkel extends Applet {
    public void init() {
        // initialization
    }
    public void start() {
        // start or resume execution
    }
    public void stop() {
        // suspends execution
    }
    public void destroy() {
        // perform shutdown activities
    }
    public void paint(Graphics g) {
        // redisplay contents of window
    }
}
```

# passing parameters to applets

- APPLET tag in HTML allows you to pass parameters to applet.
- To retrieve a parameter, use the **getParameter( )** method. It returns the value of the specified parameter in the form of a **String** object.

```
// Use Parameters
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
/*
<applet code="ParamDemo" width=300 height=80>
<param name=fontName value=Courier>
<param name=fontSize value=14>
<param name=leading value=2>
<param name=accountEnabled value=true>
</applet>
*/
```

```
public class ParamDemo extends Applet{
String fontName;
int fontSize;
float leading;
boolean active;
// Initialize the string to be displayed.
public void start() {
String param;
fontName = getParameter("fontName");
if(fontName == null)
fontName = "Not Found";
param = getParameter("fontSize");
try {
if(param != null) // if not found
fontSize = Integer.parseInt(param);
else
fontSize = 0;
} catch(NumberFormatException e) {
fontSize = -1;
}
param = getParameter("leading");
```

```
try {
if(param != null) // if not found
leading = Float.valueOf(param).floatValue();
else
leading = o;
} catch(NumberFormatException e) {
leading = -1;
}
param = getParameter("accountEnabled");
if(param != null)
active = Boolean.valueOf(param).booleanValue();
}
// Display parameters.
public void paint(Graphics g) {
g.drawString("Font name: " + fontName, o, 10);
g.drawString("Font size: " + fontSize, o, 26);
g.drawString("Leading: " + leading, o, 42);
g.drawString("Account Active: " + active, o, 58);
}
}
```

# Introduction to swings

- Swing is a set of classes that provides more powerful and flexible components than are possible with the AWT.
