

DON  
BOSCO COLLEGE DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER  
SCIENCE

**SUBJECTNAME:PROGRAMMING IN JAVA**

**PAPER CODE :17UCS09**

**SEMESTER VI**

## **UNIT-I**

Java Evolution – Simple Java Program – Java program structure – Java Tokens – Java Statements – JVM – Command Line Arguments – Constants, Variables, and Data Types – Operators and Expressions.

## **UNIT-II**

Decision Making and Branching: Introduction – Decision Making with if Statement – Simple if Statement – The if...else Statement – Nesting of if...else Statement – The else if Ladder – The Switch Statement – The ?: Operator. Decision Making and Looping: Introduction – The While Statement – The Do Statement – The For Statement – Jumps in Loops – Labelled Loops. Classes, Objects and Methods: Introduction – Defining a Class – Fields Declaration – Methods Declaration – Creating Objects – Accessing Class Members – Constructors – Methods Overloading – Static Members – Nesting of Methods – Inheritance – Overriding – Methods – Final Variables and Methods – Final Classes – Finalizer Methods – Abstract Methods and Classes – Methods with Varargs – Visibility Control.

## **UNIT-III**

Arrays, Strings and Vectors: Introduction – One-dimensional Arrays – Creating an Array – Two-dimensional Arrays – Strings – Vectors – Wrapper Classes – Enumerated Types – Annotations. Interfaces: Introduction – Defining Interfaces – Extending Interfaces – Implementing Interfaces – Accessing Interface Variables – Packages: Introduction – Java API Packages – Using System Packages – Naming Conventions – Creating Packages – Accessing a Package – Using a Package – Adding a Class to a Package – Hiding Classes – Static Import.

## **UNIT-IV**

Multithreaded Programming: Introduction – Creating Threads – Extending the Thread class – Stopping and Blocking a Thread – Life cycle of a Thread – Using Thread methods – Thread Exceptions – Thread Priority – Synchronization – Implementing the Runnable interface – Inter-thread Communication. Managing Errors and Exceptions: Introduction – Types of Errors – Exceptions – Syntax of Exception Handling Code – Multiple Catch Statements – Using Finally Statement – Throwing Our Own Exceptions. Applet Programming: Introduction – Difference Between Applets and Applications – Write Applets – Building Applet code – Applet life cycle – Creating an Executable Applet – Designing a web page – Applet Tag – Adding Applet to HTML File – Running the applet – Applet Tags – Passing Parameters to Applets – Aligning the Display – Displaying Numerical values – Getting input from the user – Event handling.

## **UNIT– V**

Graphics Programming: Introduction – The Graphics Class - Lines and Rectangles – Circles and Ellipses – Drawing Arcs – Drawing polygons – Line Graphs – Using Control Loops in Applets – Drawing Bar Charts. Managing I/O Files in Java: Introduction – Concept of stream – Stream classes – Byte stream classes – Character stream classes – Using stream – Using the file class – Creation of Files – Reading/Writing characters – Reading/Writing Bytes – Handling Primitive Data types – Concatenating and buffering Bytes – Random access files.

### **TEXTBOOK**

1. E. Balagurusamy, “Programming with Java,” 4<sup>th</sup> Edition, Tata McGraw Hill Pub. Ltd., New Delhi, 2009.

### **REFERENCE BOOKS**

1. Herbert Schildt, "Java: The Complete Reference," Ninth Edition, Oracle Press, 2014
2. Rohit Khurana, "Programming with JAVA," VIKAS Pub., 2014

# UNIT

## I JAVA EVOLUTIO

### N

#### Java History

- ⌘ Java is a high-level programming language originally developed by Sun Microsystems and released in 1991.
- ⌘ Java runs on a variety of platforms, such as Windows, Mac OS, and the various versions of UNIX. So Java is platform independent.
- ⌘ Java was designed for the development of software for consumer electronic devices like TVs, VCRs, toasters and such other electronic devices.
- ⌘ 1990 ☞ A team of Sun Microsystems headed by James Gosling was decided to develop a special software that can be used to manipulate consumer electronic devices.
- ⌘ 1991 ☞ The team announced a new language named “oak”.
- ⌘ 1992 ☞ The team demonstrated the application of their new language to control a list of home applications.
- ⌘ 1993 ☞ The team known as Green Project team came up with the idea of developing web applets.
- ⌘ 1994 ☞ The team developed a web browser called “Hot Java” to locate and run applet programs on internet.
- ⌘ 1995 ☞ Oak was renamed Java.
- ⌘ 1996 ☞ Sun releases Java Development Kit 1.0.
- ⌘ 1997 ☞ Sun releases Java Development Kit 1.1.
- ⌘ 1998 ☞ Sun releases the Java 2 with version 1.2.
- ⌘ 1999 ☞ Sun releases standard edition (J2SE) and enterprise edition (J2EE).
- ⌘ 2000 ☞ J2SE with SDK (software development kit) 1.3 was released.
- ⌘ 2002 ☞ J2SE with SDK 1.4 was released.
- ⌘ 2004 ☞ J2SE JDK 5.0 was released. This is known as J2SE 5.0.

#### FEATURES OF JAVA

- |                                   |                                       |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Compiled and interpreted.      | 6. Platform-independent and portable. |
| 2. Object oriented                | 7. Robust and secure                  |
| 3. Distributed                    | 8. Familiar, simple and small         |
| 4. Multi threaded and Interactive | 9. High performance                   |

## 5. Dynamic and Extensible

### **Compiled and Interpreted**

- ⊗ Java is a two-stage system that is both compiled and interpreted language.
- ⊗ First, the Java compiler translates source code into bytecode instructions.
- ⊗ The bytecodes are not machine instructions.
- ⊗ Second, the Java interpreter generates machine code that can be directly executed by the machine that is running the Java program.

### **Platform Independent and Portable**

- ⊗ The most significant contribution of Java over other languages is its portability.
- ⊗ Java programs can be easily moved from one computer system to another, anywhere and any time.
- ⊗ Changes and upgrades in operating systems, processors, and system resources will not force any changes in Java programs. This is the reason why Java has become a popular language for programming on the Internet, which interconnects different kinds of systems worldwide.
- ⊗ We can download a Java applet from a remote computer onto our local system through the Internet and execute it locally.
- ⊗ Java ensures portability in two ways. First, the Java compiler generates Bytecode instructions that can be implemented on any machine. Secondly, the sizes of the primitive data types are machine independent.

### **Object Oriented:**

- ⊗ Java is a truly object-oriented language. Almost everything in Java is an object.
- ⊗ All program code and data reside within objects and classes.
- ⊗ Java comes with an extensive set of classes, arranged in packages that we can use in our programs by inheritance.
- ⊗ The object model in Java is simple and easy to extend.

### **Robust and Secure:**

- ⊗ Java is a robust language. It provides many safeguards to ensure reliable code. It has strict compile-time and runtime checking for data types.
- ⊗ It is designed as a garbage-collected language, relieving the programmer of virtually all memory management problems.
- ⊗ Java also incorporates the concept of exception handling, which captures serious errors and

eliminates risk of crashing the system.

⊖ The absence of pointers in java ensures that programs cannot gain access to memory locations without proper authorization.

### **Distributed:**

⊖ Java is designed as a distributed language for creating applications on networks. It has the ability to share both data and programs.

⊖ Java applications can open and access remote objects on internet as easily as they can do in a local system.

⊖ This enables multiple programmers at multiple remote locations to collaborate and work together on a single project.

### **Simple, Small and Familiar:**

⊖ Java is a small and simple language. Many features of C and C++ that are either redundant or sources of unreliable code are not part of java.

⊖ For example java does not use pointers, preprocessor header files, goto statement and overloading and multiple inheritance and many others.

### **Multithreaded and Interactive:**

⊖ Multithreaded means handling multiple tasks simultaneously. Java supports multithreaded programs. This means that we need not wait for the application to finish one task before beginning another.

⊖ For example we can listen to an audio clip while scrolling a page and at the same time download an applet from a distant computer.

⊖ This feature greatly improves the interactive performance of graphical applications.

### **High performance**

⊖ Java performance is impressive for an interpreted language, mainly due to the use of intermediate byte code. According to sun, java speed is comparable to the native C/C++.

⊖ Java architecture is also designed to reduce overheads during runtime. Further, the incorporation of multithreading enhances the overall execution speed of java programs.

### **Dynamic and Extensible**

⊖ Java is a dynamic language.

⊖ It is capable of dynamically linking in new class libraries, methods, and objects.

⊖ Java programs support functions written in other languages such as C and C++. These functions are known as **native methods**.

## Java differs from C and

### C++ Differences between java and

#### C:

- Java does not include the C statement keywords **sizeof** and **typedef**.
- Java does not contain data types **struct** and **union**.
- Java does not define the type modifiers keywords **auto**, **extern**, **register**, **signed** and **unsigned**.
- Java does not support an explicit pointer type.
- Java does not have a preprocessor and we cannot use **#define**, **#include** and **#ifdef** statements.
- Java requires that the functions with no arguments must be declared with empty parenthesis and not with the **void** keyword as done in C.
- Java adds new operators such as **instanceof** and **>>>**.
- Java adds labeled **break** and **continue** statements.

#### Differences between java and C++:

- Java does not support operator overloading.
- Java does not have template classes as in C++.
- Java does not support multiple inheritance of classes. This can be accomplished by a new feature called as **“interface”**.
- Java does not support global variables.
- Java does not use pointers.
- Java has replaced the destructor function with a **finalize()** function.
- There are no header files in java.

## JAVA AND INTERNET

- ⊗ Java is strongly associated with the internet because the first application program written in java was Hot java.
- ⊗ It is a web browser to run applet on internet.
- ⊗ Internet users can use java to create applet programs & run them locally using a **“java enabled browser”** such as Hot java.
- ⊗ The ability of java applets to hitch a ride on the information superhighway has made java a unique programming language for the internet.
- ⊗ Due to this, java is popularly known as **internet language**.

## JAVA DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

- ⊗ Java environment includes a large number of development tools and hundreds of classes and methods.
- ⊗ The development tools are part of the system known as **Java Development Kit (JDK)** and the classes and methods are part of the **Java Standard Library (JSL)**, also known as the **Application Programming Interface (API)**.

## JAVADEVELOPMENT KIT(JDK)

⊖ Java Development Kit comes with a collection of tools used for developing and running java programs. They are

- **Applet viewer** (for viewing java applets) ☞ Enables us to run Java applets.
- **Javac** (java compiler) ☞ It translates Java source code to byte code files that the interpreter can understand.
- **Java** (java interpreter) ☞ Java interpreter, which runs applets and applications by reading and interpreting byte code files.
- **Javadoc** (for creating HTML document) ☞ Creates HTML format documentation from source code files.
- **Javap** (java disassembler) ☞ Enables us to convert byte code files into a program description.
- **Javah** (for C header files) ☞ Produces header files for use with native codes.
- **Jdb** (java debugger) ☞ It helps us to find errors in our programs.

## APPLICATION PROGRAMMING INTERFACE (API)

⊖ The java standard library (or API) includes hundreds of classes and methods grouped into several functional packages. Most commonly used packages are

- **Language support package:** - A collection of classes and methods required for implementing basic features of java.
- **Utilities package:** - A collection of classes to provide utility functions such as date and time functions.
- **Input/output packages:** - A collection of classes required for Input/output manipulation.
- **Networking packages:** - A collection of classes for communicating with other computers via internet.
- **AWT packages:** - The Abstract Window Toolkit package contains classes that implement platform independent graphical interface.
- **Applet package:** - This includes set of classes that allows us to create java applets.

## Java Runtime Environment (JRE)

It facilitates the execution of programs developed in java. It comprises of the following:

- **Java Virtual machine (JVM):** It is a program that interprets the intermediate java bytecode and generates the desired output. It is because if byte code and JVM concepts that programs written in Java are highly portable.



- **Runtime class libraries:** There are a set of core class libraries that are required for the execution of Java programs.
- **User interface toolkits:** AWT and Swing are examples of toolkits that support varied input methods for the user to interact with application program.
- **Deployment technologies:** JRE comprises the following key deployment technologies:
  - **Java plug-in:** Enable the execution of a Java applet on the browser.
  - **Java Webstart:** Enable remote-deployment of an application.

## SIMPLE JAVA PROGRAM

### Simple Java program

```
class SampleOne
{
    public static void main (String args[])
    {
        System.out.println("Java is better than C++");
    }
}
```

### Class declaration

The first line

⊗ ClassSampleOne declares a class, java is a true object-oriented language and therefore,

**everything must be placed inside a class.**

⊗ **class** is a keyword and declares that a new class definition follows.

⊗ SampleOne is a java identifier that specifies the name of the class to be defined.

## Opening Brace

⊗ Every class definition in java begins with an opening brace “{” and ends with a matching closing brace “}”.

## The main line

⊗ The third line

```
public static void main(String args[])
```

→ The above line defines a method named main.

→ This is similar to the **main()** function in C/C++.

→ Every java application program must include the **main() method**. This is the starting point for the interpreter to begin the execution of the program.

→ A java application can have any number of classes but **only one** of them must include a **main** method to initiate the execution.

→ The line contains a number of keywords **public, static and void**.

→ **Public** : The keyword public is an access specifier that declares the main method as unprotected and therefore making it accessible to all other classes.

→ **Static** : Declares this method as one that belongs to the entire class and not a part of any object of the class. The main methods must always be declared as static since the interpreter uses this method before any object are created.

→ **Void**: The void states that the main method does not return any value.

## The output line

→ The only executable statement in the program is

```
System.out.println("Java is better than C++");
```

→ This is similar to printf() statement of C or cout << construct of C++.

→ Since Java is a true object oriented language, every method must be a part of an object.

→ The **println** method is a member of the **out** object, which is a static data member of **System** class.

→ This line prints the string "java is better than C++."

## An application with two classes

```
class Room
```

```
{  
    float length;  
    float breadth;  
    void getData(float a, float b)  
    {  
        length = a;  
        breadth = b;  
    }  
}
```

```
class RoomArea
```

```
{  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        float area;  
        Room room1 = new Room();  
        room1.getData(14, 10);  
        area = room1.length * room1.breadth;  
        System.out.println("area=" + area);  
    }  
}
```

Documentation

section Package statement

nt

Import

statements Interface statements

ements

Class

Definitions Main method

Class

```
{  
    Main method Definition
```

**JAVAPROGRAMSTR  
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PROGRAM**

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### **Documentation section:**

- The documentation section comprises a set of comment lines giving the name of the program, the author and other details.
- Comments must explain why and what of classes and how of algorithms.
- Java also uses a third style of comment `/**...*/` known as documentation comment. This form of comment is used for generating documentation automatically.

### **Package Statement:**

- This statement declares a package name and informs the compiler that the classes defined here belong to this package. Example  
`Package student;`  
This package statement is optional.

### **Import Statements:**

- This is similar to the `#include` statement in C. Example `Import student. test;`

### **Interface Statements:**

- An interface is like a class but includes a group of method declarations.
- This is also an optional section and is used only when we wish to implement the multiple inheritance features in the program.

### **Class Definitions:**

- A Java program may contain multiple class definitions.
- Classes are the primary and essential elements of a Java program.
- These classes are used to map the objects of real world problem.

### **Main method class:**

- Every Java program requires a main method as its starting point.
- The main method creates objects of various classes and establishes communication between them.
- On reaching the end of main, the program terminates and the control back to the operating system.

## **JAVATOKENS**

⊖ A Java program is basically a collection of classes.

⊖ A class is defined by a set of declaration statements and methods containing executable statements.

⊖ Most statements contain expression, which describe the actions carried out on data.

⊖ **Smallest individual units in a program are known as tokens.**

⊖ The compiler recognizes them for building up expressions and statements.

⊖ In simple terms, a Java program is a collection of tokens, comments and white spaces.

⊖ Java language includes **five types of tokens.**

#### **They are**

- Reserved keywords
- Identifiers
- Literals
- Operators
- Separators

### → **Java Character set**

- The smallest units of java language are the characters used to write java tokens.
- These characters are defined by the Unicode character set, an emerging standard that tries to create characters for a large number of scripts worldwide.

### ⊗ **Reserved keywords**

- Java language has reserved 60 words as keywords.
- These keywords combined with operators and separators according to syntax, form the definition of the java language.
- Since keywords have specific meaning in java, we cannot use them as names for variables, classes, methods and so on. All keywords are to be written in lowercase letters. Some examples are byte, class, do, extends, for, import etc.



## ⊖ Separators

–Separators are symbols used to indicate where groups of code are divided and arranged.

() ⊖ **parentheses**, {} ⊖ **braces**, [] ⊖ **brackets**, ; ⊖ **semicolon**, , ⊖ **comma**, . ⊖ **period**

.

## JAVA STATEMENTS

⊖ Java statements are like natural languages.

⊖ A statement is an executable combination of tokens ending with a **semicolon (;)** mark.

⊖ Statements are executed in sequence in the order in which they appear.

**Java implements several types of statements, they are**

⊖ **Empty statement** ⊖ These do nothing and are used during program development as a placeholder.

⊖ **Labeled statement** ⊖ Any statement begins with a label, such labels must not be keywords, already declared local variables, or previously used labels in this module. Labels in Java are used as the arguments of jump statements.

⊖ **Expression statements** ⊖ Java has seven types of expression statements. Assignment, pre-increment, pre-decrement, post-increment, post-decrement, method call and Allocation Expression.

⊖ **Selection statement** ⊖ These select one of the several control flows. They are **if, if-else** and **switch**

⊖ **Iteration statement** ⊖ These specify how and when looping will take place. They are **while, do** and **for**.

⊖ **Jump statement** ⊖ Jump statements pass control to the beginning or end of the current block or to a labeled statement. They are **break, continue, return** and **throw**.

⊖ **Synchronization statement** ⊖ These are used for handling issues with multi-threading.

⊖ **Guarding statement** ⊖ Used for safe handling of code that may cause an exception.

These statements use the keywords **try, catch, and finally**.



## JAVAVIRTUALMA CHINE

- ⌘ All language compiler translates source code into machine code.
- ⌘ Java compiler produces an intermediate code known as **bytecode** for a machine that does not exist.
- ⌘ This machine is called the **Java Virtual Machine**.
- ⌘ The process of compiling a java program into bytecode is referred to as **virtual machine code**.

**SOURCECODE**

**BYTE**

### CODE Process of Compilation

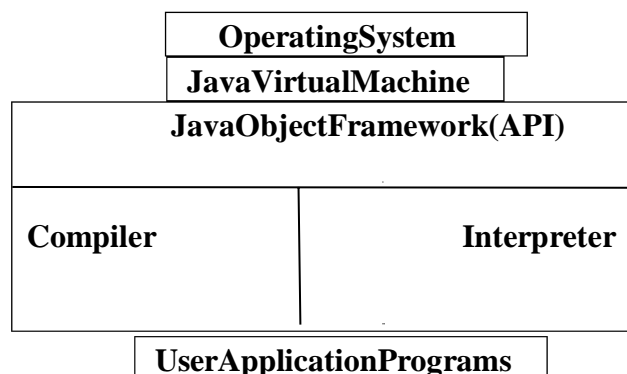
- ⌘ The virtual machine code is not machine specific.
- ⌘ The machine specific code (machine code) is generated by the java interpreter by acting as an intermediary between the virtual machine and the real machine.

**VIRTUALMACHINE**

**REALMACHINE**

### Process of converting bytecode into machine code

The java object framework (Java API) acts as the intermediary between the user programs and the virtual machine which in turn acts as the intermediary between the operating system and the java object framework



**Layers of interactions for Java programs**

## COMMANDLINEARGUMENTS

Commandlineargumentsareparameters thataresuppliedtotheapplicationprogram atthetimeofinvoking it forexecution.

ClassComLineTest

```
{
    Publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[ ])
    {
        int count,i=
        0;Stringstring;
        count=args.length;
        System.out.println("Numberofarguments="+count);whi
        le(i<count)
        {
            string=args[i];i
            =i+1;
            System.out.println(i+":"+"Javais"+string+"!");
        }
    }
}
```

Compileandruntheprogramwiththecommandlineasfollows:

```
JavaComLineTestSimpleObject_OrientedDistributedRobustSecure
PortableMultithreadedDynamic
```

Duringtheexecution,the commandlineargumentsSimple,Object\_Oriented,etc. arepassedto theprogram through the array **args**. That is the element **args[0]** contains Simple,**args[1]** containsObject\_Oriented ,andsoon.Theseelementsareaccessed usingtheloopvariable Iasan indexlike

```
name=args[i]
```

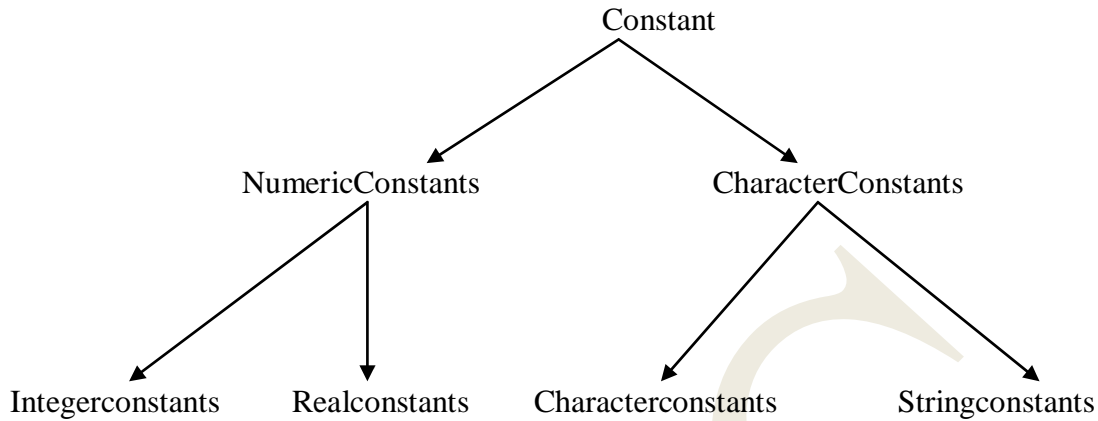
Theindexi isincrementedusingawhileloopuntilalltheargumentsare accessed.Thenumberifargumentsis obtained bystatement

```
count=args.length;
```

# CONSTANTS

Constants refer to fixed values that do not change during the execution of a program.

a



## Integer Constants

It refers to a sequence of digits. There are 3 types of integers, namely

- Decimal integer
- Octal integer
- Hexadecimal integer
  - } Decimal integers consist of a set of digits, 0 through 9, preceded by an optional minus sign.
  - } Embedded spaces, commas, and non-digit characters are not permitted between digits.

Valid

1234

-789

Invalid

70.00

\$234

- } An octal integer constant consists of any combination of digits from set 0 through 7, with a leading 0.

Examples

0345

0556

- ✓ A sequence of digits preceded by 0x or 0X is considered a hexadecimal integer.
- ✓ They include alphabets A through F for a through f.

- ✓ A letter A through F represents the numbers 10 through 15. Following are the examples of valid hexadecimal integers.

0X2      0X9F      0xbcd      0x

#### –Real Constants

} Numbers containing fractional parts are called real or floating point constants. Examples are 0.087

-0.98      456.78

} These numbers are shown in decimal notation, having a whole number followed by decimal point and the fractional part, which is an integer. That is

213.      .98      -.71 are all valid real numbers.

} A real number may also be expressed in exponential or scientific notation. For example, the value 215.45 may be written as 2.1545e2 in exponential notation. The general form is

} The mantissa is either a real number expressed in decimal notation or an integer.

} The exponent is an integer with an optional plus or minus sign.

} The letter separating the mantissa and the exponent can be written in either lowercase or uppercase. Examples of legal floating point constants are

0.65e4      12e-2      1.5e+5

A floating point constant may comprise four parts:

- a whole number
- a decimal point
- a fractional part
- an exponent

#### –Single character constants

} A single character constant contains a single character enclosed within a pair of single quote marks.

Examples of character constants are:

'5'    'X'    ':'    "'

#### –String constants

} A string constant is a sequence of characters enclosed between double quotes.

} The characters may be alphabets, digits, special characters and blank spaces. Examples are:

"Hello"    "1997"

#### –Backslash character constants

- Java supports some special backslash character constants that are used in output methods.
  - For example, the symbol '\n' stands a newline character.
  - They consist of two characters. These characters combinations are known as **escape sequences**.

Constant	Meaning
'\b'	Backspace
'\f'	Formfeed
'\n'	Newline
'\r'	Carriagereturn
'\t'	Horizontaltab
'\''	Singlequote
'\"'	Doublequote
'\\'	Backslash

## DATATYPES

Datatypes specify the size and type of values that can be stored.

### –Integer Types

Integer types can hold whole numbers such as 123, -96, 5678. Java supports four types of integers.

They are **byte, short, int, and long**.

Type	Size	Minimum value	Maximum value
Byte	One byte	-128	127
Short	Two bytes	-32,768	32,767
Int	Four bytes	-2,147,483,648	2,147,483,647
Long	Eight bytes	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808	9,223,372,036,854,775,807

### –Floating Point Types

Floating point type contains fractional parts such as 26.78 and -7.890.

The **float** type values are single-precision numbers while the **double** types represent double precision numbers.

Floating point numbers are treated as double-precision quantities. We must append **f** to the numbers.

Example:

- 1.
- 2
- 3
- f7.6756
- 7
- e5

Double-precision types are used when we need greater precision in storage of floating point numbers.

Floating point datatypes support a special value known as Not-a-Number (NaN).

} It is used to represent the result of operations such as dividing by zero, where an actual number is not produced.

Type	Size	Minimum value	Maximum value
Float	4 bytes	3.4e-038	1.7e+0.38
double	8 bytes	3.4e-038	1.7e+308

#### –Character Type

} Java provides a character data type called **char**.

} The char type assumes a size of 2 bytes but, basically, it can hold only a single character.

#### –Boolean Type

} It is used to test a particular condition during the execution of the program.

} There are only two values that a boolean type can take: true or false.

} Boolean type is denoted by the keyword **boolean** and uses only one bit of storage.

## VARIABLES

⊗ A variable is an identifier that denotes a storage location used to store a data value.

⊗ Variable names may consist of alphabets, digits, the underscore (`_`) and dollar characters,

subject to the following conditions:

1. They must not begin with a digit.
2. Uppercase and lowercase are distinct.
3. It should not be a keyword.
4. Whitespace is not allowed.
5. Variable names can be of any length.

#### –Declaration of variables

The declaration statement defines the type of variable. The general form of declaration of a variable is:

Variables are separated by commas. A declaration statement must end with a semicolon. Some valid declarations are:

```
int count;
float x,y;
```

#### –Giving values to variables

A variable must be given a value after it has been declared. It is used in an expression. This can be achieved in two ways:

1. By using an assignment statement
2. By using a read statement

### –Assignment Statement

A simple method of giving value to a variable is through the assignment statement as follows:

For example:

```
initialvalue=0;
finalvalue =123;
```

We can also

string assignment expression as shown below: `x=y=z=0;`

It is also possible to assign a value to a variable at the time of its declaration. The general form is as follows:

Examples:

```
int finalvalue =
    123;
char yes =
    'x';
```

### –Read Statement

} We may also give values to variables interactively through the keyword using the **readline()** method.

} The **readline()** method reads the input from the keyboard as a string which is then converted to the corresponding data type using the data type wrapper classes.

### –Scope of variables

Java variables are actually classified into three types:

- Instance variables
- Class variables
- Local variables
- Instance and class variables are declared inside a class. Instance variables are recreated when the objects are instantiated and they are associated with the objects.
- Class variables are global to a class and belong to the entire set of objects that class creates. Only one memory location is created for each class variable.
- Variables declared and used inside methods are called local variables. They are not available

for use outside method definition.

### –Typecasting

} We often encounter situations where there is a need to store a value of one type into a variable of another type.

} In such a situation, we must cast the value to be stored by preceding it with the type name in parentheses. The syntax is

The process of converting one data type to another is called **casting**. Examples: `int m=50;`

byte n=(byte)m;

Four integer types can be cast to any other type except Boolean. Casting into a smaller type may result in loss of data. Similarly, the float and double can be cast to any other type except Boolean.

From	To
byte	short, char, int,
short	long, float, double, int, long,
int	float, double
long	int, long, float,
float	double, long, float, double
	float, double
	Double

### Cast that results in loss of information

#### → Getting values of variables

Java supports two output methods that can be used to send the results to the screen.

- print() method // print and wait
- println() method // print a line and move to the next line  
    | The print() method prints output on one line until a new line character is encountered.

For example, the statements  
System.out.print("Hello");  
System.out.print("Java!");  
);  
will display the words HelloJava! on one line and wait for displaying further information on the same line.

| The println() method, by contrast, takes the information provided and displays it on a

line followed by a line feed. For example  
System.out.println("Hello");  
System.out.println("Java!");

will produce the following output:  
Hello  
Java!

