

# ATM Case Study, Part I: Object-Oriented Design with the UML

# 25

*Action speaks louder than words  
but not nearly as often.*

—Mark Twain

## Objectives

In this chapter you'll:

- Learn a simple object-oriented design methodology.
- Learn what a requirements document is.
- Identify classes and class attributes from a requirements document.
- Identify objects' states, activities and operations from a requirements document.
- Determine the collaborations among objects in a system.
- Work with the UML's use case, class, state, activity, communication and sequence diagrams to graphically model a simple object-oriented system.



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|---|---|
| 25.1 Introduction   | 25.6 Identifying Objects' States and Activities |
| 25.2 Introduction to Object-Oriented Analysis and Design      | 25.7 Identifying Class Operations               |
| 25.3 Examining the ATM Requirements Document                  | 25.8 Indicating Collaboration Among Objects     |
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## 25.1 Introduction

Now we begin the optional portion of our object-oriented design and implementation case study. In this chapter and Chapter 26, you'll design and implement an object-oriented automated teller machine (ATM) software system. The case study provides you with a concise, carefully paced, complete design and implementation experience. You'll perform the steps of an object-oriented design (OOD) process using the UML while relating them to the object-oriented concepts discussed in Chapters 2–13. In this chapter, you'll work with six popular types of UML diagrams to graphically represent the design. In Chapter 26, you'll tune the design with inheritance and polymorphism, then fully implement the ATM in an 850-line C++ application (Section 26.4).

This is *not* an exercise; rather, it's an end-to-end learning experience that concludes with a detailed walkthrough of the *complete* C++ code that implements our design. It will acquaint you with the kinds of substantial problems encountered in industry.

These chapters can be studied as a continuous unit after you've completed the introduction to object-oriented programming in Chapters 2–13. Or, you can pace the sections after Chapters 3–7, 9 and 13. Each section of the case study begins with a note telling you the chapter after which it can be covered.

## 25.2 Introduction to Object-Oriented Analysis and Design

What if you were asked to create a software system to control thousands of automated teller machines for a major bank? Or suppose you were asked to work on a team of 1000 software developers building the next U.S. air traffic control system. For projects so large and complex, you cannot simply sit down and start writing programs.

To create the best solutions, you should follow a process for **analyzing** your project's **requirements** (i.e., determining *what* the system should do) and developing a **design** that satisfies them (i.e., deciding *how* the system should do it). Ideally, you'd go through this process and carefully review the design (or have your design reviewed by other software professionals) before writing any code. If this process involves analyzing and designing your system from an object-oriented point of view, it's called an **object-oriented analysis and design (OOAD) process**. Analysis and design can save many hours by helping you to avoid an ill-planned system-development approach that has to be abandoned part of the way through its implementation, possibly wasting considerable time, money and effort. Small problems do not require an exhaustive OOAD process. It may be sufficient to write pseudocode before you begin writing C++ code.

As problems and the groups of people solving them increase in size, the methods of OOAD become more appropriate than pseudocode. Ideally, members of a group should agree on a strictly defined process for solving their problem and a uniform way of communicating the results of that process to one another. Although many different OOAD processes exist, a single graphical language for communicating the results of *any* OOAD process has come into wide use. This language, known as the Unified Modeling Language (UML), was developed in the mid-1990s under the initial direction of three software methodologists—Grady Booch, James Rumbaugh and Ivar Jacobson.

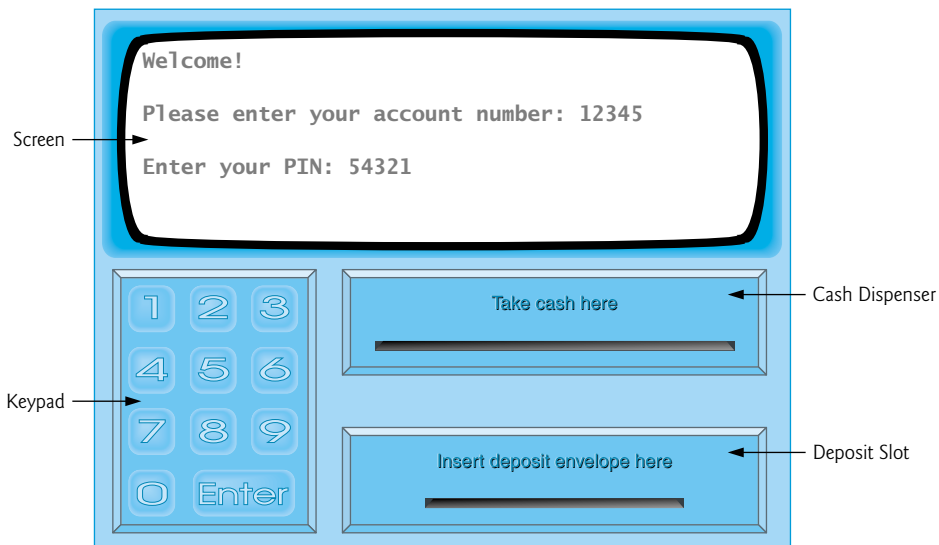
## 25.3 Examining the ATM Requirements Document

[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 3.]

We begin our design process by presenting a **requirements document** that specifies the ATM system's overall purpose and *what* it must do. Throughout the case study, we refer to the requirements document to determine what functionality the system must include.

### *Requirements Document*

A local bank intends to install a new automated teller machine (ATM) to allow users (i.e., bank customers) to perform basic financial transactions (Fig. 25.1). Each user can have only one account at the bank. ATM users should be able to *view their account balance*, *withdraw cash* (i.e., take money out of an account) and *deposit funds* (i.e., place money into an account).



**Fig. 25.1** | Automated teller machine user interface.

The user interface of the automated teller machine contains the following hardware components:

- a screen that displays messages to the user

- a keypad that receives numeric input from the user
- a cash dispenser that dispenses cash to the user and
- a deposit slot that receives deposit envelopes from the user.

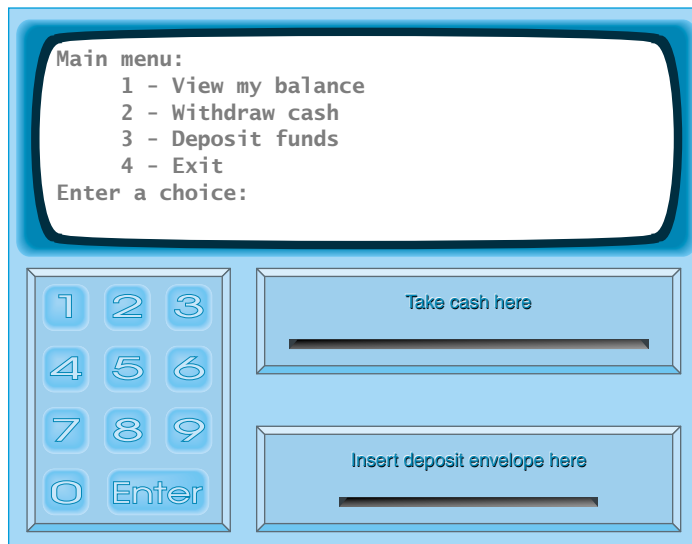
The cash dispenser begins each day loaded with 500 \$20 bills. [Note: Owing to the limited scope of this case study, certain elements of the ATM described here do not accurately mimic those of a real ATM. For example, a real ATM typically contains a device that reads a user's account number from an ATM card, whereas this ATM asks the user to type an account number using the keypad. A real ATM also usually prints a receipt at the end of a session, but all output from this ATM appears on the screen.]

The bank wants you to develop software to perform the financial transactions initiated by bank customers through the ATM. The bank will integrate the software with the ATM's hardware at a later time. The software should encapsulate the functionality of the hardware devices (e.g., cash dispenser, deposit slot) within software components, but it need not concern itself with how these devices perform their duties. The ATM hardware has not been developed yet, so instead of writing your software to run on the ATM, you should develop a first version of the software to run on a personal computer. This version should use the computer's monitor to simulate the ATM's screen, and the computer's keyboard to simulate the ATM's keypad.

An ATM session consists of authenticating a user (i.e., proving the user's identity) based on an account number and personal identification number (PIN), followed by creating and executing financial transactions. To authenticate a user and perform transactions, the ATM must interact with the bank's account information database. [Note: A database is an organized collection of data stored on a computer.] For each bank account, the database stores an account number, a PIN and a balance indicating the amount of money in the account. [Note: For simplicity, we assume that *the bank plans to build only one ATM, so we do not need to worry about multiple ATMs accessing this database at the same time. Furthermore, we assume that the bank does not make any changes to the information in the database while a user is accessing the ATM.* Also, any business system like an ATM faces reasonably complicated security issues that go well beyond the scope of a first- or second-semester computer science course. We make the simplifying assumption, however, that the bank trusts the ATM to access and manipulate the information in the database without significant security measures.]

Upon first approaching the ATM, the user should experience the following sequence of events (shown in Fig. 25.1):

1. The screen displays a welcome message and prompts the user to enter an account number.
2. The user enters a five-digit account number, using the keypad.
3. The screen prompts the user to enter the PIN (personal identification number) associated with the specified account number.
4. The user enters a five-digit PIN, using the keypad.
5. If the user enters a valid account number and the correct PIN for that account, the screen displays the main menu (Fig. 25.2). If the user enters an invalid account number or an incorrect PIN, the screen displays an appropriate message, then the ATM returns to *Step 1* to restart the authentication process.



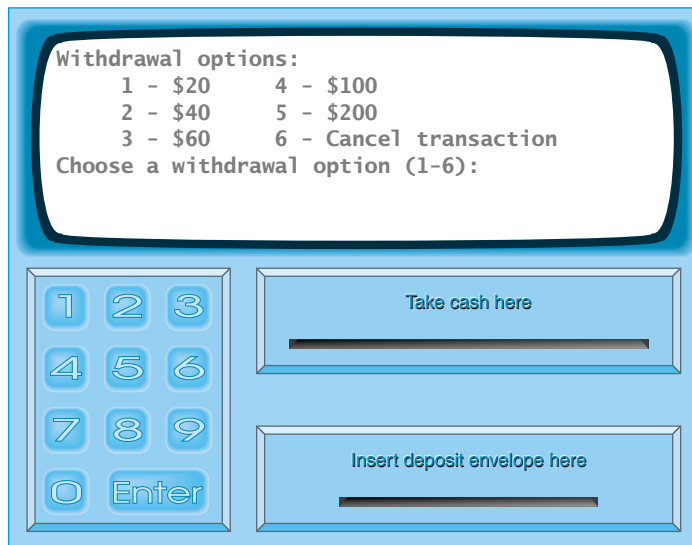
**Fig. 25.2** | ATM main menu.

After the ATM authenticates the user, the main menu (Fig. 25.2) displays a numbered option for each of the three types of transactions: balance inquiry (option 1), withdrawal (option 2) and deposit (option 3). The main menu also displays an option that allows the user to exit the system (option 4). The user then chooses either to perform a transaction (by entering 1, 2 or 3) or to exit the system (by entering 4). If the user enters an invalid option, the screen displays an error message, then redisplay to the main menu.

If the user enters 1 to make a balance inquiry, the screen displays the user's account balance. To do so, the ATM must retrieve the balance from the bank's database.

The following actions occur when the user enters 2 to make a withdrawal:

1. The screen displays a menu (shown in Fig. 25.3) containing standard withdrawal amounts: \$20 (option 1), \$40 (option 2), \$60 (option 3), \$100 (option 4) and \$200 (option 5). The menu also contains an option to allow the user to cancel the transaction (option 6).
2. The user enters a menu selection (1–6) using the keypad.
3. If the withdrawal amount chosen is greater than the user's account balance, the screen displays a message stating this and telling the user to choose a smaller amount. The ATM then returns to *Step 1*. If the withdrawal amount chosen is less than or equal to the user's account balance (i.e., an acceptable withdrawal amount), the ATM proceeds to *Step 4*. If the user chooses to cancel the transaction (option 6), the ATM displays the main menu (Fig. 25.2) and waits for user input.
4. If the cash dispenser contains enough cash to satisfy the request, the ATM proceeds to *Step 5*. Otherwise, the screen displays a message indicating the problem and telling the user to choose a smaller withdrawal amount. The ATM then returns to *Step 1*.



**Fig. 25.3** | ATM withdrawal menu.

5. The ATM debits (i.e., subtracts) the withdrawal amount from the user's account balance in the bank's database.
6. The cash dispenser dispenses the desired amount of money to the user.
7. The screen displays a message reminding the user to take the money.

The following actions occur when the user enters 3 (while the main menu is displayed) to make a deposit:

1. The screen prompts the user to enter a deposit amount or to type 0 (zero) to cancel the transaction.
2. The user enters a deposit amount or 0, using the keypad. [*Note:* The keypad does not contain a decimal point or a dollar sign, so the user cannot type a real dollar amount (e.g., \$1.25). Instead, the user must enter a deposit amount as a number of cents (e.g., 125). The ATM then divides this number by 100 to obtain a number representing a dollar amount (e.g.,  $125 \div 100 = 1.25$ ).]
3. If the user specifies a deposit amount, the ATM proceeds to *Step 4*. If the user chooses to cancel the transaction (by entering 0), the ATM displays the main menu (Fig. 25.2) and waits for user input.
4. The screen displays a message telling the user to insert a deposit envelope into the deposit slot.
5. If the deposit slot receives a deposit envelope within two minutes, the ATM credits (i.e., adds) the deposit amount to the user's account balance in the bank's database. *This money is not immediately available for withdrawal. The bank first must physically verify the amount of cash in the deposit envelope, and any checks in the en-*

*velope must clear (i.e., money must be transferred from the check writer's account to the check recipient's account). When either of these events occurs, the bank appropriately updates the user's balance stored in its database. This occurs independently of the ATM system. If the deposit slot does not receive a deposit envelope within this time period, the screen displays a message that the system has canceled the transaction due to inactivity. The ATM then displays the main menu and waits for user input.*

After the system successfully executes a transaction, the system should redisplay the main menu (Fig. 25.2) so that the user can perform additional transactions. If the user chooses to exit the system (option 4), the screen should display a thank you message, then display the welcome message for the next user.