- In addition to the familiar components, such as buttons, check boxes, and labels, Swing supplies several exciting additions, including tabbed panes, scroll panes, trees, and tables.
- Even familiar components such as buttons have more capabilities in Swing.
- For example, a button may have both an image and a text string associated with it. Also, the image can be changed as the state of the button changes.
- Unlike AWT components, Swing components are not implemented by platform-specific code.
- Instead, they are written entirely in Java and, therefore, are platform-independent.
- The term *lightweight* is used to describe such elements.

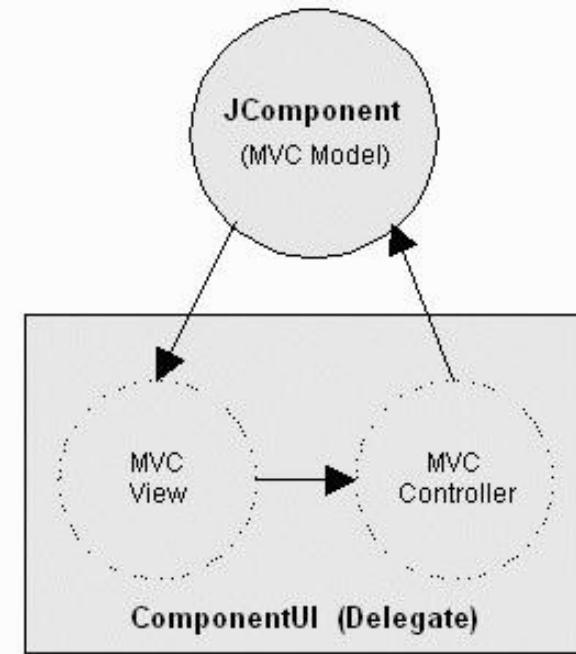
- The Swing component are defined in **javax.swing**
  1. **AbstractButton**: Abstract superclass for Swing buttons.
  2. **ButtonGroup**: Encapsulates a mutually exclusive set of buttons.
  3. **ImageIcon**: Encapsulates an icon.
  4. **JApplet**: The Swing version of Applet.
  5. **JButton**: The Swing push button class.
  6. **JCheckBox**: The Swing check box class.
  7. **JComboBox** : Encapsulates a combo box (an combination of a drop-down list and text field).
  8. **JLabel**: The Swing version of a label.
  9. **JRadioButton**: The Swing version of a radio button.
  10. **JScrollPane**: Encapsulates a scrollable window.
  11. **JTabbedPane**: Encapsulates a tabbed window.
  12. **JTable**: Encapsulates a table-based control.
  13. **JTextField**: The Swing version of a text field.
  14. **JTree**: Encapsulates a tree-based control.

# Limitations of AWT

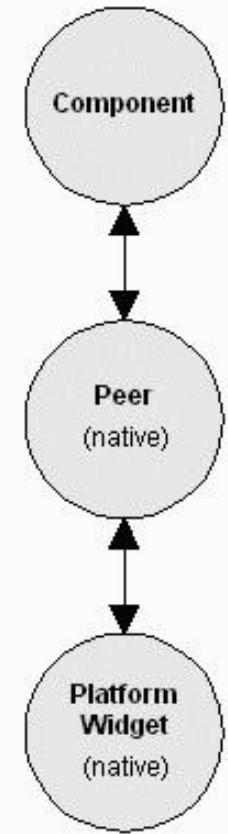
- AWT supports limited number of GUI components.
- AWT components are heavy weight components.
- AWT components are developed by using platform specific code.
- AWT components behaves differently in different operating systems.
- AWT component is converted by the native code of the operating system.

- Lowest Common Denominator
  - If not available natively on one Java platform, not available on any Java platform
- Simple Component Set