## OPERATORS AND EXPRESSIONS

### Introduction:

- ⊗ Java supports a rich set of operators.
- ⊗ An operator is a symbol that is used for manipulating data and variables.
- ⊗ Operators are used in programs to manipulate data and variables.

### Java operators are classified into number of categories.

- Arithmetic operators
- Relational operators
- Logical operators
- Assignment operators



- Increment and decrement operators
- Conditional operators
- Bitwise operators
- Special operators

## - ARITHMETIC OPERATORS

Arithmetic operators are used to construct mathematical expressions as in algebra

Operator	Meaning
+	Addition
-	Subtraction
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulo division

Ex:  $a \ b \ a+b \ a*b \ a/b \ a\%b$

Here  $a$  and  $b$  may be variable or constants. They are also known as operands

$+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ ,  $/$ ,  $\%$  are called operators.

### i) Integer arithmetic

When both the operands in a single arithmetic expression such as  $a + b$  are integer, the expression is called an "integer expression" and the operation is called as "integer arithmetic".

Integer arithmetic always gives an integer value.

E.g.:  $a=14, b=4$

$$a+b=18$$

$a-$

$$b=10a*$$

$$b=56$$

$$a/b=3 \text{ (decimal part truncated)}$$

$$a\%b=2 \text{ (remainder of integer division)}$$

For modulo division, the sign of the result is always the sign of the first operand.

$$-14\%3 = -2$$

$$14\%-3 = 2$$

## ii) *Real arithmetic*

⊖ An arithmetic operation involving only real operands is called “**real arithmetic**”.

⊖ A real operand may assume values either in decimal or exponential notation.

### Sample program:

```
import java.io.*;
class floatpoint
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        float a=20.5,b=6.4;
        System.out.println("a="+a);
        System.out.println("b="+b);
        System.out.println("a+b="+(a+b));
        System.out.println("a-b="+(a-b));
        System.out.println("a*b="+(a*b));
        System.out.println("a/b="+(a/b));
        System.out.println("a%b="+(a%b));
    }
}
```

## *Mixed mode arithmetic*

⊖ When one of the operands is real and the other is an integer, the expression is called a mixed-mode expression.

⊖ If either operand is of the real type, then the other operand is converted to real and the real arithmetic is performed.

**E.g.:**  $15/10.0=1.5$

$15/10=1$

DBC

## RELATIONAL OPERATORS

Operator	Meaning
<	is less than
<=	is less than or equal to
>	is greater than
>=	is greater than or equal to
==	is equal to
!=	is not equal to

The output is X=45

**Eg: Expression                      value**

4.5 <= 10                              True

4.5 >= 10                              False

## LOGICAL OPERATORS

Java has three logical operators.

Operator	Meaning
&&	Logical AND
	Logical OR
!	Logical NOT

Logical operator return either TRUE or FALSE values.

**Truth Table**

op-1	op-2	op-1 && op-2	op-1    op-2
True	True	True	True

True	False	False	True
False	True	False	True
False	False	False	false

Logical operator **&&** and **||** are used to check compound condition (ie for combining two or more relations)

When an expression combines two or more relational expressions then it is called logical expression or a compound relational expression

**Eg:** if (age>55 && salary<1000)if(mark1>40&& mark2>40)

### –ASSIGNMENT OPERATORS

Used to assign the value of an expression to a variable.

Assignment operators are usually in the form “=”.

Shorthand form:

**vop=exp;**

**v** € variable

**exp** € expression

**op** € javabinaryoperator

The assignment statement **vop=exp;** is equivalent to **v=vop(exp);**

Statement with simple assignment operator	Shorthand operator
a=a+1	a+=1
a=a-1	a-=1
a=a*(n+1)	a*=n+1
a=a/(n+1)	a/=n+1

$A = a \% b$

$a \% = b$

**Eg:**  $Z += Y + 1$  which is equal to  $Z = Z + (Y + 1)$

### Advantages:

It has 3 advantages.

- Easy to write.
- Easy to read
- Efficient code.

### - INCREMENT AND DECREMENT OPERATORS

⊘ They are also called unary operators.

++ ☞ Increment operator, add 1 to the operand

-- ☞ Decrement operator, subtract 1 to the operand

⊘ They may also be used to increment subscripted variables

**Eg.**  $a[i++]$

### Sample Program:

```
class Incrementoperator
{
    public static void main(String args[] )
    {
        int m=10,n=20;
        System.out.println("m="+m);
        System.out.println("n="+n);
        System.out.println("++m="+++m);
        System.out.println("n++="+n++);
        System.out.
        println("m="+m);System.out.println
        ("n="+n);
    }
}
```

## Output

```
m=10
n=20
++m=11
n+=21
m=11 n=
21
```

### –CONDITIONAL OPERATORS

- ⊞ The character pair `?:` is used for conditional operator.
- ⊞ It is also called a **ternary** operator.

- ⊞ `exp1, exp2, exp3` are expressions
- ⊞ The operator `?:` works as follows

- **Expression1** is evaluated first, if it is **true** then the **expression2** is evaluated.
- If **expression1** is **false**, **expression3** is evaluated.

### –BITWISE OPERATORS:

- ⊞ Bitwise operators are used to manipulate data at values of bit level.
- ⊞ These operators are used for testing the bits, or shifting them to the right or left.
- ⊞ Bitwise operators may not float or double.

Operator	Meaning
&	Bitwise AND
!	Bitwise OR
^	Bitwise exclusive OR
~	One's complement

<<	Shiftleft
>>	Shiftright
>>>	Shiftrightwith zerofill

Eg: 5 = 0000

0101A=5

>>A // 1000 0010

<<A // 0000 1010

## →SPECIAL OPERATORS

⊗Javasupportsspecialoperators

→Instanceofoperator

→Dotoperator(or)member selectionoperator (.)

} *Instanceofoperator:*

⊗Instanceofoperatorisanobjectreferenceoperator.

⊗Allowustodeterminewhetherthe objectbelongstoaparticlarclassornot.

⊗Return true, if the object on the left-hand side is an instance of the class given on the right-hand side.

**E.g.**personinstanceofstudent

→Is **true**iftheobjectpersonbelongstoclass**student**;otherwiseitis**false**.

} *Dotoperator*

⊗Thedotoperator(.) isusedtoaccesstheinstance variablesandmethodsofclassobjects.

Person1.age //referencetothevariableage

Person1.salary() //referencetothemethodsalary()

It isalsousedtoaccessclassesandsubpackagesfromapackage.

## →ArithmeticExpressions

- Anarithmeticectionisacombinationofvariablesconstantsandoperatorsarrangedasperthesyntaxofthelanguage.

- Javacanhandedanycomplex mathematicalexpressions.

- Java does not have an operator for exponentiation. Some of the expressions areAlgebraicexp: Javaexp:

ab-c

a\*b-c



$(m+n)(x+y)$

$(m+n)*(x+y)$

$ab/c$

$a*b/c$

$3x^2+2x+1$

$3*x*x+2*x+1$

### –Evaluation of Expression:

- Expressions are evaluated using an assignment statement of the form

*Variable = expression;*

- Variable is any valid Java variable name. When the statement is encountered, the expression is evaluated first and the result then replaces the previous value of the variable on the left hand side.

Eg:  $x = a*b - c;$

$y = a - b/c + d;$

### –Precedence of Arithmetic operators:

- An arithmetic expression without any parentheses will be evaluated from left to right using the rules of precedence of operators.

- The two distinct priority levels of arithmetic operators in Java are,

1. High priority  
\*/%

2. Low priority  
+ -

### –Type conversions

#### in Expressions: Automatic Type

e

#### conversion:

- } If the operands are of different types, the lower type is automatically converted to the higher type before the operation proceeds.
- } The result is of the higher type.
- } If **byte**, **short** and **int** variables are used in expression, the result is always promoted to **int**, to avoid overflow.
- } If a single **long** is used in expression, the whole expression is promoted to **long**.

#### Casting

#### value:

- } To convert an object or variable of one type to another is called casting a value.
- } The general form of a cast is

**(type\_name) expression**

Example

X=(int) 7.5 // 7.5 is converted to integer by truncation.

### **Operator Precedence and Associativity:**

The  
Precedence of  
the  
Java Operators

## **QUESTIONS**

### **2 Marks**

1. What is the difference between C and C++?
2. Expand JDK and SDK.
3. Define JVM.
4. Define Tokens.
5. What do you mean by escape sequences?
6. Define casting a value.
7. What is the difference between print() and println() method?

### **5 Marks**

1. Explain in detail about features of java.
2. Describe about Java program structure.
3. Explain in detail about Java statements.
4. Explain Command line arguments with suitable example.
5. What are the types of constants? Explain in detail.
6. Write short notes on Data types in java.
7. Explain in detail about variables.

### **10 Marks**

1. Explain in detail about Operators and Expressions in java.

**Unit Completed**

## UNIT III

### DECISION MAKING AND BRANCHING I

#### INTRODUCTION

- ⊖ When a program breaks the sequential flow and jumps to another part of the code, it is called **branching**.
- ⊖ When the branching is based on a particular condition, it is known as **conditional branching**.
- ⊖ If branching takes place without any decision, it is known as **unconditional branching**.

The following statements are known as control or decision making statements.

- if statement
- switch statement
- Conditional operator statement

#### DECISION MAKING WITH IF STATEMENT

- ⊖ The if statement is a powerful decision making statement and is used to **control the flow of execution of statements**.

*General form*

**if(test expression)**

- ⊖ The expression is first evaluated.
- ⊖ Depending on the value of the expression is true or false, control is transferred to a particular statement.
- ⊖ The if statements are

1. simple if statement
2. if...else statement
3. Nested if...else statement
4. else if ladder

#### 1. Simple If Statement

- If the test expression is **true** the **statement block will be executed**; otherwise the execution will **jump to the statement-x**

→ Statement block may be single statement or a group of statements.

### General form

```
if(test expression)
{
    statement-block;
}
statement-x;
```

### Example

```
if(category==SPORTS)
{
    marks =marks +bonus_marks;
}
System.out.println(marks);
```

## 2. The If...Else Statement

→ If the test expression is **true**, then the **true-block statements** are executed.

→ Otherwise, the **false-block statements** are executed.

### General form

```
if(test expression)
{
    True block statements;
}
else
{
    False block statements;
}
Statement-X;
```

### Example

```
if(degree=="BCA")
{
    points=
    points+500;System.out.println("It
sBCA");
}
else
{
    points=
    points+200;System.out.println("I
tsBSC
```

## 3. Nesting of if ... else statement

→ Here if the **condition-1** is false, the **statement-3** will be executed; otherwise it evaluates the **condition-2**.

→ If the **condition-2** is true, then **statement-1** will be executed; otherwise the **statement-2**.

### General Form

```
if(test condition1)
    if(test condition2)
        {
            True block statements-1;
        }
    else
        {
            False block statement-2;
        }
    else
        {
            False block statements-3;
        }
Statement-x;
```

### Example

```
if(gender=="female")
    if(balance>5000)
        {
            Bonus=0.03*balance;}
    else
        {
            Bonus=0.02*balance;
        }
    else
        {
            Bonus=0.01*balance;
        }
balance=balance+bonus;
```

#### 4. The else-if ladder

- Else-if ladder is a chain of ifs in which the statement associated with each else-if is an if.
- The condition is evaluated from the top to downwards.
- As soon as the **condition is true**, then **the statements associated with it are executed** and the **control is transferred to the statement-x**.
- When all the **condition is false**, then the **final else containing the default-statement** will be executed.

##### General form

```
If(condition-1)
    statement-1;
elseif(condition-
    2)statement-2;
elseif(condition-
    3)statement-3;
    ....
    ....
else if (condition
    n)statement-n;
else
    default-
    statement;statement-x;
```

##### Example

```
If(marks>79)
    grade="honors";
elseif(marks>79)
    grade="first";els
eif(marks>79)
    grade="second";
elseif(marks>79)
    grade="third";
else
    grade="fail"; // Default-
    stmtSystem.out.println("grade="+gr
    ade);
```

#### The Switch Statement

- It is a **multiway** decision statement.
- The switch statement tests the value of a given variable against a list of **case** values.
- When a **match is found**, a block of statement associated with that **case** is executed.
- The expression is an integer expression or character known as **case labels**.
- Block 1, block 2... are statements lists may contain zero or more statements.
- Noneed to put **braces** around **each block**
- Case labels end with a **colon(:)**
- The **break statement** at the end of each block signal the **end of a particular case** and causes an **exit** from the **switch statement**, transferring the control to the statement - x following the switch.

- The **default** is an **option case**; it will be **executed** if the value of the **expression** does **not match** with any of the **case values**.
- If not present, no action takes place **when all matches fail** and the control goes to the **statement-x**.

### General form

```

switch(expression)
{
    case value-1:
        block-1
        break;
    case value-2:
        block-2
        break;
    case value-3:
        block-3
        break;
    .....
    .....
    default:
        default-
        block break;
}
statement-x;

```

### Example 1

```

switch(expression)
{
    case '1':
        System.out.println("Monday");
        break;
    case '2':
        System.out.println("Tuesday");
        break;
    case '3':
        System.out.println("Wednesday");
        break;
    case '4':
        System.out.println("Thursday");
        break;
    .....
    .....
    default:
        System.out.println("WRONG INPUT");
        break;
}
System.out.println("WELCOME TO THIS WEEK");
.....

```

?:

It is a **two-way decision** making operator.

This operator is a combination of **? and :** and takes three operands. This operator is popularly known as the **conditional operator**.

Conditional expression ? Expression 1 : expression 2;

```

If (x < 0)
    Flag = 0;
else
    Flag = 1;

```

**Ex1: Can be written as**

Flag = (x < 0) ? 0 : 1;

**Ex2:**

Y = (x > 2)  
 ? (2 \* x + 1) : (3 \* x + 2);

# DECISION MAKING AND LOOPING I

## INTRODUCTION

- ⊖ The process of **repeatedly executing a block of statement** is known as **looping**.
- ⊖ The statements in the block may be executed **any number of times**, from **zero to infinite** number.
- ⊖ If a loop continues forever, it is called an **infinite loop**.
- ⊖ A program loop consists of **two segments**, one known as the **body of the loop** and other known as the **control statements**.
- ⊖ The control statements test certain conditions and then direct the repeated execution of the statements contained in the body of the loop.
- ⊖ Looping processing in general consists of following steps:
  - Setting and initialization of a counter
  - Execution of the statements in the loop
  - Test for a specified condition for execution of the loop
  - Incrementing the counter
- ⊖ Java language provides three looping statements for loop operations.
  - The **while** statement
  - The **do** statement
  - The **for** statement

## THE WHILE STATEMENT

- ⊖ The **simplest** of all the looping structures in java is the **while statement**.
- ⊖ The **while** is an **entry-controlled loop** statement.
- ⊖ The **test condition is evaluated** and if the condition is **true**, then the **body of the loop is executed**.
- ⊖ After execution of the body, the **test condition is once again evaluated** and if it is **true**, the **body is executed once again**.
- ⊖ The **execution of the body continues, until the test condition** becomes **false** and the control is transfer **out of the loop**.
- ⊖ On exit, the program continues with the statement immediately after the body of the loop.

### General form

```
Initialization;  
  
while(testcondition)  
{  
  Bodyoftheloop  
}
```

### Example

```
Sum=0;  
N=1;  
while(N<=10)  
{  
  sum=sum +  
  N;N=N+1;  
}  
System.out.println("sum"+sum);
```

Herethebodyoftheloopisexecuted10timesfor=1,2..10.

## THE DO STATEMENT

- ⊞ In do statement, the program proceeds to evaluate the body of the loop first.
- ⊞ At the end of the loop, the test condition in the while statement is evaluated.
- ⊞ If the condition is true, the program continues to evaluate the body of the loop once again.
- ⊞ The program continues to evaluate the body of the loop as long as the condition is true.
- ⊞ When the condition becomes false, the loop will be terminated and the control goes to the statement that appears immediately after the while statement.

### General

```
form  
Initializa  
tion;do  
{  
  Bodyoftheloop  
}  
while(testcondition);
```

### Example

```
Sum=0;  
N=1;  
  
do  
{  
  sum=sum +  
  N;N=N+1;  
}  
while(N<=10);System.out.println("sum"+sum);
```

Herethebodyoftheloopisexecuted10timesfor=1,2..10.

## THE FOR STATEMENT



⊗ For loop is an entry-controlled loop.

⊗ The execution of the for statement is as follows:

- (1) **Initialization** of the control variable is done first, using assignment statements such as `i=1` and `count=0`. The variable `i` and `count` are known as loop-control variables.
- (2) The value of the **control variable is tested** using the test condition. The test condition is a relational expression, such as `i<10` that determines when the loop will exit.
  - If the condition is **true**, the **body** of the loop is **executed**; otherwise the loop is **terminated** and the execution continues with the statement that immediately follows the loop.
- (3) When the body of the **loop is executed**, the control is transferred back to the for statement after reevaluating the last statement in the loop.
  - ⊗ Now the control variable is incremented using an assignment statement such as `i=i+1` and the new value of the control variable is again tested to see whether it satisfies the loop condition.
  - ⊗ If the condition is satisfied, the body of the loop is again executed.
  - ⊗ This process continues till the value of the control variable fails to satisfy the test condition.

#### General form

```
for(initialization;testcondition;increment)
{
    Bodyoftheloop
}
```

#### Simple example-2

```
for(n=1;n<=10;n++)
{
    sum=sum+n;
}
```

#### Simple example-1

```
for(i=0;i<=10;i++)
{
    System.out.println(i);
}
```

#### Addition features of for loop

```
p=1;
for(n=0;n<17;++n)
```

#### valid

```
m=5;
for(;m!=100;)
{
    System.out.println(m);
    m=m+5;
}
```

## Can be written as

–for(p=1,n=0; n<17;++n) € valid

–for(n=1,m=50;n<=m;n=n+1,m=m-1) € valid

–for(i=1;i<20 &&sum<100;++i) € valid

–for(m=5;m!=100;m=m+5) € valid

## Nesting of for loops

–A for loop which is present inside of another for loop is called nesting of for loop.

```
for(i=1;i<=10;i++)
{
.....
.....
    for(j=1;j!=5;++j)
        {.....
            .....
        }
.....
}
```

```
for(i=1;i<=10;i++)
{
    for(j=1;j<=10;j++)
        {
            System.out.println(i,j);
        }
}
```

## JUMPS IN LOOPS

⊗ Loops perform a set of operations repeatedly until the control variable fails to satisfy the test condition.

⊗ Java permits a jump from one statement to the end or beginning of a loop as well as a jump out of a loop.

### Jumping out of a loop

⊗ Exit from a loop can be accomplished by using the **break statement**.

⊗ **Break** can also be used within **while, do and for** loops.

⊗ When break statement is encountered inside a loop, the loop is immediately exited and the program continues with the statement immediately following the loop.

⊗ In nested loop, the **break would only exit from the loop containing it**.

⊞ The break will exit only a single loop.

```
while(.....)
{
    .....
    .....
    if
    (condition)break;
    .....
    .....
}.....
```

```
do(.....)
{
    .....
    .....
    if
    (condition)break;
    .....
    .....
}while (...)
```

```
for(.....)
{
    .....
    .....
    for(.....)
    {
        ....
        .....
        if
        (condition)break;
        .....
        .....
    }// for second for
    .....
    .....
}//for first for
```

⊞ Continue statement skips a part

⊞ The continue statement; cause the loop to be continued with the next statement in between.

⊞ The continue statement tells the compiler “**skip the following statements and continue with the next iteration**”.

#### EXAMPLE

```
while(testcondition)
{
    .....
    if(condition)
    continue;
    .....
    .....
}
```

#### EXAMPLE

```
do(.....)
{
    .....
    if(condition)
    continue;
    .....
}while(testcondition);
```

#### EXAMPLE

```
for(.....)
{
    .....
    if(condition)
    continue;
    .....
    .....
}
```

## LABELLED LOOPS

⊞ A label is any valid Java variable name.

⊞ To give a label to a loop, place the label before the loop with a colon at the end.

**Format1:**

loop1:for(.....)

```
{
.....
.....
}
```

**Format2: A block of statements can be**

**labeled as shown below:**

block1:

```
{
.....
.....
```

block2:

```
{
.....
}
```

```
}
```

## **CLASSES, OBJECTS AND METHODS IN**

### **INTRODUCTION**

⊖ **CLASS: “A class is a way of binding the data and associated methods in a single unit”**

⊖ Any JAVA program if we want to develop then that should be developed with respective class

only i.e., without class there is no JAVA program.

⊖ Classes create objects and objects use methods to communicate between them.

⊖ Classes provide convenient method for packing together a group of logically related data items

and functions that work on them.

⊖ The data items are called fields and the functions are called methods.

### **DEFINING A CLASS**

⊖ A class is a user-defined data type with a template that serves to define its properties.

⊖ Anything in square bracket is optional.

⊖ Class name and superclass name are valid java identifiers.

⊞ The keyword `extends` indicates that the properties of the superclassname class are extended theclassnameclass.

```
The basic form of a class definition is  
classclassname[extendssuperclassname]  
{  
    [fieldsdeclaration;]  
    [methoddeclaration;]  
}
```

```
Example1  
classempty  
{  
}
```

```
Example2  
classsample  
{  
    inti,j;  
    voidgetdata();  
}
```

## FIELDSDECLARATION

- ⊞ Data is encapsulated in a class by placing data fields inside the body of the class definition.
- ⊞ These variables are recalled *instance variables* because they are recreated whenever an object of the class is instantiated.
- ⊞ *Instance variables are also known as member variables.*

```
Example  
classTriangle  
{  
    intlength;i  
    ntheight;  
}
```

The class triangle contains two integer type instance variable, length and height.

## METHODSDECLARATION

⊞ Method declarations have four basic parts:

- The name of the method (method name)
- The type of the value the method returns (type)
- A list of parameters (parameter-list)
- The body of the method

*The general form of the method declaration is*

```
typemethodname(parameter-list)
```

```
{
```

```
    method-body;
```

```
}
```

*example*

```
classTriangle
```

```
{
```

```
    intlength;i
```

```
    ntheight;
```

```
    voidgetdata(intx,inty)
```

```
    {
```

```
        length=x;
```

```
        height=y;
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

## CREATING OBJECTS

⊞ **OBJECT:** In order to store the data for the data members of the class, we must create an object.

– Instance (instance is a mechanism of allocating sufficient amount of memory space for

data members of a class) of a class is known as an object.

– Class variable is known as an object.

– Grouped item (grouped item is a variable which allows us to store more than one value)

is known as an object.

– Value form of a class is known as an object.

– Blue print of a class is known as an object.

– Real world identities are called as objects.

⊞ Creating an object is also referred to as instantiating an object.

⊞ Objects in Java are created using the **new** operator.

⊞ The new operator creates an object of the specified class and returns a reference to that object.

⊞ Every time the class is instantiated, a new copy of each of them is created.

**Eg:**

```
TriangleTri1;           //
```

```
declareTri1=newTriangle()
```

```
//instantiate
```

⊞ The first statement declares a variable to hold the object reference

⊞ The second one actually assigns the object reference to the variable.

⊞ The variable tri1 is now an object of the rectangle class

**Eg1:** Triangle tri1 = new Triangle(); // valid

**Eg2:** Triangle tri1 = new Triangle(); // tri1 and tri2 are the objects of Triangle class  
Triangle tri2 = new Triangle();

**Eg3:** Triangle tri1 = new Triangle();  
Triangle tri2 = tri1;

## ACCESSING CLASS MEMBERS

we can access class members using **DOT(.)** operator

### Syntax:

```
objectname. variablename =  
value; objectname.methodname(paramete  
r-list);
```

```
class Square  
{  
    int side;  
    void getData(int s)  
    {  
        side = s;  
    }  
    int rectArea()  
    {  
        int area = side * side;  
        return area;  
    }  
}  
class SquareArea  
{  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        Square s1 = new  
        Square();  
        s1.getData(5);  
        int sqarea  
        = s1.rectArea();  
        System.out.println(sqarea);  
    }  
}
```

d  
20);

# CONSTRUCTORS

Java supports a special type of method called a constructor that enables an object to initialize itself when it is created.

- Constructors have the **same name as the class name**.
- They **do not return any value** and **do not specify even void**.
- Constructors are **automatically called** during the creation of the objects.

## EXAMPLE:

```
class Volume
{
    int x, y, z;
    Volume() // constructor
    {
        x=10;
        Y=10;
        Z=30;
    }
    int calVolume()
    {
        int vol=x*y*z;
        return vol;
    }
}
class DemoVolume()
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        Volume volObj=new Volume(); //
        creating object int result=volObj.calVolume(); // calling
        method System.out.println("the volume is="+result);
    }
}
```

## ADVANTAGES of constructors.

1. A constructor eliminates placing the default values.
2. A constructor eliminates calling the normal method implicitly.

## RULES/PROPERTIES/CHARACTERISTICS of a constructor:

1. Constructor name must be similar to name of the class.
2. Constructor should not return any value even void also (if we write the return type for the constructor then that constructor will be treated as ordinary method).
3. Constructors should not be static since constructors will be called each and every time whenever an object is creating.
4. Constructor should not be private provided an object of one class is created in another class (constructor can be private provided an object of one class created in the same class).
5. Constructors will not be inherited at all.
6. Constructors are called automatically whenever an object is creating.



## TYPES OF CONSTRUCTORS:

Based on creating objects in JAVA we have two types of constructors.

They are

1. Default/parameterless/no argument constructor and
2. Parameterized constructor.

### 1. DEFAULT CONSTRUCTOR

A default constructor is one which will not take any parameters.

#### Syntax:

```
class <clsname>
```

```
{
```

```
clsname() // default constructor
```

```
{
```

```
Block of statements;
```

```
.....;
```

```
.....;
```

```
}
```

```
.....;
```

```
.....;
```

```
};
```

```
class Test
```

```
{
```

```
int a,
```

```
b; Test(
```

```
)
```

```
{
```

```
System.out.println("I AM FROM
```

```
DEFAULT CONSTRUCTOR...");
```

```
a=10; b=20;
```

```
System.out.println("VALUE OF a=" + a); Sy
```

```
stem.out.println("VALUE OF b=" + b);
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

```
class TestDemo
```

```
{
```

```
public static void main(String[] args)
```

```
{
```

```
Test t1 = new Test();
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

### 2. Parameterized constructors

```
// parameterized constructor
```

```
Volume(int l, int m, int n)
```

```
{
```

```
int x,y,z;
```

```
}
```

```
class Volume
```



## **METHODOVERLOADING**

- ⌘ Methods that have the same name, but different parameter lists and different definitions are called method overloading.
- ⌘ Method overloading is used when objects are required to perform similar tasks but using different input parameters.

Java matches up the method name first and then the number and type of parameters to decide which one of the definitions to execute. This process is known as **polymorphism**.