### *Analyzing the ATM System*

The preceding statement is a simplified example of a requirements document. Typically, such a document is the result of a detailed **requirements gathering** process that might include interviews with potential users of the system and specialists in fields related to the system. For example, a systems analyst who is hired to prepare a requirements document for banking software (e.g., the ATM system described here) might interview financial experts to gain a better understanding of *what* the software must do. The analyst would use the information gained to compile a list of **system requirements** to guide systems designers.

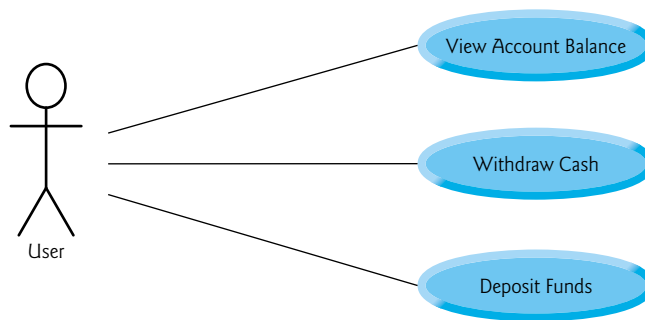
The process of requirements gathering is a key task of the first stage of the software life cycle. The **software life cycle** specifies the stages through which software evolves from the time it's first conceived to the time it's retired from use. These stages typically include: analysis, design, implementation, testing and debugging, deployment, maintenance and retirement. Several software life-cycle models exist, each with its own preferences and specifications for when and how often software engineers should perform each of these stages. **Waterfall models** perform each stage once in succession, whereas **iterative models** may repeat one or more stages several times throughout a product's life cycle.

The analysis stage of the software life cycle focuses on defining the problem to be solved. When designing any system, one must certainly *solve the problem right*, but of equal importance, one must *solve the right problem*. Systems analysts collect the requirements that indicate the specific problem to solve. Our requirements document describes our ATM system in sufficient detail that you do not need to go through an extensive analysis stage—it has been done for you.

To capture what a proposed system should do, developers often employ a technique known as **use case modeling**. This process identifies the **use cases** of the system, each of which represents a different capability that the system provides to its clients. For example, ATMs typically have several use cases, such as “View Account Balance,” “Withdraw Cash,” “Deposit Funds,” “Transfer Funds Between Accounts” and “Buy Postage Stamps.” The simplified ATM system we build in this case study allows only the first three of these use cases (Fig. 25.4).

Each use case describes a typical scenario in which the user uses the system. You've already read descriptions of the ATM system's use cases in the requirements document; the lists of steps required to perform each type of transaction (i.e., balance inquiry, withdrawal and deposit) actually described the three use cases of our ATM—“View Account Balance,” “Withdraw Cash” and “Deposit Funds.”





**Fig. 25.4** | Use case diagram for the ATM system from the User's perspective.

### Use Case Diagrams

We now introduce the first of several UML diagrams in our ATM case study. We create a **use case diagram** to model the interactions between a system's clients (in this case study, bank customers) and the system. The goal is to show the kinds of interactions users have with a system without providing the details—these are provided in other UML diagrams (which we present throughout the case study). Use case diagrams are often accompanied by informal text that describes the use cases in more detail—like the text that appears in the requirements document. Use case diagrams are produced during the analysis stage of the software life cycle. In larger systems, use case diagrams are simple but indispensable tools that help system designers remain focused on satisfying the users' needs.

Figure 25.4 shows the use case diagram for our ATM system. The stick figure represents an **actor**, which defines the roles that an external entity—such as a person or another system—plays when interacting with the system. For our automated teller machine, the actor is a User who can view an account balance, withdraw cash and deposit funds from the ATM. The User is not an actual person, but instead comprises the roles that a real person—when playing the part of a User—can play while interacting with the ATM. Note that a use case diagram can include multiple actors. For example, the use case diagram for a real bank's ATM system might also include an actor named Administrator who refills the cash dispenser each day.

We identify the actor in our system by examining the requirements document, which states, "ATM users should be able to view their account balance, withdraw cash and deposit funds." So, the actor in each of the three use cases is the User who interacts with the ATM. An external entity—a real person—plays the part of the User to perform financial transactions. Figure 25.4 shows one actor, whose name, User, appears below the actor in the diagram. The UML models each use case as an oval connected to an actor with a solid line.

Software engineers (more precisely, systems analysts) must analyze the requirements document or a set of use cases and design the system before programmers implement it. During the analysis stage, systems analysts focus on understanding the requirements document to produce a high-level specification that describes *what* the system is supposed to do. The output of the design stage—a **design specification**—should specify clearly *how* the system should be constructed to satisfy these requirements. In the next several sections, we perform the steps of a simple object-oriented design (OOD) process on the ATM



system to produce a design specification containing a collection of UML diagrams and supporting text. Recall that the UML is designed for use with any OOD process. Many such processes exist, the best known of which is the Rational Unified Process™ (RUP) developed by Rational Software Corporation (now a division of IBM). RUP is a rich process intended for designing “industrial strength” applications. For this case study, we present our own simplified design process.

### *Designing the ATM System*

We now begin the ATM system’s design. A **system** is a set of components that interact to solve a problem. To perform the ATM system’s designated tasks, our ATM system has a user interface (Fig. 25.1), contains software that executes financial transactions and interacts with a database of bank account information. **System structure** describes the system’s objects and their interrelationships. **System behavior** describes how the system changes as its objects interact with one another. Every system has both structure and behavior—designers must specify both. There are several distinct types of system structures and behaviors. For example, the interactions among objects in the system differ from those between the user and the system, yet both constitute a portion of the system behavior.

The UML 2 specifies 13 diagram types for documenting the models of systems. Each models a distinct characteristic of a system’s structure or behavior—six diagrams relate to system structure; the remaining seven relate to system behavior. We list here only the six types of diagrams used in our case study—one of these (class diagrams) models system structure—the remaining five model system behavior. We overview the remaining seven UML diagram types in Appendix G, UML 2: Additional Diagram Types.

1. **Use case diagrams**, such as the one in Fig. 25.4, model the interactions between a system and its external entities (actors) in terms of use cases (system capabilities, such as “View Account Balance,” “Withdraw Cash” and “Deposit Funds”).
2. **Class diagrams**, which you’ll study in Section 25.4, model the classes, or “building blocks,” used in a system. Each noun or “thing” described in the requirements document is a candidate to be a class in the system (e.g., “account,” “keypad”). Class diagrams help us specify the structural relationships between parts of the system. For example, the ATM system class diagram will specify that the ATM is physically composed of a screen, a keypad, a cash dispenser and a deposit slot.
3. **State machine diagrams**, which you’ll study in Section 25.6, model the ways in which an object changes state. An object’s **state** is indicated by the values of all the object’s attributes at a given time. When an object changes state, that object may behave differently in the system. For example, after validating a user’s PIN, the ATM transitions from the “user not authenticated” state to the “user authenticated” state, at which point the ATM allows the user to perform financial transactions (e.g., view account balance, withdraw cash, deposit funds).
4. **Activity diagrams**, which you’ll also study in Section 25.6, model an object’s **activity**—the object’s workflow (sequence of events) during program execution. An activity diagram models the actions the object performs and specifies the order in which it performs these actions. For example, an activity diagram shows that the ATM must obtain the balance of the user’s account (from the bank’s account information database) before the screen can display the balance to the user.

5. **Communication diagrams** (called **collaboration diagrams** in earlier versions of the UML) model the interactions among objects in a system, with an emphasis on *what* interactions occur. You'll learn in Section 25.8 that these diagrams show which objects must interact to perform an ATM transaction. For example, the ATM must communicate with the bank's account information database to retrieve an account balance.
6. **Sequence diagrams** also model the interactions among the objects in a system, but unlike communication diagrams, they emphasize *when* interactions occur. You'll learn in Section 25.8 that these diagrams help show the order in which interactions occur in executing a financial transaction. For example, the screen prompts the user to enter a withdrawal amount before cash is dispensed.

In Section 25.4, we continue designing our ATM system by identifying the classes from the requirements document. We accomplish this by extracting key nouns and noun phrases from the requirements document. Using these classes, we develop our first draft of the class diagram that models the structure of our ATM system.

### Web Resources

Our UML Resource Center ([www.deitel.com/UML/](http://www.deitel.com/UML/)) contains many links to additional information, including introductions, tutorials, blogs, books, certification, conferences, developer tools, documentation, e-books, FAQs, forums, groups, UML in C++, podcasts, security, tools, downloads, training courses, videos and more.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.3

- 25.1 Suppose we enabled a user of our ATM system to transfer money between two bank accounts. Modify the use case diagram of Fig. 25.4 to reflect this change.
- 25.2 \_\_\_\_\_ model the interactions among objects in a system with an emphasis on *when* these interactions occur.
  - a) Class diagrams
  - b) Sequence diagrams
  - c) Communication diagrams
  - d) Activity diagrams
- 25.3 Which of the following choices lists stages of a typical software life cycle in sequential order?
  - a) design, analysis, implementation, testing
  - b) design, analysis, testing, implementation
  - c) analysis, design, testing, implementation
  - d) analysis, design, implementation, testing

## 25.4 Identifying the Classes in the ATM Requirements Document

[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 3.]

Now we begin designing the ATM system that we introduced in Section 25.3. In this section, we identify the classes that are needed to build the ATM system by analyzing the nouns and noun phrases that appear in the requirements document. We introduce UML class diagrams to model the relationships between these classes. This is an important first step in defining the structure of our system.

Identifying the Classes in a System

We begin our OOD process by identifying the classes required to build the ATM system. We'll eventually describe these classes using UML class diagrams and implement these classes in C++. First, we review the requirements document of Section 25.3 and find key nouns and noun phrases to help us identify classes that comprise the ATM system. We may decide that some of these nouns and noun phrases are attributes of other classes in the system. We may also conclude that some of the nouns do *not* correspond to parts of the system and thus should *not* be modeled at all. Additional classes may become apparent to us as we proceed through the design process.

Figure 25.5 lists the nouns and noun phrases in the requirements document. We list them from left to right in the order in which they appear in the requirements document. We list only the singular form of each noun or noun phrase.

Nouns and noun phrases in the requirements document			
bank	money / fund	account number	ATM
screen	PIN	user	keypad
bank database	customer	cash dispenser	balance inquiry
transaction	\$20 bill / cash	withdrawal	account
deposit slot	deposit	balance	deposit envelope

Fig. 25.5 | Nouns and noun phrases in the requirements document.

We create classes only for the nouns and noun phrases that have significance in the ATM system. We don't need to model "bank" as a class, because it's not a part of the ATM system—the bank simply wants us to build the ATM. "Customer" and "user" also represent outside entities—they are important because they interact with our ATM system, but we do not need to model them as classes in the ATM software. Recall that we modeled an ATM user (i.e., a bank customer) as the actor in the use case diagram of Fig. 25.4.

We do not model "\$20 bill" or "deposit envelope" as classes. These are physical objects in the real world, but they are *not* part of what's being automated. We can adequately represent the presence of bills in the system using an attribute of the class that models the cash dispenser. (We assign attributes to classes in Section 25.5.) For example, the cash dispenser maintains a count of the number of bills it contains. The requirements document doesn't say anything about what the system should do with deposit envelopes after it receives them. We can assume that acknowledging the receipt of an envelope—an operation performed by the class that models the deposit slot—is sufficient to represent the presence of an envelope in the system. (We assign operations to classes in Section 25.7.)

In our simplified ATM system, representing various amounts of "money," including an account's "balance," as attributes of other classes seems most appropriate. Likewise, the nouns "account number" and "PIN" represent significant information in the ATM system. They are important attributes of a bank account. They do *not*, however, exhibit behaviors. Thus, we can most appropriately model them as attributes of an account class.

Though the requirements document frequently describes a "transaction" in a general sense, we do not model the broad notion of a financial transaction at this time. Instead,

we model the three types of transactions (i.e., “balance inquiry,” “withdrawal” and “deposit”) as individual classes. These classes possess specific attributes needed for executing the transactions they represent. For example, a withdrawal needs to know the amount of money the user wants to withdraw. A balance inquiry, however, does not require any additional data. Furthermore, the three transaction classes exhibit unique behaviors. A withdrawal includes dispensing cash to the user, whereas a deposit involves receiving deposit envelopes from the user. *In Section 26.3, we “factor out” common features of all transactions into a general “transaction” class using the object-oriented concepts of abstract classes and inheritance.*

We determine the classes for our system based on the remaining nouns and noun phrases from Fig. 25.5. Each of these refers to one or more of the following:

- ATM
- screen
- keypad
- cash dispenser
- deposit slot
- account
- bank database
- balance inquiry
- withdrawal
- deposit

The elements of this list are likely to be classes we’ll need to implement our system.

We can now model the classes in our system based on the list we’ve created. We capitalize class names in the design process—a UML convention—as we’ll do when we write the actual C++ code that implements our design. If the name of a class contains more than one word, we run the words together and capitalize the first letter of each word (e.g., `MultipleWordName`). Using this convention, we create classes `ATM`, `Screen`, `Keypad`, `CashDispenser`, `DepositSlot`, `Account`, `BankDatabase`, `BalanceInquiry`, `Withdrawal` and `Deposit`. We construct our system using all of these classes as building blocks. Before we begin building the system, however, we must gain a better understanding of how the classes relate to one another.