- Components Peer-Based
  - Platform controls component appearance
  - Inconsistencies in implementations
    - Interfacing to native platform error-prone

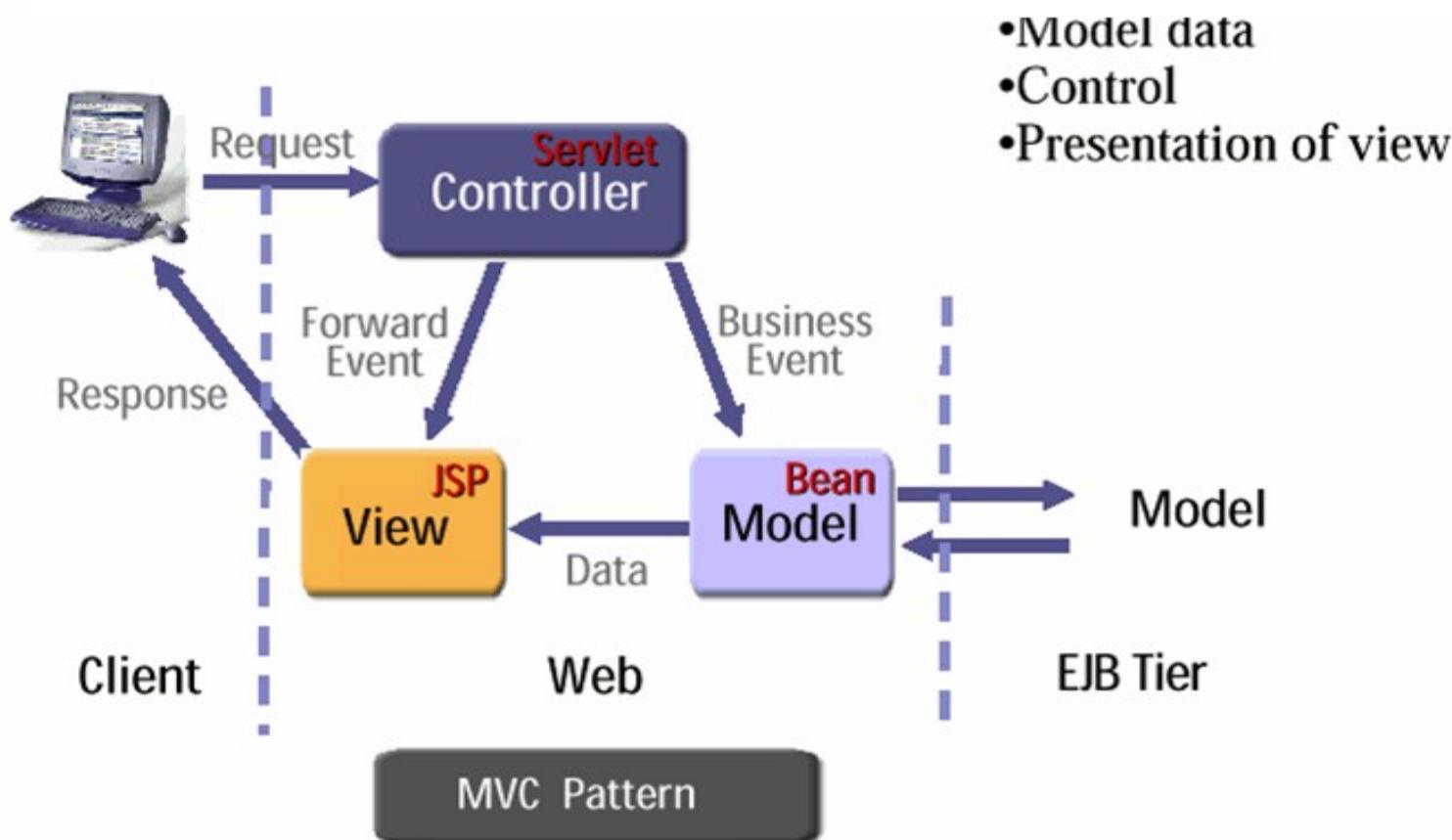
## Swing Look & Feel



## AWT Look & Feel



# MODEL VIEW CONTROLLER ARCHITECTURE



# Model

- Model consists of data and the functions that operate on data
- Java bean that we use to store data is a model component
- EJB can also be used as a model component

# view

- View is the front end that user interact.
- View can be a
  - HTML
  - JSP
  - Struts ActionForm

# Controller

- Controller component responsibilities
  1. Receive request from client
  2. Map request to specific business operation
  3. Determine the view to display based on the result of the business operation

# components

- Container
  - JComponent

- AbstractButton
  - JButton
  - JMenuItem
    - JCheckBoxMenuItem
    - JMenu
    - JRadioButtonMenuItem
  - JToggleButton
    - JCheckBox
    - JRadioButton

# Components (contd...)

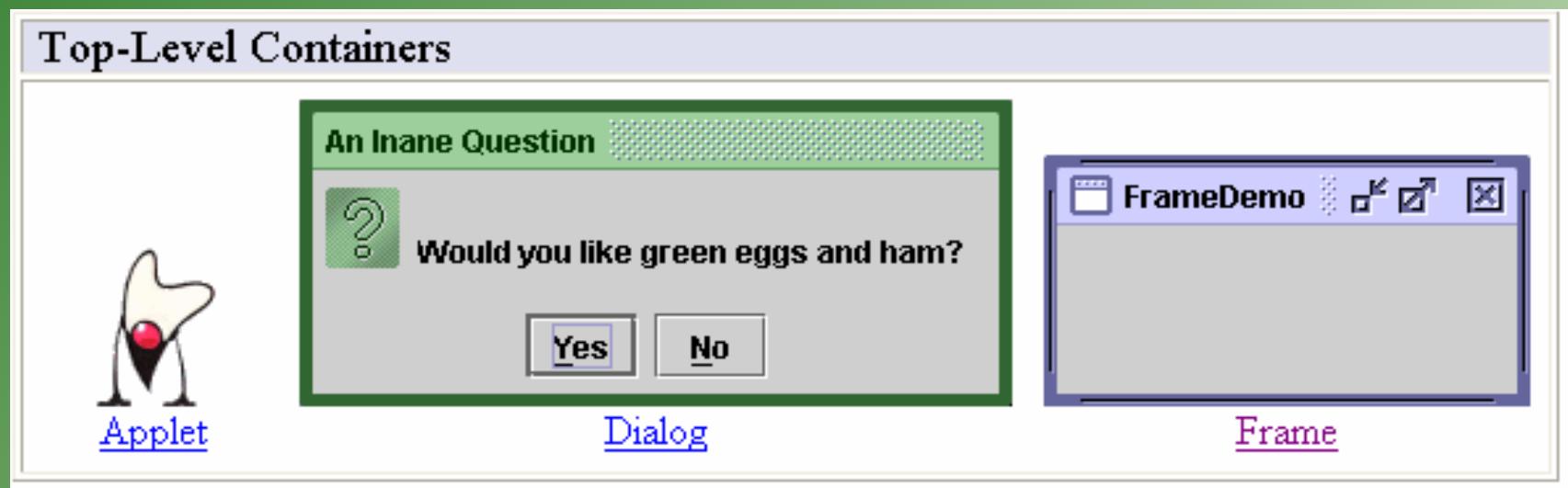
- JComponent
  - JComboBox
  - JLabel
  - JList
  - JMenuBar
  - JPanel
  - JPopupMenu
  - JScrollPane
  - JScrollPane

# Components (contd...)

- **JComponent**
  - **JTextComponent**
    - **JTextArea**
    - **JTextField**
      - **JPasswordField**
    - **JTextPane**
      - **JHTMLPane**

# Containers

- Top-Level Containers
- The components at the top of any Swing containment hierarchy



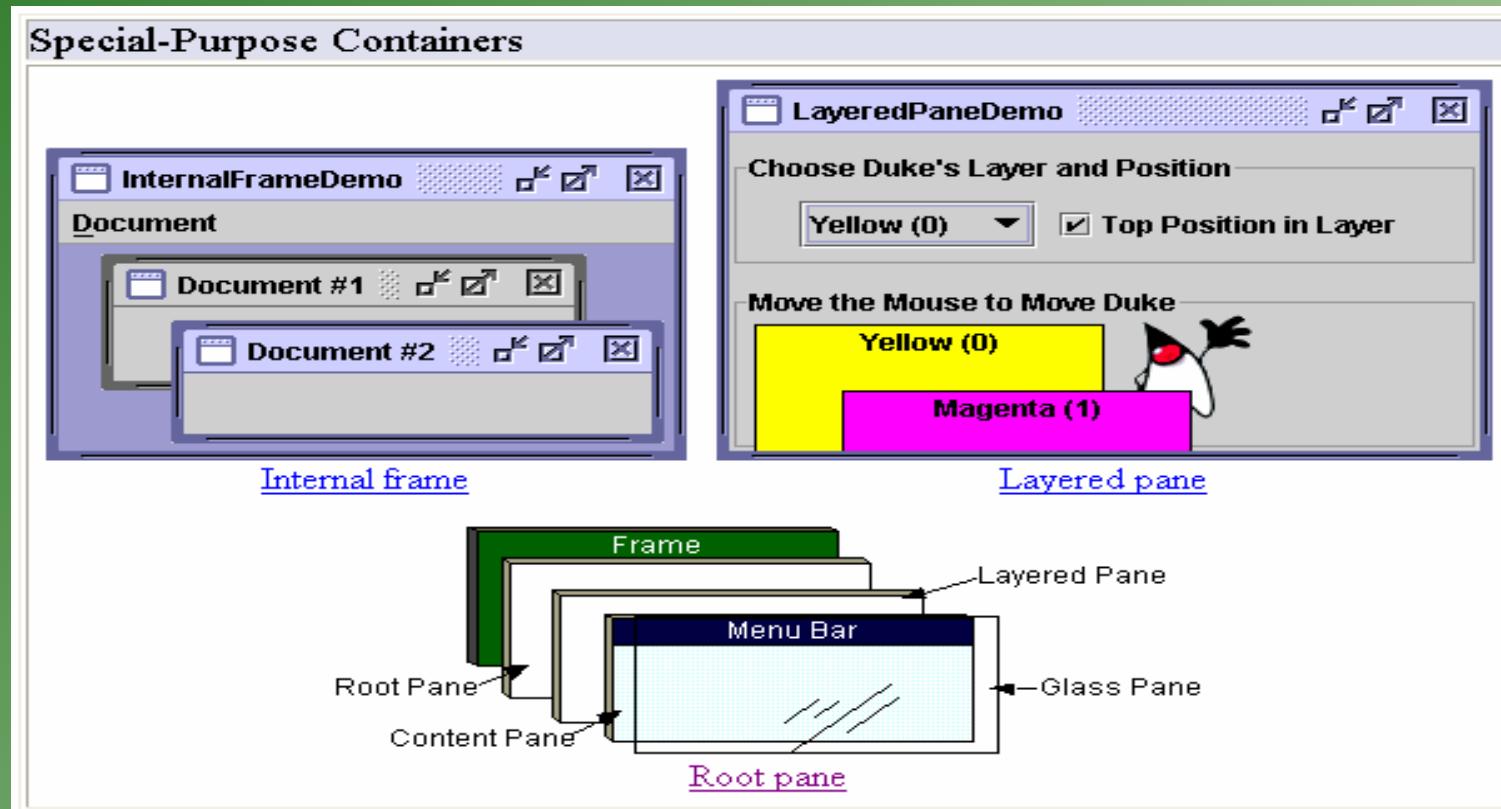
# General Purpose Containers

- Intermediate containers that can be used under many different circumstances.



# Special Purpose Container

- Intermediate containers that play specific roles in the UI.

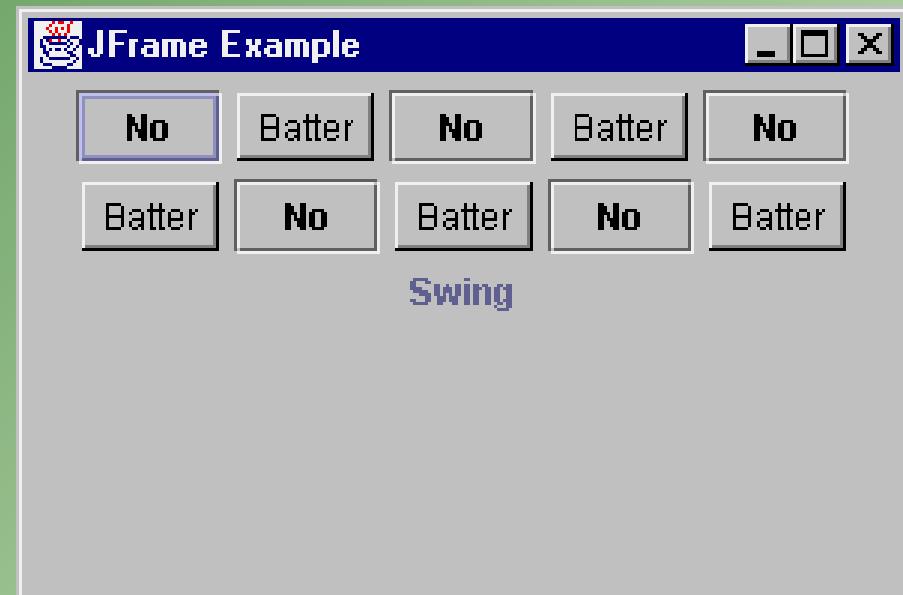


# Exploring swing- JApplet,

- If using Swing components in an applet, subclass *JApplet*, not *Applet*
  - *JApplet* is a subclass of *Applet*
  - Sets up special internal component event handling, among other things
  - Can have a *JMenuBar*
  - Default *LayoutManager* is *BorderLayout*

# JFrame