```

class Calculatearea
{
    int area()
    {
        int
        val=10*20*30;ret
        urnval;
    }
    int area(intm,intn)
    {
        intval=m*n;
        returnval;
    }
    int area(intl, intm,int n)
    {
        int
        val=l*m*n;ret
        urnval;
    }
    float area(floatm,floatn)
    {
        float
        val=m*n;retur
        nval;
    }
    float area(intl,floatm,intn)
    {
        float
        val=l*m*n;retur
        nval;
    }
}
class Demovolume()
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        Calculatearea calarea=new
        calculatearea();int result1,result2,result3;flo
        at
        result4,
        result5;result1=calarea.area();resul
    }
}

```

- It defines a **reference** to the object.

- That is the member belongs to the class as a whole rather than the objects created from the class.

- Static members can be defined as follows

**static** int count;

**static**intmax(intx,inty);

- Staticmembersareassociated withtheclasseitselfratherthanindividualobject.
- Staticvariablesandstaticmethods areoften referredto asclassvariablesandclassmethods.
- Staticvariablesareusedwhenwewant tohaveavariablencommon toallinstances ofaclass.
- Eg:variablen thatkeepacount ofhowmanyobjectsof aclasshave beencreated.
- Staticvariables andstaticmethodsarecalled withoutusingtheobjects.

### **Restrictionofstaticmethods**

- Theycancall onlyother staticmethods.
- Theycan only access staticdata.
- Theycannot referto **this**orsuperin

```
anyway.classmathoperation
{
    staticfloatmul(floatx,float y)    // staticmethod
    {returnx*y;
    }
    staticfloatdivide(floatx,floaty)//staticmethod
    {returnx/y;
    }
}
classMathapplication
{publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])
    {
        float          a=
        mathoperation.mul(4.0,5.0);float
        b=mathoperation.divide(4,2.0);Syst
        em.out.println(a,b);
    }
}
```

A t l l i it t t l . i n  
asnesti t .

### **Example**

classNesting

```

{
    int a, b,
    result;Nesting(intx,
    inty)
    {
        a=x;b
        =y;
    }
    voidProcess()
    {result=a+b;d
    isplay();
    }
    voiddisplay()
    {System.out.println(result);}
}
classnestingtest
{
    publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])
    {Nestingnest=newNesting(10,20);n
    est.process();
    }}

```

## INHERITANCE

⊗ When one class acquires the properties of another class it is known as **inheritance**. (The mechanism of deriving a new class from an old one is called inheritance.)

⊗ A class that is inherited is called a superclass or base class.

⊗ The class that does the inheriting is called a subclass or derived class.

⊗ Advantage of inheritance is that it allows reusability of coding.

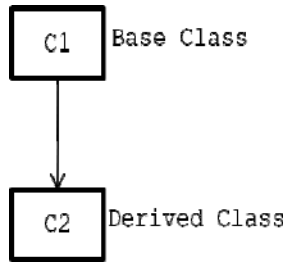
⊗ Inheritance may take different forms. They are

- Single inheritance (one superclass, one subclass)
- Multiple inheritance (several superclasses)
- Hierarchical inheritance (one super class and many subclasses)

⊗Multilevelinheritance(derivedfromaderivedclass)

### 1. Singleinheritance

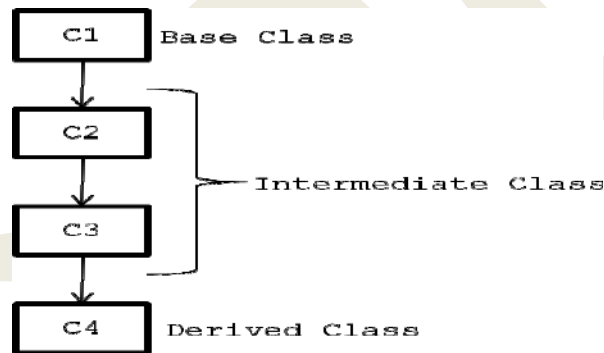
→Singleclassisoneinwhichthereexistssinglebaseclassandsingle derivedclass.



### 2. Multilevelinheritance

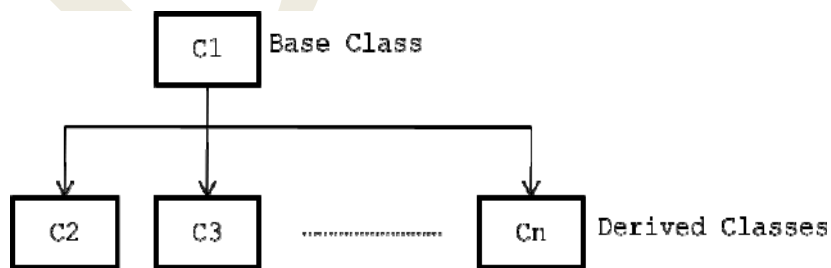
→Multilevelinheritanceisonewhichthereexistssinglebaseclass,single derivedclassandn numberofintermediatebaseclasses.

→An intermediate base class is one, in one contest it acts as bass class and in another context it actsasderived class



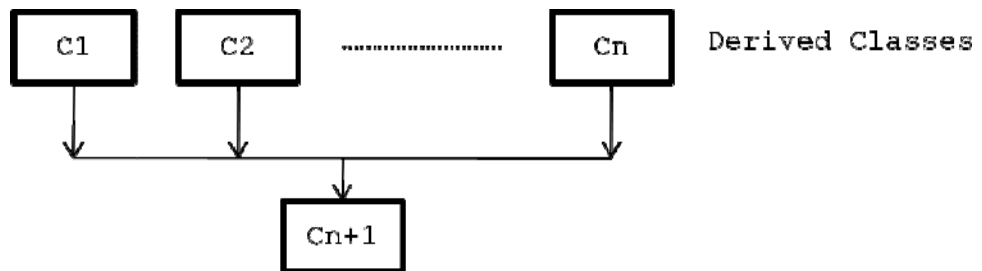
### 3. Hierarchicalinheritance

→Hierarchical inheritance is one in which there exits single base class and n number of derivedclasses.



### 4. Multipleinheritance

–Multiple inheritance is one in which there exists n number of base classes and single derived



classes.

–Multiple inheritances are one supported by JAVA through classes but it is supported by JAVA through the concept of interfaces.

### Defining a subclass

⊗ A subclass is defined as follows:

class subclassname extends superclassname

```

{
    variables
    declaration; methods
    eclaration;
}
  
```

The keyword extends signifies that the properties of the superclass name are extended to the subclass name.

### SINGLE INHERITANCE

⊗ When a single subclass extends the properties of a single level inheritance.

#### ⊗ Example

```

class Room
{
    int Length,
    Breadth; Room(int x,
    int y)
    {
        Length=x;
        Breadth=y;
    }
}
  
```

```

    int volume()
    {
        return(Length*Breadth*Height);
    }
}
class InHert
{
    public static void main (String args[])
    {
        Room1 obj=new
        Room1(14,12,10); int area1=obj.area
        ();
        int
        volume1=obj.volume(); System.out.println
        ("Area1
        =" + area1); System.out.println("Volume=" +
        volume1);
    }
}
  
```

}

DBC



```

        int area ()
        {
            return (Length*Breadth);
        }
    }

    class Room1 extends Room
    {
        int height;
        Room1 (int x,int y,int z)
        {
            super(x,y);
            Height=z;
        }
    }

```

## SUBCLASS CONSTRUCTOR

⊖ A subclass constructor is used to construct the instance variables of both the subclass and the superclass.

⊖ The subclass constructor uses the keyword `super` to invoke the constructor method of the superclass.

⊖ The keyword `super` is used in following conditions.

- Super may only be used within a subclass constructor method.
- The call to superclass constructor must appear as the first statement within the subclass constructor.
- The parameter in the superclass call must match the order and type of the instance variable declared in the program.

## MULTILEVEL INHERITANCE

⊖ Since Java supports the concept of inheritance, it is extensively used in building the class library.

⊖ Multilevel inheritance is used to build a chain of classes.

### Example

```
class Rectangle
```

```
{
    int L, W;
    Rectangle(int i,int j)
    {
        L=i;
        W=j;
        System.out.println("Area="+L
    }
}
```

```
class Box extends Rectangle
```

```
{
    Box(int i,int j,int k)
    {
        super(i,j);

```

```
class Circle extends Box
```

```
{
    circle(int i,int j,int k)
    {
        super(i, j, k); System.out.println("Area="+ (3.14*i*i));
    }
}
```

```
class mainclass
```

```
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        Circle obj=new Circle(10,
    }
}
```

### Output

Area=200

Volume=6000

```

        System.out.println("Volume="+i*j*k);
    }
}

```

## **HIERARCHICAL INHERITANCE**

When a family of classes is created in hierarchical model then it is called as *hierarchical inheritance*.

### **Example**

```

class A
{
    int a,
    b; void input
    ()
    {
        a=10;b=20;
        System.out.println("a="+a+"b="+b);
    }
}
class B extends A
{
    void addition ()
    {
        System.out.println("a+b="+(a+b));
    }
}
class C extends A
{
    void product()
    {
class mainclass
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        A obja=new A();
        B objb=new B();
        C objc=new
        C();obja.input();
        objb.a=10;objb.
        b=20;objb.addti
        on();objc.a=10;
        objc.b=20;objc
        .product();
    }
}

```

```

        System.out.println("a*b="+a*b);
    }
}

```

## OVERRIDING METHODS

⊞ A method defined in a superclass is inherited by its subclass and is used by the objects created by the subclass.

⊞ There may be occasions when we want an object to respond to the same method is called.

⊞ This is possible by defining a method in the subclass that has the same name, same arguments and same return type as a method in the superclass.

⊞ When the methods are called, the method defined in the subclass is invoked and executed instead of the one in the superclass. This is known as *overriding*.

### ⊞ Example

```

class Super
{
    int x;
    Super (int x)
    {
        this.x=x;
    }
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println("x="+x);
    }
}

class Overridetest
{
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println("Superx="+x);System.out.println("Suby="+y);
    }
}

class Sub extends Super
{
    int y;
    Sub(int x,int y)
    {
        super(x);this.y=y;
    }
}

```

## FINAL VARIABLES AND METHODS

⊞ It prevents the subclasses from overriding the member of the superclass.

⊞ Final variables and methods are declared as final using the keyword **final** as a modifier.

Example: size=100

```
final int SIZE=100;
final void showstatus(){ ..... }
```

- ⊖ Making a method final ensures that the functionality defined in that method will never be altered in anyway.
- ⊖ The value of a final variable can never be changed.

### FINAL CLASSES

- A class that cannot be sub-classed is called a final class.
- It prevents a class being further sub-classed for security reasons.
- Any attempt to inherit these classes will cause an error.

```
final class Aclass
{
}
final class Bclass extends someclass
{
}
```

⊖ In the final class, an object is created when it is declared. This is different from other classes where an object is created after the class is declared.

⊖ Finalization or finalizer method is just opposite to initialization, it automatically frees up the memory resources used by the objects. This process is known as finalization.

⊖ It acts like a destructor.

⊖ The method can be added to any class. The **finalize()** method has this general form:

```
protected void finalize()
{
//finalization code here
}
```

Here, the keyword **protected** is a specifier that prevents access to **finalize()** by code defined outside its class.

### ABSTRACT METHODS AND CLASSES

⊖ In JAVA we have two types of classes. They are

1. concrete classes and
2. abstract classes.

⊖ A **concrete class** is one which contains fully defined methods. Defined methods are also known as implemented or concrete methods. With respect to concrete class, we can create an object of that class directly.

⊞ An **abstract class** is one which contains some defined methods and some undefined methods. Undefined methods are also known as unimplemented or abstract methods. Abstract method is one which does not contain any definition. To make the method as abstract we have to use a keyword called

abstract before the function declaration.

#### **Syntax for ABSTRACT CLASS:**

```
abstract class <clsname>
{
  Abstract return_type method_name (method parameters if any);
};
```

#### **ABSTRACT METHODS**

⊞ When a method is defined as final then that method is not re-defined in a subclass.

⊞ Java allows a method to be re-defined in a subclass and those methods are called **abstract methods**.

⊞ When a class contains one or more abstract methods, then it should be declared as an abstract class.

⊞ When a class is defined as an abstract class, it must satisfy the following conditions

→ We can't use abstract classes to instantiate objects directly. For

```
exampleOps = new Op()
```

is illegal because Op is an abstract class.

→ The abstract methods of an abstract class must be defined in its subclass.

→ We can't declare abstract constructors or abstract static methods.

- ⊘ Final allows the methods not to be redefined in the subclass.
- ⊘ Abstract method must always be redefined in a subclass, thus making overriding compulsory.
- ⊘ This is done using the modifier keyword **abstract** in the method definition.
- ⊘ When a class contains one or more abstract methods, it should also be declared abstract.

Example

```
abstract class shape
{
.....
.....
abstract void draw();
.....
.....
} RULE
```

S:

- ⊘ We cannot use abstract classes to instantiate objects directly.
- ⊘ The abstract methods of an abstract class must be defined in its subclass.
- ⊘ We cannot declare abstract constructors or abstract static methods.

### METHODS WITH VARARGS

- ⊘ Varargs represents variable length arguments in methods.
- ⊘ It makes that Java code simple and flexible.

### General form

```
<access specifier><static> void method-name(object... arguments)
{
}
```

⊘ In the above syntax, the method contains an argument called varargs in which

- Object is the type of an argument
- Ellipsis (...) is the key to varargs
- Argument is the name of the variable

**Example program**  
Class exampleprg

**Foreg:** Public void sample(String username, String password, String mail)

**Can be written as:** Public void sample(String... var\_name)

Here var\_name is the variable name that specifies that we can pass any number of String arguments to the sample method.

```
System.out.println("hello" + name);
}
}
public static void main(String args[])
{
exampleprg("ram", "siva", "suriya");
}
}
```

## VISIBILITY CONTROL

} The modifiers are also known as **access modifiers**.

} Java provides three types of visibility modifiers: **public, private and protected**.

### Public Access:

} To declare the variable or method as public, it is visible to the entire class in which it is defined.

#### Example:

```
public int number;  
public void sum() { ..... }
```

### Friendly Access:

} When no access modifier is specified, the number defaults to a limited version of public accessibility known as “friendly” level of access.

} The difference between the “public” and “friendly” access is that the public modifier makes fields visible in all classes.

} While friendly access makes fields visible only in the same package, but not in other packages.

### Protected Access:

} The **protected** modifier makes the fields visible not only to all classes and subclasses in the same package but also to subclasses in other packages.

} Non-subclasses in other packages cannot access the “protected” members.

### Private Access:

} Private fields are accessible only with their own class.

} They cannot be inherited by subclasses and therefore not accessible in subclasses.

} A method declared as **private** behaves like a method declared as **final**.

### Private protected Access:

} A field can be declared with two keywords **private** and **protected** together like:

```
private protected int codeNumber;
```

} This gives a visibility level in between the “protected” access and “private” access.

### Rules:

1. Use **public** if the field is to be visible everywhere.
2. Use **protected** if the field is to be visible everywhere in the current package and also subclasses in other packages.
3. Use “default” if the field is to be visible everywhere in the current package only.
4. Use **private protected** if the field is to be visible only in subclasses, regardless of packages.
5. Use **private** if the field is **not** to be visible anywhere except in its own class.

## QUESTIONS

**2Marks**

1. What are the types of branching?

DBC



2. What do you mean by conditional operator?
3. Define looping.
4. What is the difference between entry controlled loop and exit controlled loop?
5. What is the use of break statement?
6. Define continue statement.
7. Define Constructor.
8. What do you mean by inheritance?
9. Define method overriding.

### **5Marks**

1. Explain in detail about If statements.
2. Describe about switch statement.
3. Explain in detail about Looping statements with suitable examples.
4. Write a Java program using parameterized and default constructor.
5. Write short notes on Method overloading in java.
6. Explain in detail about Abstract methods and classes.
7. Describe about Final variables and methods.

### **10Marks**

1. Explain in detail about Classes and Objects.
2. Explain in detail about inheritance and its types.

**Unit II completed**

# UNIT III

## ARRAYS, STRINGS AND VECTORS IN TR

### INTRODUCTION

⊖ An array is a group of contiguous or related data items that share a common name.

⊖ A particular value in an array is indicated by writing a number called index number or subscript in brackets after the array name

**E.g. name[10]**

⊖ The individual values are called elements.

### ONE-DIMENSIONAL ARRAYS

⊖ A list of items can be given one variable name using only one subscript called single subscripted variable or one-dimensional array.

Eg: `int number[] = new int[5];`

For example, The values of the array elements 35, 40, 20, 57, 19 can be assigned as follows: `number[0]=35;`

`number[1] =40;`

`number[2] =20;`

`number[3] =57;`

`number[4]=19;`

### CREATING AN ARRAY

⊖ Arrays must be declared and created in the computer memory before they are used.

Creation of an array involves three steps:

- ⊖ Declaring the array
- ⊖ Creating memory locations
- ⊖ Putting values into the memory locations.

## Declaration of arrays

### Creating memory locations

⊖ After declaring an array, we need to create memory.

⊖ Java allows creating arrays using **new** operator.

**arrayname = new type**

**[size]; Eg: number = new int[5];**

### Combining declaration and creation

⊖ It is also possible to combine the two steps - declaration and creation

⊖ **int number[] = new**

### **int[5]; Initialization of Arrays**

⊖ Putting values into the array is known as initialization.

⊖ This process is done using the array subscript.

**arrayname[subscript] = value;**

**Eg:**

number[0] = 90; n

umber[1] = 100;

.....

⊖ Arrays start with a subscript 0 and end with a value one less than the size specified.

⊖ Trying to access an array beyond its boundaries will generate an error message.

## Initializing list of values to an array

⊖ Values are separated by commas and surrounded by curly braces.

**type arrayname[] = {list of values};**

⊖ If size is not specified means compiler allocates enough space for all the elements specified in the list

**Eg:      int number[] = {23,45,56,67}**

## Array length

⊖ Access the length of the array using **length** keyword.

**Eg:      int a size = a.length();**

**Eg:      int size[][] = new int[3][10];**

→ Here length of size.length() € 3

→ Length of size[i].length() € 10;

## TWODIMENSIONAL ARRAYS

By using two dimensional arrays we can store table of values.

Given: `int twoD [] [] = new int [4] [5];`

**Eg :**     **int**

**myarray[][];myarray=**

**newint[3][4];**

**Orintmyarray[][]=newint[3][4]**

**Exampleprogram:**

```
classMulTable
```

```
{
```

```
  final static int ROWS
```

```
  =0;finalstaticintcolumns=20;
```

```
  publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])
```

```
  {
```

```
    intproduct [ ] [ ] = new int [ ROWS ]
```

```
    [COLUMNS];introw,column;
```

```
    System.out.println("MULTIPLICATIONTABLE");
```

```
    System.out.println("");
```

```
    inti,j;
```

```
    for(i=10; i<ROWS;i++)
```

```
    {
```

```
      for(j=10; j<COLUMNS;j++)
```

```
      {
```

```
        product [i][j]=i *
```

```
        j;System.out.println(""+ product[ i][ j];
```

```
      }
```

```
      System.out.println("");
```

```
    }
```

```
  }
```

```
}
```

## STRINGS

⊘ String represents a sequence of characters.

⊘ String can be represented in two ways in java

→ Using character array

→ Using string object or string buffer class

### Using character array

```
char carray[] = new char[4];  
carray[0] = 'j';  
carray[1] = 'a';  
carray[2] = 'v';  
carray[3] = 'a';
```

### Using string class

⊘ In java strings are class objects and implemented using two classes; String and StringBuffer.

⊘ A java string is an instantiated object of the **String** class. Strings may be declared and created as follows:

#### General form

```
String stringname;  
Stringname = new String("string");
```

#### Eg

```
String firstname; firstname = new  
String("anil");  
Or  
String firstname = new String("anil");
```

**To get length of the string** `int m = firstname.length();`

**To concatenate two strings** `String fullname=name1+name2;String city="new"+"delhi";`

## String arrays

**Eg :** `String item[]=new String[3];`

The string array item stores three strings.

```
item[0]="soap";ite
```

```
m[1]="biscuits";ite
```

```
m[2]="powder";
```

## String methods

### Most commonly used string methods

Method	task performed
<code>s2=s1.toLowerCase;</code>	Converts the strings 1 to all lowercase
<code>s2=s1.toUpperCase;</code>	Converts the strings 1 to all uppercase
<code>s2=s1.replace('x','y');</code>	Replace all appearances of x with y
<code>s1.equal(s2);</code>	Return true if s1 is equal to s2
<code>s2=s1.trim();</code>	Remove white space at the beginning and end of the String s1
<code>s1.equalsIgnoreCase(s2);</code>	Return true if s1 is equal to s2, ignoring the case of characters
<code>s1.length();</code>	Gives the length of s1.
<code>s1.charAt(n)</code>	Gives nth character of s1
<code>s1.concat(s2);</code>	Concatenates s1 and s2

<code>s1.substring(n);</code>	Givessubstringstartingfromnthcharacter.
<code>s1.substirng(n,m);</code>	Givessubstringstartingfromnthcharacterupto mthcharacter
<code>String.valueOf(p);</code>	Createsastringobjectoftheparameterp(simpletypeorobject)
<code>p.toString();</code>	Createsastringrepresentationofobjectp
<code>s1.indexOf('x')</code>	Givesthe position ofthefirstoccurrenceof'x'in the strings l
<code>s1.indexOf('x','n');</code>	Givesthe position 'x'that occursafter nthpositionin thestring s l
<code>String.valueOf(variable);</code>	Convertstheparametervalue tostringrepresentation.
<code>s1.compareTo(s2)</code>	Returns negativeifs1<s2,positiveif s1>s2,zeroifs1ands2equal.

### Example program Alphabetic ordering of strings

```

class Stringordering
{
    static String name[]={“Madras”, “Delhi”, “Ahmedabad”, “Calcutta”, “Bombay”};
    public static void main(String args[]);
    {
        int
        size=name.lenght();String
        ngtemp=null;
        for(int i=0;i<size;i++)
        {
            for(int j=i+1;j<size;j++)
            {
                if(name[j].comapreTo(name[i])<0)
                {
                    temp=name[i];na
                    me[i]=name[j];na
                    me[j]=temp;
                }
            }
        }
    }
}

```



```

        }
    }
    for(int i=0;i<size;i++)
    {
        System.out.println(name[i]);
    }
}
}

```

### StringBuffer class

StringBuffer class is a peer class of String.

String creates strings of fixed length

StringBuffer class creates string of flexible length that can be modified in terms of both length and content.

In StringBuffer class we can insert characters and substrings in the middle of a string, or append another string to the end.

**Eg:** `StringBuffer str = new StringBuffer("annu");`

Methods	Task
<code>s1.setCharAt(n, 'x');</code>	Modifies the nth character to x <code>s1.append(s2);</code>
Appends the strings 2 to s1 at the position of the strings 2 at the position of the strings 1	<code>s1.insert(n, s2);</code> Insert the strings 2 at the position of the strings 1
<code>s1.setLength(n);</code>	Set the length of the strings 1 to n. If <code>n &lt; s1.length()</code> s1 is truncated. If <code>n &gt; s1.length()</code> zeros are added to s1.

### Example program

```
class stringmanipulation
```

```
{
```

```

public static void main(String args[])
{
    StringBuffer str = new StringBuffer("object language");
    System.out.println("original string:" + str);

    // obtain string length
    System.out.println("length of string:" + str.length());

    // accessing characters in a string
    for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++)
    {
        int p = i + 1;
        System.out.println("character at position: " + p + " is " + str.charAt(i));
    }

    // inserting a string in the middle
    String astring = new String(str.toString());
    int pos = astring.indexOf(" language");
    str.insert(pos,
        "oriented");
    System.out.println("modified string: " + str);

    // modifying characters
    str.setCharAt(6, '-');

    System.out.println("string now: " + str);

    // append a string at the end
    str.append("improve security.");
    System.out.println("appending string: " + str);
}
}

```

## VECTORS

⊞ Vector class contains in java.util package.

⊞ Vector class is used to create a generic dynamic array known as vector that can hold objects of any type and any number.

⊞ It is heterogeneous data and not homogeneous.

### Created like

→ `Vector<int> vect = new Vector();` // declared without size

→ `Vector<int> list = new Vector(3);` // declared with size

### Advantages

⊞ It is convenient to use vectors to store objects.

⊞ A vector can be used to store a list of objects that may vary in size.

⊞ We can add and delete objects from the list as and when required.

Methods	Task performed
<code>list.addElement(item)</code>	Adds the item specified to the list at the end
<code>list.elementAt(10)</code>	Gives the name of the 10 <sup>th</sup> object
<code>list.size()</code>	Gives the number of objects present.
<code>list.removeElement(item)</code>	Removes the specified item from the list.
<code>list.removeElementAt(n)</code>	Removes the item stored in the nth position of the list
<code>list.removeAllElements()</code>	removes all the elements in the list
<code>list.copyInto(array)</code>	copies all items from list to array
<code>list.insertElementAt(item, n)</code>	Inserts the item at nth position

**Example**

```
programimportjava.u  
til .  
*;classLanguageVect  
or  
{  
    publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])  
    {  
        Vectorlist=newVector();intl  
        engh=args.length;  
        for(inti=0;i<length;i++)  
        {  
            list.addElement(args[i]);  
        }  
        list.insertElementAt("COBOL",2);in  
        tsize=list.size();  
        String listarray[]=new  
        String(size);List.copyInto(listArray);Sy  
        stem.out.println("Listoflanguages");  
        for(inti=0;i<length;i++)  
        {  
            System.out.println("listArray[i]");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

**Commandlineinputandoutputare:**

```
C:\>javaLanguagevectorAdaBasicC+  
+FORTRANJava
```

**Output:**

Listoflanguages

Ada

BasicCOBOL

C++FORT

RAN

Java

**WRAPPERCLASS**

⊞ Vectorscannothandleprimitivedatatypes likeint, float,doubleand char.

⊞ Primitivedatatypesconvertedintoobjecttypes.

⊞ Thisconversionisdonebyusingthewrapperclasscontainsinthejava.langpackage

***Converting primitive numbers to object numbers using constructor methods***

<b>Constructor calling</b>	<b>Conversion action</b>
Integer Intval=new Integer(i);	Primitive integer to Integer object
Float Floatval=new Float(f);	Primitive float to Float object
Double Doubleval=new Double(d);	Primitive double to Double object
Long Longval=new Long(l)	Primitive long to Long object

***Converting object number to primitive number using type Value() method***

<b>Method calling</b>	<b>Conversion Action</b>
inti=Intval.intValue();	Object to primitive integer
floatf=Floatval.floatValue();	Object to primitive float
longl=Longval.longValue();	Object to primitive long
doubled=Doubleval.doubleValue();	Object to primitive double

***Converting number to string using toString() method***

<b>Method calling</b>	<b>Conversion Action</b>
str=Integer.toString(i);	Primitive integer to string
str=Float.toString(f);	Primitive float to string
str=Double.toString(d);	Primitive double to string
str=Long.toString(l);	Primitive long to string

***Converting string object to numeric objects using the static method ValueOf()***

<b>Method calling</b>	<b>Conversion Action</b>
-----------------------	--------------------------

DoubleVal=Double.ValueOf(str);

ConvertsstringtoDoubleobject

DBC

*E.g. for Primitive to object*

```
float num1=0.3F; // primitive datatype
```

```
Float f1=new Float(num1) // changing to object
```

*E.g. for converting string to numeric object*

```
float
```

```
num1=Float.valueOf(in.readLine());
```

```
int i=Integer.parseInt(in.readLine());
```

***E.g.: object to primitive***

```
float num1=0.3F; // primitive datatype
```

```
Float f1=new Float(num1) // changing primitive to object
```

```
num1=f1.floatValue(); // changing object to primitive
```

## ENUMERATED TYPES

- Java allows us to use the enumerated type using the **enum** keyword.
- This keyword can be used similar to the static final constants in the earlier version of Java.

```
public class Days
{
    public static final int
    DAY_SUNDAY=0; public static final int
    DAY_MONDAY=1; public static final int
    DAY_TUESDAY=2; public static final int DAY
    _WEDNESDAY=3; public static final int
    DAY_THURSDAY=4; public static final int
    DAY_FRIDAY=5; public static final int DAY_S
    ATURDAY=6;
```

}

Using the enumerated type feature the above code can be written as

```
public enum Day { SUNDAY, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY, SATURDAY }
```

### Advantages:

- Compile-time type safety.
- We can use the enum keyword in switch statements.

## ANNOTATIONS

It is also known as metadata.

We can use this feature to merge additional java elements with the programming elements, such as classes, methods, parameters, local variables, packages, and fields.

Metadata is stored in java class file by the compiler

These class files are used by the JVM.

Java contains the following standard annotations.

Annotation	Purpose
@Deprecated	Compiler warns when deprecated java elements are used in non-deprecated program.
@Override	Compiler generated error when the method uses this annotation type does not override the methods present in the super-class.

Java also contains some meta-annotations available in the java.lang.annotation package. The following table provides the meta-annotations:

Meta-annotation	Purpose
@Documented	Indicates annotation of this type to be documented by Javadoc. Indicates that this type is automatically inherited.
@Inherited	Indicates the extended period using annotation type.
@Retention	Indicates to which program element the annotation is applicable.

For example, consider the following code that contains the declaration of an annotation:



```

package
  junit.annotation;
import java.lang.annotation.*;
@Retention(RetentionPolicy.RUNTIME)
@Target
((ElementType.METHOD))
public @interface
  UnitTest
{
  String value();
}

```

- } Where @Retention is a meta-annotation, which declares that the @UnitTest annotation must be stored in a class file.
- } @Target meta-annotation is used to declare the @UnitTest annotation, which annotates the methods in the Java class files.
- } The @interface meta-annotation is used to declare the @UnitTest annotation with the member called value, which returns String as an object.

While using annotations, we need to follow the rules:

- Do not use extend clause. It automatically extends the marker interface java.lang.annotation.Annotation
- Do not use any parameter for a method
- Do not use generic methods.
- Do not use throws clause.

## INTERFACES IN

### INTRODUCTION

- ⊗ Interfaces are basically used to develop user-defined data types.
- ⊗ With respect to interfaces, we can achieve the concept of multiple inheritances.
- ⊗ With interfaces, we can achieve the concept of polymorphism, dynamic binding, and hence we can improve the performance of a Java program in terms of memory space and execution time.
- ⊗ An interface is a construct which contains the collection of purely undefined methods or an interface is a collection of purely abstract methods.