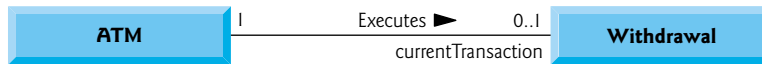
### *Modeling Classes*

The UML enables us to model, via **class diagrams**, the ATM system’s classes and their interrelationships. Figure 25.6 represents class `ATM`. Each class is modeled as a rectangle with three compartments. The top compartment contains the name of the class, centered horizontally and in boldface. The middle compartment contains the class’s attributes. (We discuss attributes in Section 25.5 and Section 25.6.) The bottom compartment contains the class’s operations (discussed in Section 25.7). In Fig. 25.6 the middle and bottom compartments are empty, because we’ve not yet determined this class’s attributes and operations.

Class diagrams also show the relationships among the classes of the system. Figure 25.7 shows how our classes `ATM` and `Withdrawal` relate to one another. For the moment, we choose to model only this subset of classes for simplicity; we present a more



**Fig. 25.6** | Representing a class in the UML using a class diagram.



**Fig. 25.7** | Class diagram showing an association among classes.

complete class diagram later in this section. Notice that the rectangles representing classes in this diagram are not subdivided into compartments. The UML allows the suppression of class attributes and operations in this manner, when appropriate, to create more readable diagrams. Such a diagram is said to be an **elided diagram**—one in which some information, such as the contents of the second and third compartments, is *not* modeled. We'll place information in these compartments in Section 25.5 and Section 25.7.

In Fig. 25.7, the solid line that connects the two classes represents an **association**—a relationship between classes. The numbers near each end of the line are **multiplicity** values, which indicate how many objects of each class participate in the association. In this case, following the line from one end to the other reveals that, at any given moment, one ATM object participates in an association with either zero or one `Withdrawal` objects—zero if the current user is not currently performing a transaction or has requested a different type of transaction, and one if the user has requested a withdrawal. The UML can model many types of multiplicity. Figure 25.8 lists and explains the multiplicity types.

Symbol	Meaning
0	None
1	One
<i>m</i>	An integer value
0..1	Zero or one
<i>m, n</i>	<i>m</i> or <i>n</i>
<i>m</i> .. <i>n</i>	At least <i>m</i> , but not more than <i>n</i>
*	Any nonnegative integer (zero or more)
0..*	Zero or more (identical to *)
1..*	One or more

**Fig. 25.8** | Multiplicity types.

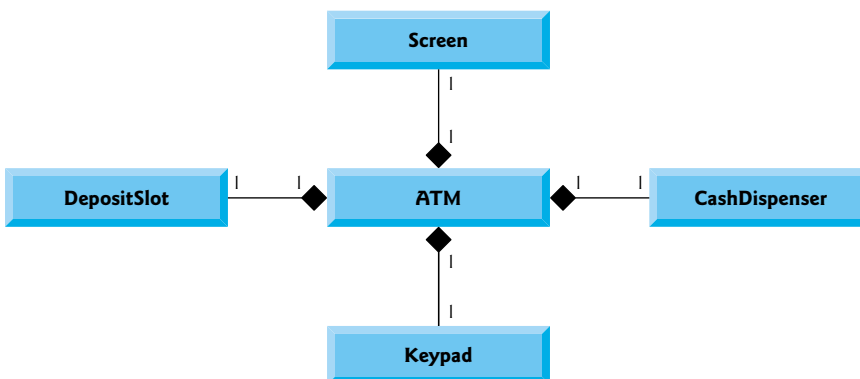
An association can be named. For example, the word `Executes` above the line connecting classes `ATM` and `Withdrawal` in Fig. 25.7 indicates the name of that association. This part of the diagram reads “one object of class `ATM` executes zero or one objects of class

Withdrawal.” Association names are directional, as indicated by the filled arrowhead—so it would be improper, for example, to read the preceding association from right to left as “zero or one objects of class Withdrawal execute one object of class ATM.”

The word `currentTransaction` at the `Withdrawal` end of the association line in Fig. 25.7 is a **role name**, which identifies the role the `Withdrawal` object plays in its relationship with the ATM. A role name adds meaning to an association between classes by identifying the role a class plays in the context of an association. A class can play several roles in the same system. For example, in a school personnel system, a person may play the role of “professor” when relating to students. The same person may take on the role of “colleague” when participating in a relationship with another professor, and “coach” when coaching student athletes. In Fig. 25.7, the role name `currentTransaction` indicates that the `Withdrawal` object participating in the `Executes` association with an object of class ATM represents the transaction currently being processed by the ATM. In other contexts, a `Withdrawal` object may take on other roles (e.g., the previous transaction). Notice that we do *not* specify a role name for the ATM end of the `Executes` association. Role names in class diagrams are often omitted when the meaning of an association is clear without them.

In addition to indicating simple relationships, associations can specify more complex relationships, such as objects of one class being composed of objects of other classes. Consider a real-world automated teller machine. What “pieces” does a manufacturer put together to build a working ATM? Our requirements document tells us that the ATM is composed of a screen, a keypad, a cash dispenser and a deposit slot.

In Fig. 25.9, the **solid diamonds** attached to the association lines of class ATM indicate that class ATM has a **composition** relationship with classes `Screen`, `Keypad`, `CashDispenser` and `DepositSlot`. Composition implies a whole/part relationship. The class that has the *composition symbol* (the solid diamond) on its end of the association line is the whole (in this case, ATM), and the classes on the other end of the association lines are the parts—in this case, classes `Screen`, `Keypad`, `CashDispenser` and `DepositSlot`. The compositions in Fig. 25.9 indicate that an object of class ATM is formed from one object of class `Screen`, one object of class `CashDispenser`, one object of class `Keypad` and one object of class `DepositSlot`. The ATM *has a* screen, a keypad, a cash dispenser and a deposit slot. The **has-a relationship** defines composition. (We’ll see in Section 26.3 that the *is-a* relationship defines inheritance.)



**Fig. 25.9** | Class diagram showing composition relationships.

According to the UML specification, composition relationships have the following properties:

1. Only one class in the relationship can represent the whole (i.e., the diamond can be placed on only one end of the association line). For example, either the screen is part of the ATM or the ATM is part of the screen, but the screen and the ATM cannot both represent the whole in the relationship.
2. The parts in a composition relationship exist only as long as the whole, and the whole is responsible for creating and destroying its parts. For example, the act of constructing an ATM includes manufacturing its parts. Furthermore, if the ATM is destroyed, its screen, keypad, cash dispenser and deposit slot are also destroyed.
3. A part may belong to only one whole at a time, although the part may be removed and attached to another whole, which then assumes responsibility for the part.

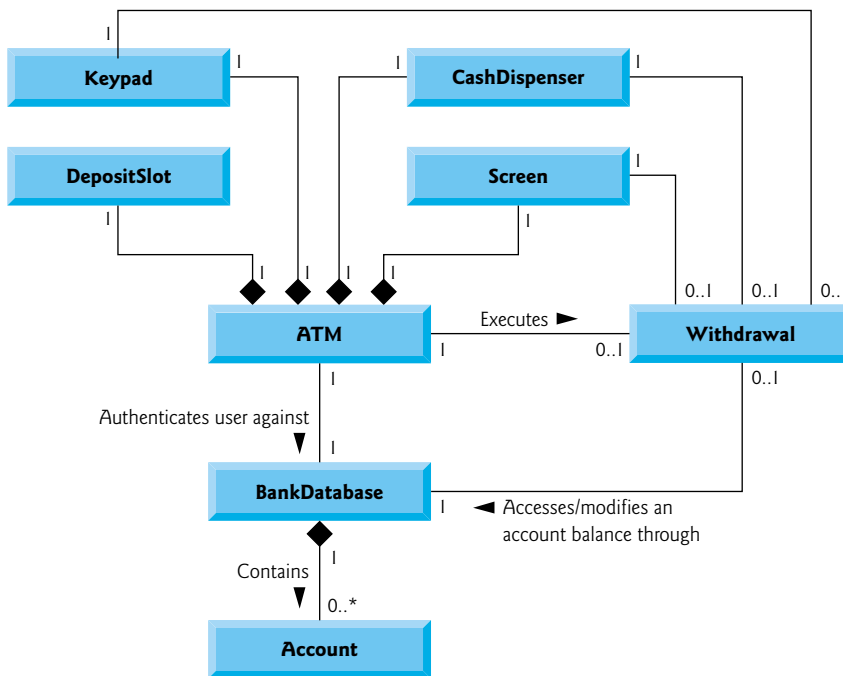
The solid diamonds in our class diagrams indicate composition relationships that fulfill these three properties. If a *has-a* relationship does not satisfy one or more of these criteria, the UML specifies that hollow diamonds be attached to the ends of association lines to indicate **aggregation**—a weaker form of composition. For example, a personal computer and a computer monitor participate in an aggregation relationship—the computer *has a* monitor, but the two parts can exist independently, and the same monitor can be attached to multiple computers at once, thus violating the second and third properties of composition.

Figure 25.10 shows a class diagram for the ATM system. This diagram models most of the classes that we identified earlier in this section, as well as the associations between them that we can infer from the requirements document. [Note: Classes *BalanceInquiry* and *Deposit* participate in associations similar to those of class *Withdrawal*, so we've chosen to omit them from this diagram to keep it simple. In Section 26.3, we expand our class diagram to include all the classes in the ATM system.]

Figure 25.10 presents a graphical model of the structure of the ATM system. This class diagram includes classes *BankDatabase* and *Account* and several associations that were not present in either Fig. 25.7 or Fig. 25.9. The class diagram shows that class *ATM* has a **one-to-one relationship** with class *BankDatabase*—one *ATM* object authenticates users against one *BankDatabase* object. In Fig. 25.10, we also model the fact that the bank's database contains information about many accounts—one object of class *BankDatabase* participates in a composition relationship with zero or more objects of class *Account*. Recall from Fig. 25.8 that the multiplicity value 0..\* at the *Account* end of the association between class *BankDatabase* and class *Account* indicates that zero or more objects of class *Account* take part in the association. Class *BankDatabase* has a **one-to-many relationship** with class *Account*—the *BankDatabase* contains many *Accounts*. Similarly, class *Account* has a **many-to-one relationship** with class *BankDatabase*—there can be many *Accounts* contained in the *BankDatabase*. [Note: Recall from Fig. 25.8 that the multiplicity value \* is identical to 0..\*. We include 0..\* in our class diagrams for clarity.]

Figure 25.10 also indicates that if the user is performing a withdrawal, “one object of class *Withdrawal* accesses/modifies an account balance through one object of class *BankDatabase*.” We could have created an association directly between class *Withdrawal* and class *Account*. The requirements document, however, states that the “ATM must interact with the bank's account information database” to perform transactions. A bank account





**Fig. 25.10** | Class diagram for the ATM system model.

contains sensitive information, and systems engineers must always consider the security of personal data when designing a system. Thus, only the `BankDatabase` can access and manipulate an account directly. All other parts of the system must interact with the database to retrieve or update account information (e.g., an account balance).

The class diagram in Fig. 25.10 also models associations between class `Withdrawal` and classes `Screen`, `CashDispenser` and `Keypad`. A withdrawal transaction includes prompting the user to choose a withdrawal amount and receiving numeric input. These actions require the use of the screen and the keypad, respectively. Furthermore, dispensing cash to the user requires access to the cash dispenser.

Classes `BalanceInquiry` and `Deposit`, though not shown in Fig. 25.10, take part in several associations with the other classes of the ATM system. Like class `Withdrawal`, each of these classes associates with classes `ATM` and `BankDatabase`. An object of class `BalanceInquiry` also associates with an object of class `Screen` to display the balance of an account to the user. Class `Deposit` associates with classes `Screen`, `Keypad` and `DepositSlot`. Like withdrawals, deposit transactions require use of the screen and the keypad to display prompts and receive input, respectively. To receive deposit envelopes, an object of class `Deposit` accesses the deposit slot.

We've now identified the classes in our ATM system (although we may discover others as we proceed with the design and implementation). In Section 25.5, we determine the attributes for each of these classes, and in Section 25.6, we use these attributes to examine how the system changes over time. In Section 25.7, we determine the operations of the classes in our system.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.4

**25.4** Suppose we have a class `Car` that represents a car. Think of some of the different pieces that a manufacturer would put together to produce a whole car. Create a class diagram (similar to Fig. 25.9) that models some of the composition relationships of class `Car`.

**25.5** Suppose we have a class `File` that represents an electronic document in a stand-alone, non-networked computer represented by class `Computer`. What sort of association exists between class `Computer` and class `File`?

- Class `Computer` has a *one-to-one* relationship with class `File`.
- Class `Computer` has a *many-to-one* relationship with class `File`.
- Class `Computer` has a *one-to-many* relationship with class `File`.
- Class `Computer` has a *many-to-many* relationship with class `File`.

**25.6** State whether the following statement is *true* or *false*, and if *false*, explain why: A UML diagram in which a class's second and third compartments are not modeled is said to be an elided diagram.

**25.7** Modify the class diagram of Fig. 25.10 to include class `Deposit` instead of class `Withdrawal`.

## 25.5 Identifying Class Attributes

[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 4.]

In Section 25.4, we began the first stage of an object-oriented design (OOD) for our ATM system—analyzing the requirements document and identifying the classes needed to implement the system. We listed the *nouns* and *noun phrases* in the requirements document and identified a separate class for each one that plays a significant role in the ATM system. We then modeled the classes and their relationships in a UML class diagram (Fig. 25.10).

Classes have attributes (data) and operations (behaviors). Class attributes are implemented in C++ programs as data members, and class operations are implemented as member functions. In this section, we determine many of the attributes needed in the ATM system. In Section 25.6, we examine how these attributes represent an object's state. In Section 25.7, we determine class operations.