```
public class FrameTest {  
    public static void main (String args[]) {  
        JFrame f = new JFrame ("JFrame Example");  
        Container c = f.getContentPane();  
        c.setLayout (new FlowLayout());  
        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {  
            c.add (new JButton ("No"));  
            c.add (new JButton ("Batter"));  
        }  
        c.add (new JLabel ("Swing"));  
        f.setSize (300, 200);  
        f.show();  
    }  
}
```



# JComponent

- JComponent supports the following components.
- JComponent
  - JComboBox
  - JLabel
  - JList
  - JMenuBar
  - JPanel
  - JPopupMenu
  - JScrollPane
  - JTextComponent
    - JTextArea
    - JTextField
      - JPasswordField
    - JTextPane
    - JHTMLPane

# Icons and Labels

- In Swing, icons are encapsulated by the **ImageIcon** class, which paints an icon from an image.
- constructors are:
  - ImageIcon(String filename)**
  - ImageIcon(URL url)**
- The **ImageIcon** class implements the **Icon** interface that declares the methods
  1. **int getIconHeight( )**
  2. **int getIconWidth( )**
  3. **void paintIcon(Component comp,Graphics g,int x, int y)**

- Swing labels are instances of the **JLabel** class, which extends **JComponent**.
- It can display text and/or an icon.
- Constructors are:
  - JLabel(Icon i)
  - Label(String s)
  - JLabel(String s, Icon i, int align)
- Here, *s* and *i* are the text and icon used for the label. The *align* argument is either **LEFT**, **RIGHT**, or **CENTER**. These constants are defined in the **SwingConstants** interface,
- Methods are:
  1. Icon getIcon( )
  2. String getText( )
  3. void setIcon(Icon i)
  4. void setText(String s)
- Here, *i* and *s* are the icon and text, respectively.

# Text fields

- The Swing text field is encapsulated by the **JTextComponent** class, which extends **JComponent**.
- It provides functionality that is common to Swing text components.
- One of its subclasses is **JTextField**, which allows you to edit one line of text.
- Constructors are:
  - `JTextField()`
  - `JTextField(int cols)`
  - `JTextField(String s, int cols)`
  - `JTextField(String s)`
- Here, *s* is the string to be presented, and *cols* is the number of columns in the text field.

# Buttons

- Swing buttons provide features that are not found in the **Button** class defined by the AWT.
- Swing buttons are subclasses of the **AbstractButton** class, which extends **JComponent**.
- **AbstractButton** contains many methods that allow you to control the behavior of buttons, check boxes, and radio buttons.
- Methods are:
  1. void setDisabledIcon(Icon di)
  2. void setPressedIcon(Icon pi)
  3. void setSelectedIcon(Icon si)
  4. void setRolloverIcon(Icon ri)
- Here, *di*, *pi*, *si*, and *ri* are the icons to be used for these different conditions.
- The text associated with a button can be read and written via the following methods:
  1. String getText()
  2. void setText(String s)
- Here, *s* is the text to be associated with the button.

# JButton

- The **JButton** class provides the functionality of a push button.
- **JButton** allows an icon, a string, or both to be associated with the push button.
- Some of its constructors are :
  - JButton(Icon i)**
  - JButton(String s)**
  - JButton(String s, Icon i)**
- Here, *s* and *i* are the string and icon used for the button.

# Check boxes

- The **JCheckBox** class, which provides the functionality of a check box, is a concrete implementation of **AbstractButton**.
- Some of its constructors are shown here:

`JCheckBox(Icon i)`

`JCheckBox(Icon i, boolean state)`

`JCheckBox(String s)`

`JCheckBox(String s, boolean state)`

`JCheckBox(String s, Icon i)`

`JCheckBox(String s, Icon i, boolean state)`

- Here, *i* is the icon for the button. The text is specified by *s*. If *state* is **true**, the check box is initially selected. Otherwise, it is not.

- The state of the check box can be changed via the following method:

`void setSelected(boolean state)`

- Here, *state* is **true** if the check box should be checked.

# Combo boxes

- Swing provides a *combo box* (a combination of a text field and a drop-down list) through the **JComboBox** class, which extends **JComponent**.
- A combo box normally displays one entry. However, it can also display a drop-down list that allows a user to select a different entry. You can also type your selection into the text field.
- Two of **JComboBox**'s constructors are :
  - `JComboBox()`
  - `JComboBox(Vector v)`
- Here, *v* is a vector that initializes the combo box.
- Items are added to the list of choices via the **addItem( )** method, whose signature is:  
`void addItem(Object obj)`
- Here, *obj* is the object to be added to the combo box.

# Radio Buttons

- Radio buttons are supported by the **JRadioButton** class, which is a concrete implementation of **AbstractButton**.

- Some of its constructors are :

`JRadioButton(Icon i)`

`JRadioButton(Icon i, boolean state)`

`JRadioButton(String s)`

`JRadioButton(String s, boolean state)`

`JRadioButton(String s, Icon i)`

`JRadioButton(String s, Icon i, boolean state)`

- Here, *i* is the icon for the button. The text is specified by *s*. If *state* is **true**, the button is initially selected. Otherwise, it is not.

- Elements are then added to the button group via the following method:

`void add(AbstractButton ab)`

- Here, *ab* is a reference to the button to be added to the group.

# Tabbed Panes

- A *tabbed pane* is a component that appears as a group of folders in a file cabinet.
- Each folder has a title. When a user selects a folder, its contents become visible. Only one of the folders may be selected at a time.
- Tabbed panes are commonly used for setting configuration options.
- Tabbed panes are encapsulated by the **JTabbedPane** class, which extends **JComponent**. We will use its default constructor. Tabs are defined via the following method:

```
void addTab(String str, Component comp)
```

- Here, *str* is the title for the tab, and *comp* is the component that should be added to the tab. Typically, a **JPanel** or a subclass of it is added.
- The general procedure to use a tabbed pane in an applet is outlined here:
  1. Create a **JTabbedPane** object.
  2. Call **addTab( )** to add a tab to the pane. (The arguments to this method define the title of the tab and the component it contains.)
  3. Repeat step 2 for each tab.
  4. Add the tabbed pane to the content pane of the applet.

# Scroll Panes

- A *scroll pane* is a component that presents a rectangular area in which a component may be viewed. Horizontal and/or vertical scroll bars may be provided if necessary.
- Scroll panes are implemented in Swing by the **JScrollPane** class, which extends **JComponent**. Some of its constructors are :  
`JScrollPane(Component comp)`  
`JScrollPane(int vsb, int hsb)`  
`JScrollPane(Component comp, int vsb, int hsb)`
- Here, *comp* is the component to be added to the scroll pane. *vsb* and *hsb* are **int** constants that define when vertical and horizontal scroll bars for this scroll pane are shown.
- These constants are defined by the **ScrollPaneConstants** interface.
  1. HORIZONTAL\_SCROLLBAR\_ALWAYS
  2. HORIZONTAL\_SCROLLBAR\_AS\_NEEDED
  3. VERTICAL\_SCROLLBAR\_ALWAYS
  4. VERTICAL\_SCROLLBAR\_AS\_NEEDED
- Here are the steps to follow to use a scroll pane in an applet:
  1. Create a **JComponent** object.
  2. Create a **JScrollPane** object. (The arguments to the constructor specify the component and the policies for vertical and horizontal scroll bars.)
  3. Add the scroll pane to the content pane of the applet.

# Trees

- Data Model - TreeModel
  - default: DefaultTreeModel
  - getChild, getChildCount, getIndexOfChild, getRoot, isLeaf
- Selection Model - TreeSelectionModel
- View - TreeCellRenderer
  - getTreeCellRendererComponent
- Node - DefaultMutableTreeNode

# Tables

- A *table* is a component that displays rows and columns of data. You can drag the cursor on column boundaries to resize columns. You can also drag a column to a new position.