### DEFINING INTERFACES

```
interface <InterfaceName>
```

```
{
```

variables

```
⊗
```

```

Example
interface Item {

```

```

  static final int code = 1001;
}

```

```
declaration;methodsd
```

```
eclaration;
```

```
}
```

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⊖ Interfacename represent a JAVA valid variablename.

Variables are declared as follows:

```
static final type VariableName = Value;
```

All variables declared as constants in a class declaration will contain only a list of methods without any body statements.

```
lit
```

## EXTENDING INTERFACES

⊖ Interface can also be extended.

⊖ An interface can be sub-interfaced from other interfaces.

⊖ The new interface will inherit all the members of the super-interface.

⊖ Interface can be extended using the keyword `extends`.

```
interfacename2 extends name1
{
    Body of name2
}
```

For example, we can put all the constants in one interface and the methods in the other.

```
interface ItemConstants
{
    int code = 1001;
    String name = "Fashion";
}
interface Item extends ItemConstants
{
    void display();
}
```

The interface **Item** will inherit both the constants **code** and **name** into it.

## IMPLEMENTING INTERFACES

⊞ Implement the interface using implements keyword.

### General form 1

```
class classname implements
```

```
interfacename
```

```
{  
    bodyofclassname  
}
```

### General form 2

```
class classname extends superclass implements
```

```
interface1, interface2, .....
```

```
{  
    bodyofclassname  
}
```

## ACCESSING INTERFACE VARIABLES

⊞ Interface declares a set of constant values.

⊞ The constant values will be available to any class that implements the interface.

### Example

```
interface interfaceA  
{  
    final int m=10;  
}  
  
class mainpgm  
{  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        ClassA objA=new classA();  
        objA.show();  
    }  
}
```

### Example 1

```
interface Area  
{  
    final static float pi=3.14F;  
    float compute(float x, float y);  
}  
class Rectangle implements Area  
{  
    public float compute(float x, float y)  
    {  
        return(x*y);  
    }  
}  
class Circle implements Area  
{  
    public float compute(float x, float y)  
    {  
        return(pi*x*x);  
    }  
}  
  
class InterfaceTest  
{  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    {  
        Rectangle rect=new Rectangle();  
        Circle cir=new Circle();  
  
        Area area; ar  
        ea=rect;  
  
        System.out.println(area.compute(10,20));  
        area=cir;  
        System.out.println(area.compute(10,0));  
    }  
}
```

}  
}

DBC

## PACKAGES INT

### RODUCTION

- ⊗ **A package is a collection of classes, interfaces and sub-packages.**
- ⊗ A sub-package in turn divides into classes, interfaces, sub-sub-packages, etc.
- ⊗ Learning about JAVA is nothing but learning about various packages.
- ⊗ By default one predefined package is imported for each and every JAVA program and whose name is **java.lang.\***.
- ⊗ Whenever we develop any java program, it may contain many number of user defined classes and user defined interfaces.
- ⊗ If we are not using any package name to place user defined classes and interfaces, JVM will assume its own package called NONAME package.
- ⊗ In java we have two types of packages they are **I) predefined or built-in or core packages**  
**and II) user or secondary or custom defined packages**

#### **BENEFITS:**

- ⊗ The classes contained in the packages of other programs can be easily reused.
- ⊗ In packages, classes can be unique compared with classes in other packages.
- ⊗ That is two classes in two different packages can have the same name.
- ⊗ They may be referred by their fully qualified name, comprising the package name and the class name.
- ⊗ Packages provide a way to "hide" classes thus preventing other programs or packages from accessing classes that are meant for internal use only.
- ⊗ Packages also provide a way for separating "design" from "coding".

## JAVAAPIPACKAGES

Packages	Contents
java.lang	Languagesupportclasses.
java.util	Languageutilityclassessuch asvectors,hashtables,randomnumber,date etc.
java.io	Inputandoutputclasses.
java.awt	Setofclassesforimplementing graphicaluserinterfaces.
java.net	Classesfornetworking.
java.applet	Classesforcreatingandimplementingapplets.

## USINGSYSTEMPACKAGES

⊗ Packages are organized in a hierarchical structure.

⊗ The package named java contains the package awt, which in turn contains various classes required for implementing graphical user interface.

***There are two ways of accessing the classes stored in a package***

1. Using the fully qualified classname. (Using the package name containing the class and then appending the class name by using the dot operator.)

**E.g. java.awt.Color**

- Best and easiest way to access the class
- Used only once, not possible to access other classes of the package.

2. Using the import statement, appear at the top of the file. Imported package class can be accessed anywhere in the program

**Syntax: import packagename.classname;**

**Or**

**Import packagename.\***

These are known as import statements and must appear at the top of the file, before any class declarations, **import** is a keyword.

} The first statement allows the specified class in the specified package to be imported. For example, the statement

```
import java.awt.Color;
```

imports the class **Color** and therefore the class name can now be directly used in the program.

} The second statement imports every class contained in the specified package. For example, the statement

```
import java.awt.*;
```

will bring all classes of java.awt package.

## NAMING CONVENTIONS

⊗ Package can be named using the standard java naming rules.

⊗ Names should be unique, duplicate name causes run-time error.

⊗ Package begins with lowercase letter.

(To distinguish with class name, class name begins with uppercase.) Example:

```
double y = java . lang. Math .  
sqrt(x); package class metho  
dname name name
```

This statement uses a fully qualified class name **Math** to invoke the method **sqrt()**.

## CREATING PACKAGES

⊗ First declare the name of the package using the **package** keyword followed by a package name.

⊗ This must be the first statement in a java source file.



### *Example*

```
packagefirstpackage; // package
declarationpublicclassFirstClass //
classdefinition
{
.....
..... // bodyofclass
}
```

⊖Packagenameisfirstpackage.

⊖This file is saved as a file called FirstClass.java and located in a directory namefirstpackage.

⊖Whensourcefile iscompiled,java willcreatea .classfile andstore itinthe same directory.

⊖The.classfilesouldinthedirectorythathasthesamenameasthepackage.

### **Steps:**

⊖Declarethepackageatthebeginningofafileusing theform

```
_____ ;
```

⊖Definetheclassthatistobeputinthepackageanddeclareit**public**.

⊖Createasubdirectoryunderthedirectorywherethemainsourcefilesarestored.

⊖Store thelistingastheclassname.javainthesubdirectorycreated.

⊖Compile thefile.Thiscreates.**classfile**inthesubdirectory.

### **Java supportPackagehierarchy**

—Specifymultiplepackagenamesinapackagestatement,separatedbydots.

**E.g.:Packagefirstpackage.secondpackage;**

→Storethepackagessecondpackageinasubdirectoryoffirstpacakge.

## ACCESSING A PACKAGE

*The general form of import statement is as follows*

```
import package1[.package2][.package3].classname;
```

⊗ Package1 is the name of the top level package

⊗ Package2 is the name of the package that is inside the package2 and soon.

⊗ We can have any number of packages in a package hierarchy. Finally explicit class name is specified.

## USING A PACKAGE

⊗ Create a **classA** under the package1;

⊗ Import the **classA** from package1 in a program

⊗ Compile the program

⊗ During compilation, the compiler checks for the file **ClassA.class** in the package1 director for information it needs.

⊗ During running the program the interpreter loads the program along with the code of the **ClassA.class** file.

### *Example1*

```
package package1;
public class ClassA
{
    public void displayA()
    {
        System.out.println("classa");
    }
}
```

```
import package1.ClassA;
class PackageTest1
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        ClassA obj = new ClassA();
        obj.displayA();
    }
}
```

### *Example2*

```
package package2;
public class ClassB
{
    public void displayB()
    {
        protected int m =
        10; System.out.println("classb");
        System.out.println("m=" + m);
    }
}
```

```
import package1.ClassA;
import package2.*;
class PackageTest1
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        ClassA
        obj = new ClassA();
        ClassB objb
        = new ClassB();
        objb.displayA()
        ; objb.displayB();
    }
}
```

## ADDING CLASS TO A PACKAGE

It is simple to add a class to an existing package.

Consider the following package: package p1;

```
public class A
{
    // body of A
}
```

The package **p1** contains one public class by name **A**. Suppose we want to add another class **B** to this package. This can be done as follows:

1. Define the package and make it public.
2. Place the package

```
statement package p1;
```

before the class definition as

```
follows: package p1
```

```
public class B
```

```
{
    // body of B
}
```

3. Store this as **B.java** file under the directory **p1**.

4. Compile **B.java** file. This will create a **B.class** file and place it in the directory **p1**.

Now, the package will contain both classes A and B. A statement

```
like import p1 . *;
```

will import both of them.

## HIDING CLASSES

} To hide certain classes from accessing from outside of the package. Such classes should be declared “not public”. Example:

```
package p1;

public class X //public class, available outside
{
    // body of X
}

class Y //not public, hidden
{
    // body of Y
}
```

} Here the class Y which is not declared public is hidden from outside of the package p1.

} This class can be seen and used only by other classes in the same package.

Consider the following code, which imports the package p1 that contains

```
class X and Y: import p1 . *;

X objX; //ok; class X is available here.
```

```
Y object Y;
```

```
//not ok: Y is not available.
```

Java compiler generate an error message because the class Y is not declared as public.

## STATIC IMPORT

⊖ The static import declaration is similar to that of import.

⊖ The import statement to import classes from packages and use them without qualifying the package.

⊖ The static import statement to import static members from classes and use them without qualifying the class name

### Syntax:

```
import static package-name.subpackage-name.class-name.static-member-name; (or)
```

```
import static package-name.subpackage-name.class-name.*;
```

### Example:

```
public interface Salary_increment
{
    public static final double
    Manager=0.5; public static final double Clerk=0.25;
}
```

To access the interface, we can import the interface using the static import statement as follows: `import static employee.employee_details.Salary_increment;`

```
class Salary_hike
{
    public static void main(String args[] )
    {
        double manager_salary=Manager*Manager_current_salary;
        double clerk_salary=Clerk*Clerk_current_salary;
        .....
        .....
    }
}
```

We can use the static member in the code without qualifying the class name or interface name. Also, the static feature eliminates the redundancy of using the qualified class name with the static member name and increases the readability of the program.

## QUESTIONS

### 2 Marks

1. What do you mean by single-subscripted variable?
2. What are the steps involved to create an array?
3. What are the advantages of enumerated type?
4. Write any two Java API packages.
5. What are the standard annotations used in Java?

6. How will you define an interface?

**5Marks**

1. Explain in detail about Arrays.
2. Describe about string methods.
3. Explain in detail about wrapper classes.
4. How will you implement interfaces in java?
5. How will you add a class to a package?
6. Write short notes on Hiding classes.

**10Marks**

1. Explain in detail about Packages.
2. Write short notes on Interfaces.

**Unit III completed**

DRBC

## UNIT

### IV MULTITHREADED PROGRAMMI

#### NG

#### INTRODUCTION

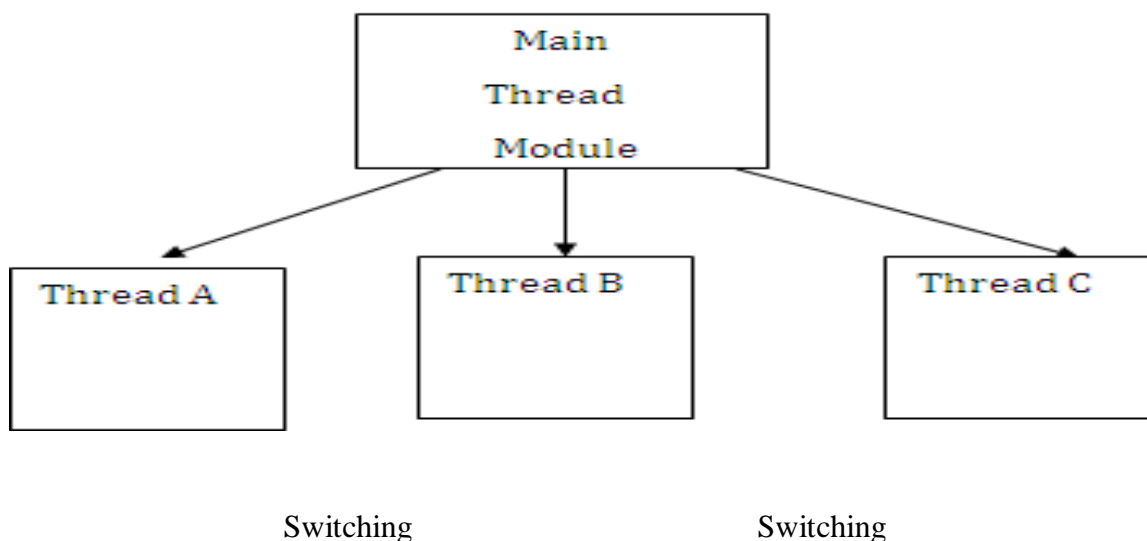
⊖ A flow of control is known as a thread.

⊖ If a program contains multiple flow of controls for achieving concurrent execution then that program is known as a multithreaded program.

⊖ A program is said to be a multi-threaded program if and only if in which there exist 'n' number of sub-program there exist separate flow of control.

⊖ All such flow of controls are executing concurrently such flow of controls are known as threads and such type of applications or programs is called multithreaded programs.

⊖ A thread is similar to a program that has a single flow of control. It has a beginning body, and an end, and executes commands sequentially.



#### CREATING THREADS

⊖ Creating threads in Java is simple.

⊖ Threads are implemented in the form of objects that contain a method called run().



⊖ The `run()` method is the heart and soul of any thread. It makes up the entire body of the thread and is the only method in which the thread's behavior can be implemented.  
⊖ A typical `run()` would appear as follows:

```
public void run()
{
    ----(Statements for implementing thread)
    ---
}
```

⊖ The `run()` method should be invoked by an object of the concerned thread. This can be achieved by creating the thread and initiating it with the help of another thread method called `start()`.

#### **ANew Thread Can Be Created In Two Ways.**

1. **By creating a thread class:** Define a class that extends `Thread` class and override its `run()` method with the code required by the thread.
2. **By converting a class to a thread:** Define a class that implements `Runnable` interface. The `Runnable` interface has only one method, `run()`, that is to be defined in the method with the code to be executed by the thread.

⊖ The approach to be used depends on what the class we are creating requires.

⊖ If it requires to extend another class, then we have no choice but to implement the `Runnable` interface, since Java classes cannot have two superclasses.

### **EXTENDING THE THREAD CLASS**

⊖ We can make our class `Runnable` as a thread by extending the class `java.lang.Thread`. This gives us access to all the thread methods directly. It includes the following steps:

1. Declare the class as extending the `Thread` class.

2. Implement the **run()** method that is responsible for executing the sequence of code that the thread will execute.
3. Create a thread object and call the **start()** method to initiate the thread execution.

## Declaring the class

The thread class can be extended as follows:

```
class MyThread extends Thread
{
    .....
    .....
}
```

Now we have a new type of thread **MyThread**. Imp

## Implementing the run() method

- ⊖ The run() method has been inherited by the class **MyThread**.
- ⊖ We have to override this method in order to implement the code to be executed by our thread.
- ⊖ The basic implementation of run() will look like this:

```
public void run()
{
    .....
    .....//Thread code here
}
```

- ⊖ When we start the new thread, Java calls the thread's run() method, so it is the run() where all the action takes place.

## STARTING NEW THREAD

- ⊖ To actually create and run an instance of the thread class, we must write the following

```
MyThread aThread = new MyThread(
);aThread.start();//invokes run() method
```

- ⊖ The second line calls the start() method causing the thread to move into the runnable state.

⊖ Then the Java runtime will schedule the thread to run by invoking its `run()` method. Now, the thread is said to be in the running state.

### **An example of using the Thread class**

```
class A extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        for(int i=1; i<=3; i++)
        {
            System.out.println("\tFrom thread A: i="+i);
        }
        System.out.println("Exit from A");
    }
}

class B extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        for(int i=1; i<=3; i++)
        {
            System.out.println("\tFrom thread B: i="+i);
        }
        System.out.println("Exit from B");
    }
}

class ThreadTest
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        new A().start();
        new B().start();
    }
}
```

## Output

```
FromthreadA:i=1
FromthreadA:i=2
From      thread
B:i=1From thread
B:i=2Fromthread
A:i=3ExitfromA
From      thread
B:i=3Exitfrom B
```

⊘Themainthreaddiesatthe endof itsmainmethod.However,before itdies,itcreatesandstarts allthetwothreadsAandB.Notethattheoutput fromthethreads are not speciallysequential.

## STOPPINGANDBLOCKINGTHETHREAD

### StoppingaThread

⊘Whenever we want to stop a thread from running further, we may do so by calling its `stop()` method,like:

```
aThread.stop();
```

⊘This statement causes the thread to move to the **dead** state. The **stop()** method may be usedwhentheprematuredeath of athread is desired.

### BlockingaThread

⊘A thread can also be temporarily suspended or blocked from entering into the runnable andsubsequentlyrunningstatebyusingeither ofthefollowingthread methods:

```
sleep() // blocked for a specified
```

```
timesuspend( )//blocked until further
```

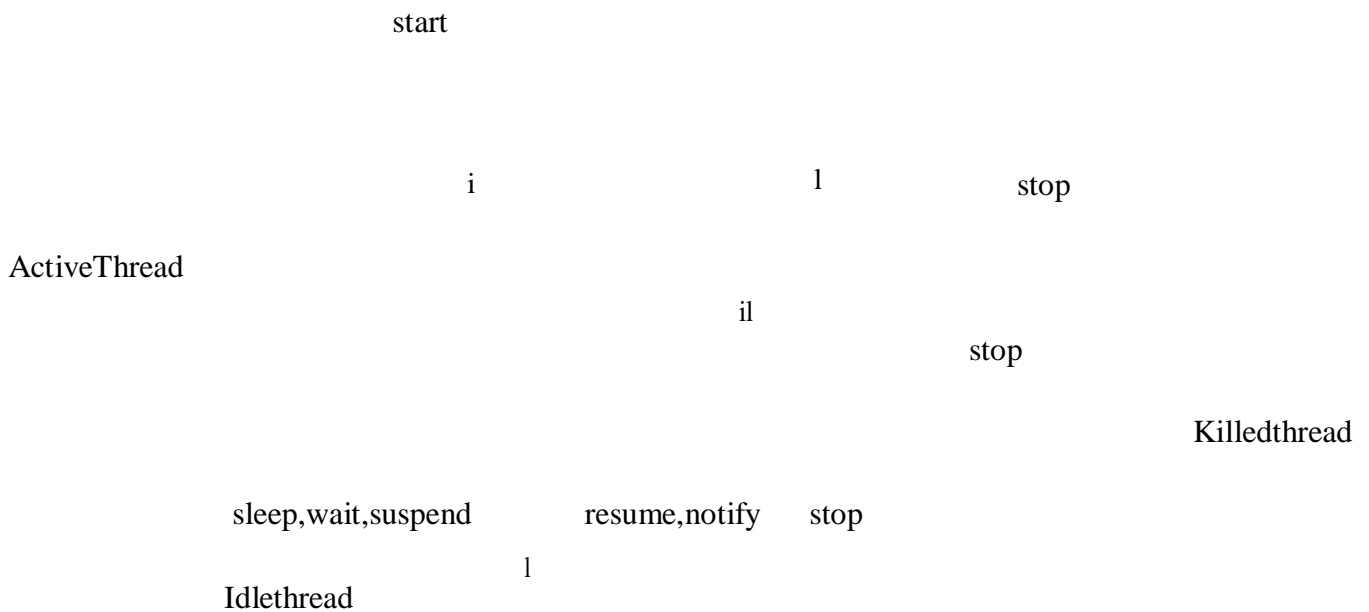
```
orderswait()//blockeduntilcertaincondition
```

⊘The thread will return to the runnable state when the specified time is elapsed in the case of**sleep()**,the**resume()**methodisinvokedinthecaseof**suspend()**andthe**notify()**methodiscalledin thecaseof**wait()**.

## LIFE CYCLE OF A THREAD

During the lifetime of a thread, there are many states it can enter. They include:

1. Newborn state
2. Runnable state
3. Running state
4. Blocked state
5. Dead state (Terminated)



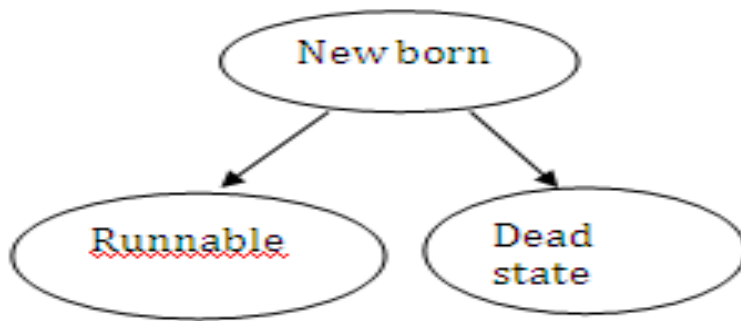
## STATE TRANSITION DIAGRAM OF A THREAD

### NEWBORN STATE

When we create a thread object, the thread is born and is said to be in newborn state. The thread is not yet scheduled for running. At this state, we can do only one of the following things with it:

- Schedule it for running using `start()` method
- Kill it using `stop()` method

If scheduled, it moves to the runnable state. If we attempt to use any other method at this stage, an exception will be thrown.



## SCHEDULING A NEW BORN THREAD

### RUNNABLE STATE

- ⊖ The runnable state means that the thread is ready for execution and is waiting for the availability of the processor. That is, the thread has joined the queue of threads that are waiting for execution.
- ⊖ If all threads have equal priority, then they are given time slots for execution in round robin fashion, i.e., first-come, first-served manner.
- ⊖ This process of assigning time to threads is known as time-slicing.
- ⊖ However, if we want a thread to relinquish control to another thread of equal priority before its turn comes, we can do so by using the `yield()` method.

Yield

Running Thread

Runnable Threads

Relinquishing control using `yield()` method.

### RUNNING STATE

- ⊖ Running means that the processor has given it time to the thread for its execution.
- ⊖ The thread runs until it relinquishes control on its own or it is preempted by a higher priority thread.
- ⊖ A running thread may relinquish its control in one of the following situations.

1. It has been suspended using `suspend()` method. A suspended thread can be revived by using the `resume()` method. This approach is useful when we want to suspend a thread for some time due to certain reason, but do not want to kill it.

suspend

resume

Running

Runnable

SuspendRelinquishingcontrolusingsuspend(

)method

2. It has been made to sleep. We can put a thread to sleep for a specified time period using the method `sleep( time)` where `time` is in milliseconds. This means that the thread is out of queue during this time period. The thread re-enters the runnable state as soon as this time period is elapsed.

`Sleep( t)`

`After(t)`

Running

Runnable

sleepingRelinquishingcontrolusin

`gsleep()`method

3. It has been told to wait until some event occurs. This is done using the `wait()` method. The thread can be scheduled to run again using the `notify()` method.

Wait

notify

Running

Runnable

Waiting

## BLOCKEDSTATE

- ⊗ The thread is said to be blocked when it is prevented from entering into the runnable state and subsequently the running state.
- ⊗ This happens when the thread is suspended, sleeping, or waiting in order to satisfy certain requirements. A blocked thread is considered “not runnable” but not dead and therefore qualified to run again.

## DEADSTATE

- ⊗ Every thread has a lifecycle.
- ⊗ A running thread ends its life when it has completed executing its run() method.
- ⊗ It is a natural death. However, we can kill it by sending the stop message to it at any state thus causing premature death to it.
- ⊗ A thread can be killed as soon as it is born, or while it is running, or even when it is in “not runnable” condition.

## USING THREAD METHODS

Example

```
class A extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        for(int i=1; i<5; i++)
        {
            if(i==1) yield();
            System.out.println("\nFrom Thread A: i="+i);
        }
        System.out.println("Exit from A");
    }
}

class B extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        for(int j=1; j<=5; j++)
        {
            System.out.println("\nFrom Thread B: j="+j);
        }
    }
}
```



```

        if (j==3
        )stop();
        }
        System.out.println("ExitfromB");
    }
}
classCextendsThread
{
    publicvoidrun()
    {
        for(intk=1;k<=5;k++)
        {
            System.out.println("\tFromThreadC:k="+k);if
            (k===1 )
            try
            {
                sleep(1000);
            }
            catch(Exception e)
            {
            }
        }
        System.out.println("ExitfromC");
    }
}
classThreadMethods
{
    publicstaticvoidmain(String[]args)
    {
        A threadA =new A(
        );BthreadB =new B(
        );CthreadC=newC( );
        System.out.println("StartthreadA");
    }
}

```

```

        threadA.start(
        );System.out.println("Start thread
        B");threadB.start(
        );System.out.println("Start thread
        C");threadC.start( );
        System.out.println("Endofmainthread");
    }
}

```

## Output

```

Start thread
AStart thread
BStartthreadC
    FromThreadB:j=1
    FromThreadB:j=2
    FromThreadA:i=1
    FromThreadA:i=2
End ofmainthread
    FromThreadC:k=1
    From Thread
    B:j=3From Thread
    A:i=3From Thread
    A:i=4FromThread
    A:i=5
ExitfromA
    FromThreadC:k=2
    FromThreadC:k=3
    FromThreadC:k=4
    FromThreadC:k=5
Exitfrom C

```

## THREADEXCEPTIONS

⊘ Note that the call to `sleep( )` method is enclosed in a try block and followed by a catch block.

This is necessary because the `sleep()` method throws an exception, which should be caught.

⊘ If we fail to catch the exception, program will not compile.

- ⊖ Java runtime will throw `IllegalThreadStateException` whenever we attempt to invoke a method that a thread cannot handle in the given state.
- ⊖ For example, a sleeping thread cannot deal with the `resume()` method because a sleeping thread cannot receive any instructions. The same is true with the `suspend()` method when it is used on a blocked (not runnable) thread.
- ⊖ Whenever we call a thread method that is likely to throw an exception, we have to supply an appropriate exception handler to catch it.

## THREAD PRIORITY

- ⊖ In Java, each thread is assigned a priority, which affects the order in which it is scheduled for running.
- ⊖ The threads of the same priority are given equal treatment by the Java scheduler and, therefore they share the processor on a first-come, first-serve basis. Java permits us to set the priority of a thread using the `setPriority()` method as follows:

**`ThreadName.setPriority(int number);`**

- ⊖ The number is an integer value to which the thread's priority is set. The thread class defines several priority constants:

**`MIN_PRIORITY = 1`**  
**`NORM_PRIORITY = 5`**  
**`MAX_PRIORITY = 10`**

- ⊖ The number may assume one of these constants or any value between 1 and 10. Note that the default setting is `NORM_PRIORITY`.
- ⊖ By assigning priorities to threads, we can ensure that they are given the attention they deserve. Whenever multiple threads are ready for execution, the Java system chooses the highest priority thread and executes it.
- ⊖ Remember that the highest priority thread always preempts any lower priority threads.

### Example

```
class A extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        System.out.println("Thread ` A
        Started");
        for(int i=1; i<=3; i++)
            System.out.println("\tFrom thread A: i="+i);
        System.out.println("Exit from A");
    }
}
```

```

    }
}
class B extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        System.out.println("Thread B Started");
        for(int i=1; i<=3; i++)
            System.out.println("\tFrom thread B: j="+j);
        System.out.println("Exit from B");
    }
}
class C extends Thread
{
    public void run()
    {
        System.out.println("Thread C
        Started");
        for(int i=1; i<=3; i++)
            System.out.println("\tFrom thread C: i="+i);
        System.out.println("Exit from C");
    }
}
class ThreadPriority
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        A threadA = new A(
        );
        B threadB = new B(
        );
        C threadC = new C( );
        threadC.setPriority(
        Thread.MAX_PRIORITY);
        threadB.setPriority(
        threadA.getPriority( )+1);
        threadA.setPriority(
        Thread.MIN_PRIORITY);
        System.out.println("
        Start thread A");
        threadA.start();
    }
}

```

```

        System.out.println("StartthreadB");t
        hreadB.start(
        );System.out.println("StartthreadC")
        ;threadC.start( );
        System.out.println("Endofmainthread");
        }
}

```

### Output

Start thread

AStart thread

BStartthreadC

ThreadBStarted

From thread

B:j=1Fromthread

B:j=2

ThreadCStarted

From thread

C:k=1From thread

C:k=2Fromthread

C:k=3

Exitfrom C

End ofmainthread

FromthreadB:j=3

Exitfrom B

ThreadAStarted

FromthreadA:i=1

FromthreadA:i=2

FromthreadA:i=3

ExitfromA

## SYNCHRONIZATION

⊞ In the above examples, we have seen threads that use their own data and methods provided inside their run( ) method.

⊞ What happens when they try to use data and methods outside themselves. On such occasions, they may compete for the same resources and may lead to serious problems.