### Identifying Attributes

Consider the attributes of some real-world objects: A person's attributes include height, weight and whether the person is left-handed, right-handed or ambidextrous. A radio's attributes include its station setting, its volume setting and its AM or FM setting. A car's attributes include its speedometer and odometer readings, the amount of gas in its tank and what gear it's in. A personal computer's attributes include its manufacturer (e.g., Dell, HP, Apple or IBM), type of screen (e.g., LCD or CRT), main memory size and hard disk size.

We can identify many attributes of the classes in our system by looking for descriptive words and phrases in the requirements document. For each one we find that plays a significant role in the ATM system, we create an attribute and assign it to one or more of the classes identified in Section 25.4. We also create attributes to represent any additional data that a class may need, as such needs become apparent throughout the design process.

Figure 25.11 lists the words or phrases from the requirements document that describe each class. We formed this list by reading the requirements document and identifying any words or phrases that refer to characteristics of the classes in the system. For example, the requirements document describes the steps taken to obtain a "withdrawal amount," so we list "amount" next to class `Withdrawal`.

Figure 25.11 leads us to create one attribute of class ATM. Class ATM maintains information about the state of the ATM. The phrase “user is authenticated” describes a state of the ATM (we introduce states in Section 25.6), so we include `userAuthenticated` as a **Boolean attribute** (i.e., an attribute that has a value of either true or false). The UML Boolean type is equivalent to the `bool` type in C++. This attribute indicates whether the ATM has successfully authenticated the current user—`userAuthenticated` must be true for the system to allow the user to perform transactions and access account information. This attribute helps ensure the security of the data in the system.

Class	Descriptive words and phrases
ATM	user is authenticated
BalanceInquiry	account number
Withdrawal	account number amount
Deposit	account number amount
BankDatabase	[no descriptive words or phrases]
Account	account number PIN balance
Screen	[no descriptive words or phrases]
Keypad	[no descriptive words or phrases]
CashDispenser	begins each day loaded with 500 \$20 bills
DepositSlot	[no descriptive words or phrases]

**Fig. 25.11** | Descriptive words and phrases from the ATM requirements.

Classes `BalanceInquiry`, `Withdrawal` and `Deposit` share one attribute. Each transaction involves an “account number” that corresponds to the account of the user making the transaction. We assign an integer attribute `accountNumber` to each transaction class to identify the account to which an object of the class applies.

Descriptive words and phrases in the requirements document also suggest some differences in the attributes required by each transaction class. The requirements document indicates that to withdraw cash or deposit funds, users must enter a specific “amount” of money to be withdrawn or deposited, respectively. Thus, we assign to classes `Withdrawal` and `Deposit` an attribute `amount` to store the value supplied by the user. The amounts of money related to a withdrawal and a deposit are defining characteristics of these transactions that the system requires for them to take place. Class `BalanceInquiry`, however, needs no additional data to perform its task—it requires only an account number to indicate the account whose balance should be retrieved.

Class `Account` has several attributes. The requirements document states that each bank account has an “account number” and “PIN,” which the system uses for identifying accounts

and authenticating users. We assign to class `Account` two integer attributes: `accountNumber` and `pin`. The requirements document also specifies that an account maintains a “balance” of the amount of money in the account and that money the user deposits does not become available for a withdrawal until the bank verifies the amount of cash in the deposit envelope, and any checks in the envelope clear. An account must still record the amount of money that a user deposits, however. Therefore, we decide that an account should represent a balance using two attributes of UML type `Double`: `availableBalance` and `totalBalance`. Attribute `availableBalance` tracks the amount of money that a user can withdraw from the account. Attribute `totalBalance` refers to the total amount of money that the user has “on deposit” (i.e., the amount of money available, plus the amount waiting to be verified or cleared). For example, suppose an ATM user deposits \$50.00 into an empty account. The `totalBalance` attribute would increase to \$50.00 to record the deposit, but the `availableBalance` would remain at \$0. [Note: We assume that the bank updates the `availableBalance` attribute of an `Account` soon after the ATM transaction occurs, in response to confirming that \$50 worth of cash or checks was found in the deposit envelope. We assume that this update occurs through a transaction that a bank employee performs using some piece of bank software other than the ATM. Thus, we do not discuss this transaction in our case study.]

Class `CashDispenser` has one attribute. The requirements document states that the cash dispenser “begins each day loaded with 500 \$20 bills.” The cash dispenser must keep track of the number of bills it contains to determine whether enough cash is on hand to satisfy withdrawal requests. We assign to class `CashDispenser` an integer attribute `count`, which is initially set to 500.

For real problems in industry, there is no guarantee that requirements specifications will be rich enough and precise enough for the object-oriented systems designer to determine all the attributes or even all the classes. The need for additional (or fewer) classes, attributes and behaviors may become clear as the design process proceeds. As we progress through this case study, we too will continue to add, modify and delete information about the classes in our system.

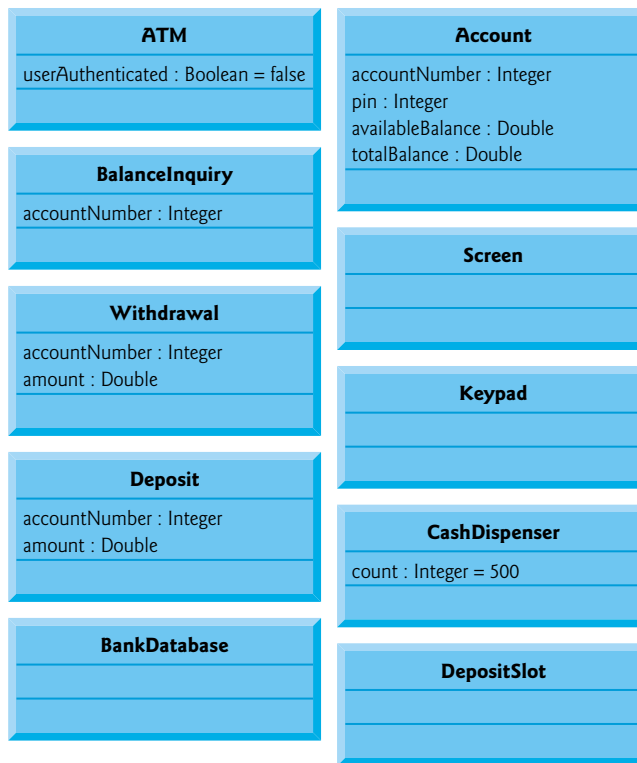
### *Modeling Attributes*

The class diagram in Fig. 25.12 lists some of the attributes for the classes in our system—the descriptive words and phrases in Fig. 25.11 helped us identify these attributes. For simplicity, Fig. 25.12 does not show the associations among classes—we showed these in Fig. 25.10. This is a common practice of systems designers when designs are being developed. Recall from Section 25.4 that in the UML, a class’s attributes are placed in the middle compartment of the class’s rectangle. We list each attribute’s name and type separated by a colon (:), followed in some cases by an equal sign (=) and an initial value.

Consider the `userAuthenticated` attribute of class `ATM`:

```
userAuthenticated : Boolean = false
```

This attribute declaration contains three pieces of information about the attribute. The **attribute name** is `userAuthenticated`. The **attribute type** is `Boolean`. In C++, an attribute can be represented by a fundamental type, such as `bool`, `int` or `double`, or a class type. We’ve chosen to model only primitive-type attributes in Fig. 25.12—we discuss the reasoning behind this decision shortly. [Note: Figure 25.12 lists UML data types for the attributes. When we implement the system, we’ll associate the UML types `Boolean`, `Integer` and `Double` with the C++ fundamental types `bool`, `int` and `double`, respectively.]



**Fig. 25.12** | Classes with attributes.

We can also indicate an *initial value* for an attribute. The `userAuthenticated` attribute in class `ATM` has an initial value of `false`. This indicates that the system initially does not consider the user to be authenticated. If an attribute has no initial value specified, only its name and type (separated by a colon) are shown. For example, the `accountNumber` attribute of class `BalanceInquiry` is an `Integer`. Here we show no initial value, because the value of this attribute is a number that we do not yet know—it will be determined at execution time based on the account number entered by the current ATM user.

Figure 25.12 does not include any attributes for classes `Screen`, `Keypad` and `DepositSlot`. These are important components of our system, for which our design process simply has not yet revealed any attributes. We may still discover some, however, in the remaining design phases or when we implement these classes in C++. This is perfectly normal for the iterative process of software engineering.



### Software Engineering Observation 25.1

*At the early stages in the design process, classes often lack attributes (and operations). Such classes should not be eliminated, however, because attributes (and operations) may become evident in the later phases of design and implementation.*

Figure 25.12 also does not include attributes for class `BankDatabase`. Recall that attributes can be represented by either fundamental types or class types. We've chosen to

include only fundamental-type attributes in the class diagram in Fig. 25.12 (and in similar class diagrams throughout the case study). A class-type attribute is modeled more clearly as an association (in particular, a composition) between the class with the attribute and the class of the object of which the attribute is an instance. For example, the class diagram in Fig. 25.10 indicates that class `BankDatabase` participates in a composition relationship with zero or more `Account` objects. From this composition, we can determine that when we implement the ATM system in C++, we'll be required to create an attribute of class `BankDatabase` to hold zero or more `Account` objects. Similarly, we'll assign attributes to class `ATM` that correspond to its composition relationships with classes `Screen`, `Keypad`, `CashDispenser` and `DepositSlot`. These composition-based attributes would be redundant if modeled in Fig. 25.12, because the compositions modeled in Fig. 25.10 already convey the fact that the database contains information about zero or more accounts and that an ATM is composed of a screen, keypad, cash dispenser and deposit slot. Software developers typically model these whole/part relationships as compositions rather than as attributes required to implement the relationships.

The class diagram in Fig. 25.12 provides a solid basis for the structure of our model, but the diagram is not complete. In Section 25.6, we identify the states and activities of the objects in the model, and in Section 25.7 we identify the operations that the objects perform. As we present more of the UML and object-oriented design, we'll continue to strengthen the structure of our model.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.5

**25.8** We typically identify the attributes of the classes in our system by analyzing the \_\_\_\_\_ in the requirements document.

- a) nouns and noun phrases
- b) descriptive words and phrases
- c) verbs and verb phrases
- d) All of the above.

**25.9** Which of the following is *not* an attribute of an airplane?

- a) length
- b) wingspan
- c) fly
- d) number of seats

**25.10** Describe the meaning of the following attribute declaration of class `CashDispenser` in the class diagram in Fig. 25.12:

`count : Integer = 500`

## 25.6 Identifying Objects' States and Activities

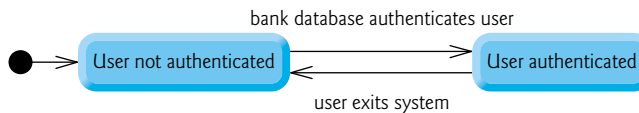
[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 5.]

In Section 25.5, we identified many of the class attributes needed to implement the ATM system and added them to the class diagram in Fig. 25.12. In this section, we show how these attributes represent an object's *state*. We identify some key states that our objects may occupy and discuss how objects change state in response to various events occurring in the system. We also discuss the workflow, or **activities**, that objects perform in the ATM system. We present the activities of `BalanceInquiry` and `Withdrawal` transaction objects in this section, as they represent two of the key activities in the ATM system.

### State Machine Diagrams

Each object in a system goes through a series of discrete states. An object's current state is indicated by the values of the object's attributes at a given time. **State machine diagrams** (commonly called **state diagrams**) model key states of an object and show under what circumstances the object changes state. Unlike the class diagrams presented in earlier case study sections, which focused primarily on the *structure* of the system, state diagrams model some of the *behavior* of the system.

Figure 25.13 is a simple state diagram that models some of the states of an object of class ATM. The UML represents each state in a state diagram as a **rounded rectangle** with the name of the state placed inside it. A **solid circle** with an attached stick arrowhead designates the **initial state**. Recall that we modeled this state information as the `Boolean` attribute `userAuthenticated` in the class diagram of Fig. 25.12. This attribute is initialized to `false`, or the “User not authenticated” state, according to the state diagram.



**Fig. 25.13** | State diagram for the ATM object.

The arrows with stick arrowheads indicate **transitions** between states. An object can transition from one state to another in response to various *events* that occur in the system. The name or description of the event that causes a transition is written near the line that corresponds to the transition. For example, the ATM object changes from the “User not authenticated” state to the “User authenticated” state *after* the database authenticates the user. Recall from the requirements document that the database authenticates a user by comparing the account number and PIN entered by the user with those of the corresponding account in the database. If the database indicates that the user has entered a valid account number and the correct PIN, the ATM object transitions to the “User authenticated” state and changes its `userAuthenticated` attribute to a value of `true`. When the user exits the system by choosing the “exit” option from the main menu, the ATM object returns to the “User not authenticated” state in preparation for the next ATM user.