- Tables are implemented by the **JTable** class, which extends **JComponent**.
- One of its constructors is :  
`JTable(Object data[ ][ ], Object colHeads[ ])`
- Here, *data* is a two-dimensional array of the information to be presented, and *colHeads* is a one-dimensional array with the column headings.
- Here are the steps for using a table in an applet:
  1. Create a **JTable** object.
  2. Create a **JScrollPane** object. (The arguments to the constructor specify the table and the policies for vertical and horizontal scroll bars.)
  3. Add the table to the scroll pane.
  4. Add the scroll pane to the content pane of the applet.

UNIVERSITY - 8

# OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

B.TECH II YR II SEMESTER(TERM 08-09)

UNIT 8 PPT SLIDES

TEXT BOOKS:

1. Java: the complete reference, 7th editon, Herbert schildt, TMH.Understanding
  2. OOP with Java, updated edition, T. Budd, pearson eduction.
- 

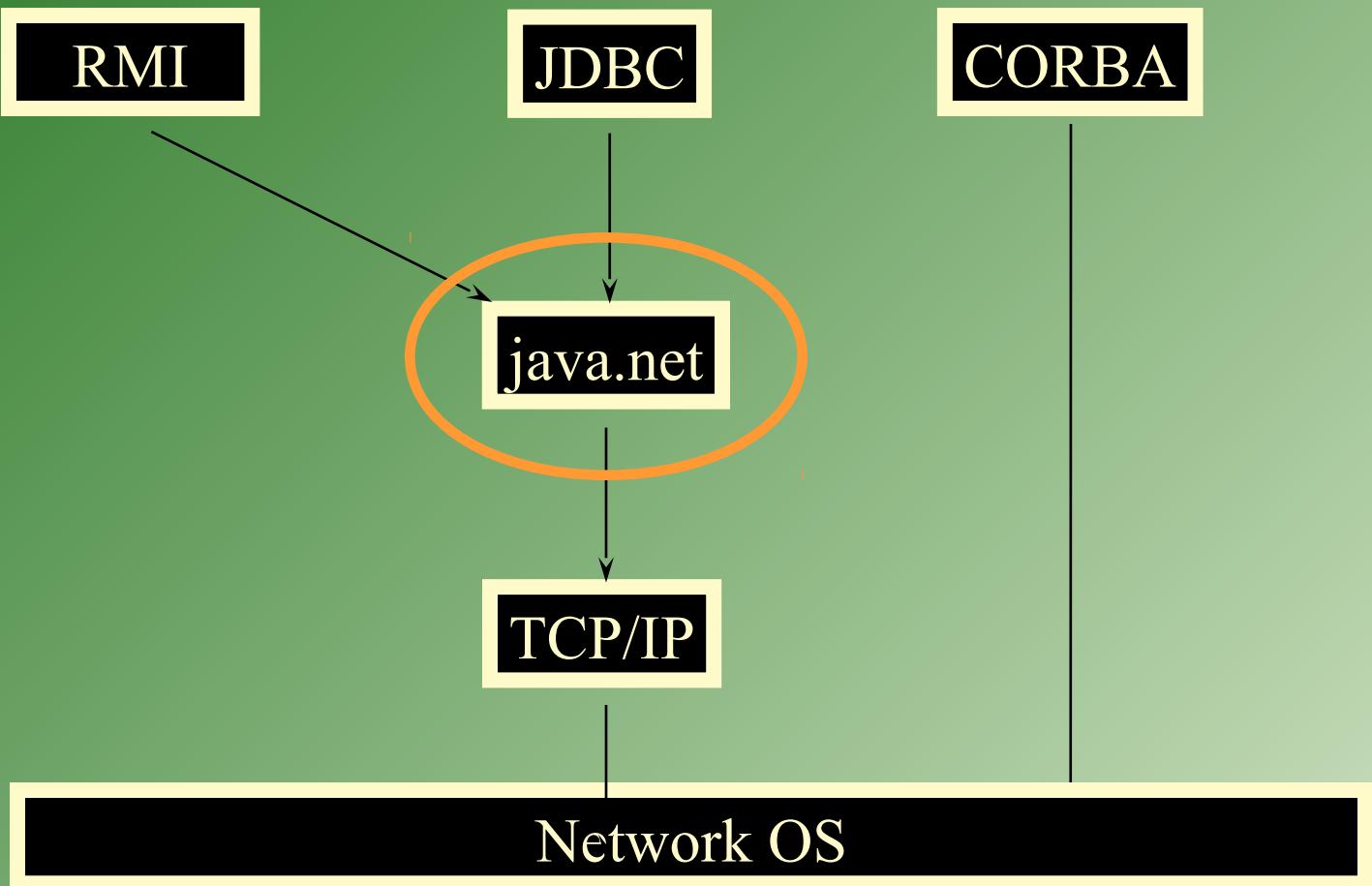
No. of slides:45

# INDEX

## UNIT 9 PPT SLIDES

S.NO.	TOPIC	LECTURE NO.	PPTSLIDES
1	Basics of network programming	L1	L1.1 TO L1.7
2	addresses	L2	L2.1 TO L2.2
3	Ports	L3	L3.1 TO L3.2
4	Sockets	L 4	L4.1 TO L4.3
5	simple client server program	L 5	L5.1 TO L5.5
6	Multiple clients	L 6	L6.1 TO L6.5
7	java .net package	L 7	L7.1 TO L7.2
8	java.util package	L 8	L8.1 TO L8.3
9	Revision	L 9	

# Basics of network programming: Overview



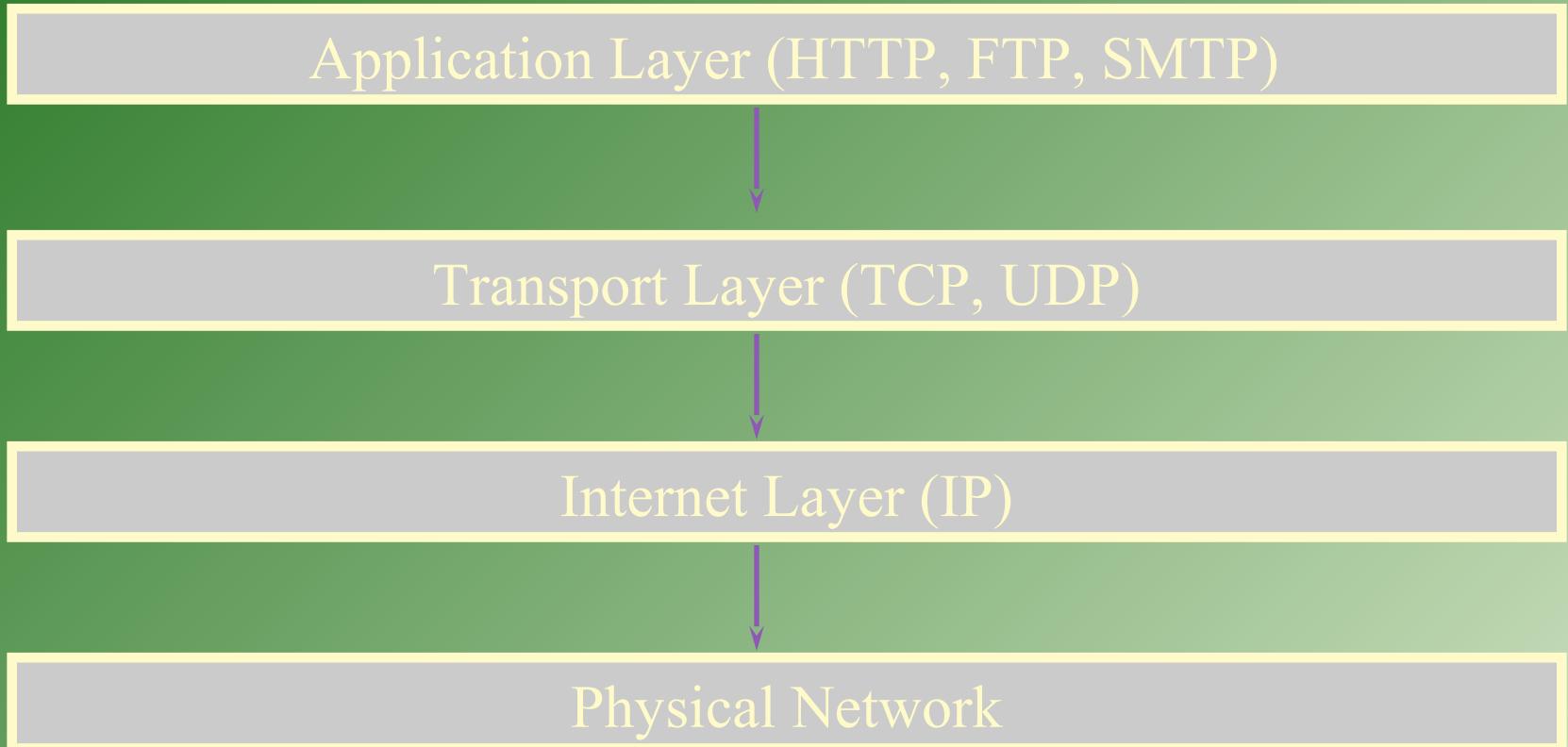
# A Network Is...

- node
  - any device on the network
- host
  - a computer on the network
- address
  - computer-readable name for host
- host name
  - human-readable name for host

# A Network Does...

- datagram (or “packet”)
  - little bundle of information
  - sent from one node to another
- protocol
  - roles, vocabulary, rules for communication
- IP
  - the Internet Protocol

# TCP/IP: The Internet Protocol



# TCP/UDP/IP

- IP
  - raw packets
  - the “Internet Layer”
- TCP
  - data stream
  - reliable, ordered
  - the “Transport Layer”
- UDP
  - user datagrams (packets)
  - unreliable, unordered
  - the “Transport Layer”

# The Three ‘I’s

- **internet**
  - any IP-based network
- **Internet**
  - the big, famous, world-wide IP network