⊞ For example, one thread may try to send a record from a file while another is still writing to the same file.

⊞ Depending on the situation, we may get stranger results. Java enables us to overcome this problem using a technique known as synchronization.

⊞ In case of Java, the keyword `synchronized` helps to solve such problems by keeping a watch on such locations. For example, the method that will read information from a file and the method that will update the same file may be declared as `synchronized`.

### Example

```
synchronized void update()  
{  
    ----// code here is synchronized  
    ---  
}
```

⊞ When we declare a method `synchronized`, Java creates a “monitor” and hands it over to the thread that calls the method first time.

⊞ As long as the thread holds the monitor, no other thread can enter the `synchronized` section of code.

⊞ A monitor is like a key and the thread that holds the key can only open the lock.

⊞ It is also possible to mark a block of code as `synchronized` as shown

```
below: synchronized (lock-object )  
{  
    ----// code here is synchronized  
    ---  
}
```

⊞ Whenever a thread has completed its work by using `synchronized` method, it will hand over the monitor to the next thread that is ready to use the same resource.

⊞ An interesting situation may occur when two or more threads are waiting to gain control of a resource.

⊞ Due to some reason, the condition on which the waiting threads rely on gain control does not happen.

⊞ This results in what is known as a deadlock. For example, assume that the thread A must access method1 before it can release method2, but the thread B cannot release method1 until it gets hold on method2.

⊞ Because these are mutually exclusive conditions, a deadlock occurs. The code below illustrates this:

```
ThreadA  
synchronized method2()  
{
```

```

        synchronizedmethod1()
        {
            .....
        }
    }
ThreadB
    synchronizedmethod1()
    {
        synchronizedmethod2()
        {
            .....
        }
    }
}

```

## IMPLEMENTING THE RUNNABLE INTERFACE

⊖ To create thread using the Runnable interface, we must perform the steps listed below:

1. Declare the class as implementing the Runnable interface.
2. Implement the run() method.
3. Create a thread by defining an

object that is instantiated from this “runnable” class as the target of the thread.

4. Call the thread’s start() method to run the thread.

⊖ If the direct reference to the thread threadX is not required, then we may use a shortcut as shown below:

```
new Thread(new X()).start();
```

### Example

```

class X implements Runnable
{
    public void run()
    {
        for(int i=1; i<3; i++)
        {
            System.out.println("\tThreadX:" + i);
        }
        System.out.println("End of threadX");
    }
}

```

```

}
classRunnableTest
{
    publicstaticvoidmain(String[]args)
    {
        Xrunnable =newX( );
        ThreadthreadX=newThread( runnable);threadX.start();
        System.out.println(“Endofmainthread”);

    }
}

```

### Output

```

EndofmainThreadT
hreadX:1ThreadX:
2
EndofThreadX

```

## INTER-THREAD COMMUNICATION

- | Inter-thread communication can be defined as the exchange of messages between two or more threads.
- | The transfer of messages takes place before or after the change of state of a thread.
- | For example, an active thread may notify to another suspended thread just before switching to the suspend state.
- | Java implements inter-thread communication with the help of following three methods.
- | **notify()**: Resumes the first thread that went into the sleep mode. The object class declaration of **notify()** method is shown below:

```
final void notify()
```

- | **notifyall()**: Resumes all the threads that are in sleep mode. The execution of these threads happens as per priority. The object class declaration of **notifyall()** method is shown below:

```
final void notifyall()
```



} **Wait()**: sendsthecalling threadintothesleepmode.Thisthreadcannowbeactivatedonlyby **notify()**or**notifyall()**methods.Theobjectclassdeclaration of**wait()**methodisshownbelow:

```
finalvoidwait()
```

} All the abovemethodsare declaredinthe rootclass,i.e.,Object.Since,the methodsaredeclaredasfinaltheycannotbeoverridden.Allthethreemethodsthrow**InterruptedException**

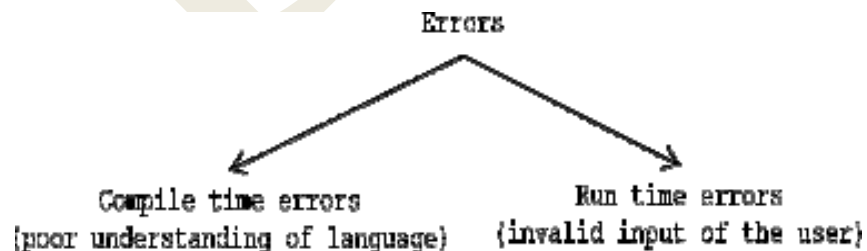
## MANAGING ERRORS AND EXCEPTIONS I

### INTRODUCTION

- ⊗ Rarelydoesaprogram runsuccessfullyasitsveryfirstattempt. Itiscommontomakemistakes whiledevelopingaswellastypingaprogram.
- ⊗ Amistakemightleadontoanerrorcausingtoprogramtoproduceunexpectedresults.
- ⊗ Errorsarethewrongsthatcanmakeaprogramgowrong.
- ⊗ An error may produce an incorrect output or may terminate the execution of the programabruptlyor evencausethe system to crash.
- ⊗ Itistherefore importanttodetectandmanageproperlyallthepossibleerrorconditionsinthe programsoshattheprogram will notterminateorcrashduringexecution.

### TYPES OF ERRORS

- ⊗ Errorsareoftwotypes.Theyare**compile time errors**and**runtimeerrors**.



- ⊗ **Compile time errors** are those which are occurring because of poor understanding of thelanguage.

⊖ **Run time errors** are those which are occurring in a program when the user inputs invalid data.

⊖ The run time errors must be always converted by the JAVA programmer into user friendly messages by using the concept of exceptional handling.

## COMPILE-TIME ERRORS

⊖ All syntax errors will be detected and displayed by the Java compiler and therefore these errors are known as compile-time errors.

⊖ Whenever the compiler displays an error, it will not create the .class file.

⊖ It is therefore necessary that we fix all the errors before we can successfully compile and run the program.

⊖ Most of the compile-time errors are due to typing mistakes. Typographical errors are hard to find.

⊖ We may have to check the code word by word, or even character by character.

⊖ **The most common problems are:**

Missing semicolons

Missing brackets in classes and

methods

Misspelling of identifiers and keywords

Missing double quotes in strings

Use of undeclared variables.

Incompatible types in

assignments/initialization

Bad references to objects

Use of = in place of == operator

## RUN-TIME ERRORS

⊖ Sometimes, a program may compile successfully creating the **.class file** but may not run properly.

⊖ Such programs may produce wrong results due to wrong logic or may terminate due to errors such as stack overflow.

⊖ **Most common run-time errors are:**

- Dividinganintegerbyzero
- Accessingan elementthat isoutofbounds ofan array
- Tryingtostoreavalueintoanarrayofanincompatibleclassor  
type
- Tryingtocastaninstanceofa classto oneofitssubclasses.
- Passingaparameter that isnotin avalid rangeorvalueforamethod.
- Tryingtoillegallychangethestateofathread
- Attemptingtouseanegativesizeforanarray
- Usinganull objectreference as alegitimateobject referencetoaccess a  
methodoravARIABLE.
- Convertinginvalidstringtonumber
- Accessingacharacter that isout ofbounds of astring

### Example

```
classExample
{
    publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])
    {
        intd=0;
        inta=42/d;
    }
}
```

When theJavarun-timesystemdetectstheattemptto dividebyzero,itconstructsanewexception object and then throws thisexception.Thiscausetheexecution ofexampletostop,because oncean exception hasbeen thrown,it must becaught by an exception handler anddealtwith immediately. In thisexample, we haven't supplied any exception handlers of ourown, so theexceptioniscaught bythedefault handler providedbytheJavarun-timesystem.

## EXCEPTIONS

⊖An**exception**isaconditionthatiscausedbya runtimeerrorinthe program.

⊖**Exceptional handling** is a mechanism of converting system error messages into user friendlymessages.

⊖ The purpose of exception handling mechanism is to provide a means to detect and report an

“exceptional circumstance” so that appropriate action can be taken.

⊖ The mechanism suggests incorporation of a separate error handling code that performs the following tasks:

- 1. Find the problem (Hit the exception)**
- 2. Inform that an error has occurred (Throw the exception)**
- 3. Receive the error information (Catch the exception)**
- 4. Take corrective actions (Handle the exceptions)**

⊖ When writing programs, we must always be on the lookout for places in the program where an exception could be generated.

⊖ Some common exceptions that we must watch out for catching are listed in table.

EXCEPTION TYPE	CAUSE OF EXCEPTION
ArithmeticException	Caused by math errors such as division by zero
ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException	Caused by bad array indexed
ArrayStoreException	Caused when a program tries to store the wrong typed data in an array.
FileNotFoundException	Caused by an attempt to access a nonexistent file
IOException	Caused by general I/O failures, such as inability to read from a file.
NullPointerException	Caused by referencing a null object
NumberFormatException	Caused when a conversion between strings and number fails.
OutOfMemoryException	Caused when there's not enough memory to allocate a new object.
SecurityException	Caused when an applet tries to perform an action not allowed by the browser's security settings.

StackOverflowException	Caused when the system runs out of stack space.
StringIndexOutOfBoundsException	Caused when a program attempts to access a nonexistent character position in a string.

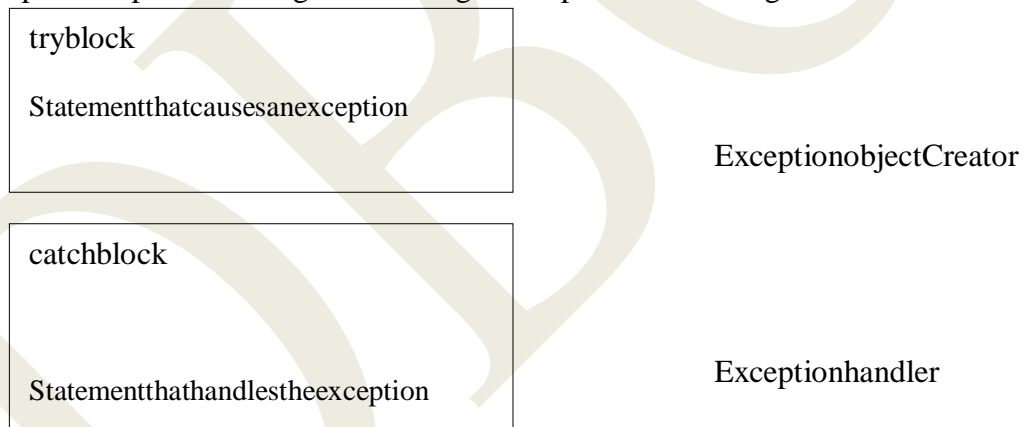
### Common Java Exceptions

Exceptions in Java can be categorized into two types:

- **Checked exceptions:** These exceptions are explicitly handled in the code itself with the help of try-catch blocks. Checked exceptions are extended from **java.lang.Exception class**.
- **Unchecked exceptions:** These exceptions are not essentially handled in the program code; instead the JVM handles such exceptions. Unchecked exceptions are extended from the **java.lang.RuntimeException class**.

### SYNTAX OF EXCEPTION HANDLING CODE

⊖ The basic concept of exception handling are throwing an exception and catching it.



- Java uses a keyword **try** to preface of a block of code that is likely to cause an error condition and “throw” an exception.
- A catch block defined by the keyword **catch** “catches” the exception “thrown” by the try block and handles it appropriately.
- The catch block is added immediately after the try block.
- The following example illustrates the use of simple try and catch statements.

```

.....
.....
try
{
    statement; // generates an exception
}

```

```

catch(Exception-typee)
{
    statement;//processestheexception
}
.....
.....

```

**Example**

```

classExample
{
publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[])
{
    int
    a=10;int
    b= 5;int
    c=5;intx,
    y;
try
{
    x=a/(b-c)
}
catch(ArithmeticExceptione)
{
    System.out.println("Divisionbyzero");
}
y=a/ (b+c);System.out.println("y="+y);
}
}

```

**OUT PUT**

Divisionbyzeroy=1

**MULTIPLECATCHSTATEMENTS**

- ⊗ In some cases, more than one exception could be raised by using a single piece of code.
- ⊗ To handle this type of situation, you can specify two or more catch clauses, each catching a

different type of exception. S  
yntax:  
.....  
.....  
try

```

{
    statement;                //generatesanexception
}
catch(Exception-Type-1e)
{
    statement;                //processesexceptiontype1
}
catch(Exception-Type-2e)
{
    statement;                //processesexceptiontype 2
}
.
catch(Exception-Type-Ne)
{
    statement;                //processesexceptiontype N
}
.....

```

- } Whenanexceptionin atryblockis generated,thejavatreats the multiplecatchstatementslikecasesinaswitchstatement.
- } Thefirststatementwhoseparametermatcheswiththeexceptionobjectwillbeexecuted,and theremainingstatementswillbeskipped.

### **Example**

```
classMulticatch
```

```

{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        int a[] = {5, 10};
        int b = 5;
        try
        {
            int x = a[2] / b - a[1];
        }
        catch (ArithmeticException)
        {
            System.out.println("Division by zero");
        }
        catch (ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException)
        {
            System.out.println("Array Index error");
        }
        catch (ArrayStoreException)
        {
            System.out.println("Wrong data type");
        }
        int y = a[1] / a[0];
        System.out.println("y=" + y);
    }
}

```

Output:

```

ArrayIndexerror
=2

```

### USING FINALLY STATEMENT

⊗ Java supports another statement known as finally statement that can be used to handle an

exception that is not caught by any of the previous statements.

⊗ finally block can be used to handle any exception generated within a try block.

⊗ It may be added immediately after the try block or after the last catch block shown as follows.



```

try
{
  ---
  ---
}
finally
{
  ---
}

try
{
  ---
  ---
}
catch(...)
{
  ----
  ----
}
...
...
finally
{
  ---
  ---
}

```

- ⊖ when a finally block is defined, this is guaranteed to execute, regardless of whether or not an exception is thrown.
- ⊖ As a result, we can use it to perform certain house-keeping operations such as closing files and releasing system resources.

### Example

```

classFinallyDemo
{
    staticvoidproA()
    {
        try
        {
            System.out.println("InsideProcA");
        }
        finally
        {
            System.out.println("ProA'sfinally");
        }
    }
    publicstaticvoidmain(Stringargs[] )
    {
        procA();
    }
}

```

<b>Output</b> insideprocA procA's finally
--

## THROWING OUR OWN EXCEPTIONS

There may be when we would like to throw our own exceptions. We can do this by using the keyword **throw** as follows:

```
throw new Exception();
```

Example:

```

import java.lang.Exception;
class MyException extends Exception
{
    MyException(String message)
    {
        super(message);
    }
}

```

```

    }
class TestMyException
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        int x=5,y=1000;tr
        y
        {
            float z=(float)x/(float)y;if(z
            <0.01)
                {
                    throw new Myexception("Number istoosmall");
                }
        }
        catch(MyException e)
        {
            System.out.println("Caught my
            exception");System.out.println(e.getMessa
            ge());
        }
        finally
        {
            System.out.println("Iamalwayshere");
        }
    }
}

```

Output:

```

Caught my
exceptionNumberist
oosmallIam
always here

```

## INTRODUCTION

- Applets are small Java programs that are primarily used in internet computing. They can be transferred over the internet from one computer to another and run using the **appletviewer** or any web browser that supports the Java program.

- An applet can perform arithmetic operations, play sounds, display graphics, accept user input, create animation and play interactive games.

- Java applications are generally run from a command-line prompt using JDK. Applets are run on any browser supporting Java.

- For an applet to run it must be included in a web page using HTML pages.

- When a browser loads a web page including an applet, the browser downloads the applet from the web server and runs it on the web owner's system.

- Java interpreter is not required specifically for doing so as it is already built-in to the browser.

### LocalApplet:

- An applet which is developed locally and stored in the local system is known as the local applet. When the web page is trying to find the local applet.

- It does not need to use the internet and therefore the local system does not require the internet connection. It simply searches the directories in the local system and locates and loads the specified applet.

- In order to locate and load the local applet we must know the applet address on the web page.

- This address is known as the URL (uniform resource locator) and must be specified in the applet HTML document as the value of the codebase attribute.

### RemoteApplet:

- It is stored on a remote computer which is connected to the net.

If connected with the net

, we can download the remote applet onto our system.

- We can utilize it via the internet.

### URL:

- Uniform Resource Locator. It specifies the applet's address.

## DIFFERENCE BETWEEN APPLETS AND APPLICATIONS

- Applets do not use the main() method for initiating the execution of the code. Applets, when loaded, automatically call certain methods of applet class to start and execute the applet code.
- Unlike stand-alone applications, applets cannot run independently. They run from inside a web page using a special feature known as HTML tag.
- Applets cannot read from or write to the files in the local computer.
- Applets cannot communicate with other servers on the network.
- Applets cannot run any program from the local computer.
- Applets are restricted from using libraries from other languages such as C or C++.

All these restrictions and limitations are placed in the interest of security of systems. These restrictions ensure that an applet cannot do any damage to the local system.

## WRITE APPLETS

The following steps involved in developing and testing an applet are:

1. Building an applet code (.java file).
2. Creating an executable applet (.class file).
3. Designing a Web page using HTML tags.
4. Preparing <APPLET> tag.
5. Incorporating <APPLET> tag into the Web page.
6. Creating HTML file.
7. Testing the applet code.

## BUILDING APPLET CODE

- Applet code uses the service of two classes namely, **Applet** and **Graphics** from the Java library. The **applet** class is contained in the **java.applet** package provides life and behavior to the applet through its methods such as **init()**, **start()**, and **paint()**.

- The Applet class maintains the lifecycle of an applet. The **paint()** method of the applet class actually displays the result of the applet code on the screen. The output may be text, **graphics** object as an argument, is defined as follows:

i          i
--------------

The applet code general format as follows:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class appletclass_name extends Applet
{
```

```
.....  
.....  
public void paint(Graphics g)  
{  
.....  
.....  
.....  
}  
.....  
.....  
}
```

Example:

```
import  
java.awt.*; import java  
a.applet.*;  
public class HelloWorld extends Applet  
{  
public void paint(Graphics g)  
{  
g.drawString("Hello Java", 10, 100);  
}  
}
```

### Chain of classes inherited by applet class

java.lang.Object

java.awt.Component

java.awt.Container

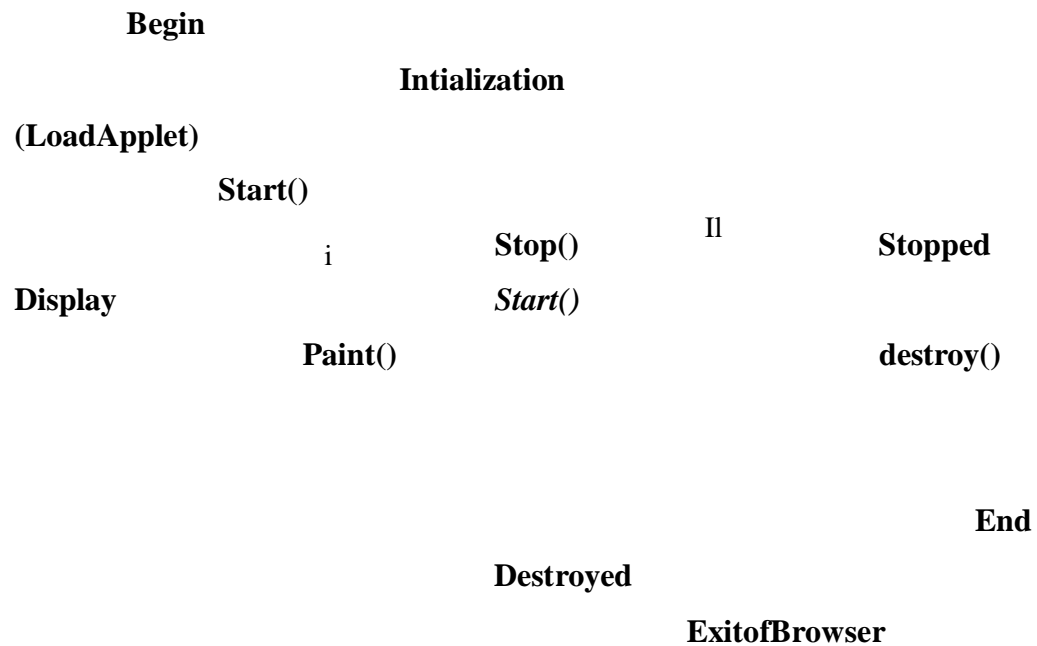
java.awt.Panel

java.applet.Applet

### APPLET LIFECYCLE

- Every java applet inherits a set of default behaviors from the Applet class. As the result, an applet is loaded, it undergoes a series of changes in its state as shown in the above figure. The applet states will be

- \* Born or initialization state
- \* Running state
- \* Idle state
- \* Dead or destroyed state



### Initialization State:

It is achieved by calling `init()` method of the applet class. We can perform the functions like

- Create objects needed by the applet
- Set up initial values
- Load images or fonts
- Set up colors and text

This method occurs only once

Syntax:

```
public void init()
```

```
{
```

```
.....(Action)
```

```
}
```

### **Runningstate:**

- Applet enter the running state when the system calls the start() method of the applet class. This occurs automatically after the applet is initialized.

- Starting can also if the applet is already in the idle stopped state. The start() method may be called by more than one time.

```
public void start()
```

```
{
```

```
.....(Action)
```

```
}
```

### **StoppedOrIdlestate:**

- An applet becomes idle when it is stopped from running. Stopping occurs automatically when we leave the page containing the currently running applet.

- We can also do so by calling the stop() method explicitly. If we use the thread to run the applet that we must use the stop() method to terminate the thread.

- We can achieve by overriding the stop() method. pub

```
lic void stop()
```

```
{
```

```
.....(Action)
```

```
}
```

### **DeadState**

- An applet is said to be dead when it is removed from the memory. This occurs automatically by invoking the destroy() method.

- When we quit the browser. Like the initialization and destroying stage occur only once in the applet lifecycle.

```
public void destroy()
```

```
{
```

```
.....(Action)
```



```
}
```

### **DisplayState**

- Applet moves to the display state whenever it has to perform some output operation on the screen. This happens immediately after the applet enters into the running state.

- The `paint()` method is called to accomplish this task. Almost every applet will have a `paint()` method like other methods in the lifecycle.

```
public void paint(Graphics g)
{
    .....(Display statements)
}
```

### **CREATING AN EXECUTABLE APPLET**

Let us consider the Hello Java applet created. This applet has been stored in a file called `HelloJava.java`. Here are the steps required for compiling the Hello Java applet.

1. Move to the directory containing the source code and type the following command `javac HelloJava.java`
2. The compiled `.class` file called `HelloJava.class` is placed in the same directory as the source.
3. If any error message is received, then we must check for errors correct them and compile the applet again.

### **DESIGNING A WEBPAGE**

- A webpage is basically made up of text and HTML tags. It is also known as HTML page or document.
- A webpage is marked by an opening HTML tag `<HTML>` and a closing tag `</HTML>`
- It is divided into three major sections.
  1. Comment section (optional)
  2. Head section (optional)
  3. Body section

HTML tags format:

<HTML>

```
<!  
.....  
>
```

CommentSection

```
<HEAD>  
  Titletag  
</HEAD>
```

HeadSection

```
<BODY>  
  Applettag  
</BODY>
```

BodySection

</HTML>

1. CommentSection:

- This section contains comments about the webpage.
- It tells what is going on the webpage.
- The comment line begins with <! and ends with >

2. HeadSection:

- This section contains the title for the webpage. Starting with <HEAD> and ending with </HEAD>

```
<HEAD>
```

```
  <TITLE>WELCOME TO JAVA APPLETS</TITLE>
```

```
</HEAD>
```

3. BodySection:

- This section contains the entire information about the webpage

```
<BODY>
```

```
<CENTER>
```

```
  <H1>APPLETS</H1>
```

```
<BR>
```

```
</CENTER>
```

```
<APPLET
  CODE=
  "HELLO.CLASS"WIDTH=
  300HEIGHT=200>
</APPLET>
</BODY>
```

## APPLETTAG

The<APPLET...>tag supplies the name of the applet to be loaded and tells the browser how much space the applet requires.

Example:

```
<APPLET
  CODE=helloJava.classW
  IDTH=400
  HEIGHT=200>
</APPLET>
```

Note that <APPLET> tag discussed above specifies three things:

1. Name of the applet.
2. Width of the applet. (in pixels)
3. Height of the applet. (in pixels)

## ADDING APPLETTO HTML FILE

```
<HTML>
<HEAD>
  <TITLE>WELCOME TO JAVA APPLETS</TITLE>
</HEAD>
<BODY>
<CENTER>
  <H1>APPLETS</H1>
<BR>
</CENTER>
<APPLET
  CODE="HelloJava.class"
  WIDTH=300
```

```
HEIGHT=200>
```

```
</APPLET>
```

```
</BODY>
```

```
</HTML>
```

We must name this file as `HelloJava.html` and save it in the same directory as the compiled applet.

## RUNNING THE APPLET

- We must have the following files in our current directory:

```
oJava.java
```

```
HelloJava.class
```

```
HelloJava.html
```

- To run an applet we require one of the following tools:
  1. Java-enabled web browser (such as HotJava or Netscape)
  2. Java applet viewer
- If we use a Java-enabled web browser, we will be able to see the entire web page containing the applet.
- If we use the applet viewer tool, we will only see the applet output. Ex: `appletviewer HelloJava.html`

```
1 i      ll .ll  
ll
```

```
1 1      .
```

## APPLET TAGS

The syntax of the `<APPLET>` tag in full form is shown as follows:

```
<APPLET
```

```
[CODEBASE =
```

```
codebase_URL]CODE=
```

```
AppletFileName.class[ALT=alte
```

```
rate_text]
```

```

[NAME=applet_instance_name]

WIDTH=pixels

HEIGHT =

pixels[ALIGN =

alignment][VSPACE

=

pixels][HSPACE=pix

els]

>

[<PARAMNAME=name1VALUE=value1>][<P

ARAMNAME=name2VALUE=value2>]

.....