### Software Engineering Observation 25.2

*Software designers do not generally create state diagrams showing every possible state and state transition for all attributes—there are simply too many of them. State diagrams typically show only the most important or complex states and state transitions.*

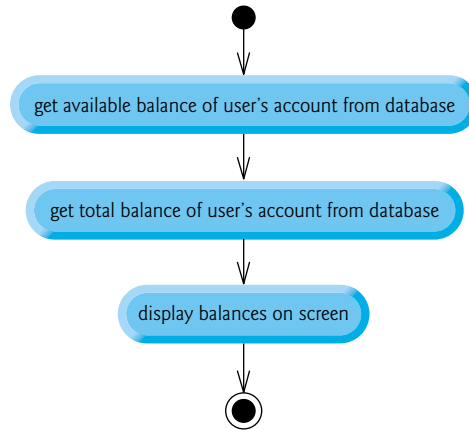
### Activity Diagrams

Like a state diagram, an activity diagram models aspects of system *behavior*. Unlike a state diagram, an activity diagram models an object's workflow (sequence of events) during program execution. An activity diagram models the actions the object will perform and in what order. Recall that we used UML activity diagrams to illustrate the flow of control for the control statements presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

Figure 25.14 models the actions involved in executing a `BalanceInquiry` transaction. We assume that a `BalanceInquiry` object has been initialized and assigned a valid account



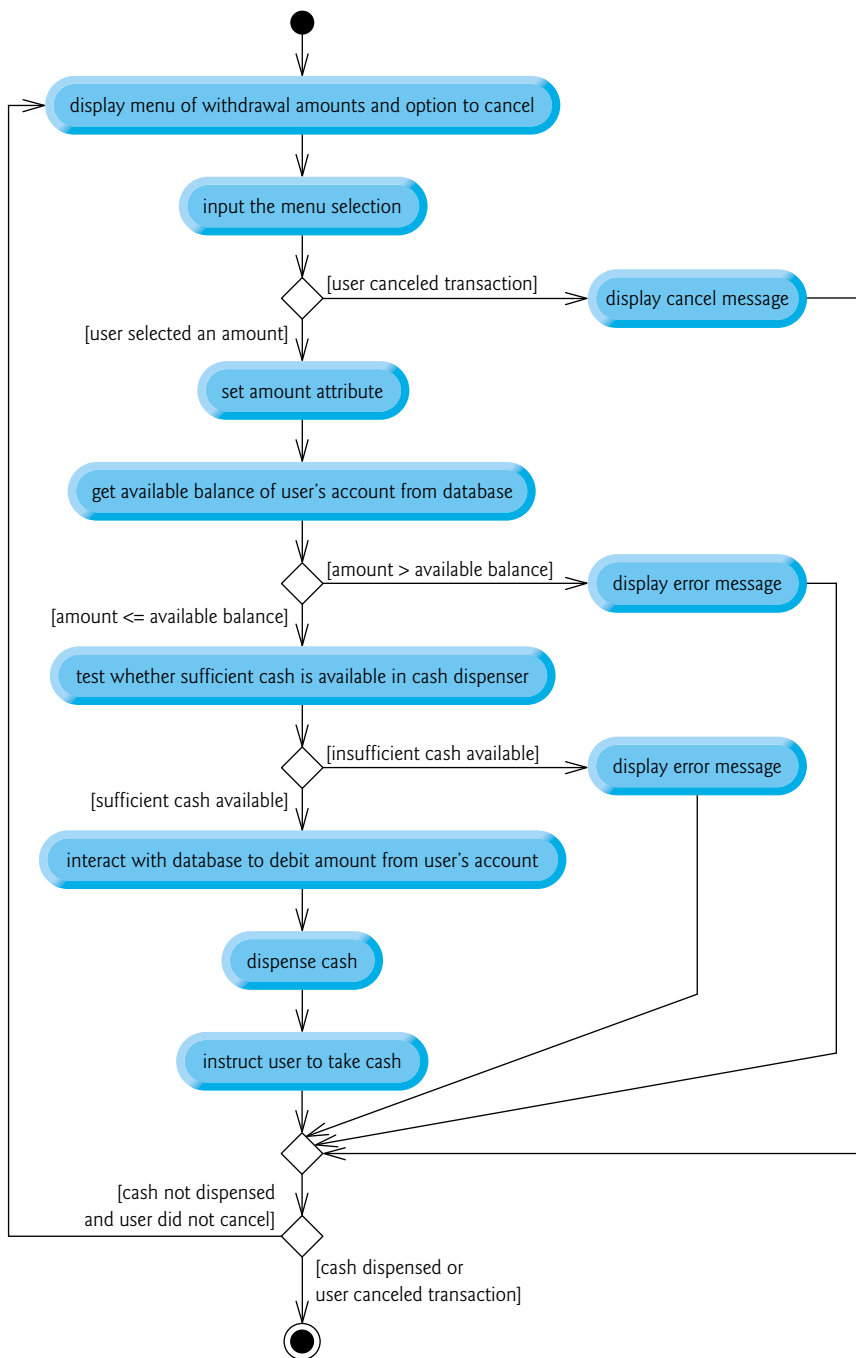
number (that of the current user), so the object knows which balance to retrieve. The diagram includes the actions that occur after the user selects a balance inquiry from the main menu and before the ATM returns the user to the main menu—a `BalanceInquiry` object does not perform or initiate these actions, so we do not model them here. The diagram begins with retrieving the available balance of the user's account from the database. Next, the `BalanceInquiry` retrieves the total balance of the account. Finally, the transaction displays the balances on the screen. This action completes the execution of the transaction.



**Fig. 25.14** | Activity diagram for a `BalanceInquiry` transaction.

The UML represents an action in an activity diagram as an action state modeled by a rectangle with its left and right sides replaced by arcs curving outward. Each action state contains an action expression—for example, “get available balance of user's account from database”—that specifies an action to be performed. An arrow with a stick arrowhead connects two action states, indicating the *order* in which the actions represented by the action states occur. The solid circle (at the top of Fig. 25.14) represents the activity's *initial state*—the beginning of the workflow before the object performs the modeled actions. In this case, the transaction first executes the “get available balance of user's account from database” action expression. Second, the transaction retrieves the total balance. Finally, the transaction displays both balances on the screen. The solid circle enclosed in an open circle (at the bottom of Fig. 25.14) represents the *final state*—the end of the workflow after the object performs the modeled actions.

Figure 25.15 shows an activity diagram for a `Withdrawal` transaction. We assume that a `Withdrawal` object has been assigned a valid account number. We do not model the user selecting a withdrawal from the main menu or the ATM returning the user to the main menu because these are not actions performed by a `Withdrawal` object. The transaction first displays a menu of standard withdrawal amounts (Fig. 25.3) and an option to cancel the transaction. The transaction then inputs a menu selection from the user. The activity flow now arrives at a decision symbol. This point determines the next action based on the associated guard conditions. If the user cancels the transaction, the system displays an appropriate message. Next, the cancellation flow reaches a merge symbol, where this activity flow joins the transaction's other possible activity flows (which we discuss shortly).



**Fig. 25.15** | Activity diagram for a Withdrawal transaction.

A merge can have *any* number of incoming transition arrows, but only *one* outgoing transition arrow. The decision at the bottom of the diagram determines whether the transaction should repeat from the beginning. When the user has canceled the transaction, the guard condition “cash dispensed or user canceled transaction” is true, so control transitions to the activity’s final state.

If the user selects a withdrawal amount from the menu, the transaction sets `amount` (an attribute of class `Withdrawal` originally modeled in Fig. 25.12) to the value chosen by the user. The transaction next gets the available balance of the user’s account (i.e., the `availableBalance` attribute of the user’s `Account` object) from the database. The activity flow then arrives at another decision. If the requested withdrawal amount exceeds the user’s available balance, the system displays an appropriate error message informing the user of the problem. Control then merges with the other activity flows before reaching the decision at the bottom of the diagram. The guard decision “cash not dispensed and user did not cancel” is true, so the activity flow returns to the top of the diagram, and the transaction prompts the user to input a new amount.

If the requested withdrawal amount is less than or equal to the user’s available balance, the transaction tests whether the cash dispenser has enough cash to satisfy the withdrawal request. If it does not, the transaction displays an appropriate error message and passes through the merge before reaching the final decision. Cash was not dispensed, so the activity flow returns to the beginning of the activity diagram, and the transaction prompts the user to choose a new amount. If sufficient cash is available, the transaction interacts with the database to debit the withdrawal amount from the user’s account (i.e., subtract the amount from both the `availableBalance` and `totalBalance` attributes of the user’s `Account` object). The transaction then dispenses the desired amount of cash and instructs the user to take the cash that is dispensed. The main flow of activity next merges with the two error flows and the cancellation flow. In this case, cash was dispensed, so the activity flow reaches the final state.

We’ve taken the first steps in modeling the ATM system’s behavior and have shown how an object’s attributes participate in the object’s activities. In Section 25.7, we investigate the operations of our classes to create a more complete model of the system’s behavior.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.6

**25.11** State whether the following statement is *true* or *false*, and if *false*, explain why: State diagrams model structural aspects of a system.

**25.12** An activity diagram models the \_\_\_\_\_ that an object performs and the order in which it performs them.

- a) actions
- b) attributes
- c) states
- d) state transitions

**25.13** Based on the requirements document, create an activity diagram for a deposit transaction.

## 25.7 Identifying Class Operations

[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 6.]

In Sections 25.4–25.6, we performed the first few steps in the object-oriented design of our ATM system. In Section 25.4, we identified the classes that we’ll need to implement

and we created our first class diagram. In Section 25.5, we described some attributes of our classes. In Section 25.6, we examined object states and modeled object state transitions and activities. Now, we determine some of the class operations (or behaviors) needed to implement the ATM system.

Identifying Operations

An *operation* is a service that objects of a class provide to clients of the class. Consider the operations of some real-world objects. A radio’s operations include setting its station and volume (typically invoked by a person adjusting the radio’s controls). A car’s operations include accelerating (invoked by the driver pressing the accelerator pedal), decelerating (invoked by the driver pressing the brake pedal or releasing the gas pedal), turning and shifting gears. Software objects can offer operations as well—for example, a software graphics object might offer operations for drawing a circle, drawing a line, drawing a square and the like. A spreadsheet software object might offer operations like printing the spreadsheet, totaling the elements in a row or column and graphing information in the spreadsheet as a bar chart or pie chart.

We can derive many of the operations of each class by examining the key verbs and verb phrases in the requirements document. We then relate each of these to particular classes in our system (Fig. 25.16). The verb phrases in Fig. 25.16 help us determine the operations of each class.

Class	Verbs and verb phrases
ATM	executes financial transactions
BalanceInquiry	[none in the requirements document]
Withdrawal	[none in the requirements document]
Deposit	[none in the requirements document]
BankDatabase	authenticates a user, retrieves an account balance, credits a deposit amount to an account, debits a withdrawal amount from an account
Account	retrieves an account balance, credits a deposit amount to an account, debits a withdrawal amount from an account
Screen	displays a message to the user
Keypad	receives numeric input from the user
CashDispenser	dispenses cash, indicates whether it contains enough cash to satisfy a withdrawal request
DepositSlot	receives a deposit envelope

Fig. 25.16 | Verbs and verb phrases for each class in the ATM system.

Modeling Operations

To identify operations, we examine the verb phrases listed for each class in Fig. 25.16. The “executes financial transactions” phrase associated with class ATM implies that class ATM instructs transactions to execute. Therefore, classes BalanceInquiry, Withdrawal and Deposit each need an operation to provide this service to the ATM. We place this operation

(which we've named `execute`) in the third compartment of the three transaction classes in the updated class diagram of Fig. 25.17. During an ATM session, the ATM object will invoke the `execute` operation of each transaction object to tell it to execute.



**Fig. 25.17** | Classes in the ATM system with attributes and operations.

The UML represents operations (which are implemented as member functions in C++) by listing the operation name, followed by a comma-separated list of parameters in parentheses, a colon and the return type:

*operationName( parameter1, parameter2, ..., parameterN ) : return type*

Each parameter in the comma-separated parameter list consists of a parameter name, followed by a colon and the parameter type:

*parameterName : parameterType*

For the moment, we do not list the operations' parameters—we'll identify and model the parameters of some of the operations shortly. For some, we do not yet know the return

types, so we also omit them from the diagram. These omissions are perfectly normal at this point. As our design and implementation proceed, we'll add the remaining return types.

### *Operations of Class **BankDatabase** and Class **Account***

Figure 25.16 lists the phrase “authenticates a user” next to class **BankDatabase**—the database is the object that contains the account information necessary to determine whether the account number and PIN entered by a user match those of an account held at the bank. Therefore, class **BankDatabase** needs an operation that provides an authentication service to the ATM. We place the operation `authenticateUser` in the third compartment of class **BankDatabase** (Fig. 25.17). However, an object of class **Account**, not class **BankDatabase**, stores the account number and PIN that must be accessed to authenticate a user, so class **Account** must provide a service to validate a PIN obtained through user input against a PIN stored in an **Account** object. Therefore, we add a `validatePIN` operation to class **Account**. We specify return type `Boolean` for the `authenticateUser` and `validatePIN` operations. Each operation returns a value indicating either that the operation was successful in performing its task (i.e., a return value of `true`) or that it was not (i.e., a return value of `false`).

Figure 25.16 lists several additional verb phrases for class **BankDatabase**: “retrieves an account balance,” “credits a deposit amount to an account” and “debits a withdrawal amount from an account.” Like “authenticates a user,” these remaining phrases refer to services that the database must provide to the ATM, because the database holds all the account data used to authenticate a user and perform ATM transactions. However, objects of class **Account** actually perform the operations to which these phrases refer. Thus, we assign an operation to both class **BankDatabase** and class **Account** to correspond to each of these phrases. Recall from Section 25.4 that, because a bank account contains sensitive information, we do *not* allow the ATM to access accounts directly. The database acts as an intermediary between the ATM and the account data, thus preventing unauthorized access. As we'll see in Section 25.8, class **ATM** invokes the operations of class **BankDatabase**, each of which in turn invokes the operation with the same name in class **Account**.

The phrase “retrieves an account balance” suggests that classes **BankDatabase** and **Account** each need a `getBalance` operation. However, recall that we created two attributes in class **Account** to represent a balance—`availableBalance` and `totalBalance`. A balance inquiry requires access to both balance attributes so that it can display them to the user, but a withdrawal needs to check only the value of `availableBalance`. To allow objects in the system to obtain each balance attribute individually, we add operations `getAvailableBalance` and `getTotalBalance` to the third compartment of classes **BankDatabase** and **Account** (Fig. 25.17). We specify a return type of `Double` for each of these operations, because the balance attributes which they retrieve are of type `Double`.