- **intranet**
  - a corporate LAN-based IP network
- **extranet**
  - accessing corporate data across the Internet

# Java and Networking

- Built into language
- One of the 11 buzzwords
- Network ClassLoader
- java.net API
- Based on TCP/IP, the Internet Protocol

# Addresses

- Every computer on the Internet has an *address*.
- An Internet address is a number that uniquely identifies each computer on the Net.
- There are 32 bits in an IP address, and often refer to them as a sequence of four numbers between 0 and 255 separated by dots
- The first few bits define which class of network, lettered A, B,
- C, D, or E, the address represents.
- Most Internet users are on a class C network, since there are over two million networks in class C.

# IP Addresses

- The first byte of a class C network is between 192 and 224, with the last byte actually identifying an individual computer among the 256 allowed on a single class C network.
- IP Address: identifies a host
- DNS: converts host names / domain names into IP addresses.

# Ports

- Port: a meeting place on a host
  1. one service per port
  2. 1-1023 = well-known services
  3. 1024+ = experimental services, temporary

# Well-Known Ports

- 20,21: FTP
- 23: telnet
- 25: SMTP
- 43: whois
- 80: HTTP
- 119: NNTP
- 1099: RMI

# Sockets

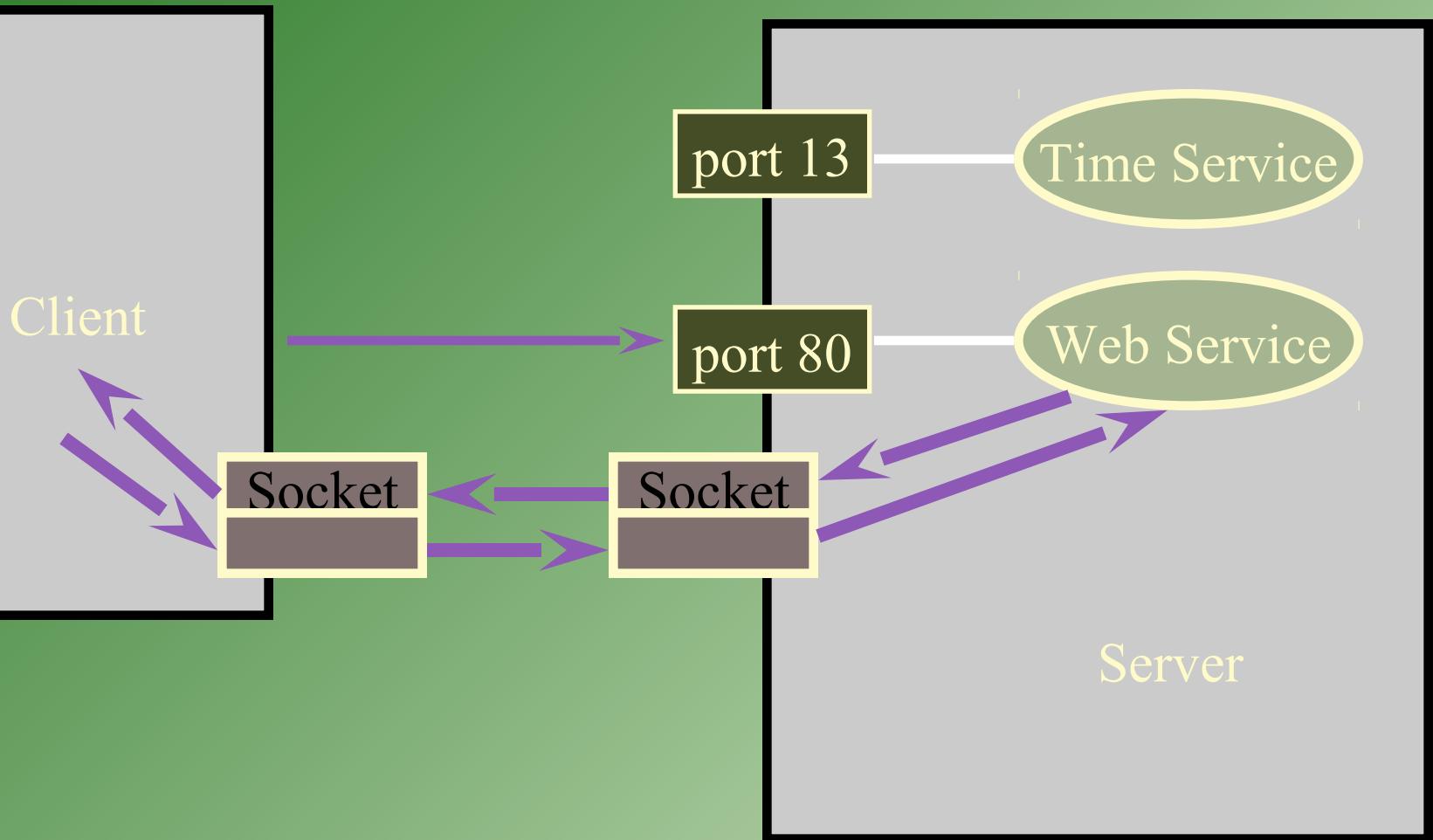
- A *network socket* is a lot like an electrical socket.
- Socket: a two-way connection
- *Internet Protocol (IP)* is a low-level routing protocol that breaks data into small packets and sends them to an address across a network, which does not guarantee to deliver said packets to the destination.
- *Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)* is a higher-level protocol that manages to robustly string together these packets, sorting and retransmitting them as necessary to reliably transmit your data.
- A third protocol, *User Datagram Protocol (UDP)*, sits next to TCP and can be used directly to support fast, connectionless, unreliable transport of packets.

# The Socket Class

- `Socket(String host, int port)`
- `InputStream getInputStream()`
- `OutputStream getOutputStream()`
- `void close()`