[TexttobedisplayedintheabsenceofJava]

</APPLET>

```

### Attributes of APPLET Tag

Attribute	Meaning/Speci
CODE=AppletFileName.classC	fiesthenameoftheapplet to beloaded.
ODEBASE=codebase_URL	Specifies the URL of the directory in which the applet resides. These attributes specify the width and height of the space on the
WIDTH=pixels	the
HEIGHT=pixels	HTML page that will be reserved for the applet.
NAME=applet_instance_name	A name for the applet may optionally be specified.
ALIGN=alignment	This optional attribute specifies where on the page the applet will appear. Possible values for
HSPACE =	alignment are: TOP, BOTTOM, LEFT,
pixels VSPACE =	RIGHT, MIDDLE ETC.
pixels ALT=alternate_t	This attribute specifies the amount of horizontal blank space the browser should leave surrounding the applet.
ext	This attribute specifies the amount of vertical blank space the browser should leave surrounding the applet.
	Non-Java browsers will display this text where the applet would normally go. This attribute is optional.

## PASSINGPARAMETERSTOAPPLETS

- We can supply user-defined parameter to an applet using <PARAM..> tags.
- Each <PARAM..> tag has a name attribute such as color, and a value attribute such as red.
- For example, we can change the color of the text displayed to red by an applet by using a

<PARAM..> tag as follows:

```
<APPLET>  
  <PARAM=color VALUE="red">  
</APPLET>
```

To set up and handle parameters, we need to do two things:

1. Include appropriate <PARAM..> tags in the HTML document.
2. Provide code in the applet to parse these parameters. Example:

### **AppletHelloJavaParam**

```
import  
  
java.awt.*;importjav  
  
a.applet.*;  
  
publicclassHelloJavaParamextendsApplet  
{  
  Stringstr;  
  publicvoidinit( )  
  {  
    str=  
    getParameter("string");if  
    (str==null)  
      str="Java";  
      str="Hello"+str;  
  }  
  publicvoidpaint(Graphicsg)  
  {  
    g.drawString(str,10,100);
```

```
}  
  
}
```

Now let us create HTML file that contains this applet.

### **The HTML file for HelloJavaParam applet**

```
<HTML>  
  
  <!parameterizedHTMLfile>  
  
  <HEAD>  
  
    <TITLE>Welcome to Java Applets</TITLE>  
  
  </HEAD>  
  
  <BODY>  
  
    <APPLET CODE=HelloJavaParam.class  
  
      WIDTH=400  
  
      HEIGHT=200>  
  
      <PARAM NAME="string"  
  
        VALUE="Applet!">  
  
    </APPLET>  
  
  </BODY>  
  
</HTML>
```

Save this file as **HelloJavaParam.html** and then run the applet using the appletviewer as follows:

```
Appletviewer HelloJavaParam.html
```

This will produce the result as shown below:

```
  | i   | .ll  
  ll   |
```

```
  appletloader.started
```

## APPLETTAGS

Now, remove the <PARAM> tag from the HTML file and then run the applet again. The result will be as shown below

```
l i ll .ll
ll
ll .
```

## APPLETTAGS

### ALIGNING THE DISPLAY

We can align the output of the applet using the ALIGN attribute. This attribute can have one of the nine values:

**LEFT, RIGHT, TOP, TEXTTOP, MIDDLE, ABSMIDDLE,  
BASELINE, BOTTOM, ABSBOTTOM**

For example ALGN=LEFT will display the output at the left margin of the page. Example:

```
<HTML>
  <HEAD>
    <TITLE>Here is an applet</TITLE>
  </HEAD>
  <BODY>
```



```

<APPLETCODE=HelloJava.class

WIDTH=400

HEIGHT =

200ALIGN=RIGHT

T>

</APPLET>

</BODY>

</HTML>

```



**applet**

**Text**

### An applet aligned right

### MOREABOUTHTML

AGS

#### HTMLTagsand TheirFunctions

<b><u>Tag</u></b>	<b><u>Function</u></b>
<HTML> ...	Indicatesstarting&endingof aHTMLfile
</HTML>	
<HEAD> ...	Containsthedetailsofthewebpage
</HEAD>	
<TITLE> ...	Containsthetitleofthebrowser
</TITLE>	
<BODY>	It containsthemaintext
....</BODY>	
<H1> ...	Itcontainstheheadingtag,where1to7are
</H1>	itssize

.....	H1 @LargestFont
<H7> .....	H7@Smallest Font
</H7>	
<CENTER> ....	PlacethetextintheCenterPosition
</CENTER>	
<APPLET> ...	Indicates the Applet tag for
</APPLET>	graphicalcreations
<PARAM....>	Userdefinedparameters
<B>...</B>	Boldface
<U>...</U>	Underline
<I>...</I>	Italics
 	IndicatesBreak intextposition
<P>	IndicatestheParagraph tag
<IMG....>	Used fortheinsertion oftheimage
<HR>	Drawsthehorizontalruler
<A... >....	Indicates the Anchor tag (i.e)
</A>	Hyperreference
<FONT> .....	Indicatesthesettingoffont,Size,Color.....
</FONT>	
<!-->	Indicatesthecomment position

## DISPLAYING NUMERICAL VALUES

→ In applets, we can display numerical values by first converting them into strings and then using the `drawString()` method of `Graphics` class.

→ We can do this

```

easily by calling the valueOf() method of String class.
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class NumValues extends Applet
{
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        int value1 =
        10; int value2 = 2
        0;
        int sum = value1 + value2;
    }
}

```

```

        Strings="sum:"+String.valueOf(sum);g.d
        rawString(s,100,100);
    }
}
<html>
<applet
    Code =
    Numvalues.classWidth
    =300
    Height=300>
</applet>
</html>

```

**Output:**

```

    1  i      1  1
    1

```

```

    1 1  .

```

## GETTING INPUT FROM THE USER

- Applet works in a graphical environment.
- Applet treats input as a string.
- We must first create an area of the screen.
- This is done by using the `TextField` class of the `applet` package.
- Once text fields are created for receiving input, we can type the values in the fields and edit them.
- Next step is to retrieve the items from the fields.

Example:

```

import
java.awt.*;import jav
a.applet.*;
public class UserIn extends Applet;
{
    TextField text1, text2;
    public void init()
    {
        text1 = new
        TextField(8); text2 = new
        TextField(8); add(text1);

```

```

add(text2);text1.s
ettext("0");
text2.setText("0");
}
publicvoid paint(Graphics g)
{
int
x=0,y=0,z=0;Str
ings1,s2,s;
g.drawString :Input a number in each
box",10,50);try
{
s1=text1.getText();x=int
eger.parseInt(S1);s2=te
xt2.getText();y=Integer.
parseInt(s2);
}
catch (Exception
ex){ }z=x+y;s=String.val
ueof(z);
g.drawString("Thesumis",10,75);g.
drawstring(s,100,75);
}
publicBooleanaction(Eventevent,objectobject)
{
repaint();re
turntrue;
}

```

}

Run the applet userIn using the following steps: 1. T

ype and save the program(.java

file) 2. Compile the applet(.class file)

3. Write a HTML document(.html file)

```
<html>
```

```
<applet
```

```
code
```

```
=userIn.class width
```

```
h=300
```

```
height=200>
```

```
</applet>
```

```
</html>
```

4. Use the applet viewer to display the result.

```
l i Ll
l
I i
i
l l .
```

## EVENT HANDLING

} **ActionEvent** is triggered whenever a user interface element is activated, such as selection of a menu item.

- } **ItemEvent** is triggered at the selection or deselection of an itemized or list element, such as a checkbox.
- } **TextEvent** is triggered when a text field is modified.
- } **WindowEvent** is triggered whenever a window-related operation is performed, such as closing or activating a window.
- } **KeyEvent** is triggered whenever a key is pressed on the keyboard.

### Event Sources

- } The registration of a listener object with an event ensures that on occurrence of the event, the corresponding listener object is notified for taking appropriate action. Following is the syntax for registering a listener for an event.

```
public void add<Type>Listener(<Type>Listener l)
```

### Event Listeners

- } The event listener object contains methods for receiving and processing event notifications sent by the source object.
- } These methods are implemented from the corresponding listener interface contained in the **java.awt.event** package.

### Event Classes

- } All the events in Java corresponding event classes associated with them.
- } Each of these classes is derived from one single superclass, i.e., **EventObject**.
- } It is contained in the **java.util** package.
- } The **EventObject** class contains the following two important methods for handling events:
  - **getSource():** Returns the event source.
  - **toString():** Returns a string containing information about the event source.

## QUESTIONS

### 2 Marks

1. What are the two ways to create a new thread?
2. Define multithreading.
3. Define Exception.
4. What are the two types of Exceptions?
5. Write down the syntax for multiple catch statements.
6. How will you build an applet code?
7. What are the key events used in Java?
8. What do you mean by local and remote applet?

### **5Marks**

1. How will you extend the thread class?
2. Explain about thread priority.
3. What are the two types of errors? Explain in detail.
4. Explain in detail about try and catch mechanism.
5. How will you design a webpage?
6. What are the attributes used in applet tag?
7. How will you pass parameters to applets?
8. Write short notes on adding applet to HTML file.

### **10Marks**

1. Explain in detail about Lifecycle of Thread.
2. Describe in detail about Applet lifecycle.

**Unit  
IV completed**

DBC

DBC



DBC

# UNIT V GRAPHICS PROGRAMMI

## NG INTRODUCTION

- One of the most important features of Java is its ability to draw graphics.
- We can write Java applets that draw lines, figures of different shapes, images, and text in different fonts and styles.
- We can also incorporate different colours in display.
- Every applet has its own area of the screen known as a canvas, where it creates its display.
- A Java applet draws graphical images inside its space using the coordinate system.
- Java's coordinate system has the origin (0,0) in the upper-left corner.
- Positive x values are to the right, and positive y values are to the bottom.
- The values of coordinates x and y are in pixels.

## THE GRAPHICS CLASS

- Java's graphics class includes methods for drawing many different types of shapes.
- To draw a shape on the screen, we may call one of the methods available in the **Graphics** class.
- The following are the most commonly used methods in **Graphics** class.

### Drawing methods of the graphics class

Method	Description
clearRect()	Erases a rectangular area of the canvas.
copyArea()	Copies a rectangular area of the canvas to another area.
drawArc()	Draws a hollow arc.
drawLine()	Draws a straight line.
drawOval()	Draws a hollow oval.
drawPolygon()	Draws a hollow polygon.
drawRect()	Draws a hollow rectangle.
drawRoundRect()	Draws a hollow rectangle with rounded corners.
drawString()	Displays a text string.
fillArc()	Draws a filled arc.
fillOval()	Draws a filled oval.
fillPolygon()	Draws a filled polygon.

fillRect()	Draws a filled rectangle.
fillRoundRect()	Draws a filled rectangle with rounded corners.
getColor()	Retrieves the current drawing colour.
getFont()	Retrieves the currently used font.
getFontMetrics()	Retrieves information about the current font.
setColor()	Sets the drawing colour.
setFont()	Sets the font.

Example:

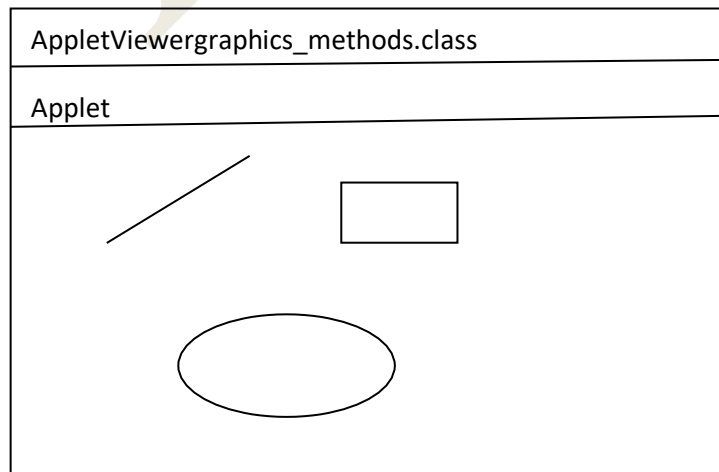
```

<html>
<body>
<applet code=graphics_methods.class width=200 height=200>
</applet>
</body>
</html>

import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;

public class graphics_methods extends Applet
{
    public void paint(Graphics GA)
    {
        GA.drawRect(160,5,60,60);
        GA.drawLine(380,100,200,180);
        GA.drawOval(10,120,155,95);
    }
}

```



## LINES AND RECTANGLES

- The simplest shape we can draw with Graphics class is a line.
- The **drawLine()** method takes two pairs of coordinates (x1,y1) and (x2,y2).

Ex:

```
g.drawLine(10,10,50,50);
```

- The **g** is the **Graphics** object passed to **paint()** method.
- We can draw a rectangle using the **drawRect()** method.
- This method takes four arguments.
- The first two represent the x and y

coordinates of the left corner of the rectangle, and the remaining two represent the width and the height of the rectangle.

Ex:

```
g.drawRect(10,60,40,30)
```

- We can draw a solid box by using the method **fillRect()**

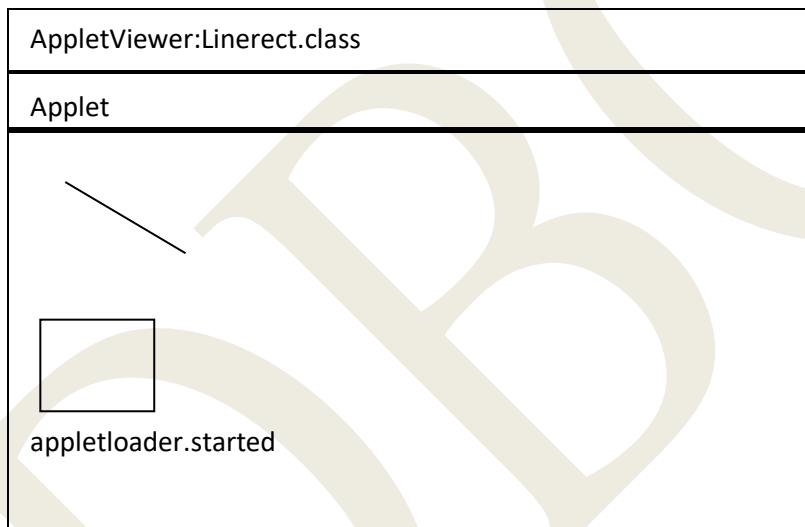
Ex:

```
g.fillRect(60,10,30,80)
```

Example:

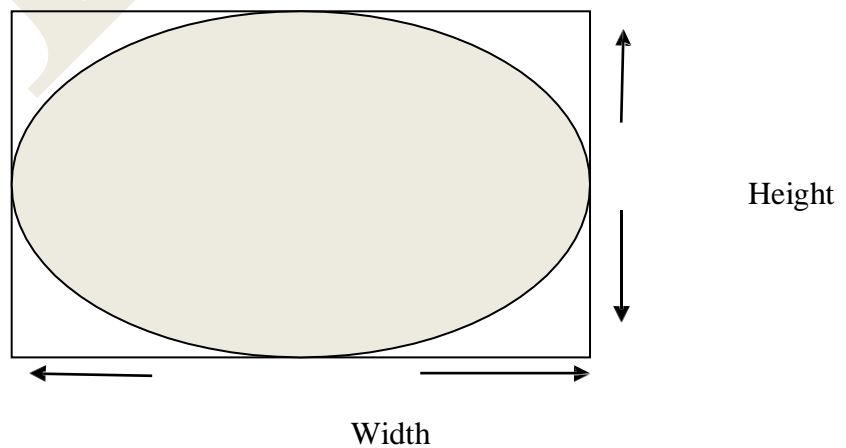
```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class LineRect extends Applet
{
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        g.drawLine(10,10,50,50);
        g.drawRect(10,60,40,30);
    }
}
```

```
}  
}  
<Applet  
Code =  
LineRect.classWidth=  
250  
Height=200>  
</Applet>
```



### CIRCLESANDELLIPSES

It is achieved by using drawOval() and fillOval()



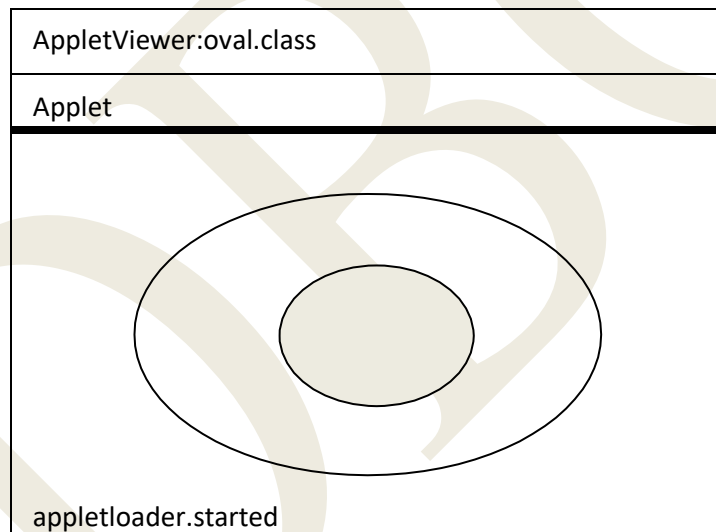
Ex:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;

/*<Appletcode="cir.class"height=100width=200>

</Applet>*/
```

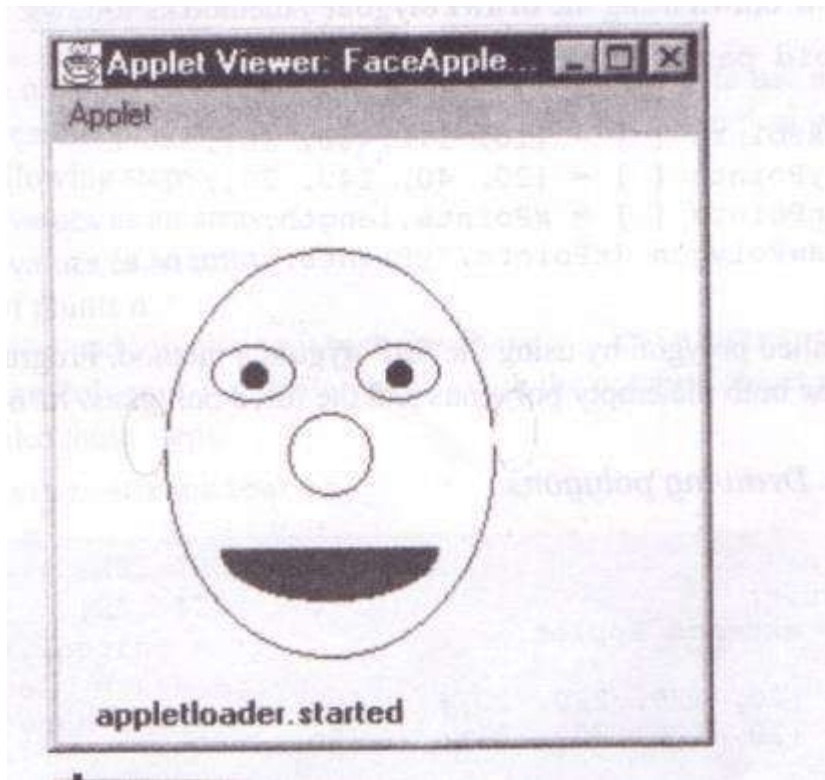
```
public class Circle extends Applet
{
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        g.drawOval(20,20,200,120);
        g.setColor(Color.Green);g.fillOval(70,30,100,100);
    }
}
```



## DRAWING ARCS

- ✓ An arc is a part of an oval.
- ✓ The **drawArc()** method is designed to draw an arc. It takes six arguments.
- ✓ The first four of them are the same as arguments for **drawOval()** method and the last two represent the starting angle of the arc and the number of degrees around the arc.
- ✓ The **fillArc()** method is used to fill the arc.

```
import
java.awt.*;importjav
a.applet.*;
publicclassFaceextendsApplet
{
    publicvoidpaint (Graphicsg)
    {
        g.drawOval(40,40,120,150);
        g.drawOval(57,75,30,20);
        g.drawOval(110,75,30,20);
        g.fillOval(68, 81, 10,10);
        g.fillOval(121, 81,10,10);
        g.drawOval(85,100,30,30);
        g.fillArc(60,125,80,40,180,180);
        g.drawOval(25,92,15,30);
        g.drawOval(160,92,15,30);
    }
}
```



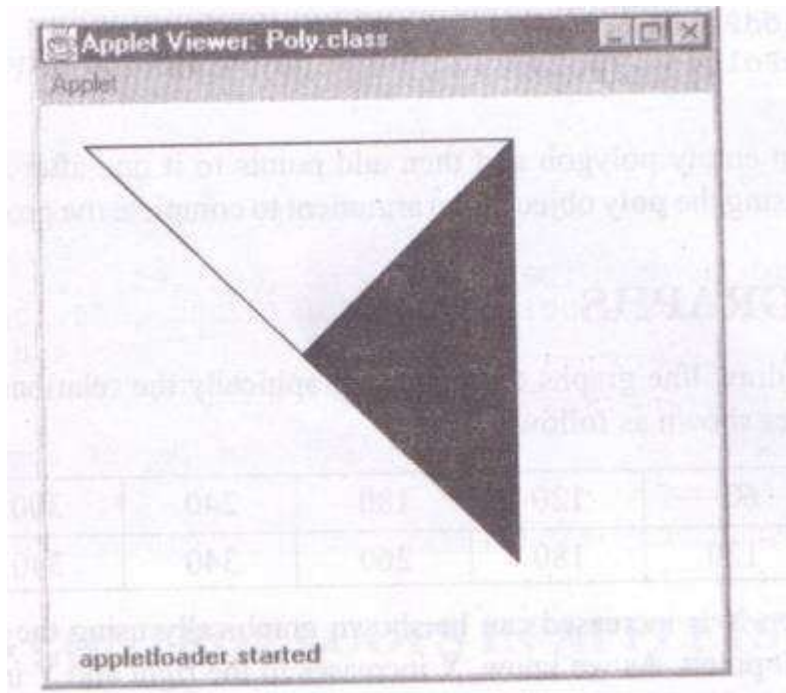
## DRAWING POLYGONS

The **drawPolygon()** method takes 3 arguments.

- ✓ An array of integers containing x coordinates
- ✓ An array of integers containing y coordinates
- ✓ An integer for the total number of

points. The **fillPolygon()** method is used to draw a filled polygon.





Ex:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class Poly extends Applet
{
    int x1[] = {20, 120, 220, 20};
    int y1[] = {20, 120, 20, 20};
    int n1 = 4;
    int x2[] = {120, 220, 220, 120};
    int y2[] = {120, 20, 220, 120};
    int n2 = 4;
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        g.drawPolygon(x1, y1, n1);
        g.fillPolygon(x2, y2, n2);
    }
}
```

## LINEGRAPHS

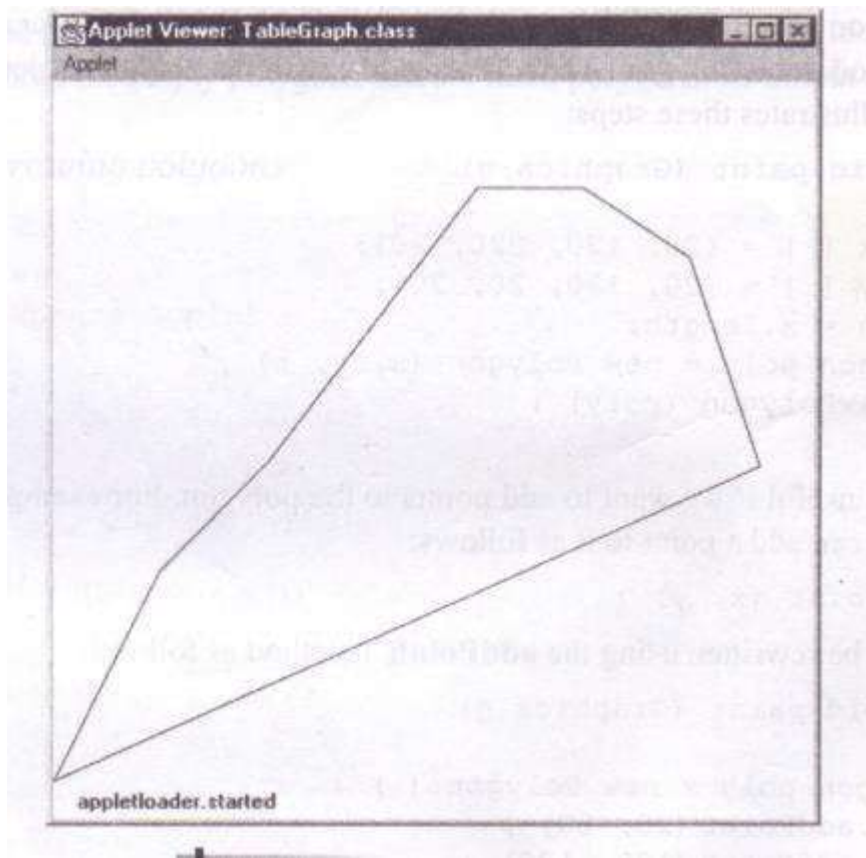
We can design applets to draw line graphs to illustrate graphically the relationship between two variables.

Consider the table of values shown as follows:

X	0	60	120	180	240	300	360	400
Y	400	280	220	140	60	60	100	220

Ex:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class TableGraph extends Applet
{
    int x [] = { 0, 60, 120, 180, 240, 300, 360, 400 };
    int y [] = { 400, 280, 220, 140, 60, 60, 100, 220 };
    int n = x.length;
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        g.drawPolygon(x, y, n);
    }
}
```



## USING CONTROL LOOPS IN APPLETS

- We can use all control structures in an applet.
- The program uses a **for** loop for drawing circles repeatedly.

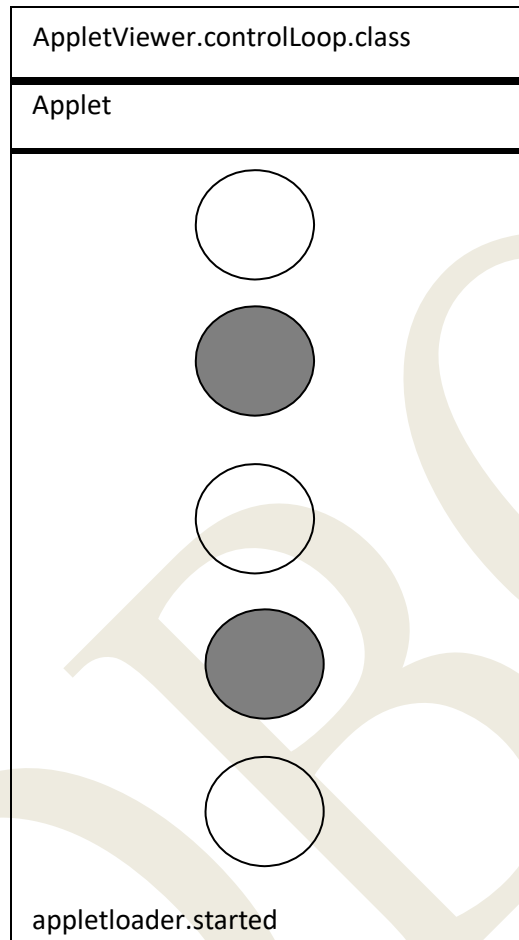
Example:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class ControlLoop extends Applet
{
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        for (int i=0; i<=4; i++)
        {
            if (i%2 == 0)
            {
                g.drawOval(120, i*60+10, 50, 50);
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

else
g.fillOval(120,1*60+10,50,50);
}
}
}

```



## DRAWING BARCHARTS

- Applets can be designed to display bar charts, which are commonly used in comparative analysis of data.
- The table below shows the annual turnover of a company during the period 1991–1994.
- These values may be placed in a HTML file as PARAM attributes and then used in an applet for displaying a bar chart.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994
Turnover(RsCrores)	110	150	100	170

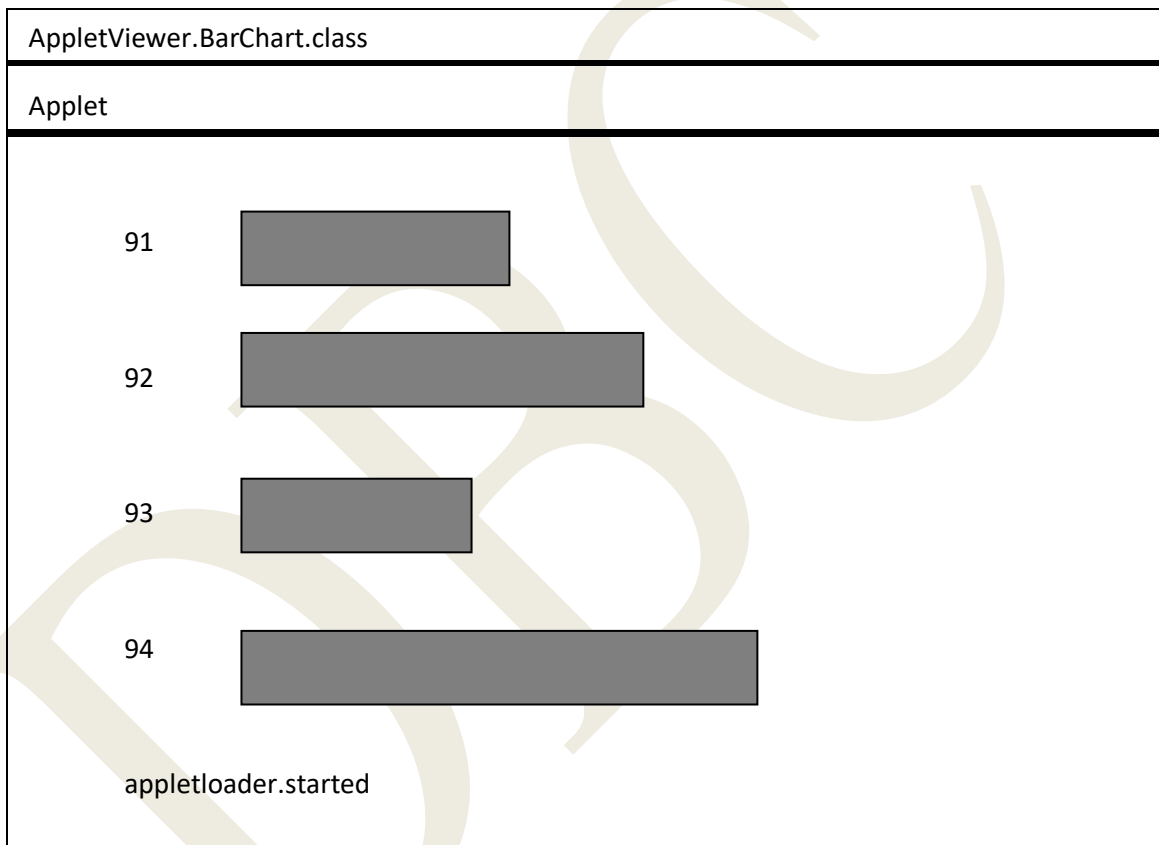
### Example:

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.applet.*;
public class BarChart extends Applet
{
    int n=0;
    String label
    []; int value[];
    public void init()
    {
        try
        {
            n=Integer.parseInt
            (getParameter("columns"));
            label=new
            String[n];
            value=new
            int[n];
            label[0]=getParameter("label1");
            label[1]=getParameter("label2");
            label[2]=getParameter("label3");
            label[3]=getParameter("label4");
            value[0]=Integer.parseInt
            (getParameter("c1"));
            value[1]=Integer.parseInt
            (getParameter("c2"));
            value[2]=Integer.parseInt
            (getParameter("c3"));
            value[3]=Integer.parseInt
            (getParameter("c4"));
        }
        catch (NumberFormatException)
        {
        }
    }
    public void paint(Graphics g)
    {
        for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        {
            g.setColor(Color.red);
            g.drawString(label
            [i], 20, i*50+30);
            g.fillRect(50, i*50+10,
            value[i], 40);
        }
    }
}
<html>
<applet
Code =
BarChart.class
Width=
300
Height=250>
```

```

<PARAMNAME =“columns”VALUE=“4”>
<PARAMNAME=“c1”VALUE=“110”>
<PARAMNAME=“c2”VALUE=“150”>
<PARAMNAME=“c3”VALUE=“100”>
<PARAMNAME=“c4”VALUE=“170”>
<PARAMNAME =“label1”VALUE=“91”>
<PARAMNAME =“label2”VALUE=“92”>
<PARAMNAME =“label3”VALUE=“93”>
<PARAMNAME =“label4”VALUE=“94”>
</applet>
</html>