The phrases “credits a deposit amount to an account” and “debits a withdrawal amount from an account” indicate that classes **BankDatabase** and **Account** must perform operations to update an account during a deposit and withdrawal, respectively. We therefore assign `credit` and `debit` operations to classes **BankDatabase** and **Account**. You may recall that crediting an account (as in a deposit) adds an amount only to the `totalBalance` attribute. Debiting an account (as in a withdrawal), on the other hand, subtracts the amount from both balance attributes. We hide these implementation details inside class **Account**. This is a good example of encapsulation and information hiding.

If this were a real ATM system, classes **BankDatabase** and **Account** would also provide a set of operations to allow another banking system to update a user's account balance after

either confirming or rejecting all or part of a deposit. Operation `confirmDepositAmount`, for example, would add an amount to the `availableBalance` attribute, thus making deposited funds available for withdrawal. Operation `rejectDepositAmount` would subtract an amount from the `totalBalance` attribute to indicate that a specified amount, which had recently been deposited through the ATM and added to the `totalBalance`, was not found in the deposit envelope. The bank would invoke this operation after determining either that the user failed to include the correct amount of cash or that any checks did not clear (i.e., they “bounced”). While adding these operations would make our system more complete, we do not include them in our class diagrams or our implementation because they are beyond the scope of the case study.

### ***Operations of Class Screen***

Class `Screen` “displays a message to the user” at various times in an ATM session. All visual output occurs through the screen of the ATM. The requirements document describes many types of messages (e.g., a welcome message, an error message, a thank you message) that the screen displays to the user. The requirements document also indicates that the screen displays prompts and menus to the user. However, a prompt is really just a message describing what the user should input next, and a menu is essentially a type of prompt consisting of a series of messages (i.e., menu options) displayed consecutively. Therefore, rather than assign class `Screen` an individual operation to display each type of message, prompt and menu, we simply create one operation that can display any message specified by a parameter. We place this operation (`displayMessage`) in the third compartment of class `Screen` in our class diagram (Fig. 25.17). We do not worry about the parameter of this operation at this time—we model the parameter later in this section.

### ***Operations of Class Keypad***

From the phrase “receives numeric input from the user” listed by class `Keypad` in Fig. 25.16, we conclude that class `Keypad` should perform a `getInput` operation. Because the ATM’s keypad, unlike a computer keyboard, contains only the numbers 0–9, we specify that this operation returns an integer value. Recall from the requirements document that in different situations the user may be required to enter a different type of number (e.g., an account number, a PIN, the number of a menu option, a deposit amount as a number of cents). Class `Keypad` simply obtains a numeric value for a client of the class—it does *not* determine whether the value meets any specific criteria. Any class that uses this operation must verify that the user enters appropriate numbers, and if not, display error messages via class `Screen`). [Note: When we implement the system, we simulate the ATM’s keypad with a computer keyboard, and for simplicity we assume that the user does not enter nonnumeric input using keys on the computer keyboard that do not appear on the ATM’s keypad.]

### ***Operations of Class CashDispenser and Class DepositSlot***

Figure 25.16 lists “dispenses cash” for class `CashDispenser`. Therefore, we create operation `dispenseCash` and list it under class `CashDispenser` in Fig. 25.17. Class `CashDispenser` also “indicates whether it contains enough cash to satisfy a withdrawal request.” Thus, we include `isSufficientCashAvailable`, an operation that returns a value of UML type `Boolean`, in class `CashDispenser`. Figure 25.16 also lists “receives a deposit envelope” for class `DepositSlot`. The deposit slot must indicate whether it received an envelope, so we place an operation `isEnvelopeReceived`, which returns a `Boolean` value, in the third



compartment of class `DepositSlot`. [Note: A real hardware deposit slot would most likely send the ATM a signal to indicate that an envelope was received. We simulate this behavior, however, with an operation in class `DepositSlot` that class `ATM` can invoke to find out whether the deposit slot received an envelope.]

*Operations of Class ATM*

We do not list any operations for class `ATM` at this time. We are not yet aware of any services that class `ATM` provides to other classes in the system. When we implement the system with C++ code, however, operations of this class, and additional operations of the other classes in the system, may emerge.

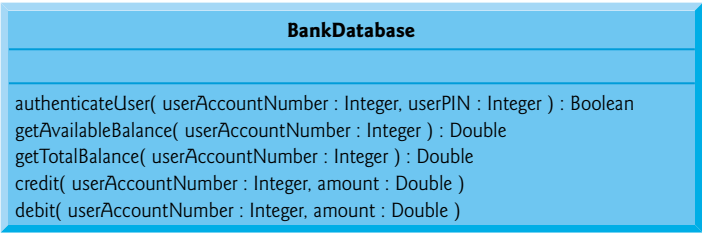
*Identifying and Modeling Operation Parameters*

So far, we’ve not been concerned with the parameters of our operations—we’ve attempted to gain only a basic understanding of the operations of each class. Let’s now take a closer look at some operation parameters. We identify an operation’s parameters by examining what data the operation requires to perform its assigned task.

Consider the `authenticateUser` operation of class `BankDatabase`. To authenticate a user, this operation must know the account number and PIN supplied by the user. Thus we specify that operation `authenticateUser` takes integer parameters `userAccountNumber` and `userPIN`, which the operation must compare to the account number and PIN of an `Account` object in the database. We prefix these parameter names with “user” to avoid confusion between the operation’s parameter names and the attribute names that belong to class `Account`. We list these parameters in the class diagram in Fig. 25.18 that models only class `BankDatabase`. [Note: It’s perfectly normal to model only one class in a class diagram. In this case, we are most concerned with examining the parameters of this one class in particular, so we omit the other classes. In class diagrams later in the case study, in which parameters are no longer the focus of our attention, we omit the parameters to save space. Remember, however, that the operations listed in these diagrams still have parameters.]

Recall that the UML models each parameter in an operation’s comma-separated parameter list by listing the parameter name, followed by a colon and the parameter type (in UML notation). Figure 25.18 thus specifies that operation `authenticateUser` takes two parameters—`userAccountNumber` and `userPIN`, both of type `Integer`. When we implement the system in C++, we’ll represent these parameters with `int` values.

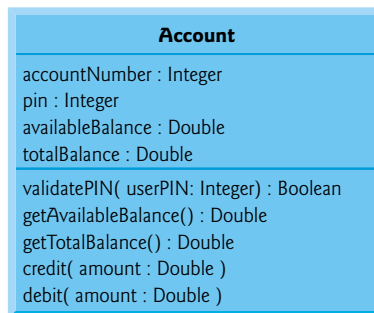
Class `BankDatabase` operations `getAvailableBalance`, `getTotalBalance`, `credit` and `debit` also each require a `userAccountNumber` parameter to identify the account to



**Fig. 25.18** | Class `BankDatabase` with operation parameters.

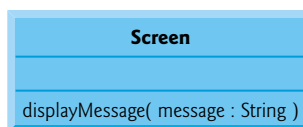
which the database must apply the operations, so we include these parameters in the class diagram of Fig. 25.18. In addition, operations `credit` and `debit` each require a `Double` parameter `amount` to specify the amount of money to be credited or debited, respectively.

The class diagram in Fig. 25.19 models the parameters of class `Account`'s operations. Operation `validatePIN` requires only a `userPIN` parameter, which contains the user-specified PIN to be compared with the PIN associated with the account. Like their counterparts in class `BankDatabase`, operations `credit` and `debit` in class `Account` each require a `Double` parameter `amount` that indicates the amount of money involved in the operation. Operations `getAvailableBalance` and `getTotalBalance` in class `Account` require no additional data to perform their tasks. Class `Account`'s operations do not require an account number parameter—each of these operations can be invoked only on a specific `Account` object, so including a parameter to specify an `Account` is unnecessary.



**Fig. 25.19** | Class `Account` with operation parameters.

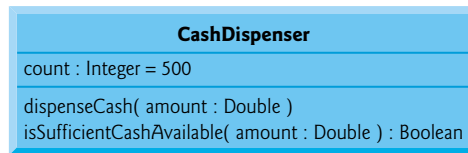
Figure 25.20 models class `Screen` with a parameter specified for operation `displayMessage`. This operation requires only a `String` parameter `message` that indicates the text to be displayed. Recall that the parameter types listed in our class diagrams are in UML notation, so the `String` type listed in Fig. 25.20 refers to the UML type. When we implement the system in C++, we'll in fact use a C++ `string` object to represent this parameter.



**Fig. 25.20** | Class `Screen` with operation parameters.

The class diagram in Fig. 25.21 specifies that operation `dispenseCash` of class `CashDispenser` takes a `Double` parameter `amount` to indicate the amount of cash (in dollars) to be dispensed. Operation `isSufficientCashAvailable` also takes a `Double` parameter `amount` to indicate the amount of cash in question.

We do not discuss parameters for operation `execute` of classes `BalanceInquiry`, `Withdrawal` and `Deposit`, operation `getInput` of class `Keypad` and operation `isEnvelopeReceived` of class `DepositSlot`. At this point in our design process, we cannot determine



**Fig. 25.21** | Class `CashDispenser` with operation parameters.

whether these operations require additional data to perform their tasks, so we leave their parameter lists empty. As we progress through the case study, we may decide to add parameters to these operations.

In this section, we've determined many of the operations performed by the classes in the ATM system. We've identified the parameters and return types of some of the operations. As we continue our design process, the number of operations belonging to each class may vary—we might find that new operations are needed or that some current operations are unnecessary—and we might determine that some of our class operations need additional parameters and different return types.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.7

**25.14** Which of the following is not a behavior?

- a) reading data from a file
- b) printing output
- c) text output
- d) obtaining input from the user

**25.15** If you were to add to the ATM system an operation that returns the amount attribute of class `Withdrawal`, how and where would you specify this operation in the class diagram of Fig. 25.17?

**25.16** Describe the meaning of the following operation listing that might appear in a class diagram for an object-oriented design of a calculator:

```
add( x : Integer, y : Integer ) : Integer
```

## 25.8 Indicating Collaboration Among Objects

[*Note:* This section can be studied after Chapter 7.]

In this section, we concentrate on the collaborations (interactions) among objects in our ATM system. When two objects communicate with each other to accomplish a task, they are said to **collaborate**—they do this by invoking one another's operations. A **collaboration** consists of an object of one class sending a **message** to an object of another class. Messages are sent in C++ via member-function calls.

In Section 25.7, we determined many of the *operations* of the system's classes. Next, we concentrate on the *messages* that invoke these operations. To identify the collaborations, we return to the requirements document in Section 25.3. Recall that this document specifies the range of activities that occur during an ATM session (e.g., authenticating a user, performing transactions). The steps used to describe how the system must perform each of these tasks are our first indication of the collaborations in our system. As we proceed through this and the remaining sections, we may discover additional collaborations.

### Identifying the Collaborations in a System

We identify the collaborations in the system by carefully reading the requirements document sections that specify what the ATM should do to authenticate a user and to perform each transaction type. For each action or step described, we decide which objects in our system must interact to achieve the desired result. We identify one object as the *sending object* (i.e., the object that sends the message) and another as the *receiving object* (i.e., the object that offers that operation to clients of the class). We then select one of the receiving object's operations (identified in Section 25.7) that must be invoked by the sending object to produce the proper behavior. For example, the ATM displays a welcome message when idle. We know that an object of class Screen displays a message to the user via its `displayMessage` operation. Thus, we decide that the system can display a welcome message by employing a collaboration between the ATM and the Screen in which the ATM sends a `displayMessage` message to the Screen by invoking the `displayMessage` operation of class Screen. [Note: To avoid repeating the phrase “an object of class...,” we refer to each object simply by using its class name preceded by an article (“a,” “an” or “the”)—for example, “the ATM” refers to an object of class ATM.]

Figure 25.22 lists the collaborations that can be derived from the requirements document. For each sending object, we list the collaborations in the order in which they are discussed in the requirements document. We list each collaboration involving a unique sender, message and recipient only once, even though the collaboration may occur several times during an ATM session. For example, the first row in Fig. 25.22 indicates that the ATM collaborates with the Screen whenever the ATM needs to display a message to the user.

An object of class...	sends the message...	to an object of class...
ATM	<code>displayMessage</code> <code>getInput</code> <code>authenticateUser</code> <code>execute</code> <code>execute</code> <code>execute</code>	Screen Keypad BankDatabase BalanceInquiry Withdrawal Deposit
BalanceInquiry	<code>getAvailableBalance</code> <code>getTotalBalance</code> <code>displayMessage</code>	BankDatabase BankDatabase Screen
Withdrawal	<code>displayMessage</code> <code>getInput</code> <code>getAvailableBalance</code> <code>isSufficientCashAvailable</code> <code>debit</code> <code>dispenseCash</code>	Screen Keypad BankDatabase CashDispenser BankDatabase CashDispenser
Deposit	<code>displayMessage</code> <code>getInput</code> <code>isEnvelopeReceived</code> <code>credit</code>	Screen Keypad DepositSlot BankDatabase

**Fig. 25.22** | Collaborations in the ATM system. (Part 1 of 2.)

An object of class...	sends the message...	to an object of class...
BankDatabase	validatePIN	Account
	getAvaiLableBalance	Account
	getTotalBalance	Account
	debit	Account
	credit	Account

Fig. 25.22 | Collaborations in the ATM system. (Part 2 of 2.)

Let’s consider the collaborations in Fig. 25.22. Before allowing a user to perform any transactions, the ATM must prompt the user to enter an account number, then to enter a PIN. It accomplishes each of these tasks by sending a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`. Both of these actions refer to the same collaboration between the ATM and the `Screen`, which is already listed in Fig. 25.22. The ATM obtains input in response to a prompt by sending a `getInput` message to the `Keypad`. Next, the ATM must determine whether the user-specified account number and PIN match those of an account in the database. It does so by sending an `authenticateUser` message to the `BankDatabase`. Recall that the `BankDatabase` cannot authenticate a user directly—only the user’s `Account` (i.e., the `Account` that contains the account number specified by the user) can access the user’s PIN to authenticate the user. Figure 25.22 therefore lists a collaboration in which the `BankDatabase` sends a `validatePIN` message to an `Account`.