```
Socket s = new Socket("www.starwave.com", 90);
```

# Sockets and Ports



# Client-Server

- Client - initiates connection
  - retrieves data,
  - displays data,
  - responds to user input,
  - requests more data
- Examples:
  - Web Browser
  - Chat Program
  - PC accessing files

# simple client server program-client

```
/** Client program using TCP */
public class Tclient {

    final static String serverIPname = "starwave.com";// server IP name
    final static int serverPort = 3456; // server port number
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        java.net.Socket sock = null; // Socket object for communicating
        java.io.PrintWriter pw = null; // socket output to server
        java.io.BufferedReader br = null; // socket input from server
        try {
            sock = new java.net.Socket(serverIPname,serverPort);// create socket
                                                               and connect
            pw = new java.io.PrintWriter(sock.getOutputStream(), true); // create
                                                               reader and writer
            br = new java.io.BufferedReader(new
                java.io.InputStreamReader(sock.getInputStream()));
            System.out.println("Connected to Server");
        }
    }
}
```

```
pw.println("Message from the client"); // send msg to the server
System.out.println("Sent message to server");
String answer = br.readLine();           // get data from the server
System.out.println("Response from the server >" + answer);

pw.close();
// close everything
br.close();
sock.close();
} catch (Throwable e) {
    System.out.println("Error " + e.getMessage());
    e.printStackTrace();
}
}
```

# Server program

```
/** Server program using TCP */
public class Tserver {

    final static int serverPort = 3456; // server port number

    public static void main(String args[]) {
        java.net.ServerSocket sock = null; // original server socket
        java.net.Socket clientSocket = null; // socket created by accept
        java.io.PrintWriter pw = null; // socket output stream
        java.io.BufferedReader br = null; // socket input stream
        try {
            sock = new java.net.ServerSocket(serverPort); // create socket and bind to port
            System.out.println("waiting for client to connect");
            clientSocket = sock.accept();
        }
    }
}
```

```
// wait for client to connect
    System.out.println("client has connected");
    pw = new java.io.PrintWriter(clientSocket.getOutputStream(),true);
    br = new java.io.BufferedReader(
new java.io.InputStreamReader(clientSocket.getInputStream()));

String msg = br.readLine();
// read msg from client
System.out.println("Message from the client >" + msg);
pw.println("Got it!");           // send msg to client
pw.close();                      // close
everything
br.close();
clientSocket.close();
sock.close();
} catch (Throwable e) {
    System.out.println("Error " + e.getMessage());
    e.printStackTrace();
}
}
```

# Multiple Clients

- Multiple clients can connect to the same port on the server at the same time.
- Incoming data is distinguished by the port to which it is addressed and the client host and port from which it came.
- The server can tell for which service (like http or ftp) the data is intended by inspecting the port.
- It can tell which open socket on that service the data is intended for by looking at the client address and port stored with the data.

# Queueing

- Incoming connections are stored in a queue until the server can accept them.
- On most systems the default queue length is between 5 and 50.
- Once the queue fills up further incoming connections are refused until space in the queue opens up.

# The `java.net.ServerSocket` Class

- The `java.net.ServerSocket` class represents a server socket.
- A `ServerSocket` object is constructed on a particular local port. Then it calls `accept()` to listen for incoming connections.
- `accept()` blocks until a connection is detected. Then `accept()` returns a `java.net.Socket` object that performs the actual communication with the client.

# Constructors

- There are three constructors that specify the port to bind to, the queue length for incoming connections, and the IP address to bind to:

public ServerSocket(int port) throws IOException

public ServerSocket(int port, int backlog) throws  
IOException

public ServerSocket(int port, int backlog, InetAddress  
networkInterface) throws IOException

# Constructing Server Sockets

- specify the port number to listen :

```
try {  
    ServerSocket ss = new ServerSocket(80);  
}  
catch (IOException e) {  
    System.err.println(e);  
}
```

# **java.net package**

- The classes in **java.net** package are :

JarURLConnection (Java 2)

URLConnection

DatagramSocketImpl

ServerSocket

URLDecoder (Java 2)

HttpURLConnection

Socket

URLEncoder

InetAddress

SocketImpl

URLStreamHandler

SocketPermission

ContentHandler

MulticastSocket

URL

DatagramPacket

NetPermission

URLClassLoader (Java 2)

DatagramSocket

PasswordAuthentication(Java 2)

Authenticator (Java 2)

The **java.net** package's interfaces are

1. ContentHandlerFactory
2. SocketImplFactory
3. URLStreamHandlerFactory
4. FileNameMap
5. SocketOptions

# java.util package

- The **java.util package defines the following classes:**
  1. AbstractCollection (Java2)
  2. EventObject
  3. PropertyResourceBundle
  4. AbstractList (Java 2)
  5. GregorianCalendar
  6. Random
  7. AbstractMap (Java 2)
  8. HashMap(Java 2)
  9. ResourceBundle
  10. AbstractSequentialList(Java 2)
  11. HashSet (Java2)
  12. SimpleTimeZone
  13. AbstractSet (Java 2)
  14. Hashtable
  15. Stack

- 16.ArrayList (Java 2)
- 17.LinkedList(Java 2)
- 18.StringTokenizer
- 19.Arrays (Java 2)
- 20.ListResourceBundle
- 21.TimeZone
- 22.BitSet
- 23.Locale
- 24.TreeMap (Java 2)
- 25.Calendar
- 26.Observable
- 27.TreeSet (Java 2)
- 28.Collections (Java 2)
- 29.Properties
- 30.Vector
- 31.Date
- 32.PropertyPermission(Java 2)
- 33.WeakHashMap (Java 2)
- 34.Dictionary

**java.util** defines the following interfaces.

1. Collection (Java 2)
2. List (Java 2)
3. Observer
4. Comparator (Java 2)
5. ListIterator(Java 2)
6. Set (Java 2)
7. Enumeration
8. Map (Java 2)
9. SortedMap (Java 2)
10. EventListener
11. Map.Entry(Java 2)
12. SortedSet (Java 2)
13. Iterator (Java 2)