```

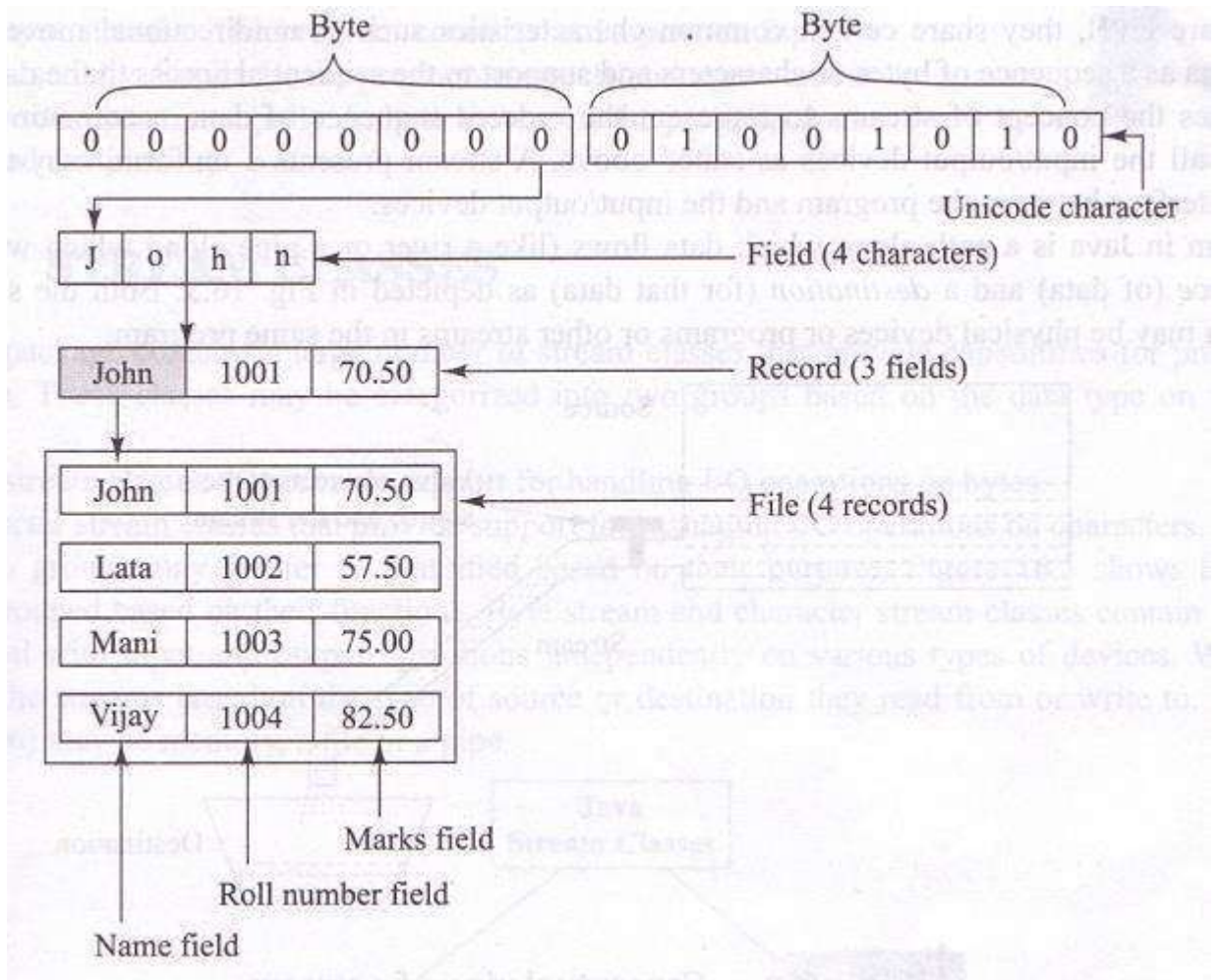


## MANAGING INPUT/OUTPUT FILES IN JAVA INTRODUCTION

### ION

- ✓ A file is a collection of records placed in a particular area on the disk.
- ✓ A record is composed of several fields, which is a group of characters.
- ✓ Characters in Java are Unicode characters composed of two bytes, each byte containing eight binary digits, 1 or 0.

- ✓ Storing and managing data using files is known as file processing which includes tasks such as creating files, updating files and manipulation of data.
- ✓ Java supports many powerful features for managing input and output of data using files.
- ✓ The process of reading and writing objects is called object serialization.

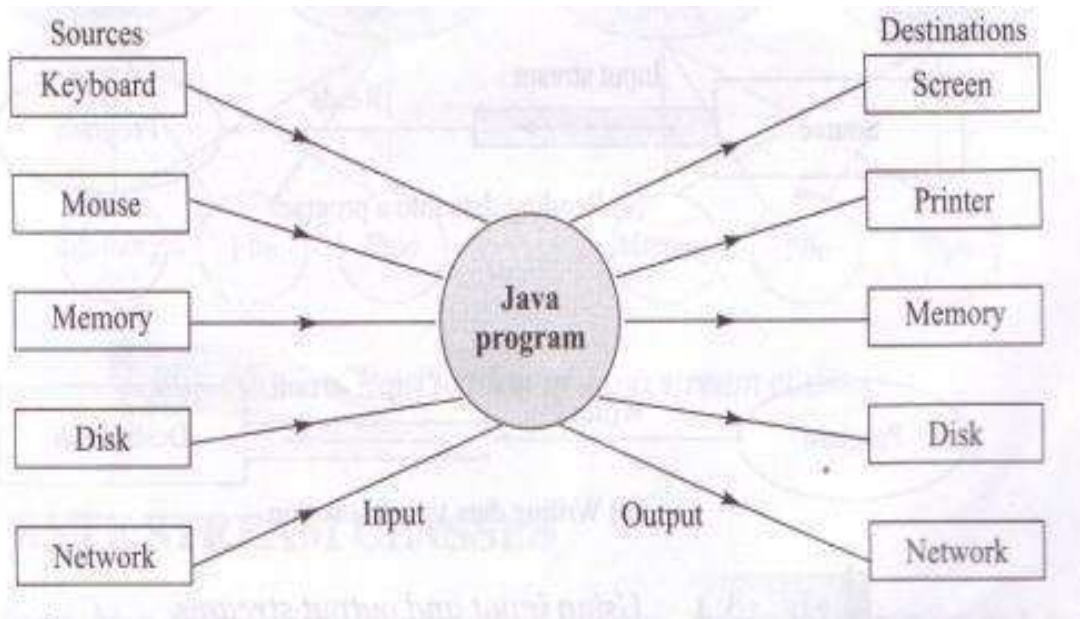


### Data representation in Java files

### CONCEPT OF STREAMS

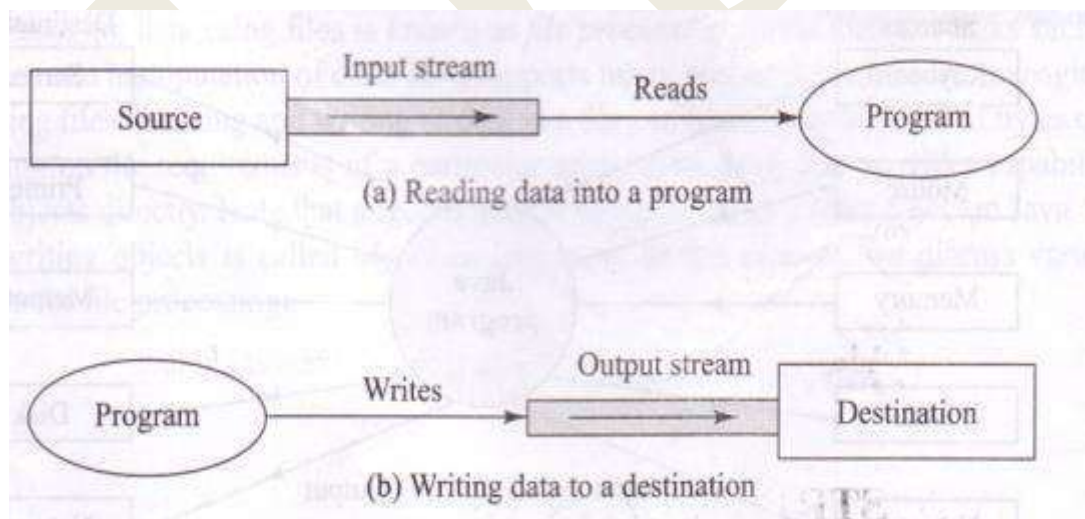
- ✓ In file processing, input refers to the flow of data into a program and output means the flow of data out of a program.
- ✓ Input to a program may come from the keyboard, the mouse, the memory, the disk, a network, or another program.
- ✓ Output from a program may go to the screen, the printer, the memory, the disk, or another program.





**Relationship of Java program with I/O devices**

- ✓ A stream in Java is a path along which data flows.
- ✓ It has a source and a destination.
- ✓ Both the source and the destination may be physical devices or programs or other streams in the same program.
- ✓ Java streams are classified into two basic types, namely **input stream** and **output stream**.
- ✓ An input stream extracts data from the source (file) and sends it to the program.
- ✓ An output stream takes data from the program and sends it to the destination (file). The following figure illustrates the use of input and output streams.

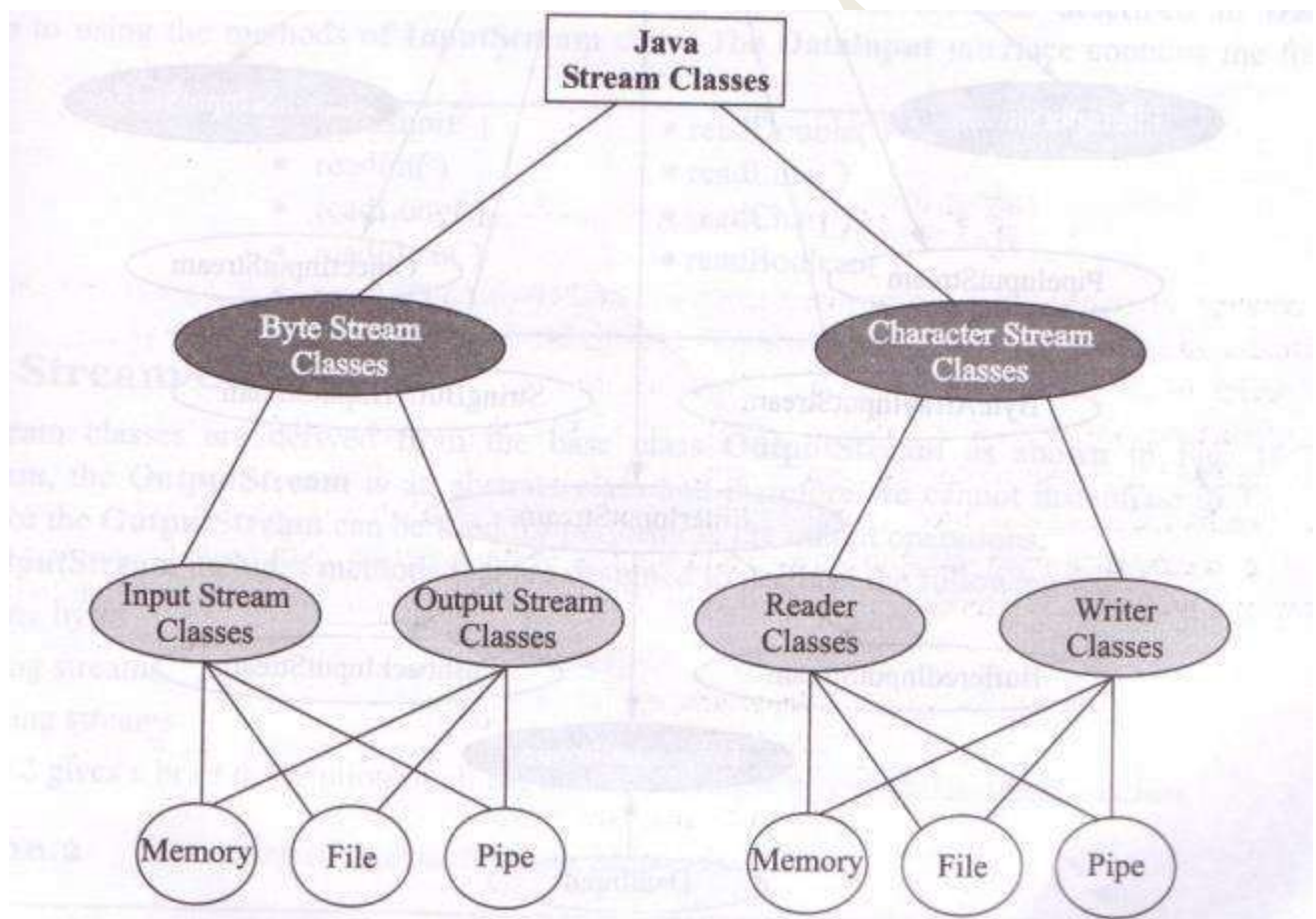


**Using input and output streams**



## STREAM CLASSES

- ❖ The **java.io** package contains a large number of stream classes that provide capabilities for processing all types of data.
- ❖ These classes may be categorized into two groups based on the data type on which they operate.
  1. Byte stream classes that provide support for handling I/O operations on bytes.
  2. Character stream classes that provide support for managing I/O operations on characters.



**Classification of java stream classes**

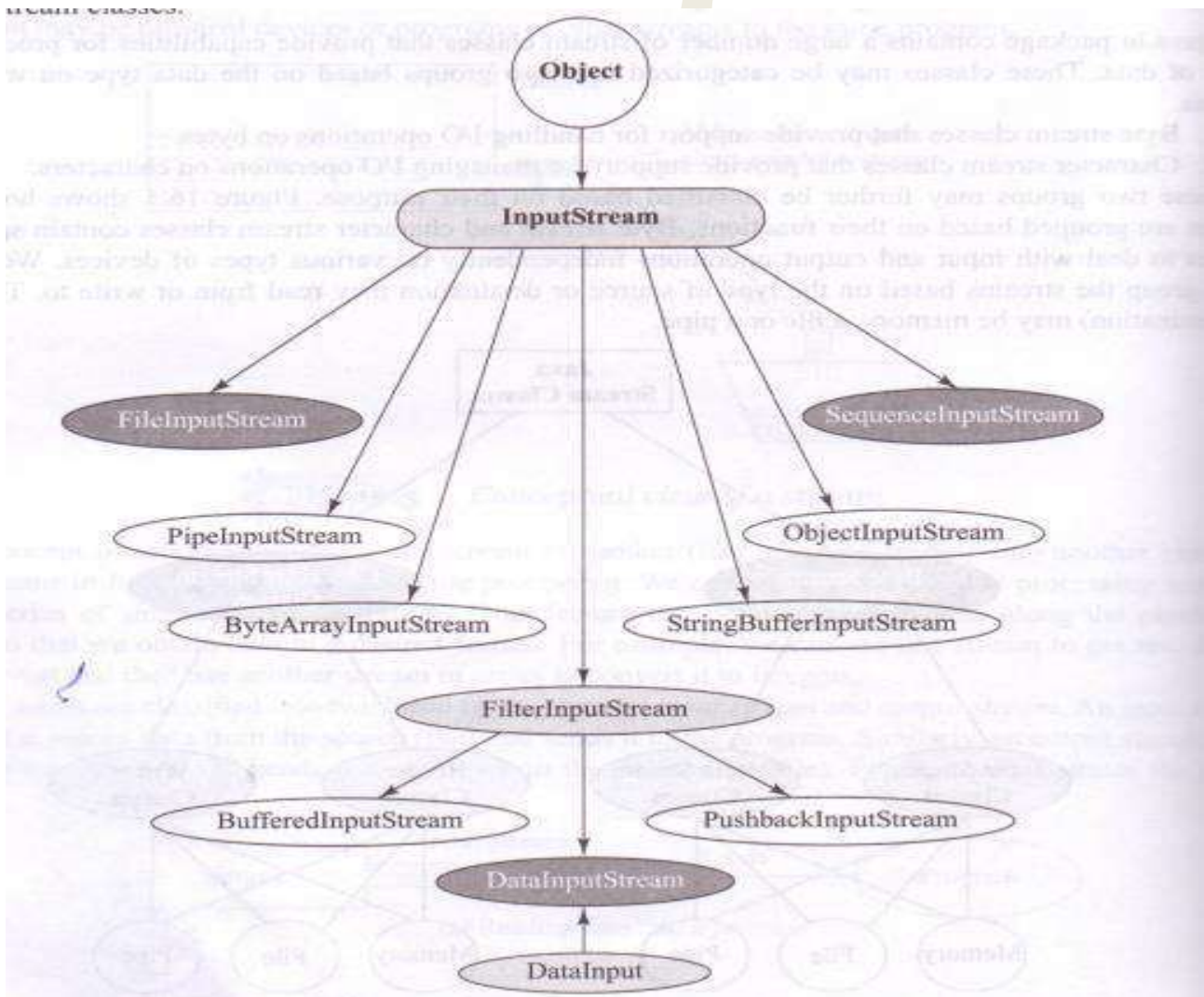
## BYTESTREAMCLASSES

- ✓ Bytestreamclasses have been designed to provide functional features for creating and manipulating streams and files for reading and writing bytes.
- ✓ Since the streams are unidirectional, they can transmit bytes in only one direction.
- ✓ Java provides two kinds of byte stream classes:
  - Inputstreamclasses
  - Outputstreamclasses

### Inputstreamclasses

Input stream classes that are used to read 8-bit bytes include a super class known as **InputStream** and a number of subclasses for supporting various input-related functions. The following figure shows the hierarchy of input stream classes.

Hierarchy of input stream classes



The **InputStream** class defines methods for performing input functions such as

- Reading bytes
- Closing streams
- Making positions in streams
- Skipping ahead in a stream
- Finding the number of bytes in a stream

### InputStream methods

Method	Description
1. read ( )	Reads a byte from the input stream
2. read (byte b[ ])	Reads an array of bytes into b
3. read (byte b[ ], int n, int m)	Reads m bytes into b starting from nth byte
4. available( )	Gives number of bytes available in the input
5. skip(n)	Skips over n bytes from the input stream
6. reset( )	Goes back to the beginning of the stream
7. close( )	Closes the input stream

**DataInputStream** extends **FilterInputStream** and implements the interface **DataInput**. The **DataInput** interface contains the following methods.

• readShort( )	• readDouble( )
• readInt( )	• readLine( )
• readLong( )	• readChar( )
• readFloat( )	• readBoolean( )
• readUTF( )	

The **OutputStream** includes methods that are redesigned to perform the following tasks:

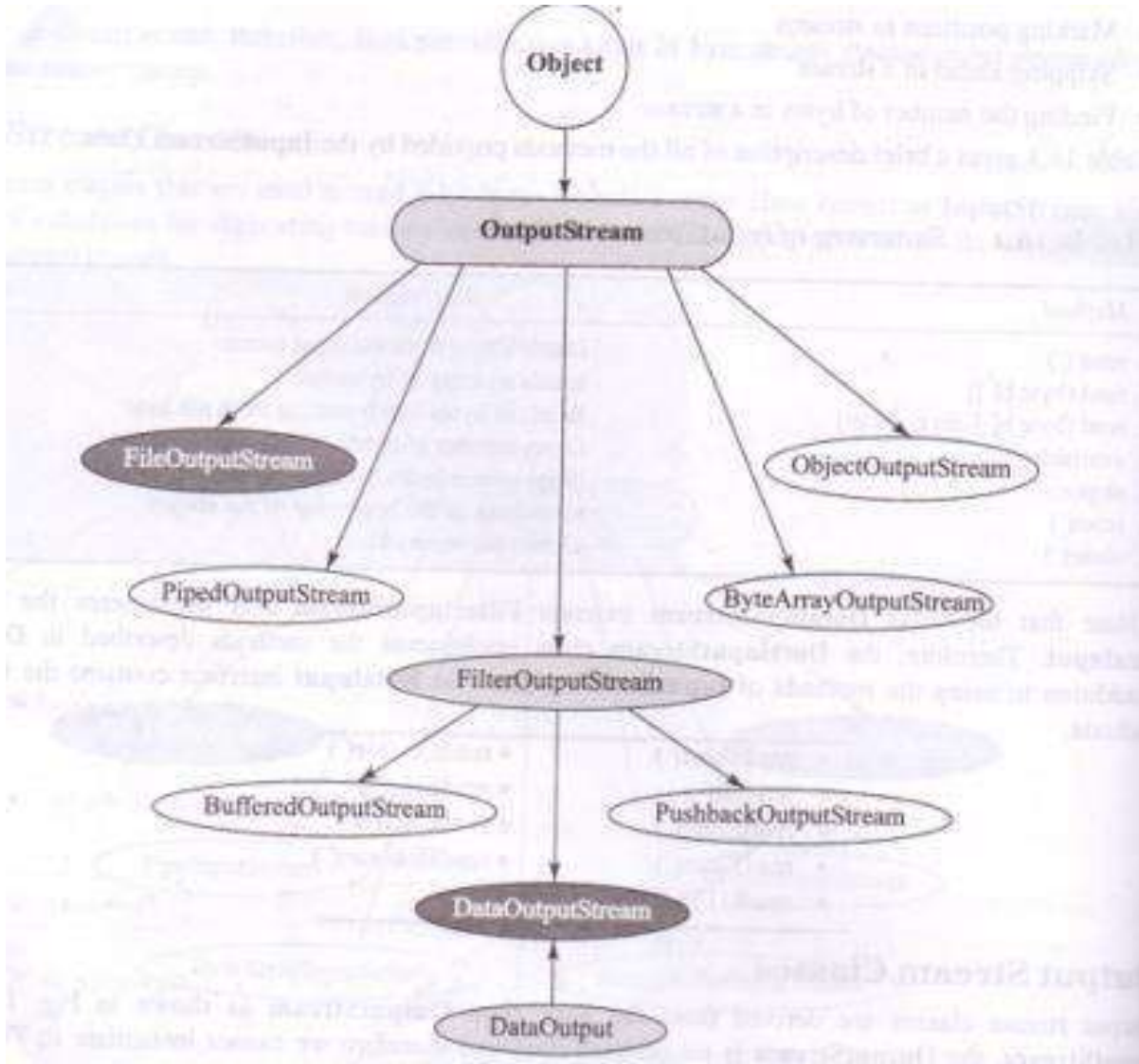
- Writing bytes
- Closing streams
- Flushing streams

### OutputStream Methods

Method	Description
1. write ( )	Writes a byte to the output stream
2. write (byte b[ ])	Writes all bytes in the array b to the output stream
3. write (byte b[ ], int n, int m)	Writes m bytes from array b starting from nth byte
4. close( )	Closes the output stream
5. flush( )	Flushes the output stream



## Hierarchy of output stream classes



The **DataOutputStream**, a counterpart of **DataInputStream**, implements the interface **DataOutput** and, therefore, implements the following methods contained in **DataOutput** interface.

- |                |                  |
|----------------|------------------|
| • writeShort() | • writeDouble()  |
| • writeInt()   | • writeBytes()   |
| • writeLong()  | • writeChar()    |
| • writeFloat() | • writeBoolean() |
| • writeUTF()   |                  |

## CHARACTER STREAM CLASSES

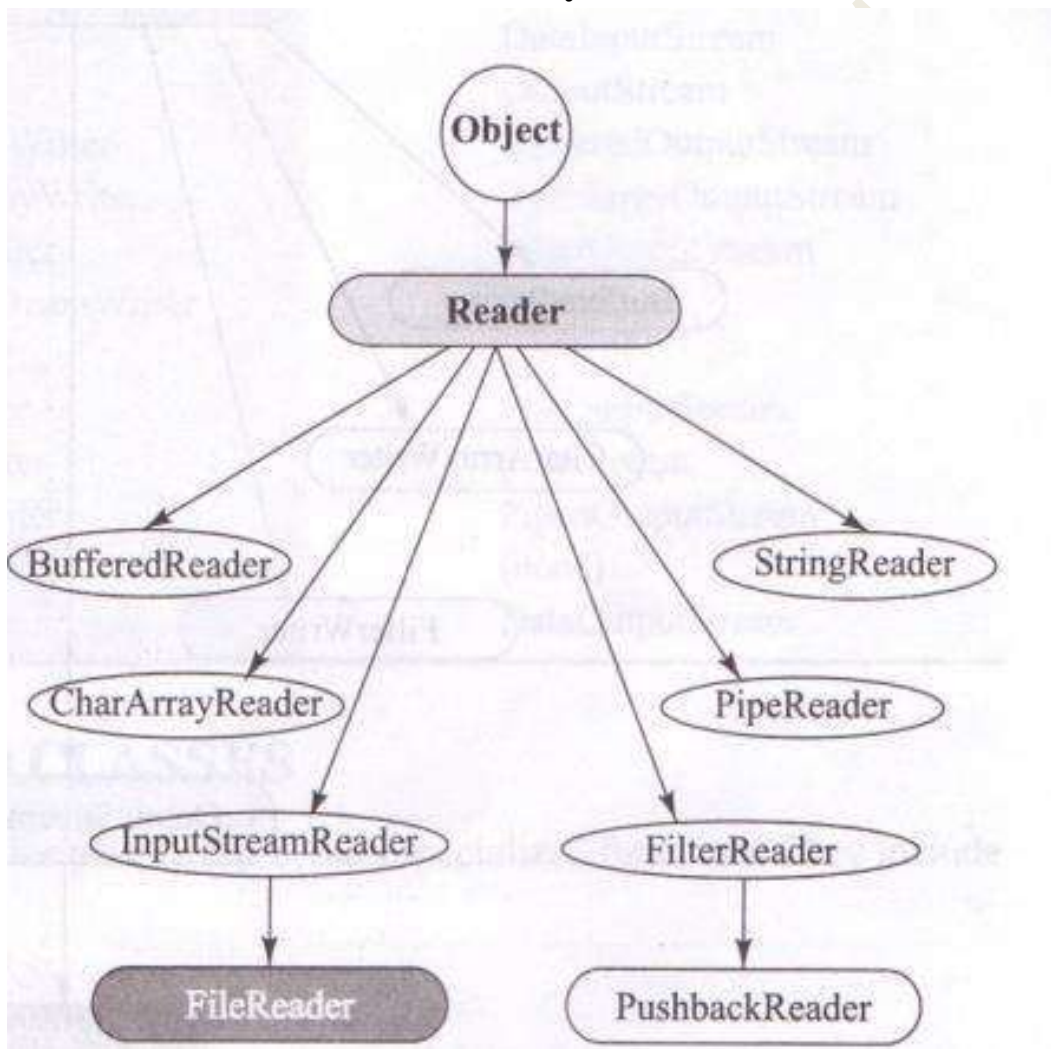
- ✓ Character stream classes can be used to read and write 16-bit Unicode characters.

- ✓ There are two kinds of character stream classes, namely, reader stream classes and writer stream classes.

### Reader Stream Classes

- ❖ Reader stream classes are designed to read character from the files.
- ❖ **Reader** class is the base class for all other classes in this group.
- ❖ The **Reader** class contains methods that are identical to those available in the **InputStream** class, except **Reader** is designed to handle characters.