After the user is authenticated, the ATM displays the main menu by sending a series of `displayMessage` messages to the `Screen` and obtains input containing a menu selection by sending a `getInput` message to the `Keypad`. We’ve already accounted for these collaborations. After the user chooses a type of transaction to perform, the ATM executes the transaction by sending an `execute` message to an object of the appropriate transaction class (i.e., a `BalanceInquiry`, a `Withdrawal` or a `Deposit`). For example, if the user chooses to perform a balance inquiry, the ATM sends an `execute` message to a `BalanceInquiry`.

Further examination of the requirements document reveals the collaborations involved in executing each transaction type. A `BalanceInquiry` retrieves the amount of money available in the user’s account by sending a `getAvaiLableBalance` message to the `BankDatabase`, which responds by sending a `getAvaiLableBalance` message to the user’s `Account`. Similarly, the `BalanceInquiry` retrieves the amount of money on deposit by sending a `getTotalBalance` message to the `BankDatabase`, which sends the same message to the user’s `Account`. To display both measures of the user’s balance at the same time, the `BalanceInquiry` sends a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`.

A `Withdrawal` sends the `Screen` several `displayMessage` messages to display a menu of standard withdrawal amounts (i.e., \$20, \$40, \$60, \$100, \$200). The `Withdrawal` sends the `Keypad` a `getInput` message to obtain the user’s menu selection, then determines whether the requested withdrawal amount is less than or equal to the user’s account balance. The `Withdrawal` can obtain the amount of money available in the account by sending the `BankDatabase` a `getAvaiLableBalance` message. The `Withdrawal` then tests whether the cash dispenser contains enough cash by sending the `CashDispenser` an `isSufficientCashAvaiLable` message. A `Withdrawal` sends the `BankDatabase` a `debit`

message to decrease the user's account balance. The `BankDatabase` sends the same message to the appropriate `Account`. Recall that debiting funds from an `Account` decreases both the `totalBalance` and the `availableBalance`. To dispense the requested amount of cash, the `Withdrawal` sends the `CashDispenser` a `dispenseCash` message. Finally, the `Withdrawal` sends a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`, instructing the user to take the cash.

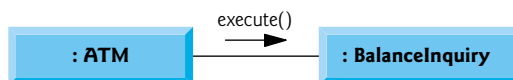
A `Deposit` responds to an `execute` message first by sending a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen` to prompt the user for a deposit amount. The `Deposit` sends a `getInput` message to the `Keypad` to obtain the user's input. The `Deposit` then sends a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen` to tell the user to insert a deposit envelope. To determine whether the deposit slot received an incoming deposit envelope, the `Deposit` sends an `isEnvelopeReceived` message to the `DepositSlot`. The `Deposit` updates the user's account by sending a `credit` message to the `BankDatabase`, which subsequently sends a `credit` message to the user's `Account`. Recall that crediting funds to an `Account` increases the `totalBalance` but not the `availableBalance`.

### Interaction Diagrams

Now that we've identified possible collaborations between the objects in our ATM system, let's graphically model these interactions using the UML. Several types of **interaction diagrams** model the behavior of a system by showing how objects interact with one another. The **communication diagram** emphasizes which objects participate in collaborations. [Note: Communication diagrams were called **collaboration diagrams** in earlier versions of the UML.] Like the communication diagram, the **sequence diagram** shows collaborations among objects, but it emphasizes *when* messages are sent between objects *over time*.

### Communication Diagrams

Figure 25.23 shows a communication diagram that models the ATM executing a `BalanceInquiry`. Objects are modeled in the UML as rectangles containing names in the form `objectName : ClassName`. In this example, which involves only one object of each type, we disregard the object name and list only a colon followed by the class name. [Note: Specifying the name of each object in a communication diagram is recommended when modeling multiple objects of the same type.] Communicating objects are connected with solid lines, and messages are passed between objects along these lines in the direction shown by arrows. The name of the message, which appears next to the arrow, is the name of an operation (i.e., a member function) belonging to the receiving object—think of the name as a service that the receiving object provides to sending objects (its “clients”).



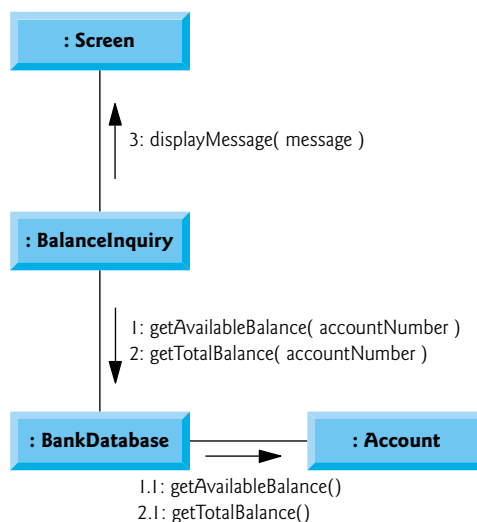
**Fig. 25.23** | Communication diagram of the ATM executing a balance inquiry.

The solid filled arrow in Fig. 25.23 represents a message—or **synchronous call**—in the UML and a function call in C++. This arrow indicates that the flow of control is from the sending object (the ATM) to the receiving object (a `BalanceInquiry`). *Since this is a synchronous call, the sending object may not send another message, or do anything at all, until the receiving object processes the message and returns control to the sending object—the sender just*

*waits*. For example, in Fig. 25.23, the ATM calls member function `execute` of a `BalanceInquiry` and may not send another message until `execute` has finished and returns control to the ATM. [Note: If this were an **asynchronous call**, represented by a stick arrowhead, the sending object would not have to wait for the receiving object to return control—it would continue sending additional messages *immediately* following the asynchronous call. Asynchronous calls often can be implemented in C++ using platform-specific libraries provided with your compiler.]

### Sequence of Messages in a Communication Diagram

Figure 25.24 shows a communication diagram that models the interactions among objects in the system when an object of class `BalanceInquiry` executes. We assume that the object's `accountNumber` attribute contains the account number of the current user. The collaborations in Fig. 25.24 begin after the ATM sends an `execute` message to a `BalanceInquiry` (i.e., the interaction modeled in Fig. 25.23). The number to the left of a message name indicates the order in which the message is passed. The **sequence of messages** in a communication diagram progresses in numerical order from least to greatest. In this diagram, the numbering starts with message 1 and ends with message 3. The `BalanceInquiry` first sends a `getAvailableBalance` message to the `BankDatabase` (message 1), then sends a `getTotalBalance` message to the `BankDatabase` (message 2). Within the parentheses following a message name, we can specify a comma-separated list of the names of the parameters sent with the message (i.e., arguments in a C++ function call)—the `BalanceInquiry` passes attribute `accountNumber` with its messages to the `BankDatabase` to indicate which `Account`'s balance information to retrieve. Recall from Fig. 25.18 that operations `getAvailableBalance` and `getTotalBalance` of class `BankDatabase` each require a parameter to identify an account. The `BalanceInquiry` next displays the `availableBalance` and the `totalBalance` to the user by passing a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen` (message 3) that includes a parameter indicating the message to be displayed.



**Fig. 25.24** | Communication diagram for executing a balance inquiry.



Figure 25.24 models two additional messages passing from the BankDatabase to an Account (message 1.1 and message 2.1). To provide the ATM with the two balances of the user's Account (as requested by messages 1 and 2), the BankDatabase must pass a `getAvailableBalance` and a `getTotalBalance` message to the user's Account. Messages passed within the handling of another message are called **nested messages**. The UML recommends using a decimal numbering scheme to indicate nested messages. For example, message 1.1 is the first message nested in message 1—the BankDatabase passes a `getAvailableBalance` message while processing BankDatabase's message of the same name. [Note: If the BankDatabase needed to pass a second nested message while processing message 1, the second message would be numbered 1.2.] A message may be passed only when all the nested messages from the previous message have been passed—e.g., the `BalanceInquiry` passes message 3 only after messages 2 and 2.1 have been passed, in that order.

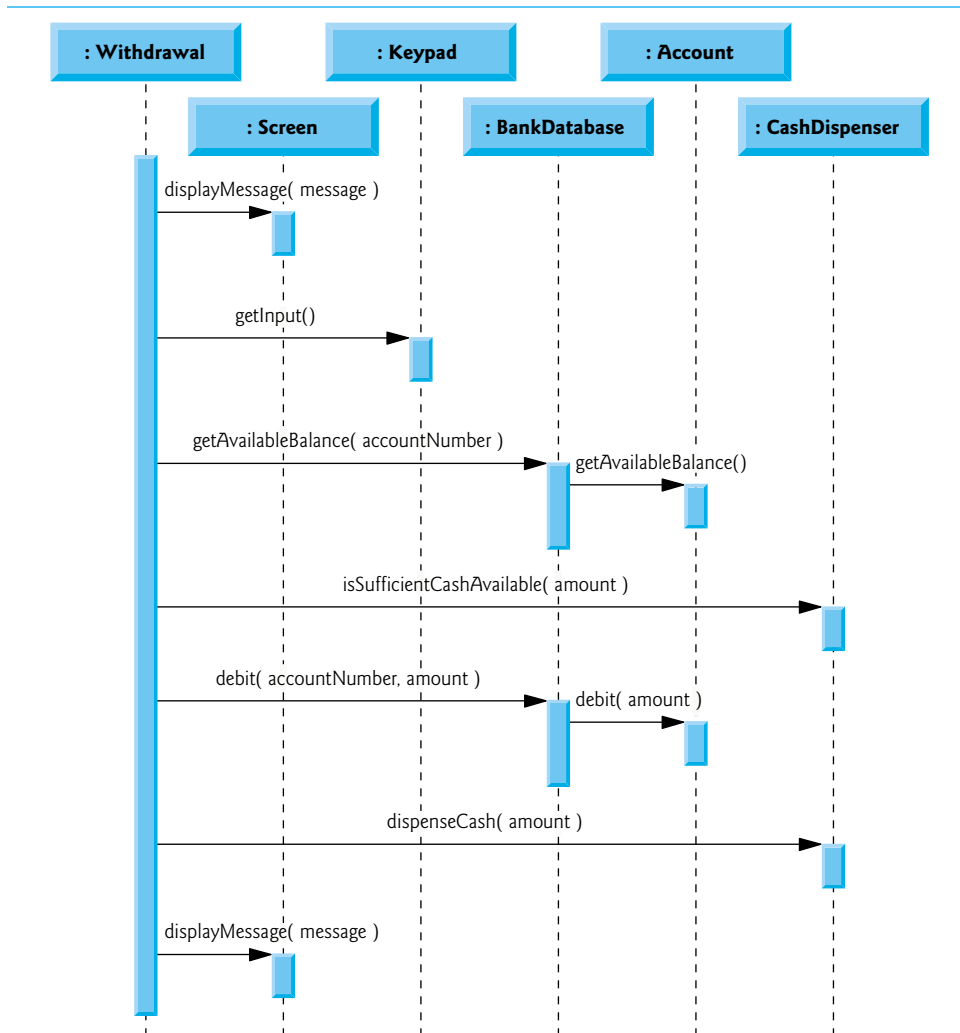
The nested numbering scheme used in communication diagrams helps clarify precisely when and in what context each message is passed. For example, if we numbered the messages in Fig. 25.24 using a flat numbering scheme (i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), someone looking at the diagram might not be able to determine that BankDatabase passes the `getAvailableBalance` message (message 1.1) to an Account *during* the BankDatabase's processing of message 1, as opposed to *after* completing the processing of message 1. The nested decimal numbers make it clear that the second `getAvailableBalance` message (message 1.1) is passed to an Account within the handling of the first `getAvailableBalance` message (message 1) by the BankDatabase.

### Sequence Diagrams

Communication diagrams emphasize the participants in collaborations but model their timing a bit awkwardly. A sequence diagram helps model the timing of collaborations more clearly. Figure 25.25 shows a sequence diagram modeling the sequence of interactions that occur when a `Withdrawal` executes. The dotted line extending down from an object's rectangle is that object's **lifeline**, which represents the progression of time. Actions typically occur along an object's lifeline in *chronological order* from top to bottom—an action near the top typically happens before one near the bottom.

Message passing in sequence diagrams is similar to message passing in communication diagrams. A solid arrow with a filled arrowhead extending from the sending object to the receiving object represents a message between two objects. The arrowhead points to an activation on the receiving object's lifeline. An **activation**, shown as a thin vertical rectangle, indicates that an object is executing. When an object returns control, a return message, represented as a dashed line with a stick arrowhead, extends from the activation of the object returning control to the activation of the object that initially sent the message. To eliminate clutter, we omit the return-message arrows—the UML allows this practice to make diagrams more readable. Like communication diagrams, sequence diagrams can indicate message parameters between the parentheses following a message name.

The sequence of messages in Fig. 25.25 begins when a `Withdrawal` prompts the user to choose a withdrawal amount by sending a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`. The `Withdrawal` then sends a `getInput` message to the `Keypad`, which obtains input from the user. We've already modeled the control logic involved in a `Withdrawal` in the activity diagram of Fig. 25.15, so we do not show this logic in the sequence diagram of Fig. 25.25. Instead, we model the best-case scenario in which the balance of the user's account is greater than or equal to the chosen withdrawal amount, and the cash dispenser contains a



**Fig. 25.25** | Sequence diagram that models a `Withdrawal` executing.

sufficient amount of cash to satisfy the request. For information on how to model control logic in a sequence diagram, please refer to the web resources at the end of Section 25.3.

After obtaining a withdrawal amount, the `Withdrawal` sends a `getAvailableBalance` message to the `BankDatabase`, which in turn sends a `getAvailableBalance` message to the user's `Account`. Assuming that the user's account has enough money available to permit the transaction, the `Withdrawal` next sends an `isSufficientCashAvailable` message to the `CashDispenser`. Assuming that there is enough cash available, the `Withdrawal` decreases the balance of the user's account (i.e., both the `totalBalance` and the `availableBalance`) by sending a `debit` message to the `BankDatabase`. The `BankDatabase` responds by sending a `debit` message to the user's `Account`. Finally, the `Withdrawal` sends a `dispenseCash` message to the `CashDispenser` and a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`, telling the user to remove the cash from the machine.

We've identified the collaborations among the ATM system's objects and modeled some of them using UML interaction diagrams—both communication diagrams and sequence diagrams. In Section 26.2, we enhance the structure of our model to complete a preliminary object-oriented design, then we implement the ATM system in C++.

## Self-Review Exercises for Section 25.8

**25.17** A(n) \_\_\_\_\_ consists of an object of one class sending a message to an object of another class.  
 a) association  
 b) aggregation  
 c) collaboration  
 d) composition

**25.18** Which form of interaction diagram emphasizes *what* collaborations occur? Which form emphasizes *when* collaborations occur?

**25.19** Create a sequence diagram that models the interactions among objects in the ATM system that occur when a Deposit executes successfully, and explain the sequence of messages modeled by the diagram.

## 25.9 Wrap-Up

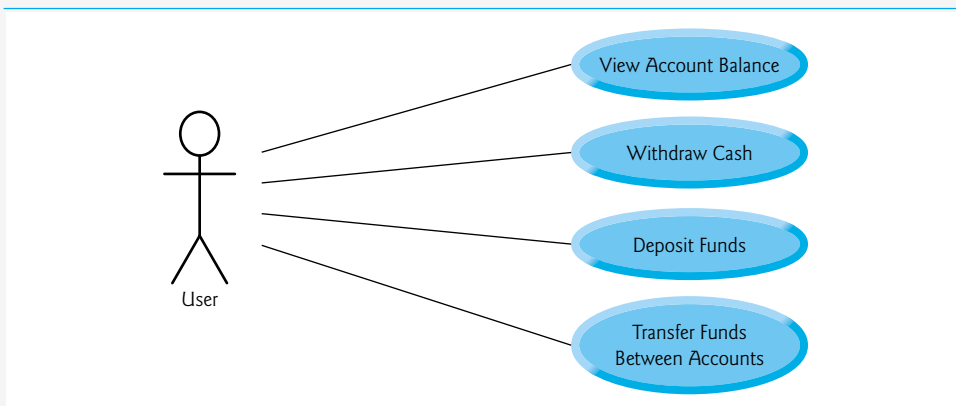
In this chapter, you learned how to work from a detailed requirements document to develop an object-oriented design. You worked with six popular types of UML diagrams to graphically model an object-oriented automated teller machine software system. In Chapter 26, we tune the design using inheritance, then completely implement the design in an 850-line C++ application.

## Answers to Self-Review Exercises

**25.1** Figure 25.26 shows a use case diagram for a modified version of our ATM system that also allows users to transfer money between accounts.

**25.2** b.

**25.3** d.



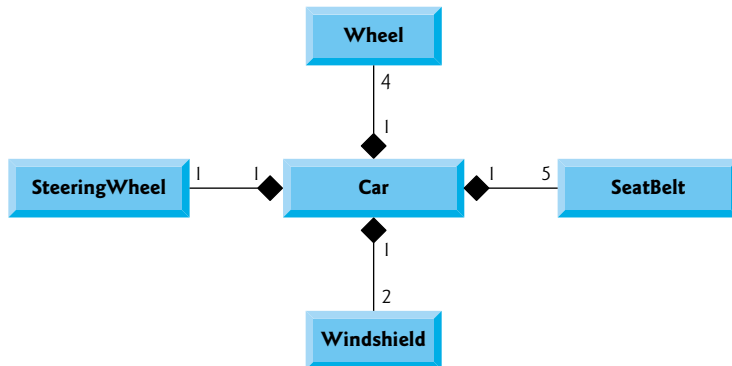
**Fig. 25.26** | Use case diagram for a modified version of our ATM system that also allows users to transfer money between accounts.

**25.4** [Note: Answers may vary.] Figure 25.27 presents a class diagram that shows some of the composition relationships of a class Car.

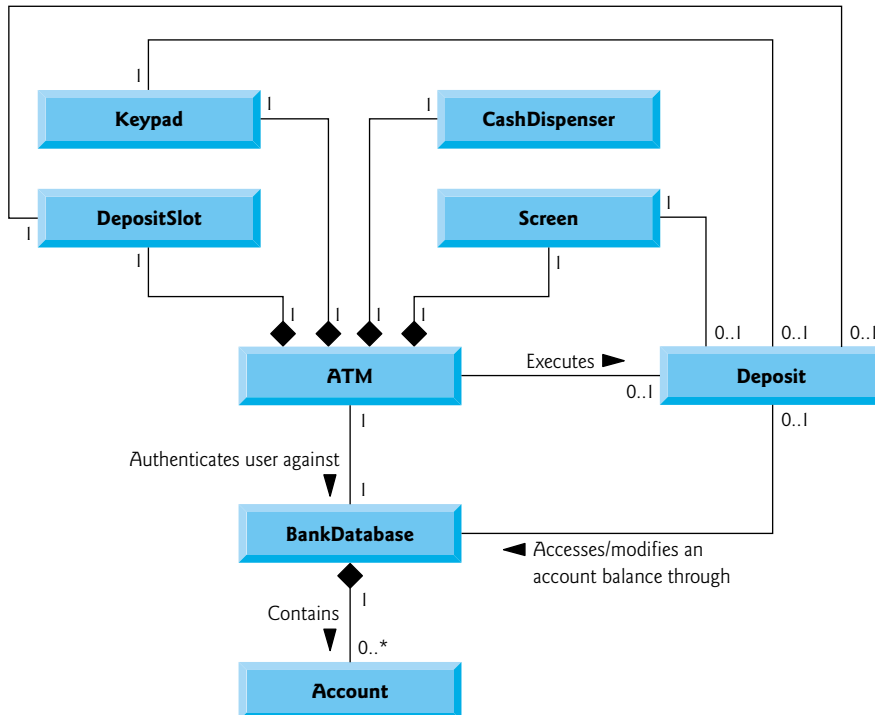
**25.5** c. [Note: In a computer network, this relationship could be many-to-many.]

**25.6** True.

**25.7** Figure 25.28 presents an ATM class diagram including class `Deposit` instead of class `Withdrawal`. Note that `Deposit` does not access `CashDispenser`, but does access `DepositSlot`.



**Fig. 25.27** | Class diagram showing composition relationships of a class Car.



**Fig. 25.28** | Class diagram for the ATM system model including class `Deposit`.

25.8 b.

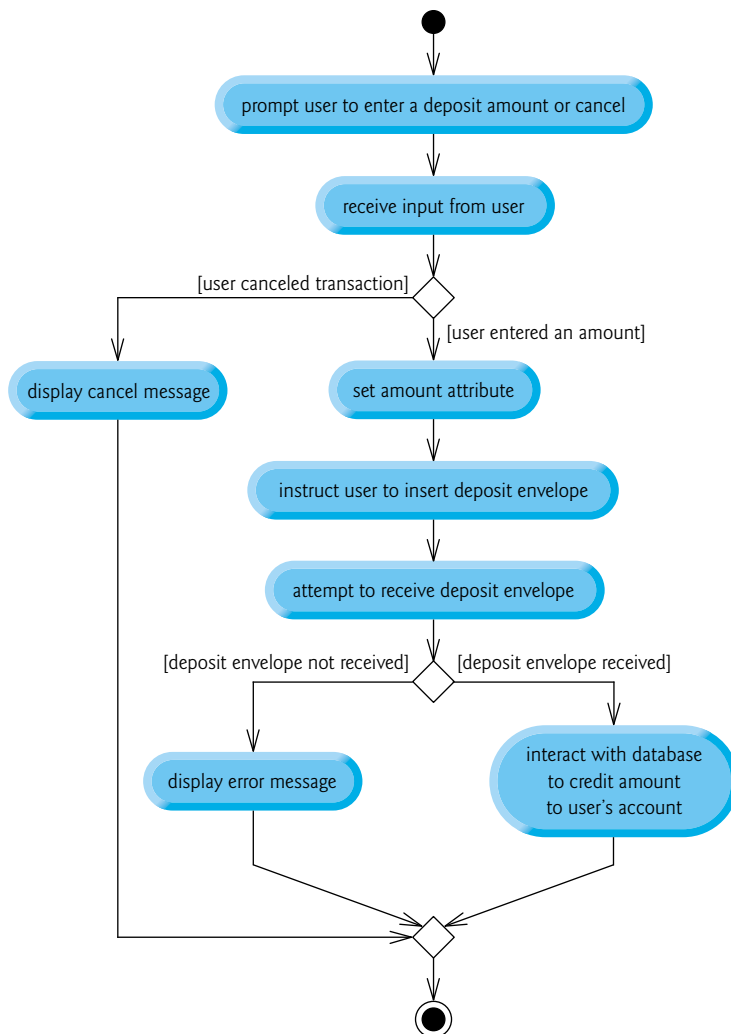
25.9 c. Fly is an operation or behavior of an airplane, not an attribute.

25.10 This indicates that count is an Integer with an initial value of 500. This attribute keeps track of the number of bills available in the CashDispenser at any given time.

25.11 False. State diagrams model some of the behavior of a system.

25.12 a.

25.13 Figure 25.29's activity diagram models the actions that occur after the user chooses the deposit option from the main menu and before the ATM returns the user to the main menu. Recall that part of receiving a deposit amount from the user involves converting an integer number of cents to a dollar amount. Also recall that crediting a deposit amount to an account involves increasing only the totalBalance attribute of the user's Account object. The bank updates the availableBalance



**Fig. 25.29** | Activity diagram for a Deposit transaction.

ance attribute of the user's Account object only after confirming the amount of cash in the deposit envelope and after the enclosed checks clear—this occurs independently of the ATM system.

**25.14** c.

**25.15** To specify an operation that retrieves the amount attribute of class `Withdrawal`, the following operation would be placed in the operation (i.e., third) compartment of class `Withdrawal`:

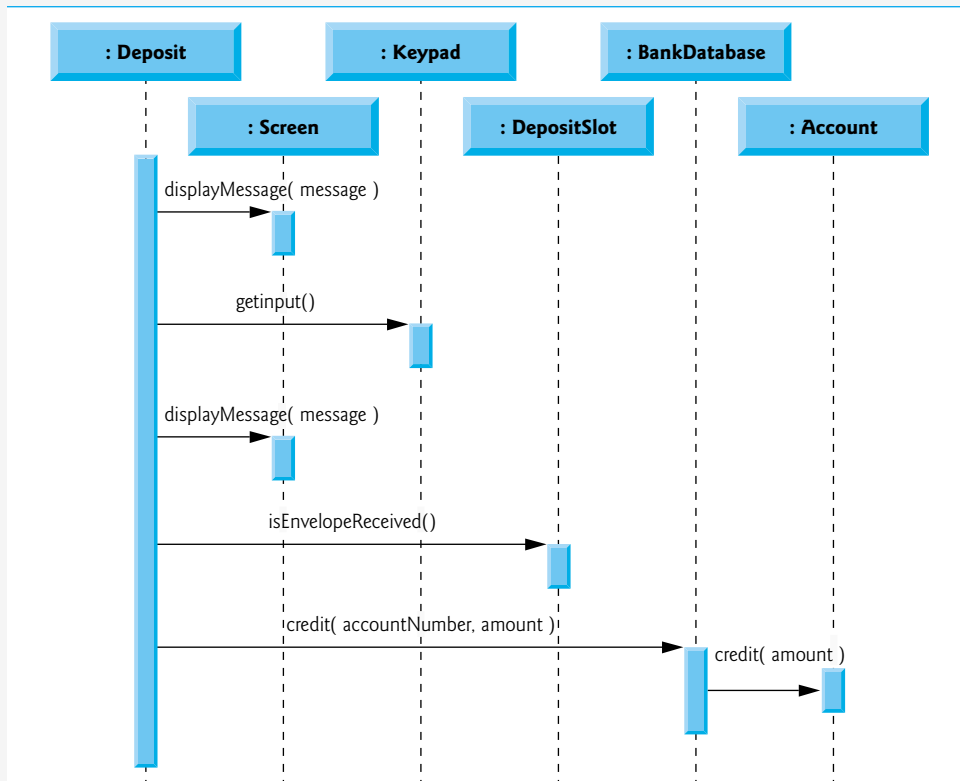
```
getAmount( ) : Double
```

**25.16** This is an operation named `add` that takes integers `x` and `y` as parameters and returns an integer value.

**25.17** c.

**25.18** Communication diagrams emphasize *what* collaborations occur. Sequence diagrams emphasize *when* collaborations occur.

**25.19** Figure 25.30 presents a sequence diagram that models the interactions between objects that occur when a `Deposit` executes successfully. A `Deposit` first sends a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen` to ask the user to enter a deposit amount. Next, it sends a `getInput` message to the `Keypad` to receive input from the user. Then, it instructs the user to insert a deposit envelope by sending a `displayMessage` message to the `Screen`. It then sends an `isEnvelopeReceived` message to the `DepositSlot` to confirm that the deposit envelope has been received. Finally, it increases the `totalBalance` attribute (but not the `availableBalance` attribute) of the user's `Account` by sending a `credit` message to the `BankDatabase`. The `BankDatabase` responds by sending the same message to the user's `Account`.



**Fig. 25.30** | Sequence diagram that models a `Deposit` executing.