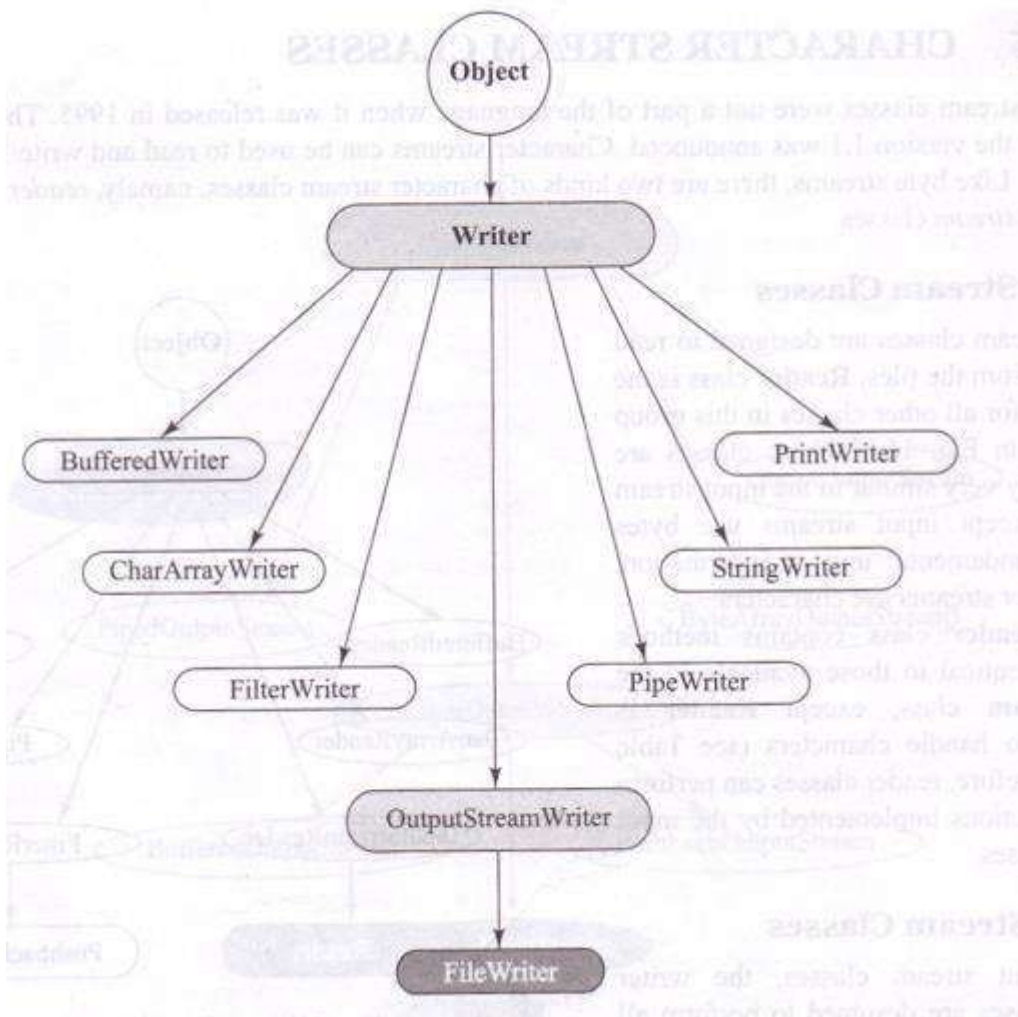
### Hierarchy of reader stream classes



### Writer Stream Classes

- ❖ The writer stream classes are designed to perform all output operations on files.
- ❖ Only difference is that while output stream classes are designed to write bytes, the writer stream classes are designed to write characters.

## Hierarchy of writer stream classes



## USING STREAMS

- ✓ The various types of input and output stream classes used for handling both 16-bit characters and 8-bit bytes.
- ✓ All the classes are known as I/O classes, not all of them are used for reading and writing operations only.
- ✓ Some perform operations such as buffering, filtering, data conversion, counting and concatenation while carrying out I/O tasks.

## List of Tasks and Classes Implementing Them



<i>Task</i>	<i>Character Stream Class</i>	<i>Byte Stream Class</i>
Performing input operations	Reader	InputStream
Buffering input	BufferedReader	BufferedInputStream
Keeping track of line numbers	LineNumberReader	LineNumberInputStream
Reading from an array	CharArrayReader	ByteArrayInputStream
Translating byte stream into a character stream	InputStreamReader	(none)
Reading from files	FileReader	FileInputStream

<i>Task</i>	<i>Character Stream Class</i>	<i>Byte Stream Class</i>
Filtering the input	FilterReader	FilterInputStream
Pushing back characters/bytes	PushbackReader	PushbackInputStream
Reading from a pipe	PipedReader	PipedInputStream
Reading from a string	StringReader	StringBufferInputStream
Reading primitive types	(none)	DataInputStream
Performing output operations	Writer	OutputStream
Buffering output	BufferedWriter	BufferedOutputStream
Writing to an array	CharArrayWriter	ByteArrayOutputStream
Filtering the output	FilterWriter	FilterOutputStream
Translating character stream into a byte stream	OutputStreamWriter	(none)
Writing to a file	FileWriter	FileOutputStream
Printing values and objects	PrintWriter	printStream
Writing to a pipe	PipedWriter	PipedOutputStream
Writing to a string	StringWriter	(none)
Writing primitive types	(none)	DataOutputStream

## USING THE FILE CLASS

- ✓ The **java.io** package includes a class known as the **File** class that provides support for creating files and directories.
- ✓ The class includes several constructors for instantiating the File objects.
- ✓ This class also contains several methods for supporting the operations such as
  - Creating a file
  - Opening a file
  - Closing a file
  - Deleting a file
  - Getting the name of a file
  - Getting the size of a file
  - Checking the existence of a file
  - Renaming a file
  - Checking whether the file is writable
  - Checking whether the file is readable

## CREATION OF FILES

If we want to create and use a disk file, we need to decide the following about the file and its intended purpose:

- Suitable name for the file
  - Data type to be stored
  - Purpose (reading, writing, or updating)
  - Method of creating the file
- ✓ A filename is a unique string of characters that helps identify a file on the disk.
  - ✓ A filename may contain two parts, a primary name and an optional period with extension.
  - ✓ Examples:

input.data	salary
test.doc	student.txt
inventory	rand.dat

- ✓ Data type is important to decide the type of file stream classes to be used for handling the data.
- ✓ We should decide whether the data to be handled is in the form of characters, bytes or primitive type.
- ✓ The purpose of using a file must also be decided before using it. For example, we know whether the file is created for reading only, or writing only, or both the operations.
- ✓ For using a file, it must be opened first. This is done by creating a file stream and then linking it to the filename.
- ✓ The common stream classes used for various I/O operations are given in the following table:

### Common stream classes used for I/O operations

Source or Destination	Characters		Bytes	
	Read	Write	Read	Write
Memory	CharArrayReader	CharArrayWriter	ByteArrayInputStream	ByteArrayOutputStream
File	FileReader	FileWriter	FileInputStream	FileOutputStream
Pipe	PipedReader	PipedWriter	PipedInputStream	PipedOutputStream

- ❖ There are two ways of initializing the file stream objects.
- ❖ All of the constructors require that we provide the name of the file either directly, or indirectly by giving a file object that has already been assigned a filename. The following code segment illustrates the use of direct approach.

```

FileInputStream fis; try
{
    fis = new FileInputStream("test.dat");
    .....
}
catch (IOException e)
.....
    
```



The indirect approach uses a file object that has been initialized with the desired filename. This is illustrated by the following code.

```

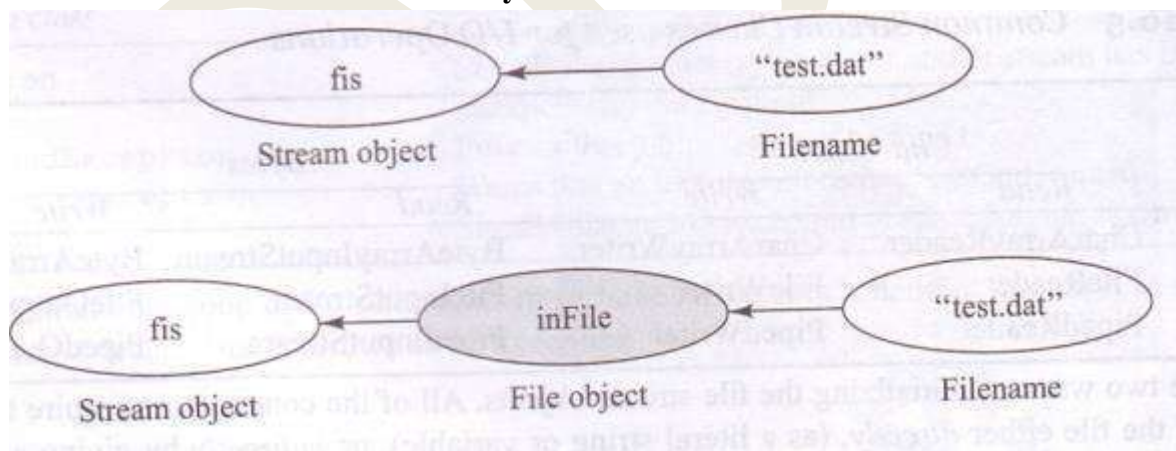
.....
.....
File inFile;
InFile = new File
("test.dat");
FileInputStream
fis;
try
{
    fis=newFileInputStream(inFile);
    .....
}
catch (.....)
.....

```

The code above includes five tasks:

- Select a filename
- Declare the file object
- Give the selected name to the file object declared
- Declare a file stream object
- Connect the file to the file stream object
- Both the approaches are illustrated in the following figure:

### Hierarchy of writer stream classes



### READING/WRITING CHARACTERS

The two subclasses used for handling characters in files are FileReader (for reading characters) and FileWriter (for writing characters). The following program uses these two file stream classes to copy the contents of a file named "input.dat" into a file called "output.dat".

```

import java.io.*;
class CopyCharacters
{

```

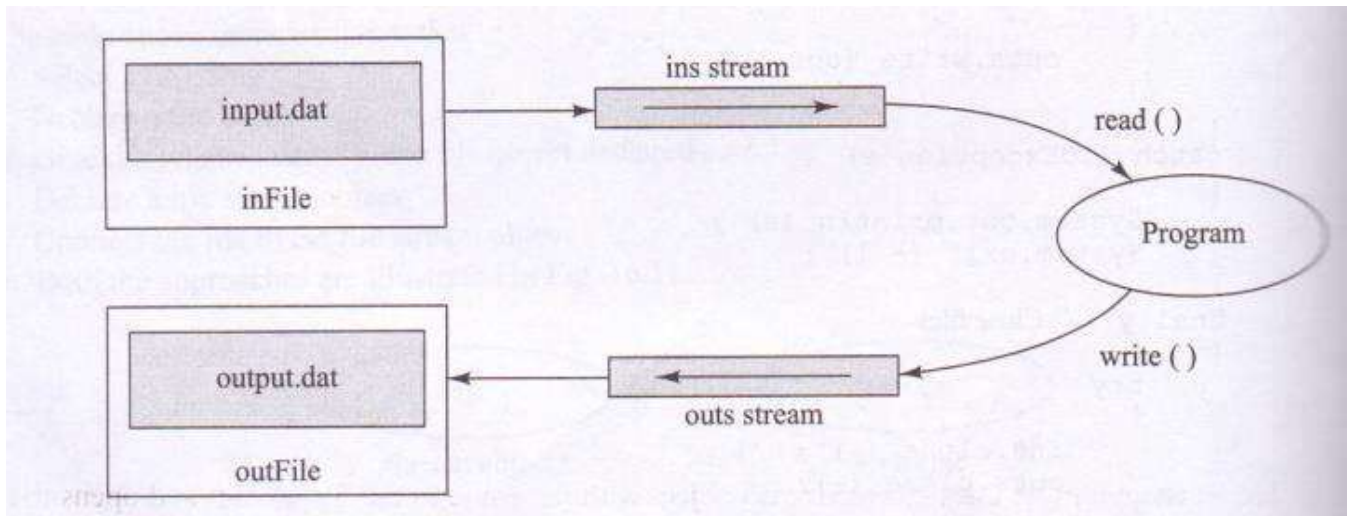
```

public static void main(String args[] )
{
    File inFile = new File("input.dat"); File outFile = new File("output.dat");
    FileReader ins = null; // creates file stream ins
    FileWriter outs = null; // creates file stream
    try
    {
        ins = new FileReader(inFile); // opens inFile
        outs = new FileWriter(outFile); // opens outFile

        int ch;
        while((ch = ins.read()) != -1)
        {
            outs.write(ch);
        }
    }
    catch (IOException e)
    {
        System.out.println(e);
        System.exit(-1);
    }
    finally // close files
    {
        try
        {
            ins.close();
            outs.close();
        }
        catch (IOException e) {}
    }
}

```

The concept of using file streams and file objects for reading and writing characters in the above program is illustrated in the following figure:



### Reading from and writing to files

#### READING/WRITING BYTES

The following program demonstrates how **FileOutputStream** class is used for writing bytes to a file. The program writes the names of some cities stored in a byte array to a new file named "city.txt". We can verify the contents of the file by using the command `type city.txt`

Example:

```

//writing byte to a file in
port
java.io.*;class Write
Bytes
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        //declare and initialize a byte array
        byte cities[] = {'D','E','L','H','I','*'\n','M','A','D','R','A','S','*\n',
            'L','O','N','D','O','N'}

        // create an output file
        stream FileOutputStream outFile = null;
        try
        {
            //connect the output stream to "city.txt"
            outFile = new FileOutputStream("city.txt");
            //write data to the stream outFile
            outFile.write(cities);
            outFile.close();
        }
        catch(IOException ioe)
    }
}
  
```

```

        {
            System.out.println(ioe);
            System.exit(-1);
        }
    }
}

```

Output:

```

typecity.txt
        DELHI
            MADRAS
                LONDON

```

The following program shows how **FileInputStream** class is used for reading bytes from a file. The program reads an existing file and displays its bytes on the screen. We run this program, we must first create a file for it to read. We may use this program to read the file city.txt created in above program.

Example:

```

// reading bytes from a
fileimport java.io.*;
class ReadBytes
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        // create an input file
        FileInputStream infile
        = null; int b;
        try
        {
            // connect the input stream to
            the required file
            infile = new FileInputStream(ar
            gs[0]);
            // read and display data
            While((b=infile.read())!=-1)
            {
                System.out.println((char)b);
            }
            Infile.close();
        }
        catch(IOException ioe)
        {
            System.out.println(ioe);
        }
    }
}

```

The program displays the following when we supply the filename "city.txt".

Prompt>javaReadBytescity.txt

DELHI

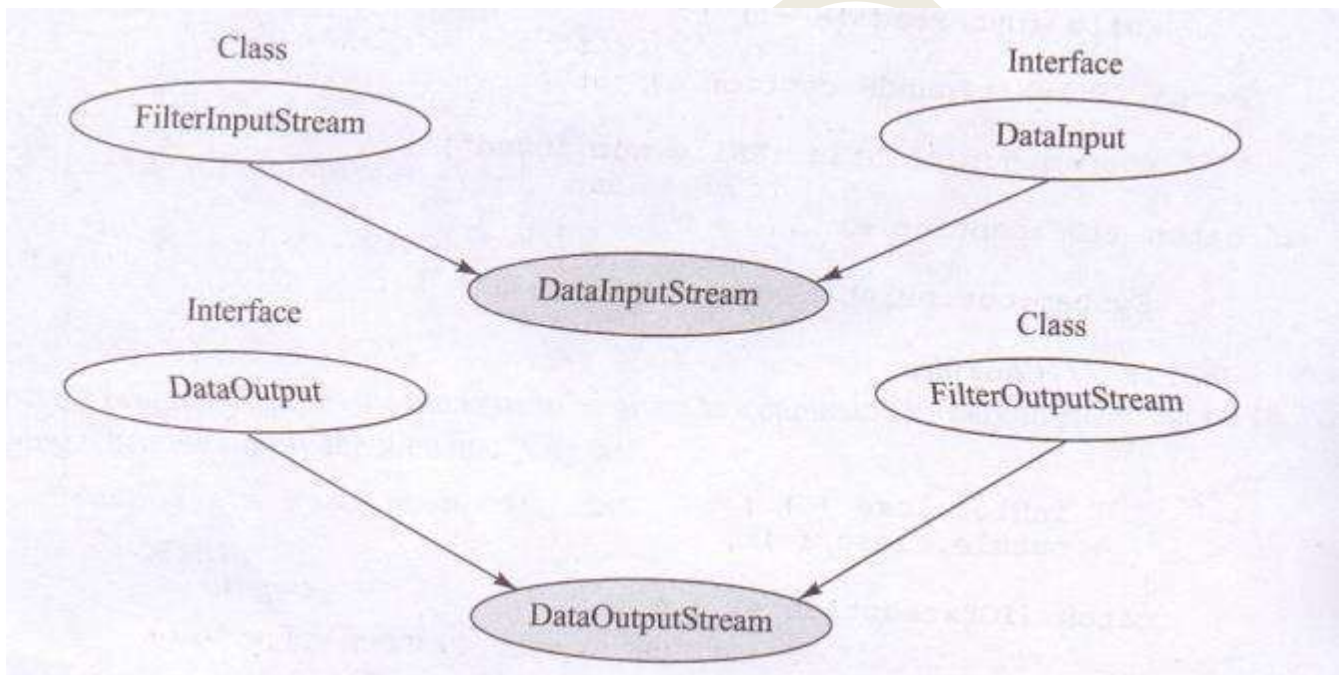
MADRAS

LONDON

## HANDLING PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES

- ✓ Two filter classes used for creating “data streams” for handling primitive types are **DataInputStream** and **DataOutputStream**. These classes use the concepts of multiple inheritance as shown in the following figure.

Hierarchy of data stream classes



A data stream for input can be created as follows:

```
FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream
(infile); DataInputStream dis = new DataInputStream(
fis);
```

These statements first create the input file stream `fis` and then create the input data stream `dis`. These statements basically wrap `dis` on `fis` and use it as a “filter”. Similarly, the following statements create the output data stream `dos` and wrap it over the output file stream `fos`.

```
FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream(outfile); DataOutputSt
ream dos = new DataOutputStream(fos);
```

Example:

```
// reading and writing primitive
data import java.io.*;
class ReadWritePrimitive
```

```

{
    public static void main(String args[]) throws IOException
    {
        File primitive = new File("prim.dat");
        FileOutputStream fos = new FileOutputStream
        (primitive); DataOutputStream dos
        = new DataOutputStream(fos);
        // write primitive data to the "prim.dat" file
        dos.writeInt(1999); dos.writeDouble(375.85); do
        s.writeBoolean(false); dos.writeChar('X');
        fos.close();
        // read data from the "prim.dat" file
        FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream(primitive); DataInput
        Stream dis = new DataInputStream(fis);
        System.out.println(dis.readInt()); System
        .out.println(dis.readDouble()); System.out
        .println(dis.readBoolean()); System.out.pri
        ntln(dis.readChar()); dis.close();
        fis.close();
    }
}

```

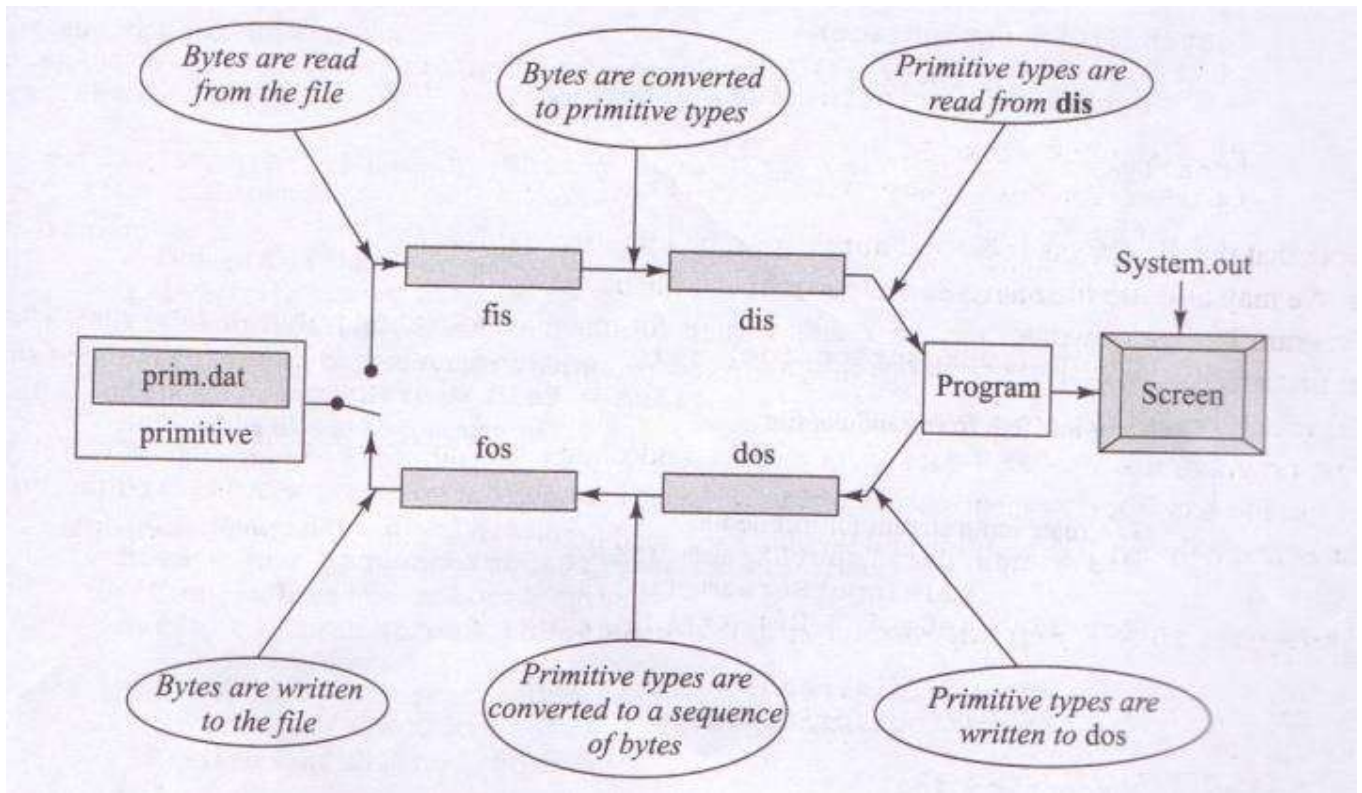
Output:

```

1999
375.75
false
X

```

The data streams used in above program and their functions are illustrated in the following figure:



## CONCATENATING AND BUFFERING FILES

- ✓ It is possible to combine two or more input streams into a single input stream.
- ✓ This process is known as concatenation of files and is achieved using the **SequenceInputStream** class.
- ✓ One of the constructors of this class takes two **InputStream** objects as arguments and combines them to construct a single input stream.
- ✓ Java also supports creation of buffers to store temporarily data that is read from or written to a stream.
- ✓ The process is known as buffered I/O operation.
- ✓ A buffer sits between the program and the source and functions like a filter.
- ✓ Buffer can be created using the **BufferedInputStream** and **BufferedOutputStream**.

Example:

```
import java.io.*;
class SequenceBuffer
{
    public static void main (String args[
    ]) throws IOException
    {
        //declare file streams File Input
        Stream
        file1=null; File Input Stream
        file2=null;
```

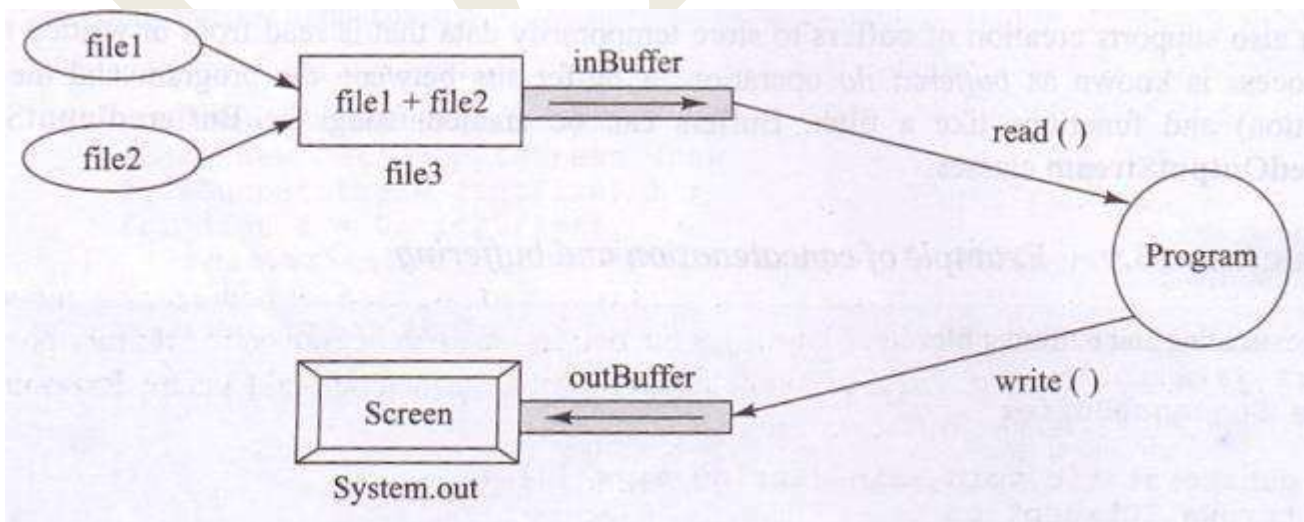


```

//declarefile3tostorecombinedfiles
SequenceInputStreamfile3=null;
//openthefilestobeconcatenatedfile1=new
FileInputStream("text1.dat");
file2=newFileInputStream("text2.dat");
//concatenatefile1andfile2intofile3
file3=newSequenceInputStream(file1,file2);
//createbufferedinputandoutput
streamsBufferedInputStreaminBuffer=
newBuffered
InputStream(file3);BufferedOutputStrea
mOutBuffer=
newBufferedOutputStream(System.out);
//readandwritetilltheend
ofbuffersintch;
while((ch=inBuffer.read())!=-1)
{
outBuffer.write((char)ch);
}
inBuffer.close();ou
tBuffer.close();fil
e1.close();file2.cl
ose();
}
}

```

Theentireprocessofconcatenation,bufferinganddisplayingthecontentsoftwoindependentfilesisillustratedinthefollowingfigure:





## RANDOMACCESSFILES

- ✓ Files can be used either for “read only” or for “write only” operations and not for both purposes simultaneously.
- ✓ These files are read or written only sequentially and, therefore, are known as sequential files.
- ✓ **Random Access File** class supported by the **Java.io** package allows us to create files that can be used for reading and writing data with random access.
- ✓ such files are known as random access files.
- ✓ A file can be created and opened for random access by giving a mode string as a parameter to the constructor when we open the file. We can use one of the following two mode strings:
- ✓ “r” for reading only
- ✓ “rw” for both reading and writing
- ✓ An existing file can be updated using the “rw” mode.

**Example:** impor

```
t
java.io.*;classR
andomIO
{
    publicstaticvoid main(stringargs[])
    {
        RandomAccessFile
        file=null;try
        {
            file=newRandomAccessFile(“rand.dat”,“rw”);
            //Writing to the
            filefile.WriteChar(‘X’);file.writeInt
            (555);file.writeDouble(3.1412);file
            .seek(0);//Gotothebeginning
            //Reading from the
            fileSystem.out.println(file.readChar());
            System.out.println(file.readInt());
            System.out.println(file.readDouble
            ());file.seek(2);//Go to the second
            itemSystem.out.println(file.readInt());
            //Go to the end and append false to the
            filefile.seek(file.length());file.writeBoolean(f
            alse);
            file.seek(4);System.out.println(file.read
            Boolean());file.close();
        }
        catch(IOExceptione){System.out.println(e);}
    }
}
```

The program opens a random access file and then performs the following operations.

1. Writes three items of

data x

555

3.1412

2. Brings the file pointer to the

beginning

3. Reads and displays all the three

items

x55

5

3.1412

4. Takes the pointer to the second item and then reads and displays the second item in the file.

555

5. Places the pointer at the end using the method length() and then adds a Boolean item to the file.

6. Finally, takes the pointer to the fourth item and displays it.

7. At the end, closes the file.

The output on the screen would appear as follows: x

555

3.1412

555

false

## QUESTIONS

### 2 Marks

1. Write any two methods of graphics class.
2. Define object serialization.
3. What do you mean by file processing?
4. What are two types of streams?
5. What are the input functions performed by the input stream class?
6. Write down the input stream methods.
7. What are the output stream methods used in java?
8. Define random access file.

### 5 Marks

1. How will you draw lines and rectangles using graphics class method?
2. Explain about control loops in applets.
3. Write short notes on stream classes.
4. Explain about types of byte stream classes.
5. Describe about reader and writer stream classes.
6. What are the uses of file class?
7. Write in detail about common stream classes used for I/O operations.

**10Marks**

1. Explain in detail about random access files.
2. Write short notes on handling primitive data types.

**UNIT V COMPLETED**

DBC